An Exploratory Study on the Role of Stakeholder Management in the Implementation of Smart Government Projects in the UAE

دراسة استكشافية عن دور إدارة أصحاب المصلحة في تنفيذ مشاريع الحكومة الذكية في دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة

by

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ABSTRACT

An Exploratory Study on the Role of Stakeholder Management in the Implementation of Smart Government Projects in the UAE

By Taher Al Braik AL Ameri

The extant literature on stakeholder theory describes it as a vital managerial tool for establishing relationships across various organisational domains and establishing product/or service value. Although there is not an accepted universal definition to explain what constitutes a stakeholder, the foundational concept which is a normative view derived from the social and behavioural sciences, defines stakeholders as "all of those groups and individuals that can affect or are affected by the accomplishment of organisational purpose (Freeman, 1984, p. 46). Undoubtedly, this definition suggests that a clear connection exist and the ''economic value is created by people who voluntarily come together and cooperate to improve everyone's circumstance'' (Freeman et al., 2004, p. 364).

Using a stakeholder theory framework, this qualitative study investigated the relationship between stakeholder management practices and stakeholder involvement relative to m-government and e-Government smart technologies used in the UAE. Thus, within the organisational context face-to-face interviews were conducted with a sample of 25 diverse stakeholders from three different public-sector organisations. The results of the study presented four themes that underscored the importance of the stakeholder relationship in influencing product/or service value among digital consumers.

In addition, the interviews revealed that internal and external stakeholder support is associated with facilitating higher customer usage of mobile and electronic government application technologies. Therefore, the central value of the present research study is that it improves the

understanding of how stakeholder management is key to maintaining stakeholder retention and commitment relative to achieving smart government objectives. Given the priority of smart government initiatives in the UAE, stakeholder influence is essential to improving consumer acceptance and satisfaction with new mobile technology applications.

Key Words: Project Management, Smart Government, Stakeholder Management, Stakeholder Theory

ABSTRACT IN ARABIC

موجز

تصف الأدبيات الموجودة حول نظرية أصحاب المصلحة (الشركاء) بأنها أداة إدارية حيوية لإقامة علاقات عبر مختلف المجالات التنظيمية والمؤسسية و ذلك لتحديد قيمة المنتج / الخدمة. على الرغم من عدم وجود تعريف عالمي مقبول لشرح ما الذي يشكل صاحب مصلحة ، فإن المفهوم الأساسي الذي يعتبر وجهة نظر معيارية مستمدة من العلوم الاجتماعية والسلوكية ، يعرف أصحاب المصلحة على أنهم "كل تلك المجموعات والأفراد الذين يمكنهم التأثير على الإنجاز أو يتأثرون به لأغراض تنظيمية (فريمان ، 1984 ، ص 46). مما لا شك فيه ، يشير هذا التعريف إلى وجود صلة واضحة وأن "القيمة الاقتصادية تنشأ عن أشخاص يتجمعون طواعية ويتعاونون لتحسين ظروف كل فرد" (فريمان وآخرون ، 2004 ، ص 364) .

باستخدام إطار نظرية أصحاب المصلحة ، بحثت هذه الدراسة النوعية العلاقة بين ممارسات إدارة أصحاب المصلحة وإشراك أصحاب المصلحة بالنسبة لتقنيات الحكومة الإلكترونية والحكومة الذكية المستخدمة في دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة. وهكذا ، في السياق التنظيمي ، أجريت مقابلات شخصية مع عينة من 25 من أصحاب المصلحة المتنوعين الذين ينتمون ثلاث منظمات مختلفة من القطاع العام في الدولة. قدمت نتائج الدراسة أربعة محاور أكدت أهمية العلاقة بين أصحاب المصلحة في التأثير على قيمة المنتج / الخدمة بين المستهلكين الرقميين.

بالإضافة إلى ذلك ، كشفت المقابلات أن دعم أصحاب المصلحة الداخليين والخارجيين يرتبط بتسهيل زيادة استخدام العملاء لتقنيات و تطبيقات الحكومة الذكية عبر الجوال. لذلك ، فإن القيمة المركزية للدراسة البحثية الحالية هي أنها تعمل على تحسين فهم كيفية إدارة أصحاب المصلحة الرئيسية للحفاظ على إلتزام أصحاب المصلحة بالنسبة لتحقيق أهداف الحكومة الذكية. بالنظر إلى أولوية المبادرات الحكومية الذكية في دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة ، فإن تأثير أصحاب المصلحة ضروري لتحسين قبول المستهلكين ورضاهم عن تطبيقات تكنولوجيا الهاتف المحمول الجديدة.

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Thank You!

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LIST OF DEFINITIONS

e-Government is broadly defined as the use of electronic access to information and communication technologies (ICT) to improve the delivery of services, information, and activities for public sector organisations.

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) is a broad term that includes any communication device (i.e., mobile phone, tablet, system network) or application.

Instrumental Stakeholder refers to how organisations or firms achieve organisational objectives through stakeholder management.

m-Government refers to the use of mobile technology to access government services. Mobile devices include cellular or mobile phones, laptop computers, personal digital assistants (PDAs) and wireless internet infrastructure.

Normative Stakeholder refers to how businesses operate, especially concerning established moral principles within the context of a business or organisational enterprise.

Project Management (PM) is the application of knowledge, skills, tools, planning strategies and methodologies used to execute a project or accomplish project goals.

Smart Government refers to a government that uses technology to provide public information, data, and services to citizens using an ICT web-based platform.

Stakeholder Theory is broadly defined as "any group or individual that is affected by, or that can affect the achievement of an organisational objective "(Freeman, 1984, p. 46)

Stakeholder Management is a business management strategy designed to identify and engage stakeholders for successful project delivery.

Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use Technology (UTAUT) refers to critical stages associated with information systems consumer experiences using mobile or desktop technologies to interact digitally.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CC	**Contested Concept**
CSF	**Critical Success Factors**
CSR	**Corporate Social Responsibility**
CSV	**Critical Shared Values**
ICT	**Information Communication Technology**
IT	**Information Technology**
KPI	**Key Performance Indicator**
NGO	**Non-Government Organisation**
PM	**Project Management**
QFD	**Quality Function Deployment**
ST	**Stakeholder Theory**
SRI	**Stanford Research Institute**
TQM	**Total Quality Management**
TRA	**Telecommunications Regulatory Authority**
UAE	**United Arab Emirates**
UTAUT	**United Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology**
VOC	**Voice of the Customer**

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction to the Research Topic

Located within the Arabian Gulf, the United Arab Emirates (UAE) government has seven emirates that consist of Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Sharjah, Ajman, Ras al Khaimah, Fujairah, and Umm al Oaiwain. Since the government became an independent and sovereign nation in 1971, with the signing of the Proclamation of Union, it has experienced multiple administrative reform movements relative to building an effective and efficient digital government (Rahman, Albalooshi, & Sarker, 2015).

As part of the country's mobile initiative to utilise information technology (IT) to improve interactions between government and society and the quality of life for citizens, the UAE has developed new "smart" government priorities to improve access and quality of service delivery (Ali, Green, & Robb, 2015). By offering enhanced information and communication technologies (ICT) at the federal, state, and local level, this initiative is considered a key component of the UAE 2021 Golden Jubilee National Agenda. With smart government directives issued at the start of 2013, the ruler of Dubai, Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum in the UAE stated,

> "This initiative is part of the UAE's larger effort to make digital technology, networks, and apps a central part of how it operates and interacts with citizens. By May 2015, the UAE hopes to have all government departments providing a one-stop store for apps and enabling all transaction through a single log-in. It will allow the public to interact with government departments using their smartphones any time, and any day of the year." (cited in Newcombe, 2014)

The term “smart” relative to the government technological context is broadly defined and has multiple definitions related to the socio-technical discourse (Albino, Berardi, & Dangelico, 2015) and public service and public support functionality at the organisational level (Kling & Lamb, 2000). The first definition is defined by Andrea Di Maio, who stated: “smart government integrates information, communication and operational technologies in planning, management, and operations across multiple domains, process areas, and jurisdictions to generate sustainable public value.” The second definition is defined as “a government with “Social, Mobile, Analytics, Rational-Openness, and Trust characteristics (World Bank, 2014). The third definition offered by Gil-Garcia, Pardo, and Aldama-Nalda (2013) is described as a creative mix of emerging technologies and innovation in the public sector.

Although there are several working definitions that describe the purpose and goals of smart government, the critical elements in each definition focus on a paradigmatic shift from institution-focused to citizen-centered, integrated technological services, and showing a robust public value as an essential organisational benefit to enhance public trust among various stakeholder groups. Conceptually, the idea of utilising electronic government (e-Government) and mobile government (m-Government) as an ICT strategy to build collaborative relationships with internal and external stakeholders in various geographical locations is not a new phenomenon (Rahman et al., 2012).

Notably, in the UAE, e-Government access to digital information online, such as making customer payments was launched in 2001 with *eDirham* and then in 2005 with the launching of an e-Government portal. Next in 2013 with the development of smart government initiatives (mobile technology or m-Government), this was viewed by ICT advocates as an advanced

version of e-Government digital services (Anthopoulos & Reddick, 2016; Gulf News, 2015; Rahman et al., 2015).

1.2 Overview of ICT in the Public Sector

From a global perspective, the implementation of contemporary information systems and communication technological developments (ICT) have made rapid progress in the last decade of the 20th century. With regard to government and private sector organisations, delivering web-based business services and engaging internet users in online interactions have made cities smarter (Gil-Garcia & Pardo, 2006). With a significant shift in the allocation of government funds used to support e-Government and fund the growth of advanced technologies for the general citizenry, the relationship between government agencies and its constituents has undergone a positive transformation.

The digital-era, which consist of the internet and the World Wide Web (Shareef et al., 2012), has revolutionized how the government conducts business transactions and provides services to various communities daily. The internet, web usage, satellite, and smart technology have transformed urban and rural environments within a short time by bringing customers and clients closer to the local government agencies they interact with regularly (Rahman et al., 2012). The development of advanced services using ICT methods has changed how government agencies provide information on medicine, law, and educational services. Also, digital communication has changed how providers interact with e-Government customers to transact business and meet their individual service needs as government partners, private businesses, and citizens (Akman et al., 2005; Maitland & Bauer, 2001).

Electronic government or e-Government is a self-service process that uses the internet and other ICT tools for electronic delivery of information and services (Maitland and Bauer, 2001).

e-Government is also defined as a flexible process that links people digitally to the government to access information and facilities offered by government agencies (Lau et al., 2008). Another definition of e-Government is described as the use of ICT, especially the internet to access integrated government services as stakeholders (Rahman et al., 2012). For example, the benefits of e-Government include, filing income taxes, scheduling an appointment, sending emails, sharing open data, and making payments online (Bateson, 1985; Meuter, Ostrom, Roundtree, & Bitner, 2000). According to Meuter et al. (2000), most people prefer online interactions rather than standing in line to conduct brief business transactions. Moreover, the added benefit for government agencies to expand ICT access is having a more transparent and cost-effective strategy to meet the basic service needs of citizens through online activity (Atkinson & Castro, 2008).

1.3 Evaluating ICT Needs

Thus, given the importance of maintaining effective and efficient e-Government systems that are citizen-centered, the United Nations (U.N.; 2008), administered a Web Measure Index survey to evaluate e-Government advancements and infrastructure developments for its 192-member countries. Utilising a comparative ranking system, this methodology is an assessment instrument that evaluates ICT dimensions (e.g., website, telecommunication infrastructure, human resource endowment) to determine the strength and weaknesses of the member's online presence (United Nations, 2018). It can also effectively deliver online services and distribute web-based information to a broader base of constituents. Therefore, the Web Measure Index is applied using four critical stages that are listed below (United Nations, 2018):

Stage 1. Emerging is a government's online presence in the form of a web page and may have information about the country's departments and ministries including education, health, social welfare, labour, and finance.

Stage 2. Enhanced refers to the accessibility of information and the government's ability to deliver policy information to citizens.

Stage 3. Transactional refers to the online interactive two-way communication function connected to the downloading of forms for convenient access provided to the requester. Thus, the relationship between citizens and government and the ability of government to provide online access to business and information public services with 24/7 availability is enhanced.

Stage 4. Connected refers to integrated government services that can meet the needs of the citizens. In the last stage, improvement is closely dependent on the engagement of citizens in the decision-making process of e-Government planning and activities (United Nations, 2015, p. 16). Characteristic of this stage, which is viewed as the most important among the five stages, includes horizontal connections (government agencies), vertical connections (central and local government agencies), infrastructure connections (interoperability issues), and connections between citizens and stakeholders (government, private sector, academics) (United Nations, 2008). Thus, according to the U.N., the failure of ICT outcomes usually is less about the technical issues and are more connected to the inability of the government to innovate workers to change the technological culture and develop the advanced skills necessary to deliver quality services to the public sector (United Nations, 2008).

1.4 Understanding Smart Government

Identified as a higher form of e-Government, smart initiatives in the UAE public sector offer flexible ICT access to organisational information and services using smart technologies (Rahman et al., 2012). From a social value perspective, Di Maio and Howard (2017) describes smart government as an innovative effort to integrate digital information, communication, and operational technologies across multiple domains and jurisdictions using both e-Government and m-Government to deliver public value. Another description of smart government offered by Gil et al. (2014) and Hartley (2005) is described as an emerging technology and city innovation (e.g., blogs, social media, RSS feeds, online open data) provided to improve operational efficiency in the public sector. From a governance perspective, smart government is the next generation of e-Government, which continues to connect government offices to its consumer base and stakeholders using different types of mobile technologies (Ali, Green, Robb, 2015; Rahman et al., 2015).

With a focus on delivering a client-centered service approach, the smart government initiative is one of the essential national strategies initiated in the public sector. In sum, it has the potential to improve the effectiveness of government services and programs, engage citizens online 24/7 from anywhere, and lower overhead cost at the service level (Al-Khouri, 2014; Atkinson & Castro, 2008). However, drawing from the literature review, it's important to note that there are some challenges from a managerial standpoint and citizen-client perspective that must be examined to address problems linked to (a) lower citizen usage of smart mobile services (m-Government) to access online services, and (b) slow progress of government agencies to fully comply with offering an open and integrated system with broad access to government functions and sharing information online.

Although e-Government experts have empirically studied the fundamental advantages of adopting the usage of smart government and e-Government services, several authors have also reported complex challenges at the citizen, technological, and government levels (see Jaeger & Thompson, 2003; Kurunananda & Weerakkody, 2006; Ndou, 2004). Chircu and Hae-Dong Lee (2005) noted access issues; Carter and Weerakkody (2008) suggested security concerns; Al-Serbi and Irani (2005) pointed to individual user difficulties; and Carter and Belanger (2005) referred to the digital divide as a potentially problem area that may reduce the effectiveness of smart government and e-Government among consumer stakeholders.

Additionally, recent research has shown that the failure of e-Government to operate successfully over the long-term, is partially linked to poor project planning, poor stakeholder support, lack of technical expertise, and inability to manage high non-technical risks (Nam & Pardo, 2011). For instance, Nam and Pardo reported issues with poor policy planning, poor strategic planning, low executive or managerial support, focus on technology-driven solutions for non-technical problems, and poor alignment between project goals and organisational goals as obstacles that can impede the progress of e-Government project initiatives.

Moreover, Heeks (2006) performed extensive research on project management activity in the public sector and reported that 35% of public sector ICT or e-Government projects failed due to reasons associated with poor project design of ICT projects. Thus, these are just a few of the problematic concerns that cause smart government projects to fail in the public sector. In effect, vital operational factors such as identifying the methodology, identifying significant stakeholders, and selecting an analysis framework to evaluate user outcome before starting the project management implementation stage (Giffinger & Gudrun, 2010).

1.5 Problem Statement

The goal of this study is to address the problem that in the information and communication technology (ICT) field there is a tendency to investigate technical issues related to the electronic distribution of information and technology services instead of non-technical challenges, especially those concerning the UAE context (Almuraqab & Jasimuddin, 2017; Pierce & Andersson, 2017; Rahman, Albalooshi, Sarker, 2015). Therefore, as a result, few studies have explored or addressed problems associated with the correlates of project management planning and stakeholder involvement and end-user factors that explain e-Government and m-Government performance outcomes (see Almuraqab & Jasimuddin, 2017; Bailur, 2006; Baron, 2012). Hence, the narrow focus on technical issues instead of placing attention on effective project management (PM) planning and non-technical limitations has resulted in the following implementation concerns (Radman et al., 2015),

- Non-technical and system process challenges are often understudied in the research literature.
- Citizen adoption of online smart government applications is low in comparison to e-Government users.
- Reasons for the failure of past e-Government projects in the UAE are not thoroughly examined.
- Lack of best practice research has partly hindered the implementation of smart projects.
- Low stakeholder involvement in project management planning and with the implementation of smart projects.

Thus, regarding the concerns mentioned above, the UAE established ICT performance indicators to produce better data and results to advance smart government initiatives between 2015 and 2018 relative to the UAE Vision 2021 National Plan (Abednego, 2006; Almuraqab &

Jasimuddin, 2017; Radman et al., 2015; TRA, 2015). In addition, there are several inter-organisational concerns to be addressed: (1) lack of professional support between public agencies; (2) slow acceptance of smart government by business partners and critical constituents; and (3) failure of some public agencies to develop integrated mobile applications for consumers (see Figure 1; Rahman et al., 2015).

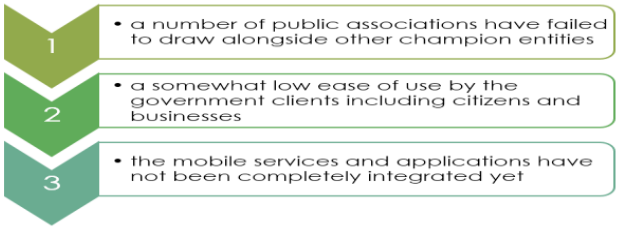

Figure 1. Concerns Regarding Smart Government (Rahman et al., 2015).

To address the noted PM concerns, previous solutions proposed in the literature that attracted the attention of senior managers working in public sector organisations are the following:

1. Provide incentives to constituents that have not integrated smart technologies.
2. Increase public relation activities to promote smart government access (i.e., teach mindfulness strategies, deliver group-based presentations, and conduct peer marketing campaigns (Wright, 1997).
3. Develop remote security systems and applications to build client trust in securing online privacy (Young, 2012).
4. Explain the public benefit and obligation of public and private sector organisations to satisfy the expectations of its citizenry and to increase their willingness to adopt smart government initiatives (Zhai, 2009).

However, at this time there is little information examining project management methodologies, salient stakeholder involvement, and project planning strategies to improve the implementation process and user acceptance of new ICT/IT developments in the UAE context (Almuraquab, Jasimuddin, Mansoor, 2017). Thus, in considering the six steps connected to project management (i.e., initiation, definition, design, development, implementation, and follow-up) this research study focuses on the non-technological aspects that impact

implementation and usage outcome of new IT/ICT innovations. Specifically, the researcher explores the relationship between project management planning and stakeholder involvement, and internal and external consumer stakeholder acceptance of mobile smart government initiatives.

The results and implications of this empirical study are beneficial to ICT managers, project consultants, UAE government officials, and the Telecommunications Regulatory Authority (TRA) unit because it may improve their practical understanding of the stakeholder relationship and how it impacts IT/ICT challenges associated with building a "smartness" infrastructure in the UAE. With the knowledge derived from the research findings, relative to the importance of stakeholder input and involvement in project planning and implementation, the development phases may result in new strategies to enhance the success of government-led smartness initiatives in the UAE.

1.6 Research Questions

The present research study investigates the relationship between project management outcomes and stakeholder involvement to increase the understanding of how stakeholders contribute to IT/ICT smart user acceptance in the context of the UAE. The following research questions are:

1. What are the major non-technical constructs (stakeholder involvement, management, marketing strategies) that hinder or support IT/ICT smart government initiatives?
2. What organisational leadership practices contribute to the effectiveness of smart government implementation activities?
3. Is the stakeholder model a viable method to improve citizen usage of smart government (mobile phone application) technology?

4. What leadership practices are central or key to sustaining internal and external project-stakeholder involvement in technology-driven projects?

1.7 Study Aim and Objectives

The overall objectives of this research study are linked to exploring the non-technical factors that affect the execution of advance Smart Government initiatives in the UAE. Additionally, the researcher explains the beneficial relationship between stakeholders and public-sector organisations in shaping the outcomes associated with smart government projects. Therefore, the following objectives of this study, which helped define the research questions are as follows,

- Identify the empirical research literature related to the domains of project management (PM) and stakeholder theory to understand the factors that lead to the success or failure of smart government initiatives in the public sector.
- Explore the importance of the project management-stakeholder relationship and how it impacts project outcomes, specifically the challenges associated with PM planning strategies in the UAE.
- Examine the leadership skills that contribute to continuous stakeholder involvement in the smart technology implementation of e-Government and m-Government initiatives.

1.8 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical considerations for this research study are grounded in the Stakeholder Theory framework and the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) adoption theory. These are viewed as major theoretical frameworks used in field-based organisational studies and information technology systems research. Conceptually, the origin of

Freeman's (1984) stakeholder framework theory derives from four main disciplines: (a) the social sciences, (b) ethics, (c) economics, and (d) management theory (Mainards, Alves, & Raposo, 2012). Stakeholder theory is formally defined by Freeman (1984) as "any group or individual that is affected by or can affect the achievements of an organisation" (p. 46), thus suggesting that stakeholder involvement is detrimental to project success. Understanding the importance of stakeholder theory, practitioners have adopted the practice of stakeholder management as an organisational strategy used by for-profit firms and public-sector organisations to stress the invaluable role of the stakeholder relationship and how it impacts the achievement of project goals (Eskerod, Huemann, & Ringhofer, 2015; Missonier & Loufrani-Fedida, 2014). Also, it should be noted that the stakeholder management approach is an integral part of the project planning process and is applicable across other organisational domains (Scholl, 2001).

Like private sector organisations, the success or failure of project goals is partly due to stakeholder relationship issues rather than technical challenges, which is why examining the role of internal and external stakeholder commitment across different organisational types is viewed as important (Roode et al., 2004; Tinoco, Sato, & Hasan, 2016). In other words, investigating the stakeholder relationship and management strategies is necessary for any organisational structure (Bond, 2016). This line of thinking represents similar perspectives noted by academicians and practitioners in the PM science literature (Missonier & Loufrani-Fedida, 2014; Scholl, 2001).

As for the consumer usage and adoption of new ICT technologies, Venkatesh (2000) and Venkatesh and colleagues (2003) asserted that the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) model is an adoption theory to help understand user behaviour (customers or clients) and determine why they accept or reject the use of ICT to access online digital

services. According to Almuraqab et al. (2017), UTAUT is a validated theoretical model commonly used in technology and user acceptance research studies. The user acceptance adoption model has four main dimensions that can determine the public's acceptance of technology (e.g., performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence, facilitation conditions), and explain why consumer stakeholders may utilise new technology and experience a positive response with using mobile computing applications to access services.

The UTAUT theoretical framework was used by the researcher for three important reasons: (1) greater awareness of reasons for user acceptance or rejection, (2) can be applied to explain electronic and mobile end-user behavior, and (3) helped interpret the findings and answer the research questions connected to consumer usage behaviour, adoption, rejection, and satisfaction with smart government developments. Therefore, the stakeholder management and UTAUT frameworks helped to understand the importance of stakeholder relationships, e-Government, and m-Government experiences through qualitative research conducted with an adequate sample of stakeholders.

1.9 Research Methodology and Analysis

The methodology employed for this research study is a qualitative approach using template analysis as a flexible thematic technique to chart and compare different contextual perspectives (Brooks, McCluskey, Turley, & King, 2015). Considering the importance of the topic under analysis, the benefits of utilising a qualitative approach was gaining underlying verbal information on: (1) awareness of smart government access; (2) stakeholders' active usage of accessing information using mobile devices; (3) individual challenges experienced by internal and external stakeholders; and (4) textual criticism, which is information that quantitative methods cannot linguistically capture (Adler & Adler, 1998).

It was employed by the researcher to collect original verbal or textual data from stakeholders; which included project managers, ICT specialist, business consultants, consumers, and UAE government officials, that served as the study sample. Before the interview sessions started, the informed participant consent form was signed and collected as a first step toward the interview process. Interview participants completed a brief demographic questionnaire developed by the researcher to learn more about the participants background. The demographic information sheet asked participants to indicate their gender, age, work role, tenure in the workplace, the highest level of education, leadership or non-leadership role, and years of experience in the field of project management and ICT. The face-to-face (i.e., online video conferencing was an option) semi-structured interviews were conducted to gather original information related to six different e-Government categories.

The six sections of the interview protocol were: (a) Smart Government Initiatives, (b) Project Management Planning and Leadership, (c) Technology, (d) Stakeholder Involvement (e) Environmental Context, and (f) People and Communities. These six categories, which were informed from review of the literature, had a total of 14 open-ended questions linked to project management practices, project challenges, the involvement of stakeholders in the PM planning process, and factors that led to the success or failure of ICT projects. The entire interview was expected to take 30 to 40 minutes with each participant.

Once all interviews were completed, fully transcribed, and coded using a thematic analysis approach, a template analysis technique was used to analyze and compare the collected data. The researcher and two research assistants focused on gaining useful information on the relationship experience on smart government and stakeholder involvement and how smart project planning can be improved within their organizations. Therefore, by using the template analysis approach

to examine and compare the data, thematic categories were extracted from the textual findings to answer the research questions.

1.10 Study Participants

Using purposive sampling and other sampling methods to assure adequate representation among the 25 participants, this study consisted of three different representative stakeholder groups recruited from three government sites: (a) Abu Dhabi Police Department (GHQ), (b) Abu Dhabi Municipality, and (c) Telecommunications Regulatory Authority (TRA). The study participants are government stakeholders (employees), community stakeholders (consumers), or non-government organisation partners (business affiliates and consultants) that were involved in developing or launching smart government IT/ICT initiatives in the UAE. The diverse internal and external stakeholders that volunteered as participants for the present research study have either employment tenure in the UAE, IT/ICT work experience, or knowledge of the ICT vision and transition from e-Government to m-Government smart government initiatives.

1.11 Significance of the Study

The information gathered from the interview findings will contribute to future research by identifying key factors that affected e-Government and m-Government outcomes in public-sector organisations. Further, the findings expands the existing literature on project management practices that affect the achievement of project goals relative to the UAE. Additionally, by emphasizing a stakeholder orientation, this study may also help to improve the understanding of the factors that influence user satisfaction and affect low usage of new smart technology in the UAE. Both the findings and implications should draw managerial attention to the value of

salient stakeholder's input in strategic planning and implementing smart government initiatives in different constituent markets.

1.12 Delimitations of the Study

The research study focused on three research sites in the context of public-sector organisations: (a) Abu Dhabi Police Department (GHQ), (b) Abu Dhabi Municipality, and (c) Telecommunications Regulatory Authority (TRA). Therefore, the study sample that served as research participants had similar demographic attributes, which naturally limits the generalizability to other cultural and ethnic groups. Thus, the finding must be taken with caution when generalized to other public-sector settings and populations.

1.13 Chapter Summary

This chapter introduced the research topic on stakeholder management and stakeholder influence at the organisational level, presented the research questions, and outlined the qualitative methodological approach employed to gather first-hand information on current stakeholder practices and participation in smart government projects. The sample employed for this investigative study was also introduced, and limitations linked to the study was discussed.

1.14 Organization of the Thesis

This qualitative research study is divided into seven chapters, with chapter one presenting an introduction and overview of the investigative study. Chapter two presents a detailed review of the general literature relative to stakeholder theory and organisational studies. Chapter three provides a review of the literature specific to marketing and smart technology. Chapter four presents an overview of the research methodology approach, a description of the research

participants, the analysis procedure, and limitations of the study. Chapter five reports the research findings derived from the interview data. Chapter six discusses the study implications of the study findings relative to the field of smart government and stakeholder involvement. Chapter seven reports the research conclusion and responds to the research questions and provides recommendations that can be considered for different organisation types.

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review on Stakeholder

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an in-depth examination of the research literature pertaining to stakeholder theory and smart city planning, stakeholder interactions, and project implementation at the government and organisational level. This chapter is divided into several sections that discuss smart city development, stakeholder theory, stakeholder relationship, project management, leadership orientations, and the voice of stakeholders to satisfy consumer quality expectations.

2.2 Overview of ICT Developments

With the establishment of smart government technology in the UAE, other municipal governments, such as China, South Korea, North American, and European countries (Almuraqab & Jasimuddin, 2016; Kim, 2013; Radman et al., 2012; Saleem 2016), have also developed an ICT infrastructure to deliver integrated government services online to their constituents. With a commitment to becoming a strong, smart government, the leadership in the UAE has allocated significant financial and human resources toward advancing innovative smart government technology (Rahman et al., 2015).

The UAE government, at multiple levels (e.g., federal, state, local) have embraced a forward-looking mindset and commitment toward continued digital growth, which in the past two decades has successfully delivered e-Government services to various stakeholder markets. The earlier acceptance of e-Government in the UAE by consumer stakeholders established the foundational groundwork for new smart applications and business developments linked to open

data center economies and more extensive services and information delivery systems (Saleem, 2016).

In looking at project management planning relative to performance monitoring of government archetypes and utilising best practice strategies, the government has effectively created new relationships with citizens and other stakeholders (TRA, 2015). As a result, this is espoused as producing the success of e-Government functions for the last 20 years (Rahman et al., 2015). During the implementation of e-Government initiatives, several key units were engaged in the IS transformational process (see Figure 2). Conceptually, figure 2 denotes the team of UAE salient stakeholders involved to inform and support the smart city infrastructure implementation phase, which includes the Prime Minister's Office (PMO), TRA smart government unit, TRA director, select advisory committee members, and salient external stakeholders (TRA, 2014, 2015).

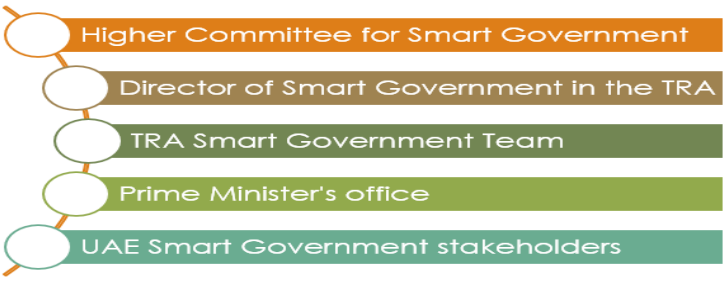

Figure 2. ICT Government Stakeholders (TRA, 2014).

The country's transition from e-Government to m-Government initiatives (mobile technology) required collaborative stakeholder involvement throughout each implementation stage from marketing to usage monitoring (TRA, 2014, 2015). The continued marketing and promotion of using smart technology to access government services online is especially critical

to producing a higher satisfaction rate among those consumer groups identified as having a lower usage rate. Thus, the goals herein for the UAE government public-sector is to increase consumer access of smart government services using mobile applications and technology (e.g., mobile phone, PDA) by 2018 from 82% to 100%. Thus, to evaluate the digital performance of the smart initiatives, the government established key performance indicators (KPIs) and procedures to measure consumer usage and effectiveness over time (Emirates, 2015).

The Telecommunications Regulatory Authority (TRA), which monitors and measures KPI progress of Smart technology activity, specifically assesses improvements and digital traffic of the usage of m-Government for government officials and organisational administrators (Atkinson, 2006; TRA, 2015). Hence, these regular evaluative efforts conducted by TRA, potentially help smart government officials, managers, and smart technology specialist to address the non-technical and technical issues that negatively impact the ICT expansion and consumer satisfaction (TRA, 2014).

2.2.1 Defining Stakeholder Theory

In the organisational literature, the stakeholder term has multiple contextual meanings. A "Stake" is defined as one that has an interest or a share in the operations of a business organisation (Carroll, 1999). In their later work, Carroll and Buchholz (2012) refined the definition in simpler terms "The stake is an interest in or share of an undertaking" (p. 65). Furthermore, Buchholtz and her colleague suggest that having a moral right is a stake in a situation (Buchholtz & Carroll, 2008). For instance, it is reasoned that an employer should consider the implications of organisational change upon the well-being of employees that have an interrelated link to the organisation (Laszlo et al., 2005). Essentially, in the strategic management field individuals with a stake in an organisation or business enterprise are perceived

as constituents that contribute to the success and sustainability of an organisation (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012).

Thus, conceptually "stake" basically means that a stakeholder has a shared value and genuine interest in the organisation. The definition of one who is a "stakeholder" is defined by the online Merriam Webster Dictionary (n.d.), as "one who is involved in or affected by a course of action." At the individual level, a stakeholder can also be defined as one that can affect or is affected by the implementation of a project (Nangoli et al., 2012). Whereas, at the organisational level, multiple-stakeholder network pertains to having collective group participation from citizens, businesses, and government agencies to help find solutions to problems that may impact stakeholders (Roloff, 2008; Zaheer & Bell, 2005).

Given the importance of the stakeholder role, Preston and Donaldson (1999) and Rowley (1997) in their research traced the use of the word "stake" in the term "stakeholder" and found similar usages that predate Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory. For instance, General Electric (GE) during the era of the great depression in the United States (i.e., 1929-1941) used the term stakeholder (Mishra & Mishra, 2013).

Within that earlier period, they identified four stakeholder groups linked to the GE organisation: (a) employees, (b) customers, (c) shareholders, and (d) general public. Post et al. (2002) posited that in 1918 "Mary Parker Follett was the first author to develop the stakeholder concept, without actually using the term" (p.18). Moreover, Ramírez (1999) contends that the origin of the term 'stakeholder'' was used in the seventeenth century to describe a third party that was entrusted to hold the "stakes" of a bet. Freeman and Reed (1983) on the other hand, contend that conceptually, the origin of the term "stakeholder" was first introduced formally by the Stanford Research Institute (SRI) in a 1963 internal memorandum.

It was during a period when organisations in the context of business management started studying the growing importance and influence of external stakeholders on the ethical conduct and performance of the organisation (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). According to Parmar et al. (2014) and Freeman (1984), in the SRI report, the term stakeholder was used in place of "stockholder" to influence organisations to focus on non-stockholding or shareholding groups connected to the firm. The report broadly referred to customers, shareowners, employees, suppliers, lenders, and community members as the stakeholders. Further, use of the term "stakeholder,'' in the internal SRI memorandum, described them as ''those groups without whose support the organisation would cease putting a stake in stakeholder theory to exist'' (Freeman & Reed, 1983, p. 89). In general, it suggested that managers in the private sector needed to take into consideration the input, interests, and concerns of employees and customers and not just shareholders when establishing business goals and objectives (Freeman, 1984; Polonsky, 1995; Stoney & Winstanley, 2001).

Conceptually, although the earlier use of the term stakeholder originated with SRI, it is university professor R. Edward Freeman (1984), that is credited with introducing the contemporary use of the term stakeholder theory in his groundbreaking book "Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach," which argued that managers are not just accountable to shareholders with interests in profit value or advisory boards, but also internal and external groups that influence the success and growth of an organisation (Hillenbrand et al., 2015).

Since that earlier period, for the past three decades, the "Stakeholder" concept, which gained momentum in the 1980s and 1990s (Clarkson, 1995; Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Mitchell et al., 1997) has been widely studied by leading academic scholars, management theorist, and ethicist (Miles, 2017). In public and private sector organisations and research

institutions, researchers with different professional and academic backgrounds have investigated and applied stakeholder theory to a range of disciplines from organisational theory, systems theory, management, marketing, labour relations research, human resources, program evaluation, education, and strategic project management (Donaldson & Preston, 1995).

As a result, in the research literature, the term stakeholder denotes different viewpoints and meanings that are relevant to the academic field and management practitioners. Arguably, it is pointed out that there is not a single accepted definitional meaning of the term stakeholder, although it is evident that the term overlaps with other variations of the term (Polonsky et al., 2003). However, the most commonly accepted description of a stakeholder refers to shared interests and dyadic relationships that affect or influence the success of an organisation or a unit (Freeman, 1999). Also, the classical and most cited definition established by Freeman (1984) is "any group or individual that is affected by or can affect the achievement of an organisational objective" (p. 46). Alternatively, the second definition used in the research literature is, ''any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the firm's objectives'' (Freeman, 1984, p. 25). According to Freeman (1984), there are two primary groups of stakeholders; internal and external within the business environment.

2.2.2 Understanding the Scope of Stakeholder Theory

In looking at the research literature for this study, a sample of eight different definitions and categories for the stakeholder term were found in the business management and marketing strategy literature. Table 1 outlines multiple definitions according to the organisational context.

Table 1
Overview of Stakeholder Definitions and Classifications

Stakeholder Definition	Field of Study	Author/Researcher
Any internal or external group or individual that is affected by or can affect the achievement of an organisational objective	Management and Stakeholder Intrinsic Relationship	Freeman, 1984
At the individual level, a stakeholder is defined as one that can affect or is affected by the implementation of a project	Project Management	Nangoli et al., 2016
An individual or group that is impacted by an organisational decision or action. They can be internal or external groups and have influence over a leader's actions and extend the long-term survival of the firm	Business Ethics	Minoja, 2012
Multiple interdependent stakeholders that can influence organisations directly or indirectly by forming alliances with other stakeholders	Stakeholder Multiplicity	Frooman, 1999
A stakeholder refers to any individual or group that maintains a stake in an organisation in the way that a shareholder possesses corporate shares	Stakeholder Relationship	Fassin, 2009
Stakeholders are constituencies that are affected, either favorably or unfavorably by the operations of the corporation. He presented a framework that examined corporate social responsibility (CSR) behaviour	Business Management	Clarkson Centre of Business Ethics, 1999
Developed a stakeholder influence analysis matrix that categorized stakeholders using four groups: compromiser, solitarian, subordinate, commander and influencer	Stakeholder Influence Networks	Rowley, 1997
Stakeholders claim of salience to the organisation is determined by a managers' perception of three attributes they may possess: power, legitimacy, and urgency.	Classification and Identification of Stakeholder Salience	Mitchell et al., 1997

Source: Sample of Stakeholder Definitions Based on Review of the Literature (created by AL Ameri, 2018).

To fully understand the various meanings; it is suggested that useful schemes, a visual framework, or graphical representation be used to help communicate complex information relative to stakeholder as a theoretical model (Key, 1999; Worren et al., 2002). According to Fassin (2008), he suggests that specific distinct management models may present a visual format to provide greater insight into a theory or information. Conceptually, Freeman (1984) developed a synthesized schema of the stakeholder model, which has gained theoretical attention for over

three decades. Freeman (1984) introduced a graphical presentation of the theory that exhibits a two-way mutual relationship that stakeholders have with a firm or organisation regarding their operations and decision-making processes (Carroll, 2015; Clarkson, 1995; Fassin, 2008, 2009).

In looking at the design of the graphical model (see Figure 3), Evan and Freeman (1988) contend that the ‘‘stakes of each are reciprocal since each can affect the other in terms of harms and benefits as well as rights and duties’’ (p. 101). Thus, this widely accepted map of the stakeholder framework, which was later modified by Freeman (2004) to classify the stakeholder network, represents seven groups linked to the organisation or firm on the graphical scheme. Freeman conceptualized the traditional organisation structure and its stakeholder relationship as the “hub and spoke” model. This first visual design shows the firm as the hub (*center)* of the wheel and the stakeholder network or constituents represent the spokes around the hub (Freeman, 1984; Frooman, 1999). Figure 3 shows the original stakeholder hub and spoke graphical model.

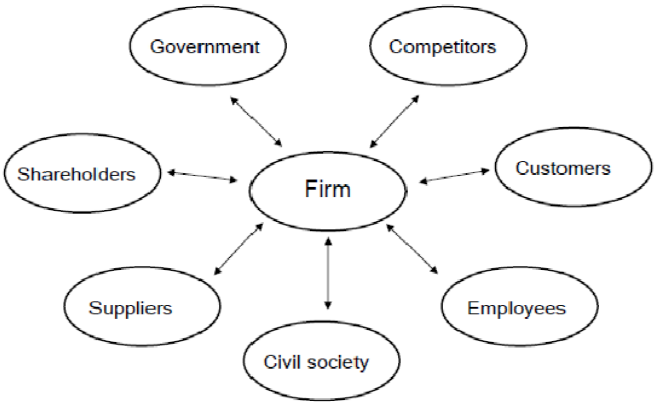

Figure 3. Original Stakeholder Conceptual Model (Freeman, 1984).

In the middle of the concentric ovals, the model shows the “firm” surrounded by outside oval circles identified as sources of network support. The bi-directional arrows pointing (representing dependency and reciprocity) toward the firm (Fassin, 2008) merely emphasizes

stakeholder connections. Evan and Freeman (1988) also commented that the ‘‘stakes of each are reciprocal since each can affect the other in terms of harms and benefits as well as rights and duties’’ (p. 101). As for the external connections, the constituent circles represent multiple mutual relationships that exist between stakeholders and the firm. This visual model shows several segment markets that are considered salient constituents (Clarkson, 1995; Fassin, 2008),

- Customers
- Employees
- Civil Society
- Suppliers
- Shareholders
- Government
- Competitors

Some researchers suggest that the visual representation of the stakeholder model and its simplicity lend more credence to the stakeholder concept (Fassin, 2008). Furthermore, Frooman (1999) adds that in Freeman’s model, the dyadic relationship is emphasized, and constituents are mutually independent of each other.

2.2.3 Stakeholder Theory Framework

The origin of Freeman’s (1984) stakeholder framework derives from four main areas: (a) the social sciences, (b) ethics, (c) economics, and (d) management theory (Mainards, Alves, & Raposo, 2012). According to Fassin (2009), the stakeholder model was mainly inspired by the sociological sciences. Further, Crane and Matten (2004) suggest it parallels with the traditional capitalism input-output four-part model that corporations use to focus on stakeholder groups that

are either: (1) suppliers, (2) employees, (3) shareholders, or (4) clients. In the case of the input-output analysis, Wassily Leontief (1941, 1986) who is an American-Russian economic historian and Harvard professor, is credited with creating this framework. Unlike stakeholder theory, in Leontief's research on the American economic structure, he shows the fiscal impact of establishing a sales-purchase relationship and the financial growth produced by the relationship with salient industries (Leontief, 1999).

In looking at the modified design of the stakeholder model, Freeman (2004) attempts to improve the original stakeholder model, by enhancing clarity and addressing criticisms related to the lack of delineation on who qualifies as important or salient stakeholders (see Figure 4). In this second version of the model, Freeman (2004) adds pressure stakeholders to the model and identifies five instead of seven constituents (shareholders and competitors were excluded) as internal stakeholders. They are: (a) financiers, (b) customers, (c) suppliers, (d) employers, and (e) communities. Next, he added six external stakeholder groups without directional arrows linked to the firm to show that they *do not* have an influential or strong relationship with the firm. They are identified as: government, environmentalist, non-government organisations (NGOs), critics, media, and a category that is listed as other (Fassin, 2008).

In the modified version of the graphical model (see Figure 4), the implication is that the organisation-to-stakeholder relationship is dyadic and mutually interdependent when applied to contextual situations (Frooman, 1999). Researchers examining the various interactions contend that the new design reflects the "mutual dependence between a stakeholder and the firm is represented in the model by the bi-directional arrow" (Crane & Matten, 2004, p. 52; Hill & Jones, 1992).

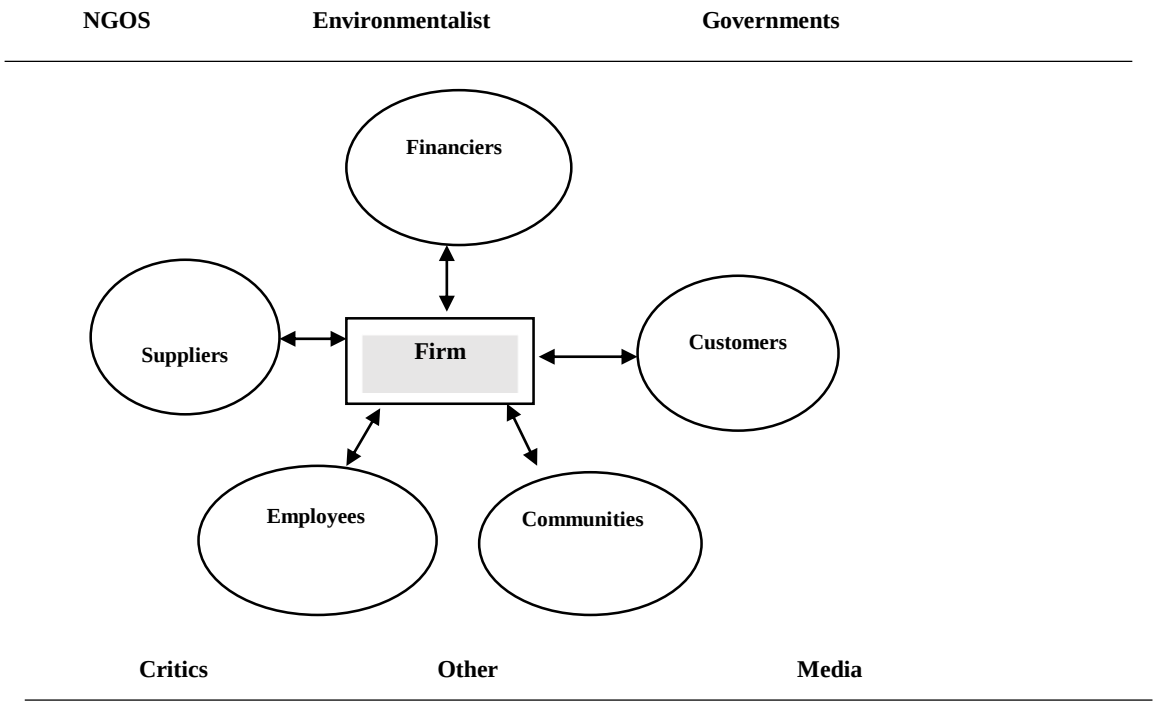

Figure 4. Modified Version of the Stakeholder Model (Freeman, 2003).

In a contemporary article titled "a stakeholder theory of the modern corporation" Freeman (2003) offers clarification of the stakeholder theory's revised visual framework while highlighting its embedded pluralistic and ethical responsibilities that corporations have to all stakeholder groups. In the following passage about the revision of the stakeholder concept he states:

> My thesis is that I can revitalize the concept of managerial capitalism by replacing the notion that managers have a duty to stockholders with the concept that managers bear a fiduciary relationship to stakeholders. Stakeholders are those groups who have a stake in or claim on the firm. Specifically, I include suppliers, customers, employees, stockholders and the local community, as well as management in its role as agent for these groups. I argue that the legal, economic, political and moral challenges to the currently received theory of the

> firm, as a nexus of contracts among the owners of the factors of production and customers, require us to revise this concept. That is, each of these stakeholder groups has a right not to be treated as a means to some end, and therefore must participate in determining the future direction of the firm in which they have a stake. (p. 39)

Although the image was improved to address the concerns regarding the plurality of stakeholders integrated into strategic management, Fassin (2009) indicated that as a whole, the stakeholder theory and graphical framework is responsible for an ongoing paradigmatic debate in many professional circles and some contention in the academic discipline and business literature (Miles, 2012). Fassin (2008) asserts that "Few management topics have generated more publications in recent decades than the underlying notion, the model and the theories surrounding stakeholders" (p. 879). However, in general, relative to the academic literature on stakeholder, researchers support the viewpoint that organisations need to focus attention on the relationship between the firm and stakeholder networks and their impact on organisational operations (Baldwin, 2002; Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Scott & Lane, 2000). Moreover, by prioritizing their expectancies and participation, stakeholder groups may contribute to achieving the organisational goals (Polonsky, 1996).

2.3 Shortcomings of Stakeholder Theory

Notably, with broad agreement among researchers regarding the ethical obligations of the organisation to stakeholder, there is wide disagreement and confusion as to who has a "stake and what is a stakeholder?" Conceptually, it is not surprising that researchers support the view that the term "stake" is inconsistent in the empirical literature (Waxenberger & Spence, 2003). Similarly, Frooman (1999) postulated that the existing academic debate on *who is a stakeholder*

had created concerns in determining the implications for management and governance. Thus, to prevent the theory from becoming meaningless concerning legitimacy, stakeholder theory should be examined and refined (Phillips, 1999).

Management researchers (see Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Hansen et al., 2004; Magness, 2008), interested in the stakeholder theory concept have questioned: "what distinguishes stakeholders from non-stakeholder groups?" Fassin (2009) argues that there are many "ambiguities in the literature on the basic concepts of the stakeholder model, stakeholder theory, the stakeholder approach, stakeholder analysis, and stakeholder management" (p. 115). However, Fassin is not the first scholar to report some inherent ambiguities with the understanding of stakeholder theory. In an article titled "Business ethics and stakeholder analysis" Goodpaster (1991) was the first to use the term ambiguous when describing the lack of clarity of stakeholder theory as an organisational concept.

In his discourse on the subject, Goodpaster disagreed that by "introducing stakeholder analysis into business decisions" it automatically makes it a normative theory in the context of business ethics (p. 55). On the contrary, Goodpaster (1991) maintained that for stakeholder analysis, it was essential to classify two specific types of stakeholders: (a) analysis stakeholder (*identifies relevant stakeholders*), and (b) synthesis stakeholder (*explains why specific stakeholders were selected*). As such, this allows organisations or firms to promote and understand their fiduciary interests and obligation to shareholders and accept ethical responsibility when interacting with stakeholders. However, although this additional description may help managers better understand their obligation to stakeholders and shareholders; it adds two new constructs to the stakeholder literature, which critics argue are already confusing.

Hence, critics representing different theoretical and philosophical viewpoints on different stakeholder types for empirical testing, argue that the synthesis of definitions, interpretations, and applications pertaining to stakeholder, changes the meaning to fit either the researchers or organisations reality or conceptual beliefs (Freeman et al., 2010; Miles, 2012, 2017). In a similar response, Orts and Strudler (2002) argued that the stakeholder view is too broad and "leaves the term 'stakeholder' open to the challenge that it can apply to anyone or anything and is, therefore a meaningless concept (p. 218). On this point, Freeman et al. (2010) noted that "others have suggested that there is just too much ambiguity in the definition of the central term for it ever to be admitted to the status of theory" (p. 63). In other words, there are no industry boundaries on how the stakeholder theory can be applied.

2.3.1 Stakeholder Critics and Concerns of Validity

Consequently, to address the growing theoretical issues, Freeman et al. (2010) reported being asked to "pare down and refine what we mean by stakeholders if the term is to prove helpful at a conceptual level or at a practical level'' (Freeman et al., 2010, p. 208). Moreover, in attempting to do so, Freeman (1984) and others (see Walsh, 2005) acknowledged the need to ''narrow down'' stakeholder theory's list of stakeholders. "It must leave those out who are too small and too insignificant to worry about to others'' (Freeman, 1984, p. 190). However, Miles (2012) emphasized that "this conceptual confusion is indicative of the vast array of definitions of the expression 'stakeholder' in the literature (p. 285). Thus, because of extensive multi-contextual use of the term, it is widely reported to be problematic for further development of the stakeholder theory, empirical research, and theoretical analysis (Jawahar & McLaughlin, 2001; Miles, 2012; Venkataraman, 2002).

For instance, in addressing this point, a study conducted by Stoney and Winstanley (2001) found that "there is considerable confusion arising from the multitude of conflicting views and failure to recognize and map this diversity has weakened rather than strengthened the stakeholder concept'' (p. 605). Crane and Ruebottom (2011) suggest that the concept ''has remained vague and superficial, limiting the theory's use …and running the risk that ''stakeholder'' will become a meaningless term'' (p. 77). Further, Fassin (2009) expressed that ''The stakeholder model is seen as suffering from vagueness in scope and ambiguity due to the possible interpretations of the basic stakeholder concept'' (p. 116).

Unfortunately, previous studies have suggested that the definitional variation not only causes researchers to reject the validity of stakeholder theory, but also creates limitations to the stakeholder concept that are associated with: (a) theoretical shortcomings, and (b) contested concept (CC; Miles, 2012). Thus, the first of the theoretical shortcomings offered by Polonsky et al. (2003) states there are "no universally accepted definitions of stakeholder theory or even "what constitutes a stakeholder" (p. 351). The second complaint, Fassin (2009) suggest that the broad application and use of stakeholder theory in the research literature has "raised confusion and ambiguity" (p. 113). Third, Gilbert and Rasche (2008) posit that the stakeholder concept will continue as a subject of debate because stakeholder theory consists of a combination of views used to describe the term. For instance, Mitchell et al. (1997) investigated the use of stakeholder theory in the academic literature and found a considerable number of alternative definitions used to describe stakeholder (Mitchell et al., 1997; Payne, Ballantyne, & Christopher, 2005).

Mitchell et al. found 28 different stakeholder definitions, with 25 of them associated with either an organisation, corporation or firm and business enterprise. Moreover, the remaining

three out of the 25 definitions denoted," corporate contracts" (Cornell & Shapiro, 1987, p. 5), relationships (Thompson et al., 1991, p. 209) and "value creation'' in the business environment (Freeman, 1994, p. 415). Furthermore, Friedman and Miles (2006) in their study found 55 definitions, Miles (2011) found 435 definitions of the stakeholder concept out of 493 reviewed articles, and Laplume et al. (2008) identified 104 related definitions in their empirical investigation on stakeholder theory (Miles, 2012).

2.3.2 Stakeholder Theory as a Contested Concept

In looking at stakeholder theory as a contested concept (CC), it is suggested that although stakeholder theory is accepted across disparate disciplines, normative stakeholder and stakeholder theory are both identified as contested concepts (Miles, 2012). Based on the earlier philosophy of Gallie (1956), the definition of a contested concept refers to a term or concept that is identified as vague, ambiguous, and general in nature (cited in Kekes, 1977, p. 71). In more contemporary work, CC is described as "concepts that are complex and normative" (Jacobs, 2006, p. 25). Additionally, Miles (2012) formally described CC in the following passage:

> Situations where there is widespread acceptance of a concept but disagreement on the best instantiation of it. It is important to recognize that, in situations where a concept is essentially contested, each party recognizes that its own use is contested by other parties and that each party has some consideration of the different criteria applied by others. (p. 286)

In other words, concepts using the same name, with different conceptual interpretations is confusing and may reduce the understanding and credibility of the specific concept. To create a universal definition for a term there must be conceptual clarity and consensus among researchers

regarding its meaning or definition (Collier et al., 2006). W.B. Gallie (1956) defined contested concepts like that which 'inevitably involve endless disputes about their proper uses on the part of their users' (p. 169). However, based on Gallie's (1956) definition for contested concepts, it is important to note that not all concepts can be narrowly defined and have the same meaning; it depends per se on the situation and if an alternative definition is needed to improve understanding (Miles, 2012).

Moreover, Gallie (1956) suggests that a conflicting concept is likely a CC if the research community cannot agree on a specific shared or common understanding after an open discussion. As applied to the term stakeholder as a CC, the problem with stakeholder theory, is that there are too many different and extensive definitional meanings and continued debate, questioning *what a stakeholder is?* Furthermore, these nuances have caused confusion and different viewpoints among scholars in the context of organisational need and various research perspectives (Miles, 2012). In short, as noted earlier, the wide use and application of stakeholder theory is attributed to weakening the term and has led to conceptual confusion, which hinders further development (Freeman et al., 2010; Kaler, 2002).

Contested concept has two parts that are fundamental to evaluating if a conflicting concept can be resolved. They are related to: (a) agreement of the common core; people agree on the meaning of the core ideas of the subject (Swanton, 1985), (b) interpretation of the meaning; there is wide disagreement on the interpretation and how a specific concept should be applied. Understandably, the latter is the level that contestability usually occurs (Jacob, 2006; Miles, 2012). To assess if a concept is contested, there are seven defining conditions or characteristics that Gallie (1956) posits as important determinants,

1. It must be appraised in the sense that it signifies or accredits some kind of valued achievement.

2. This achievement must be of an internally complex character, for all that it's worth is attributed to it as a whole.

3. An explanation of its worth must, therefore, include reference to the respective contributions of its various parts or features…the accredited achievement is initially variously describable.

4. The accredited achievement must be of a kind that admits of considerable modification in the light of changing circumstances, and such modification cannot be prescribed or predicated in advance. For convenience, I shall call the concept of any such achievement ''open'' in character.

5. First appraised in nature; Second, internally complex in character; Third, variously describable; Fourth, open in character in that it is subject to considerable modification in the light of changing circumstances and finally fifth, used aggressively and defensively as each party contest the instantiations of others and, in turn, recognize that their instantiations are similarly contested (pp. 171-172).

Also, there are two additional conditional requirements posited by Gallie (1956) that determine if a concept is contested or just radically confused. These conditions are:

6. The derivative of any such concept from an original exemplar whose authority is acknowledged by all contestant users of the concept.

7. The probability or plausibility, inappropriate senses of these terms, of the claim that the continuous competition for acknowledgment as between contestant users of the concept, enables the original exemplar's achievement to be sustained and/or developed in optimum fashion (p. 180).

The last two conditions simply emphasize two critical points: (1) Exemplar; although the conceptual meaning or interpretation may change the original exemplar (*as can be the case of Freeman's 1984 Stakeholder Theory*) should remain the same, (2) Continuous Competition; Gallie found that the CC status acts as a framework for understanding alternative definitions of a concept. Specifically, he states that "the framework permits the explanation or demonstration of the rationale behind a particular usage of the concept and alterations to a concept (Gallie 1956, p. 189).

In looking at stakeholder theory, the literature shows that it explicitly represents the contested concept criteria based on Gallie's seven characteristics of CC. This stance is based on the notion that the stakeholder concept has various definitional meaning and disagreement among researchers on *what's a stakeholder* in the context of academia and management science. From an organisational context, Freeman et al. (2010) argue that "a recurring issue for stakeholder theory has been how to understand who stakeholders are" (p. 206). However, it is important to note that even with substantive conflict pertaining to multiple definitions, stakeholder theory has remained an accepted theory for over 30 years, despite acknowledged core limitations and assertations that it could become a meaningless concept in future studies if it is not delimited (Attas, 2004; Freeman, 1999; Phillips, 1999).

2.4 Stakeholder Classification and Definitional Meaning

Gilbert and Rasche (2008) indicated that stakeholder theory is an amalgamation of various eclectic narratives related to the role and value of the stakeholder. From a management perspective, ethics professor R.E. Freeman (1984, 1994) posited that the role of stakeholder could be an individual or group, that can influence, or is influenced by the achievements of organisational goals and objectives. To reiterate, in looking at the earlier definitions of

stakeholder (see Table 1), the broad concept introduced by Freeman to describe "*what is a stakeholder* "places significant emphasis on stakeholder interests and values rather than focusing on stockholding groups to maximize the firm's profitability (Cragg, 2002; Kumar, Rahman, & Kazmi, 2016)**.**

Many critics of stakeholder theory, postulate that distinguishing between constituent network groups or individuals that are viewed as stakeholders from those that are not, is a complex task due to the many different definitional types found in the research literature (Kaler, 2003; Orts & Strudler, 2009; Waxenberger & Spence, 2003). For instance, stakeholder theory has been broadly extended to include various business and organisational settings such as the field of business ethics, corporate social responsibility, strategic management, corporate governance, and finance (Miles, 2017, p. 437). This is seen as problematic because it has become over inclusive of many varied interpretations and definitions for the theory (Mainardes et al., 2012). As a result, this conceptual range of definitions could potentially make the term vulnerable to empirical weaknesses (Miles, 2017; Thomasson, 2009).

However, Rowley (1997) in a review of various stakeholder theorist, points out that "although debate continues over whether to broaden or narrow the definition, most researchers have utilised a variation of Freeman's concept" (p. 889). Thus, in the context of business management, to fully understand the different stakeholder typologies and implications, scholars and management professionals agree that stakeholder classifications are needed to strategically identify critical stakeholders for salience (Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Goodpaster, 1991; Kaler, 2002). In the stakeholder-based literature, the classifications would likely include both generic and traditional stakeholder roles (e.g., consumers, shareholders, staff members, suppliers, and competitors; Freeman, 1984) and other internal and external groups based on the articulated

management strategy. It is noted by Vos (2003) that although it may appear easy to develop classification categories for stakeholder, it is a complex and challenging task that is often overlooked in the field-based literature for practitioners (Mitchell et al., 1997).

Consequently, this is mainly due to the frequent interchangeable use of the stakeholder classification in the literature (Kaler, 2002). For example, in the context of managerial practices, there are very few investigative studies that focus on the problem of how to classify the interactions that organisations have with different internal or external stakeholders (Mainardes et al., 2012). Yet, the distinct roles and attributes of consumers, government officials, and employees need to be identified to determine their likely impact on the organisation and other stakeholder markets (Neville & Mengue, 2006). Max Clarkson (1995) indicated that stakeholder should only refer to those that might cause potential risks (i.e., danger or experiencing loss) for the firm's survival.

2.4.1 Stakeholder Classification as a Management Strategy

Fassin (2008) postulated that utilising a criterion to identify and classify key stakeholders has always been a theoretical shortcoming and prerequisite condition needed for the stakeholder framework. Operationally, the conceptual meaning of classification is described as:

> Classification systems aid scientific inquiry and sharpen description and analysis (Nobes, 1983) by providing clarification. Based on ordering and grouping of similarities, classification systems should provide guidance on definitional boundaries, reduce diversity into manageable classes, provide explanations for all aspects of diversity, offer insight into the development of the field and encourage sorting a complex field of inquiry debate about the 'correct' form of classification. (Miles, 2017, p. 440)

Hence, in looking at the intent of classification systems (the process of establishing a criterion for prioritizing stakeholder relevance) relative to stakeholder theory, it is formally described as the act of assigning (i.e., sorting) stakeholders into categories according to their shared interests or perceived influence to clarify their specific role of importance (Buysse & Verbeke, 2003; Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar, De Colle, 2010). On the other hand, stakeholder theory identification refers to identifying key stakeholders that can benefit or influence the operations and goals of an organisation (Clarkson, 1995). Hence, in short from a practical viewpoint, "A classification model structures the different stakeholder groups, whereas identification means answering the question of "What specific stakeholders fit a specific category?" (i.e., naming the persons and parties that fill a certain stakeholder category; Vos & Achterkamp, 2006, p. 162).

Although there are limitations with the original version of stakeholder theory as noted in the stakeholder literature, Freeman (1984) in the context of business management was the first to classify stakeholders into two categories using simplistic terms. They are (1) internal; inside the organisation, and (2) external; outside the organisation (Kumar, Rahman, & Kazmi, 2016). In academia and the management literature, those that support the stakeholder model identify diverse internal and external stakeholder groups, that may include: (a) organisational employees, (b) suppliers, and (c) customers, as those necessary to an organisation's business activities, decision-making, and planning strategies (Clarkson, 1995). More specifically, groups identified as affecting internal change within the organisation are referred to as internal stakeholders, while external constituents that can influence the organisation but not directly are external stakeholders (Freeman, 1984; Freeman et al., 2010; Kuman, Rahman, & Kazmi, 2015).

From a strategic managerial view, the two typologies using internal (e.g., financiers, customers, suppliers, employees, and communities) and external stakeholder networks (e.g.,

governments, environmentalists, NGOs, critics, the media) as applied to the modern corporation structure or organisational settings are too broad to identify critical stakeholders for all disparate industries (Fassin, 2008; Frooman, 1999, Rivera-Camino, 2007). According to Wolfe and Rutler (2002), "stakeholder identification is a matter of determining salience" (p. 77). Thus, the need to identify "*whom stakeholders are*" has led to various theoretical stakeholder classification schemes offered by researchers from various disciplines (see, Freeman, 2010; Frooman, 1999; Goodpaster, 1991; Mitchell et al., 1997; Rivera-Camino, 2007; Vos & Achterkamp, 2006).

A classification model identifies various stakeholder groups, whereas identification answers the question of "what is a good stakeholder fit" in the context of different categories (Vos & Achterkamp, 2006). For example, to advance stakeholder theory and apply limits to its widely used application, Mitchell's et al. 's (1997) "Stakeholder Salience" theoretical model proposes a role responsibility criterion to determine specific identification boundaries (Vos & Achterkamp, 2006). This model is defined by Mitchell et al. (1997) as ''the degree to which managers give priority to competing stakeholder claims'' (p. 854).

2.4.2 Salience Stakeholder Model

Like Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory, the salience model also holds a landmark position in the stakeholder classification literature and is recognized as a prominent stakeholder theoretical model (Magness, 2008; Vos & Achterkamp, 2006). Friedman and Miles (2006), reported that the classification typology approach presented by Mitchell et al. (1997) gained widespread popularity among both stakeholder theoreticians and management field-based practitioners due to its emphasis on identifying key stakeholders. Using anecdotal information for their theoretical study, Mitchell and colleagues (1997) sorted stakeholder network claims

based on how organisations prioritized stakeholder importance and perceived their influence upon an organisation (Mitchell et al.,1997).

Using three salient variables; power, legitimacy, and urgency they explored and sorted how managers from various business industries perceived specific stakeholder groups (Neville & Menguc, 2006). In their conclusion, Mitchell et al. (1997) demonstrated that higher priority is assigned to a stakeholder's claim if he/or she is perceived as having the three following attributes: (1) legitimate claim; refers to one that is socially accepted (Magness, 2008) and has interests in organisational activities and the decision-making process, (2) power; refers to having the power to control resources and using that individual power despite resistance from management, and (3) urgency; refers to determining which stakeholder claims require immediate attention.

Thus, once the firm or organisation identifies key stakeholders, it focuses on what groups or individuals have legitimate stakeholder salience (e.g., legitimacy, power, and urgency) in relation to the organisation. Once determined, the business is likely to give higher priority and attention to definitive stakeholder groups (*those identified as salient*) that can contribute to the existing knowledge and resources needed to achieve mutual organizational objectives (Neville et al., 2004; Rhodes et al., 2014). Similarly, research by Friedman and Miles (2006), contend that the three-factor salience model strongly relies on management perceptions on which stakeholders demonstrate perceived power to negotiate and represent legitimacy to the organisation (i.e., constituents that have a legitimate claim to the firm; Hill & Jones, 1992) and requires organisational urgency in satisfying the stakeholder's demands**.**

Clarkson (1994) explains that having legitimate stakeholder status simply means that stakeholders also have an assumed risk with the firm; whether it is voluntary or involuntary.

Meaning that the perceived stakeholder can accept or reject the shared benefits or risks associated with the organisation. However, it is noted by Clarkson (1994), that not all persons will receive attention or priority because they have a legitimate claim to the firm or organisation.

2.4.3 Limitations of the Salience Model

Neville et al. (2004) denotes that the salience model presents three distinct variables that together support a stakeholder's legitimate claim to the firm in this categorization framework. In other words, all three characteristics must be simultaneously present to gain salience status within an organisation. Mitchell et al. (1997) proposed that if a stakeholder is perceived as having one of the attributes, he/or she is identified as a latent stakeholder. If two of the attributes are perceived, he/or she is considered an expectant stakeholder. If all three attributes are present, he/or she is considered a definitive stakeholder, and if none of the attributes are represented the individual or group are not regarded nor accepted as definitive stakeholders. However, Frooman (1999) rejects the belief that for stakeholders to stake a claim in an organisation or firm they must have legitimacy. Instead, he suggests that a stakeholder's claim to an organisation is associated with the ability to influence the direction of the firm and therefore they should receive managerial attention. In part, Friedman and Miles (2006) seemingly agree with Frooman's argument but asserts that legitimacy is linked to influence. Thus an explanation of what constitutes a legitimate stakeholder is still needed.

Some noted weaknesses of the salience model are that stakeholder value is determined by subjective perceptions and the three-factor attributes are binary (i.e., meaning either you represent the three attributes, or you don't; Agle et al., 1999). Another limitation revealed by their study is that not all three of the salience characteristics (power, legitimacy, and urgency) are empirically measurable using binary terms due to the scales of the assessment instrument. In

another empirical study conducted by O'Higgins and Morgan (2006), they concluded that those that are labeled definitive stakeholders were not salient. Therefore, whether one was a definitive or non-definitive stakeholder could not be readily determined in their research study. Thus, this may explain why there are limited contemporary studies that have tested the validity of the salience model (Mainardes et al., 2012).

In their discourse, Donaldson and Preston (1995) emphasized the importance of organisations valuing the relationship of all stakeholders regardless of their assigned legitimacy as a major stakeholder. Hence, identifying which distinct groups (i.e., stakeholders or non-stakeholders) require attention is not the fundamental intent of the earlier work pertaining to the stakeholder concept. However, some contemporary work (see Baron, 2009; Fassin, 2008; Helm & Mauroner, 2007) does suggest that organisations should target stakeholders that are most valuable and resourceful to the organisation's survival and success.

2.4.4 Clarkson's Stakeholder Model

Another well-known classification and categorization scheme that gained attention in the stakeholder literature is the two-classification model expanded by Clarkson (1995). In this framework, which derived from Freeman's theory, he proposed two types of risk-based stakeholder groups that he identified as: (a) primary; those with a contractual or formal relationship with the organisation that they are dependent on for their success, and (b) secondary; those that are non-contractual such as government and community members that are not considered essential to their success (Clarkson, 1995). Like Freeman's two classifications, the primary group is considered explicit (*internal*) and consist of clients or customers, suppliers, employees, shareholders and competitors that hold perceived value. The second group is referred to as the secondary group, which is identified as implicit (*external*) and is comprised of

non-contractual government constituents and community members with less direct influence upon the organisation and are not viewed as essential to the organisation's success (Clarkson, 1995; Mitchell et al., 1997).

The significance of Clarkson's model is that organisations acknowledge the relative importance of primary stakeholders and their legitimate claim and power to influence and enforce their perceived claim upon the firm and managers. As for secondary stakeholders, they're perceived as having lower power and legitimate claims to the organisations and managers (Chang, Kim, & Li, 2014). Thus, suggesting that not all stakeholders are equal in receiving organisational attention and managerial priority. In comparison to the salience stakeholder model, both Clarkson (1995) and Mitchell et al. (1997) emphasize that it is not practical for managers to treat every stakeholder as definitive since they do not have the same varying power and influence to impact an organisation's development (Olander, 2007).

Interestingly, having examined various stakeholder typologies from different perspectives, it is important to note that although there are many stakeholder typology matrices and classification systems revealed in the literature, there is no consensus on the best classification method to use for business practices (Mainardes et al., 2012). However, research in the organisational literature, suggests there is agreement on the social value of embracing consumer centricity as a managerial focus (Liu & Liu, 2009). As such, Maruffi et al. (2013) found in their study, that organisations that support a social responsibility work environment that values community focus as a strategic focus are more likely to achieve consumer product and service satisfaction. Therefore, as a socially responsible organisation, managers should consider stakeholder interests and treat them equally as partners, even if some contribute more resources

than others toward achieving goals, objectives, and support for the organisation (Marcoux, 2003; Phillips, Freeman, & Wicks, 2003).

2.5 Management and Corporate Social Responsibility

Freeman (1984) contends that stakeholder theory is a normative concept that embraces the corporation's ethical and social obligations to the stakeholder relationship and surrounding community (Freeman, 1999; Frooman, 1999; Pavlovich & Krahnke, 2012). Essentially, in summary, Freeman et al. (2010) advocates that corporations adopt a balanced normative (i.e., intrinsic and moral practice) and instrumental (effective strategic practices) stakeholder approach with less managerial attention on increasing profits for the corporation and shareholders (Friedman & Miles, 2002; Polonsky, 1995).

At the conceptual level, the term "Corporate Social Responsibility" (CSR) is generally centered on conducting good business practices without committing acts of corruption (Carroll, 1999; Pinkston & Carroll, 1996). It applies to various issues ranging from regulatory compliance, business ethics, community investment, environmental management, union rights, responsible marketing, and corporate governance (Blowfield & Murray, 2008). With increasing internal and external pressures, corporations are expected to engage and collaborate with disparate stakeholders with salience to help mitigate dishonest corporate behaviours and practices surrounding economic issues, financial scandals, and social responsibility conduct issues. As a result, positioning accountability and responsiveness relative to the above issue is at the top of the agenda for many global corporations and publicly-supported government offices (Johansen & Nielsen, 2011; Lamberti & Lettieri, 2009).

From the perspective of the CSR framework, CSR is described as a voluntary activity used by corporations and organisations to address ethical and accountability issues in various business

cultures. These issues are usually associated with organisational ethics, responsible management, financials, business operations, and corporate governance (Maignan & Ralston, 2002). As a theoretical perspective, CSR has been around since the 1950s starting with the resource approach era (Barney, 1991) and gained widespread importance in the 1990s in areas of academia and the business mainstream (i.e., including government-supported organisations) with a strong emphasis on stakeholder and societal responsibilities (Carroll, 1999). In fact, the DuPont firm was among the first of private corporations to integrate social responsibility initiatives into its workplace policies (Tebo, 2002).

In a past literature search on CSR, conducted by Sachs and Maurer (2009) using the google research platform, CSR as the keyword yielded over 3,750,000 articles and an estimated 7,000 books on the Amazon.com website. Similarly, Vogel (2005) posited that the topic of ‘‘CSR is thriving. It is now viewed as an industry, with full-time staff, websites, newsletters, professional associations and massed armies of consultants’’ (2005, p. 53). Considering that CSR is generally a voluntary obligation among public and private organisations and businesses to improve society, it is supported by multiple stakeholder proponents (internal and external groups) across various organisational types (Zadek, 2004). In understanding the role of CSR, managers find it invaluable as a tool to improve fair management practices and accountability reporting with respect to following self-imposed financial regulations and conducting honest reporting of financial transactions (Forte, 2013; Johansen & Nielsen, 2011; Maignan & Ralston, 2002; Rhodes et al., 2014).

With regard to CSR responsibilities, Carroll (1999) introduced the CSR Pyramid framework (see Figure 5), which is a comprehensive hierarchy of corporate responsibilities that list four conduct expectations: (a) economic; pertains to generating profits and benefiting society,

(b) legal; pertains to obeying laws and established regulations, (c) ethical; pertains to demonstrating ethical and moral corporate behaviour, (d) philanthropic; is the willingness to give back to society.

Source: Carroll (1996)
Figure 5. CSR Orientation (Pinkston & Carroll, 1996).

Given the summary of corporate responsibilities based on the CSR framework as a necessary practice for measuring ethical and business conduct and performance (Carroll, 1999; Sachs & Maurer, 2009) it should also be noted that there are three weaknesses noted by Freeman (2004) and other researchers regarding CSR. First, the CSR framework has no separate category for governing corporate social behaviour. Second, CSR is presented as a reliable substitute to explain irresponsible corporate behaviour. Third, the CSR framework tends to separate ethics from business practices, suggesting that ethics should not be considered in business decisions. Another noteworthy criticism offered by Wood (1991) is that Carroll's (1991) graphical hierarchy isolates the specific domains, thus suggesting that there not interconnected. Thus, considering Freeman's question on "how to treat corporate stakeholders in a responsible manner" (Sachs & Maurer 2009, p. 536), may be linked to a stakeholder management approach.

2.5.1 Adopting a Social Responsibility Perspective

The topic of creating a socially responsive environment in relation to the management of salient stakeholders and ethical behaviour is an essential discourse in the organisational and

academic literature (Drucker, 1999). It has remained the subject of continuous discussion due to the widespread popularity of stakeholder engagement for more than 30 years (Jamali, 2008; Roland & Bazzoni, 2009). Over time, with global attention on issues related to economic stability, corporate ethics, and financial corruption scandals (e.g., Enron, Siemens, Tyco, and World Com), emphasis on CSR practices has moved closer inside the domain of business management practices and is widely supported by policymakers, senior-level managers, non-government partners (NGOs), and marketers as a strategic approach to organisational survival (McManus & Webley, 2013). Thus, in the managerial field-based context CSR is conceptualized as businesses' doing good deeds in and for society and the surrounding environments that they serve (Johansen & Nielson, 2011).

CSR addresses concerns ranging from legal compliance, philanthropy and community investment to environmental management, sustainability, animal rights, human rights, workers' rights and welfare, market relations, corruption, and corporate governance (Blowfield &Murray, 2008 as cited in Johansen & Nielsen, 2011). From an organisational perspective, higher societal obligations and the increasing importance of stakeholder involvement has highlighted the importance of the CSR-to-stakeholder relationship as an approach to improving social responsiveness to higher accountability regulations, innovative product development, and meeting consumer expectations and demands (Carroll, 1979, 1991).

In line with stakeholder theory, the stakeholder involvement element is described as a relational perspective associated with maintaining two-way symmetrical communication, which is merely having a dialogue with an individual or stakeholder group. The intent of the involvement strategy is to not only influence salient stakeholders but to receive input from them (Clarke, 1997; Foster & Jonker, 2005). This entails taking stakeholder networks seriously,

accepting their advice, and applying it "in order to explore mutually beneficial action – assuming that both parties involved in the dialogue are willing to change" (Morsing & Schultz, 2006, p. 145).

Thus, companies are faced with meeting the information and service expectations of those with public/and societal interests, managing social networks, and demonstrating active accountability business practices that engage stakeholder groups with the most salience in advancing sustainable goals (Hemphill, 2004). Additionally, Morsing et al. (2008) added that the demonstration of long-term good citizenship behaviour and mindset, along with established "critical shared values" (CSV) are also crucial to building a sustainable corporate reputation and economic value for both consumers and shareholders. In the organisational management context, Porter & Kramer (2011) described critical shared value as:

> Policies and operating practices that enhance the competitiveness of a company while simultaneously advancing the economic and social conditions in the communities in which it operates. Shared value creation focuses on identifying and expanding the connections between societal and economic progress. (p. 66)

In this context, an organisation is described as a grouping of different stakeholders connected to the organisation. Thus, the interrelatedness of the stakeholder relationship is "not solely to provide benefits (profits), for shareholders and owners but rather to integrate the interests and claims from other stakeholder groups into the strategic management of the business" (Mitchell et al., 1997, p. 853; Friedman & Miles, 2006). Further, based on anecdotal evidence, Porter and Kramer (2011) posit that organisations can create market shared value and profitability by operationalizing the following delineated steps:

1. Reconceiving products and markets.

2. Redefining productivity in the value chain and reliability of inputs, production, and distribution in a sustainable manner.

3. Enabling local cluster development. (p. 5)

As commented by Porter and Kramer (2011) “to operationalize the critical shared values in surrounding communities the three core principles must be demonstrated” (p. 88). The first step is described as reconceiving products and markets; better serving existing markets, accessing new ones or developing innovative products that meet social needs. Second step, redefining productivity in the value chain; improving the quality, quantity, cost, and reliability of inputs, production, and distribution in a sustainable manner. Third step, enabling local cluster development; developing a robust competitive context, including reliable local suppliers, a functioning infrastructure, access to talent, and an effective legal system.

Thus, as senior leaders and line managers interact with specific stakeholders in innovative ways to manage the internal and external pressures caused by various social networks and regulatory dimensions, it is crucial to employ strategic relationship management approaches as a tool to enhance stakeholder engagement and cooperation (Carroll & Buchholtz, 2008; Shah & Naqvi, 2014). Additionally, in competitive environments, as new social and environmental challenges emerge, the influences of key stakeholders as a resource in partnership with other constituents is needed to exceed competitive rivals and to make socially responsible decisions to address complex issues (Baldwin, 2002; Clarkson,1995). In short, the implication is that “the ability of the project manager to correctly identify and manage these stakeholders in an appropriate manner can mean the difference between success and failure” (Project Management Institute, 2013, p. 391).

2.5.2 Corporate Social Responsibility and Project Management

Both stakeholder theorist and corporate social responsibility (CSR) scholars have expressed the importance of CSR to be integrated into the strategic management framework for several years (Carroll & Hoy,1984). Both Internal and external salient stakeholder groups such as employees, suppliers, consumers, clients, and other parties interested in influencing the outcome of specific business activities, community, and improvement-oriented projects are strengthening organisations through CSR relationships (Clarkson, 1995; Freeman, 2003). From a fundamental perspective, Clarke (1997) described the salient stakeholding relationship as having "active participation in processes of accountability; and in a financial understanding of material interests in the well-being of a corporation, are what legitimates such participation" (p. 211).

This is in line with Freeman's (1984) foundational belief that stakeholder's as a managerial theory are "groups and individuals who can affect or are affected by the achievement of an organisation's mission" (p. 52). From a broad perspective of stakeholder theory, the nature of the organisation described by Hillman & Keim (2001) "is viewed as a set of interdependent relationships among primary stakeholders" (p. 127). From a shareholder perspective, the corporation is described as "a socio-economic organisation built to create wealth for its multiple constituents" (Rhodes et al., 2014, p. 84).

The stakeholder management approach to CSR is recognized as an organisational or management tool that highlights three core levels of development that are stakeholder-centric and essential to developing an organisation-to-stakeholder partnership (Waddock & Bodwell, 2004). The core levels are centered on (a) identification of stakeholders; financiers, suppliers, unions employees, consumers, and customers, (b) development of business processes; recognize stakeholder needs and interests, and (c) establish nuanced stakeholder partnerships; connections

with key individuals or groups that can help achieve the organisational goals (Johansen & Nielsen, 2011).

In comparison to the stakeholder approach, there are two tenets that differentiate the shareholder approach to CSR from that of stakeholder. First, limited CSR standards are applied when needed to achieve the financial goals of the business enterprise (e.g., media attention, public relation campaigns). Second, shareholders or stockholders' economic interests are the priority for corporations not social responsibilities. Focusing on the above perspective, the classical "shareholder" view of CSR known as Milton Friedman's (1970) doctrine, argues that the social responsibilities of business activities are not the primary concern of corporations.

Instead, he believed businesses should focus on increasing or maximizing profits for the firm and shareholders by participating in open and free competitive global markets without intentional deception or fraud. And under the pretense of CSR interests, Friedman suggests that a business with a CSR ethics component in their business strategy can influence profit-making activities for the firm or build specific relationships that may generate future profits (Carroll, 1991). Joel Bakan (2005) in his book "The Corporation: The Pathological Pursuit of Profit and Power" emphasizes the belief that corporations attempt to use CSR initiatives as a smokescreen to hide dishonest business practices or to evade external regulations and procedural constraints on the organisation or firm.

Clearly, in summary this viewpoint demonstrates that protecting shareholders or stockholders' economic interests is a higher priority, which is inconsistent with stakeholder theory, where the stakeholder (e.g., social welfare, worker rights, economic, human rights, and environmental issues) involvement is a component of corporate social responsibility and bettering community (Carroll, 1991). For instance, corporations or organisations that have a

practical, humanistic viewpoint toward CSR balance their actions to produce profits and to respond to community needs (Fassin, 2008; Vallentin, 2006). Like Freeman, (1984) Marsden (2006) viewed CSR as a necessary component to actively demonstrate accountability and responsiveness to community concerns. He stated the following,

> Corporate social responsibility is about the core behaviour of companies and the responsibility for their total impact on their societies in which they operate. CSR is not an optional add-on nor is it an act of philanthropy. A socially responsible corporation is one that runs a profitable business that takes account of all the positive and negative environmental, social and economic effect it has on society. (p. 38)

In looking at Marsden's view, he suggests that sustaining a CSR commitment is good business and can create wealth. Therefore, a socially responsible corporation should be concerned with how business operations and shared values impact society and not their organisational wealth. In this context, the firms wealth is defined as the legitimate capacity and goal of an organisation and to produce long-term value or profitability (Sveiby, 1997). For instance, with reference to exhibiting a pattern of CSR behaviour, the findings from a study conducted by Cai and colleagues (2012) on using tobacco, gambling, and alcohol industries, revealed that CSR led to stronger corporate values and employee satisfaction. Another example of a corporation committed to active CSR is Starbucks Coffee Company. This global company successfully implemented and integrated CSR initiatives throughout their entire business operations and received numerous business awards and recognition for their ethical business practices.

The CSR activities improved their environment, customer brand loyalty, and employee motivation, thereby increasing corporate profits. It also gave them a competitive advantage over other coffee companies in the global markets (Katrinli et al., 2015; The World's Most Ethical Companies, 2010). As such, this illustrates that integrating stakeholder-oriented CSR initiatives into the business strategy can produce positive results. Thus, organisations should not consider CSR a voluntary or charitable action left to chance. Nor should it be an optional add-on or employed temporarily to address urgent controversial social issues that impact stakeholder groups or communities (Marsden, 2006).

2.5.3 Corporate Social Responsibility and the Stakeholder Relationship

By implementing actionable community CSR initiatives, stakeholders gain critical insight into an organisation's community practices and corporate conduct relative to social, financial, or environmental issues. Thus, the three-core ethos of a stakeholder CSR model are: (a) social responsibilities (*community*), (b) environmental responsibilities (*improving the planet*), and (c) economic responsibilities (*financial performance*) (Sveiby, 1997). From a social perspective, these dimensions are critical to building an exchange relationship between society and the business or organisation. Thus, the goal is to improve society by directly or indirectly addressing social issues in their business operations or activities. As for the environmental dimension, this is related to establishing operational policies that care for the environment and improve the well-being of society. For instance, a green CSR effort could mean participating in a recycling or renewable energy programs or purchasing eco-friendly office furniture to reduce damage to the environment (Harvey et al., 2010). On the other hand, an economic CSR concept means

contributing to economic improvement and increasing profitability for business shareholders (Goering, 2010).

Although there are three important constructs associated with CSR, there are also numerous definitions offered in the empirical research literature that describes what Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) means operationally. For this reason, the multiple and broad conceptualizations used to describe CSR are frequently criticized as creating confusion for researchers, thereby reducing the significance of the term. Similarly, like that of stakeholder theory introduced by Freeman (1984), Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is terminology with multiple subjective meanings, definitions, and contextual interpretations across different disciplines (Clarkson, 1995; Frankental, 2001).

Furthermore, various scholars and business practitioners have pointed out that the CSR term is ambiguous, vague, and lacks clear conceptual meaning due to the different meanings noted in the management research literature (Jamali, 2008). Moreover, adding to the confusion is the interchangeable application and conceptual overlap with other terminologies that are similar in intent such as stakeholder theory, corporate responsibility, corporate citizenship, and business ethics (Valor, 2005).

Starting with Waddock and Bodwell (2004), CSR is used interchangeably with corporate responsibility, which is "the ways in which a company's operating practices (policies, processes, and procedures) affect its stakeholders and the natural environment (p. 25). The definition of CSR presented at the World Business Council for Sustainable Development described it as "Corporate Social Responsibility is the continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development, while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as of the local community at large" (Holme & Watts, 1999, p. 3). Another

definition offered by The Commission of the European Communities (2007) describes CSR "as a concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interactions with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis" (As cited in Nasrullah & Rahim, 2014, p. 14).

Drawing from the public obligation literature, it is suggested that firms have a corporate social responsibility (CSR) and ethical obligation to be responsive to environmental policies and stakeholder feedback in a manner that is beyond their financial interests (Gössling & Vocht, 2007). Furthermore, from a global perspective Aaronson's (2003) conceptualization of CSR is defined as ''Business decision-making linked to ethical values, compliance with legal requirements, and respect for people, communities, and the environment around the world'' (p. 310). From a legal perspective, McWilliams, Siegel, and Wright (2006) defined CSR as "situations where the firm goes beyond compliance and engages in 'actions that appear to further some social good, beyond the interests of the firm and that which is required by law" (p. 1).

Lastly, one researcher indicated the choice to use the term "social" as part of the CSR terminology is ambiguous and questioned if it truly relates to general business or management operations (Maignan et al., 2005). For instance, due to the vagueness of the term, "social" organisational managers have difficulty understanding how the term "social" connects to daily business activities and guides profitability at the operational level (Maignan et al., 2005). In response to the above-noted opinion, it was pointed out that the problem is not an issue of semantics, but instead is linked to the interchangeability and overlap with other models using similar CSR terminology with different interpretations (Blowfield & Frynas, 2005).

Thus, in examining the above-mentioned definitions, three CSR views are clearly understood. First, there is not a universal definition to describe CSR. Second, CSR has five

common core dimensions that emerged from the multiple definitions of the term. They are social, the voluntariness, the stakeholder, the social and environmental (Dahlsrud, 2008). Third, it is up to senior leaders or managers to strategically implement CSR initiatives throughout the organisation climate to benefit their relationship with salient stakeholders and achieve organisational goals (McWilliams et al., 2006).

2.6 Stakeholder Management Perspective

In the business context, specific leadership styles (e.g., transactional, transformational, and public-servant) are linked to improving stakeholder involvement, thus essentially producing organisational change over time due to stakeholder commitment (Freeman, 1984). Furthermore, relative to the controversial dyadic stakeholder model, it is suggested that the ability of a firm to produce value and profitability, is determined by the managerial relationship with salient (legitimate) stakeholders (Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Mitchell et al., 1997)**.** In sum, the above perspective suggests that a balanced leadership approach integrated with the adaption of a stakeholder orientation can positively influence an organisation's cultural values (Das & Teng, 2003; Eskerod & Huemann, 2013) business conduct, and public trust pertaining to financial honesty (Wenger & Snyder, 2000).

However, specific to the classic stakeholder– stockholder debate on legitimate "stake," Friedman (1962) argued that the primary obligation of business management is to increase profits for stockholders, thus suggesting that salient stakeholders are less important when compared to stockholders (Reed et al., 2009). Further, Friedman and Miles (2006) also suggested that although legitimacy may influence business decision-making, clarification is still needed on what constitutes a legitimate or illegitimate stakeholder (internal or external) claim from a management perspective.

2.6.1 Stakeholder Management and Analysis

In the management literature, research on classifying stakeholders based on who has a key "stake" in an organisation, is deemed an essential first step to identifying who influences organisational decision-making (Helm & Mauroner, 2007; Mitchell et al.,1997; Rowley, 1997). The leading practice dedicated to sorting stakeholders by salience is the use of ''stakeholder analysis.'' It is a managerial tool used to determine and measure the degree of influence, interests, and power within specific stakeholder networks (Brugha & Varvasovsky, 2000; Rajablu, Marthandan, Fadzilah, & Yusoff, 2015).

The stakeholder analysis process is formally described by Reed et al. (2009) as "understanding power dynamics and enhancing the transparency and equity of decision-making in development projects (p. 1935). Accordingly, this analysis can either be a normative (i.e., involve stakeholders in the decision-making process to create a sense of ownership) or instrumental (i.e., managing and identifying stakeholder behaviour) approach. The process used to implement the analysis includes the following steps: (1) define aspects of a social and natural phenomenon affected by a decision or action; (2) identify individuals, groups and organisations who are affected by or can affect those parts of the phenomenon (this may include nonhuman and non-living entities and future generations); and (3) prioritize these individuals and groups for involvement in the decision-making process (Reed et al., 2009, p. 1936). For instance, within the areas of product development in technology and business management, stakeholder analysis has been used as an instrumental approach to collect important stakeholder feedback and using it to address specific problems on user adoption of new technologies (Johnson et al., 2004).

From a practitioner perspective, the application of stakeholder analysis in project management is recognized as a practical approach to identifying key stakeholders that can

influence organisational change. This process is described as "including processes required to identify the people, groups or organisations that could impact or be impacted by the project, to analyze stakeholder expectations and their impact on the project, and to develop appropriate management strategies for effectively engaging stakeholders in project decisions and execution" (PMI, 2013, p. 391).

According to Mainardes et al. (2012), within the "stake" analysis framework relative to organisational management, this tool is used to help analyze and identify key individuals and group characteristics that can influence or are influenced by an organisation's actions. Further, this stakeholder management approach delineates three practical steps that are identified as: (a) stakeholder identification, (b) development of methods to identify stakeholder needs and interests in organisational activities, and (c) establish relationships with stakeholders that benefit the organisation and project objectives.

In this context, stakeholder management refers to "communicating, negotiating, contracting, and managing relationships with stakeholders and motivating them to behave in ways that are beneficial to the organisation and its stakeholders" (Harrison & St John, 1996, p. 24). Furthermore, it entails "identifying and prioritizing key stakeholders, assessing their needs, collecting ideas from them, and interpreting this knowledge into strategic management processes" (Harrison & St John, 1996, p. 24). However, it should be noted that in practice stakeholder management does not suggest that managers give all concerned constituents the same level of attention and importance (Dentchev & Heene, 2003). In looking at Mitchell's stakeholder salience model, managerial attention is given to individual stakeholders or groups identified as having salience; meaning those having an important influence on the organisation or other stakeholders in the within-group network (Gummesson, 1994; Phillips, 2003).

2.6.2 Stakeholder Management Abilities

The stakeholder management theory was initially developed as an approach to explaining the importance of stakeholder involvement relative to the private sector's collaborative relationships (Rajablu et al., 2015). However, the stakeholder management framework can be applied to both private and public-sector organisations, since it does not endorse any specific business structure (Scholl, 2001). As such, according to Scholl (2001) and Bailur (2006), this implies that the stakeholder framework when applied to public-sector organisations, is useful with regards to encouraging salient stakeholders to influence project management outcomes regardless of the organisation's structure or domain. Thus, demonstrating expert management abilities is viewed as an essential skill needed to achieve project success through stakeholder partnerships (Eskerod & Huemann, 2013; Lievens & Moenaert, 2000).

When managing project teams, the leader is expected to work collaboratively with the project team, including salient stakeholders to achieve the stated goals and objectives, as well as reduce potential follower challenges that impact project outcomes. Project challenges such as lack of allocated funding, non-sharing of information or expertise, an insufficient number of project members to meet deadlines, and have limited support from constituents are believed to reduce management's commitment to stakeholder involvement (Paul & Paul, 2011). As for the term "project-stakeholder," this is a newer term associated with project members that may include e-Government consultants, community organisations, consumer groups, and business partners that are impacted by an organisation's actions and decisions (Hwang & Thorn, 1999).

Like Hwang & Thorn's description of the project-stakeholder, Zhang et al. (2005) supports that view and posits that project-stakeholders may also consist of project managers, marketing team, users of implemented e-Government services, and inter-organisational staff members

across different departments (Nangoli et al., 2012; Scott-Young & Samson, 2008). As for the role of the project manager, it is described as a range of functions that involve the use of innovation, strategic thinking, teamwork, and efficiency in motivating others to accomplish stated project goals on time and on a budget (Baars, 2006).

Based on the review of the literature on project management, the main stakeholder framework models that gained the interests of researchers and field-based management practitioners across various industries are: (1) stakeholder management models; project leaders engaging stakeholders in facilitating strategic management initiatives to provide input, influence innovation, and build project or organisational support (Freeman, 1984); (2) stakeholder decision-making models; the involvement of stakeholders in the decision-making process to support innovation and organisational goal setting (Keeney, 1992); (3) stakeholder reporting models; providing integrated governance and new financial information to stakeholders through written reports and online to improve transparency and improve the relationship between communities and organisations (Stewart, 1997).

Numerous researches have shown that maintaining regular and effective communication between management and the project team (including stakeholders) is essential to achieving project success and developing a cohesive team that is committed to informal and formal communication and commitment to their assigned roles (Lievens & Moenaert, 2000; Weaver, 2007). Typically, contemporary business stakeholder groups could include shareholders (investors), employees, customers (buyers), key suppliers, community members, constituent groups (investor, unions, politicians), competitors, and government agencies (Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Emshoff & Freeman, 1979; Freeman, 1984). Baker (2007) found in his study on management practices that the team's commitment to work hard and the ability for the group to

demonstrate consistent performance over time was strongly influenced by the project managers communication skills. That encompasses communication in the form of both non-verbal behaviours and written communication messaging.

Notably, the importance of non-technical competencies, such as effective communication, team collaboration, and project commitment is not a new phenomenon in project management literature. Investigative studies conducted by Ng et al. (2008) and Nangoli (2010) and an earlier study by Yammarino and Naughton (1988) confirmed through their research findings that intergroup communication positively impacts project performance and commitment of project leaders, stakeholders, and other important team members.

2.7 Overview of Leadership Perspectives

The topic of leadership is studied by many scholars and practitioners in relation to different sectors and business organisations. Yet there is not a formal unitary definition that describes different types of leadership approaches (Kellerman, 2012; Northhouse, 2013). One tentative explanation for this definition confusion or uncertainty, according to Kellerman (2012) and Iles and Feng (2011) is that traditional twentieth century leadership styles in contrast to 21st century approaches, were typically more leader-centric focused (e.g., use of delegation, power, and authority) instead of emphasizing a distributed and network form of leadership that is follower-centric and compatible with today's diverse workforce environment. Moreover, it should be noted that the traditional leadership role also functioned according to a hierarchical leadership and rigid management order in an economically stable economy before the two global financial recessions (Latham & Braun, 2011).

Joseph C. Rost (1991) conducted a critical examination of 450 journal articles and books on the fundamental changes relative to management and leadership roles for the past 9 decades.

As part of the investigation on the two conventional roles, he explored the historical role changes, responsibilities, and characteristics related to leadership competencies from 1900 to 1980 and found that the existing literature focused predominately on leadership dimensions and not the management construct. Further, much of the available literature did not distinguish between the management and leadership roles; thus the two terms were used interchangeably.

In trying to determine the differences between the two roles, given the importance of the leadership function, he defined management as "Management is an authority relationship between at least one manager and one subordinate who coordinate their activities to produce and sell particular goods and/or services" (Rost, 1991, p. 145). On the other hand, leadership was defined as "Leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes" (p. 102). Thus, Rost (1991) in his research analysis concluded that the vast historical differences from 1900 to the current, as conceptualized in the leadership research literature, is that management and leadership functions are viewed as interrelated styles. Consistent with Rost's perspective, Bennis and Nanus (1986) on the topic of leading and managing stated the following comparative viewpoint,

> To manage means to bring about, to accomplish, to have responsibility for, to conduct. Leading is influencing, guiding in direction, course, action, and opinion. This distinction is crucial. Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing. (p. 221)

However, in more contemporary research, it is argued by management strategist and professor Henry Mintzberg (2009), that conceptually one could compartmentalize the two functions, but in real-world practices, the separation of management and leadership can appear dysfunctional or become problematic. Moreover, another point Mintzberg made was that

"leaders who don't manage won't know what is going on; management without leadership is demoralizing." In the earliest work on the topic of leadership, it was more prevalent during that period to describe management as inclusive with leadership, which is why overtime leadership was explored as a transformational construct without a separate definition for the applied management function.

2.7.1 Autocratic Approach: 1900-1930s

When examining the leadership literature regarding past and current conceptual definitions of leadership, Rost (1991) posits that during the first three decades of the 20th century, the control leadership style was universally accepted and regarded as an effective leadership approach across different workplace industries. He purports that this style of leadership emphasized a classical dictatorial behaviour associated with exhibiting control, power, and dominance over the followership within a structured and restrictive work environment to achieve organisational goals. In conducting the first formal experimental research study on leadership decision-making behaviours, Kurt Lewin and colleagues (1939) revealed that the autocratic style of leadership expected obedience and did not involve followers in the decision-making process, which caused dissatisfaction among personnel.

During this period, Moore (1927) offered a telling definition for this traditional type of leadership at a conference and suggested that it is "the ability to impress the will of the leader on those led and induce obedience, respect, loyalty, and cooperation (p. 124). Consequently, from a realistic sense, this leadership type is the least popular of the leadership approaches and can result in high staff turnover overtime and frequent absenteeism. Some of the reasons for this response is linked to the behaviour of the autocratic leader. Typically, he or she will not seek or accept input from subordinates regarding business decisions, has little interaction and

communication with staff members, and avoids giving an explanation or justification for decisions made.

2.7.2 Trait Approach: 1930-1940s

In the fourth decade; the 1930s to 1940s, the leadership trait perspective or good man theory (see, Carlyle, 1849; Galton, 1869; Stogdill, 1948), suggested that he or she had genetic qualities and character traits that qualified he or her for leadership authority (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991). This 19th-century view was first theorized in Carlyle's (1849) heroic leadership view and Galton's (1869) trait factor book *Hereditary Genius,* which postulated that genetic leadership traits were passed from one generation to the next.

Notably, in comparison to the strict/control leadership theory, this perspective dominated the 20th-century discourse on leadership and influenced practitioners to adopt the belief that innate personality traits and background factors were crucial to influencing followers to achieve organisational goals versus the dominate leadership ability mindset. Therefore, in the 1930s and 1940s, the trait approach to shaping new leaders, which is considered opposite of the domination viewpoint, gained popular public appeal across different contextual workplace environments (Zaccaro, 2002). Moreover, in recent years researchers have demonstrated a renewed interest in the trait theory leadership perspective and have conducted quantitative research studies utilising survey personalities assessment instruments such as the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator or the Leadership Trait Questionnaire (LTQ). The specific goal of these assessments is to distinguish leaders from non-leaders and potentially identify leaders by behavioural traits and personality characteristics (Bryman, 1992).

Stogdill (1948) in his first research study on leadership traits, found that leadership is determined by situational conditions and eight behavioural competencies that differentiated

leaders from non-leaders in the workplace setting: (a) intelligence, (b) alertness, (c) insight, (d) responsibility, (e) initiative, (f) persistence, (g) self-confidence, and (h) sociability. Moreover, in Stogdill's (1974) second survey on leadership traits, he concluded that there are ten relevant personality traits linked to effective leadership performance: (a) drive; responsibility and task completion; (b) vigor; persistence to achieve goals; (c) risk-taking; willingness to take a chance; (d) initiative; willing to initiate contact in social situations; (e) self-confidence; sense of personal identity; (f) accept consequences for actions; (g) stress, willingness to manage stress; (h) frustration; able to manage emotions; (i) influence; able to inspire others; (j) create social systems; ability to develop cooperative social group networks.

Although there is some overlap between Stogdill's first and second trait factor research findings, others such as Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991), from their review of the literature named six important traits that are viewed as innate characteristics or learned behaviours for effective leadership performance: (a) drive, (b) leadership motivation, (c) honesty and integrity, (d) self-confidence, (e) cognitive ability, and (f) task knowledge. In summary, the trait leadership approach is provisional and focuses primarily on leadership traits or characteristics which are believed to influence work teams toward goal achievement (Bass, 1990). In this case, the emotional needs of followers and contextual situation do not guide this leadership approach, although Stogdill (1948) stated that situational conditions could influence this leadership style.

The main criticisms pertaining to the trait approach theory (see Colbert et al., 2012; Derue et al., 2011; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991) is associated with the behavioural element. Northouse (2013) addressed the inadequacy of using traits to select or identify potential leaders and contends that the research on leadership dating back 100 years identified an extensive list of traits that are without empirical evidence. Moreover, Bass (1990) added that the interpretation of

trait research findings is usually based on subjective data that does not consider the outcome produced by the demonstrated traits.

2.7.3 Behaviour Approach: 1950-1960s

During the fifth decade, which was a period of global and political-social change, the behavioural leadership approach; unlike trait theory, was viewed as a non-aggressive style of leading that focused on the actions of the leader and relationships with followers (Northhouse, 2013; Rost, 1991; Yukl, 2002). In the 1950s there were three main leadership characteristics or themes that described "leadership" in the research literature. The three themes as conceptualized by Rost (1991), who is a scholar on the subject, documented the evolution of leadership. In general, he described the themes as: (a) a continuance of group theory; how leaders behave in a group; (b) leadership; a relationship that develops shared goals, thus leadership is view as a behaviour and not a trait; (c) group effectiveness; the ability to influence group behaviour to achieve strategic goals.

In the 1960s, leadership behaviour was still depicted as encouraging individuals to work toward shared goals cooperatively. Seeman (1960) argued that this leadership approach is viewed as "acts by persons which influence other persons in a shared direction" (p. 53). Further, the research examining the behavioural approach suggested there are two main types of leadership behaviours that are perceived as demonstrating effectiveness: (a) task behaviour; concerned with goal accomplishment of the group, and (b) relationship behaviour; help subordinates feel confidence in performing the assigned tasks. Therefore, depending on the workplace situation leaders will either become actively task oriented or relationship oriented as effective leaders.

2.7.3.1 Assessing Leadership Behaviour

In previous years to the present, the instrument commonly used to assess different leadership behaviours is the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), which was developed by researchers in the Ohio State University Studies Department (OSUS; Bass, 1990; Stogdill, 1974). In the present, it is still administered by various industries to identify potential leaders within the workplace. It consists of 150 questions that assess multiple behavioural characteristics associated with leadership behaviour. However, the problem with the behavioural reasoning constructs, according to Yukl (1994), is that it fails to prove how leadership style/or behaviour relates to an employee or organisational performance outcomes. In this regard, behaviour theory criticisms are similar to trait leadership theory, meaning the theory does not objectively identify the correlational leadership traits or characteristic behaviours that led to certain performance outcomes.

2.7.4 Situational Approach: 1970-1980s

In the sixth decade, the situational approach to leadership was initially introduced by Hersey and Blanchard (1969) and was revised several times by the same researchers (Blanchard et al., 1993). Although there is not a large body of research published on the approach, it has remained a predominant leadership style that is frequently used to train and reinforce leader's behaviour and direct project activities toward achieving organisational goals (Rost, 1991). Thus, conceptually the situational leadership model, presented by Miller and Blanchard (2014), is a flexible management approach that quickly adapts to the needs of the work environment or circumstances. To be effective there are two main behavioural approaches relevant to effective leadership, which are: (a) providing directives; clarifying work tasks; and (b) supporting

subordinates through coaching; influence performance and develop positive workplace relationships.

Furthermore, there are four dimensions of leadership support and developmental levels classified as leadership styles and developing employee abilities, with each behaviour dependent on a different style of leadership behaviour to match the contextual situation and the follower's developmental needs. According to Blanchard et al. (1993) in the revised model, situational leadership II, leadership styles are identified as first style (S1); second style (S2); third style (S3); and fourth style (S4). As for each developmental level, they are identified as development level one (D1); development level two (D2); development level three (D3); and development level four (D4) (see Figure 6).

Figure 6. Situational Leadership Model (Blanchard et al., 1993).

2.7.4.1 Situational Developmental Levels

With regards to defining leadership styles, the first style (S1) is identified as directing the behaviour of others and is described as high in directives and low in management support. Thus, communication and close supervision are critical to this leadership type. The second style (S2) is recognized as the coaching approach and is highly directive and maintains a highly supportive

role. Leaders focus on maintaining regular communication on achieving stated goals and providing encouragement to satisfy subordinates socioemotional needs in the workplace. Third style (S3) is a leadership approach that is highly supportive, but with lesser directive behaviour. The focus is to help personnel develop the skills needed to effectively perform job tasks, which requires leaders to engage in active listening, seek input, provide regular feedback, and give recognition to support the efforts of the group or individual. The last leadership behaviour, fourth style (S4) is the delegating role that gives low support and low directives to personnel. Also, with this approach, the leader allows subordinates to make essential decisions and gives little input for planning processes, which bolsters the group's confidence to complete the assigned project successfully (Davis, 2014).

Blanchard et al. (1993), presented the *development levels of subordinates* as the second step of the situational leadership model and described them in terms of job competence and commitment needed by subordinates to complete an assigned task (see Figure 6). The four developmental levels are associated with the degree of assessed commitment and competence of subordinates, which is described on a developmental continuum from D1 to D4, with D1 representing employees with lower competence, but high in commitment and D4 identifies employees that are high in job development and worker commitment. As for the D1 category, it is low in competence and high in commitment; thus employees are usually unskilled but excited to have the training opportunity to learn a new job skill.

As for D2 level employees, they learned the job and had some experience but lack the motivation to perform the job adequately. Although they have the necessary competencies to perform the job, they lack the necessary commitment to getting the job done. As for D3 employees, they have a moderate to high level of work experience to perform the job but lack the

confidence to effectively complete the job without co-worker support. The D4 employees developed the necessary skills, have competence, motivation, and the commitment to effectively complete the job as requested and expected by the leadership team (Blanchard et al., 1993).

Thus, in summary, the overall intent of the situational leadership approach is to mix and match prescriptive or nuances of leadership approaches to the developmental needs of followers to influence their work performance. As discussed earlier by Blanchard et al. (1993), this is accomplished by demonstrating the following leadership techniques: (a) evaluating employees' commitment to complete project tasks, (b) assessing their level of maturity and competencies (skills) and training to complete specific tasks assigned by the project leader, and (c) develop a rapport with followers. (Blanchard et al., 1993; Miller & Blanchard, 2014)

2.7.4.2 Weakness of the Situational Approach

Although the situational leadership model is recognized as a simple leadership/management approach for the workplace, Blank, Weitzel, and Green (1990) suggest that there are fundamental weaknesses with the model in relation to matching different prescriptive types of leadership styles to the maturity level of followers. For example, with reference to the flexible model, the first set of weaknesses are conceptual errors in attempting to assume the maturity level of followers and predicting the type of prescriptive leadership support needed to meet the behavioural and developmental needs of different employees.

According to Yukl (1989), the situational approach narrowly describes the four developmental levels associated with the two constructs *commitment and competence*. For example, in looking at the development levels, how does one know what type of leadership style offers support to employees and what style might improve the developmental behaviour of subordinates? Also, Blanchard and colleagues (1993) failed to explain the degree of different

types of leadership effort needed to improve commitment and competence across the multiple developmental levels (Yukl, 1989). Another named weakness is that the underlying correlates between leadership style, performance, and follower development are unclear, based on the proposed definitive descriptions of leadership styles provided by the authors.

2.8 Democratic and Participative Leadership: 1980-1990s

The democratic leadership model is recognized as a shared decision-making process (Locke & Schweiger, 1979) and sharing influence with followers' approach (Mitchell, 1973). In an earlier definition, it was formally defined by Gastil (1994) as "Distributing responsibility among the membership, empowering group members, and aiding the group's decision-making process" (p. 958). Basically, it focuses on developing positive relationships between leaders and followers and establishing quality relational interactions to meet the needs of individuals or a project team to accomplish mutual goals (Antonakis, 2012).

From a democracy perspective, there are different types of democratic leadership models such as the path-goal theory (*achievement-oriented leadership behaviour*), contingency theory (*leader-match theory*), servant leadership (*follower interests over leaders self-interest*), leader-member exchange theory (LMX; *maintain positive leader-member interactions*), and transformational leadership (*engage and empower subordinates to become leaders*) which are viewed as subordinate-centric styles that focuses on the influence of the leader on the development of subordinates for optimal task performance (Muller & Turner, 2007).

In looking at the public value of a democratic work environment based on social exchange and interactions, it is evident that organisational values are critical to building and developing supportive relationships between leaders and followers (Gawthrop, 1998). As a result, characteristics such as trust, fairness, mutual respect, accuracy, and effective commitment to the

organisation may positively improve the culture of the workplace environment and raise follower productivity and motivation (Bass, 1990). Myer et al. (2002) described affective organisational commitment as "an emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation" (p. 21). Thus, followers that demonstrate this type of in-role behaviour are more likely to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), which is associated with high job satisfaction, extra effort, and lower employee turnover (Bass, 1998; Podsakoff et al., 2009; Zhu et al., 2013).

Although this leadership style is considered progressive and beneficial to organisations, there are shortcomings with the democratic/participative approach that limits managerial effectiveness in the workplace. For example, with reference to participative decision-making processes, Choi (2006) and Yukl (1999a), emphasized that organisations using a democratic/participative approach become challenged when group consensus is needed to move forward with administrative decisions and project activities. Thus, more meeting time and discussions are needed between the leader and followers to build consensus and a sense of inclusion among team members (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2003).

The assertions by other researchers are that in a democratic workplace environment, management is expected to place the needs of followers above those of the organisation to maintain employee motivation and engagement (Gawthrop, 1998; Northhouse, 1997). Organisational studies have reported that when leaders exhibit undemocratic characteristics in a perceived supportive and democratic environment, dissatisfaction with management develops among the followers (Bloom, 2000; Greenfield, 2004).

2.9 Transformational and Transactional Approach: 21st Century

To date, the two most highly researched leadership styles is transformational and transactional leadership behaviours (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). With increasing acceptance within the last 20 decades, the transformational style has become a globally recognized leadership paradigm (Bryman, 1992), that is espoused as transforming individuals and organisational environments (Keegan & Den Hartog, 2004).

The first approach, transformational leadership was first coined by Downton (1973) and reconceptualized by Burns (1978), a political sociologist that characterized this approach as relational with an emphasis on meeting the intrinsic needs of followers. However, later, the concept was revised by Bass (1985) who essentially proposed that effective leaders are both transformational and transactional, and as a result, transactional leadership is more likely to result in employees satisfying the demands and expectations of employers (Bass, 1999). In addition, he argued that transformational leadership is needed to stimulate higher motivation among employees.

Burns (1978) in his reconceptualization separated transformational and transactional leadership and treated them as two separate relationship-based concepts that may transform followers into leaders and leaders into moral managers. Hence, this viewpoint supports the belief that to create a shared vision among followers, engage or identify with others, and establish transactional relationships that motivate both leaders and followers, then transformation leadership is required (Bass, 1985; Zhu et al., 2013). Therefore, transformational leaders need to be attentive to the motivation levels of followers to help them reach their full potential (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994). In short, from a more practical stance, a transformational

manager/leader is one that is charismatic and committed to meeting the social and emotional needs of a group or team to affect their job performance and optimism (Kirkbride, 2006).

2.9.1 Charismatic Traits in Leadership

Another perspective related to leadership characteristics is the show of charisma and emotional intelligence to improve follower's personal efficacy and higher productivity (Antonakis, 2012; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). House (1977) is recognized as the first to apply the concept "charisma," which has significantly impacted today's modern organisational studies. In identifying its function, Bass (1985) argued that charismatic behaviour is necessary and complements the transformational style but cautioned that it is not adequate nor effective as a sole characteristic of effective leadership. He emphasized four interrelated behaviours that are needed to function as a transformational leader: (1) charisma or Idealized influence, (2) inspirational motivation, (3) intellectual stimulation, and (4) individualized consideration.

The first construct introduced by Bass (1985), charisma or idealized influence, is described as leaders behaving in an idealized way that encourages followers to identify with the leader. As a charismatic leader, he or she exhibits courage and draws emotional attention that can build trust between the leader and followers. Second, inspirational motivation addresses the needs of followers and has high expectations regarding their performance. This dimension is associated with increasing follower motivation, commitment to the mutual vision, and improving collaborative teamwork. The third factor, intellectual stimulation encourages followers to think creatively to resolve project issues and to work as a team in designing potential solutions to problems related to organisational projects. This may mean disagreeing or challenging the ideas of the leader that are perceived as inadequate. The fourth factor, individualized consideration is a

competency that is needed to create a supportive work environment. It requires evaluating follower's developmental needs to help them reach their potential.

Since Bass's introduction of the behavioural dimensions pertaining to transformational leadership, House (1998), elaborated and identified four overlapping transformational-charismatic factors that are consistent and overlap with Bass's dimensions: (1) communicate high expectations to followers, (2) provide follower development, (3) intellectual stimulation, and (4) rewards and recognition. Except for the first three dimensions, which mostly name changes, the fourth factor was newly added by House to address the contingent reward expected by employees for improved job performance.

2.9.2 Strengths of Transformational Leadership

The strengths of this leadership style are related to the leader listening to the input of followers and acting as a coach or mentor to advance their knowledge and abilities. Moreover, the leader may attempt to adjust the level of supervision to match the developmental needs of subordinates. According to Judge and Piccolo (2004), transformational behaviour exhibited by leaders is positively linked to improved follower performance and higher self-efficacy (i.e., belief in one's ability to effectively execute a task) which benefits the organisation. Based on their longitudinal study, they evidenced that transformational leadership in conjunction with contingent rewards does result in higher employee performance.

According to Burns (1978) and Bass and Avolio (1994), Mohandas Gandhi, Nelson Mandela, and Julius Caesar are unique examples of how transformational/transactional leadership behaviour and the sharing of power can influence social change.

2.9.3 Limitations of Transformational Leadership

Given the growing interest in the transformational leadership style, it is essential to identify the limitations of this approach. Tracy and Hinkin (1998) noted that the four descriptive dimensions noted by Bass (1985): (a) charisma or idealized influence, (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individualized consideration, overlap in meaning which suggest that there is not a clear or single definition that describes a transformational leader. Also, Bryman (1992) argues that the transformational style is theoretically discussed in the organisational literature as a personality trait instead as a leadership behaviour that one develops over time. Despite the criticisms regarding this style of leadership, Northouse (2007), asserted that it is "One of the current approaches to leadership that has been the focus of much research since the early 1980s, is the transformational leadership approach" (p. 175).

2.10 Transactional Leadership Role

The transactional leadership approach was introduced by Max Weber (1947), a 20th-century sociologist that described the transactional role as "monocratic (p. 337). Later, contemporary researchers Burns (1978) and Bass (1985), reconceptualized the leadership style as a rigid and bureaucratic approach to leading followers. In the research literature, it is theorized that this leadership behaviour can induce subordinates to satisfy the leader's performance expectations with the use of contingent rewards and punishment to motivate employees toward performance goals (Bass, 1996; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Jung & Sosik, 2002; Lowe et al., 1996).

In contrast to transformational behaviour, this impersonal style is viewed as authoritarian (i.e., controlling form of management) and does not focus on the individual needs or goals of their followers like transformational leaders (Burns, 1978). Instead, the transactional leader is inflexible and concerned with the bottom line contractual agreement between leaders and

followers, which the leader uses to influence improved work performance for successful project outcomes. As such, both leader and followers focus on their own self-interests and agree to contingency rewards in the form of workplace incentives (e.g., job promotion, wage increase, or employee praise/recognition) in exchange for improved work performance (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Yukl, 1999a).

Consequently, if the subordinate does not satisfy the performance expectations or individual goals set by the project leader, then contingent disciplinary actions such as suspension or termination are used to address performance issues. Therefore, in summary, the four dependent behavioural dimensions that describe transactional leadership exchange processes are the following (Hickman, 1998):

- Contingent Rewards. Transactional exchanges are linked to employee rewards and performance expectations.
- Active Management by Exception. Transactional leaders monitor work performance, making sure subordinates meet the expectations outlined by the leader. Thus, corrective actions are applied if problem situation persists.
- Passive Management by Exception. Transactional leaders will apply close supervision if employee performance standards are not satisfied. Thus, corrective actions will be applied if the expected performance is not satisfied.
- Laissez-Faire. The leader refrains from engaging in the decision-making process and authorizes an individual or the project team to make decisions without the leader's input or approval.

2.10.1 Limitations of Transactional Leadership

However, According to Yukl (1999b) at the group level, the main limitation of the transactional management approach is that it does not integrate coaching or mentoring to help followers toward meeting their employment agreement. Instead, the leader attempts to negotiate a reward with followers for improved performance and monitors their performance before responding to the issue. As a result, the leader can be perceived as strict and rigid by followers and ineffective due to a sense of lower job satisfaction, which can lead to staff turnover or lower morale (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Another criticism is that a rigid workplace environment and applied rules may limit employee creativity and motivation, especially those that do not meet the desired performance expectations (Yukl, 1999b).

2.11 ICT Project Stakeholder

In the leadership research studies, there is considerable agreement among both researchers and business practitioners that effective management at the mid-level and senior level are important for successful project implementation and outcomes in global ICT customer markets (Anantatmula, 2010). Throughout the process of project planning, organisation ICT efforts are broadly supported by IT specialist, designers, developers, technicians, and stakeholders (Bennett, 2009). Moreover, in the IT literature, project-stakeholder commitment is recognized as a contributing factor to achieving a high level of project success (Scott-Young & Samson, 2008). Moreover, it is argued that showing a lack of commitment toward project goals may be an early warning of potential project failure (Korzaan & Morris, 2008).

To reiterate, the general meaning of the term stakeholder is defined as one that can affect or is affected by the implementation of a project (Freeman, 1984; Nangoli et al., 2012). In contrast, the term “Project-Stakeholder” is a newer term associated with constituencies that may

include e-Government clients, organisations, business partners, and customers impacted by decisions made by management (Hwang & Thorn, 1999). Like Hwang and Thorn's (1999) description of the stakeholder group, Zhang et al. (2005) suggests that project-stakeholders also include project managers, community members, users of electronic government services, and inter-organisational staff members (Scott-Young & Samson, 2008). Furthermore, Friedman and Miles (2006) noted that it is important to have diverse stakeholders with varying viewpoints, educational backgrounds, ethnicities, nationality, and work experiences relevant to the product deliverable. This is not only beneficial to the project manager but enhances the effectiveness of the project team (Bond, 2016).

Consistent with this perspective, Ng and Walker (2008) in their ICT study, commented that "diverse stakeholders are important to team effectiveness across different "project delivery phases" (p. 408). Notably, they stated,

> "Managing complex projects information and communication technology (ICT) and information technology (IT) projects that not only involve delivering systems but also re-engineering management processes and customer interfaces requires a great deal of integration of the skills and input of a diverse range of specialized skills and technical resources as well as integration of equipment, technology and training and development of new skill sets to be used with the new "system." (p. 405)

In this ICT case study on project management and leadership styles (*transactional and transformational*), Ng and Walker (2008) used a participative action research approach to explore the lived experiences of stakeholders working on an ICT project and their perspectives on different leadership styles that impacted the outcome of short-term projects. Their objective

was to identify success and failure factors; technical and non-technical (soft skills) issues that impacted the cooperation and commitment of stakeholders to deliver a quality ICT product for public use as soon as possible.

The findings of the study suggest that the interactions between project leaders and stakeholders are critical to each implementation phase. Leaders that displayed the transformational competencies outlined by Dainty et al. (2005), such as organisational awareness, teamwork, and cooperation were more effective in gaining the trust of stakeholders, developing supportive relationships, and influencing an increased effort among lower-level employees (Ng & Walker, 2008). Other notable findings were linked to the frequent behaviour changes demonstrated by project leaders. Seemingly, they displayed more of a transactional style of leadership at the beginning of the ICT project (*phases 1 and 2*).

Thus, this resulted in stakeholder frustration with the project, lower engagement, and trust in the organisation and project leaders. However, in the third phase, the head project manager's behavioural change was perceived by stakeholders as supportive and as a role model (Ng & Walker, 2008). In general, like other similar studies stakeholders considered transformational leaders to be trustworthy, focused, and committed, which are traits associated with a high performing project team. For example, the study conducted by Kets de Vries (1999) on the influential relationship between project leaders and organisational teams reported seven fundamental principals associated with a high performing project team: (1) members respect and trust each other; (2) members protect and support one another; (3) members maintain open dialogue and communication; (4) members agree on mutual goals; (5) members subscribe to shared values and beliefs; (6) members make the objectives of the team a priority; and (7) members support distributed leadership.

Thus, the implications of this study suggest that project leaders that exhibit transformational behaviours are viewed more favorably by project-stakeholders. Moreover, the results suggest that project leaders need more than specialized technical skills (e.g., technical competence) to build an effective team capable of achieving the project objectives and organisational mission. Essential non-technical or soft skills (e.g., effective communication, emotional intelligence, problem-solving abilities, negotiation, influence, and team commitment; (PMI, 2013) are equally critical for ICT project success (Davis, 2014).

2.12 Effective Leadership in the IT/ICT Context

In recent decades, project leadership and project success have become popular subjects in the research literature (Atkinson, 1999). In the context of the technology industry, it is suggested that leaders or project managers that dismiss the critical importance of project-stakeholders as a resource in the IT/ICT decision-making and implementation processes are likely to not meet project goals (Sauser et al., 2009). Some IT researchers even contend that stakeholder involvement can prevent project failure and contribute to successful outcomes (Howell et al., 2010; Sauser et al., 2009; Shah & Naqvi, 2014). Further, others suggest that stakeholder viewpoints are essential in the project design and evaluation of IT systems due to their social network with other stakeholder groups. For instance, having insight such as knowing their technology needs, client technology user patterns, and engaging other stakeholders in the problem-solving process is valuable to project planning (Pardo & Jiang, 2007; Walsham, 1993).

In today's global business markets across disciplines, transformational leadership is positively linked to follower and stakeholder satisfaction, engagement, and achieving implementation goals on schedule (Yang et al., 2011). In addition, Clark (2009) who writes on the effects of leadership styles, noted that project leaders/or managers that demonstrate

transforming leadership characteristics are effective when working among team members, directing project goals, motivating the team, improving follower performance through coaching and mentoring, and facilitating learning (or learning by performing on the job) to achieve project goals (Anantatmula, 2010). Thus, whether it is a private or public service organisation, middle and top-level project managers are expected to deliver quality project outcomes because quality ICT products; if successful, will improve service delivery outcomes, customer satisfaction, and structural efficiency at each organisation level (Bond, 2016; Pardo & Jiang, 2007).

For example, in the context of IT or ICT public service projects, expanding and delivering integrated e-Government technologies (e.g., self-service apps, wireless technology, and internet-based payment systems), is critical to improving client usage, public trust, and confidence at the national and local government levels (Tolbert & Mossberger, 2006).

2.13 Leadership in Project Management

In the current project management (PM) literature relative to ICT and smart computing technology, there are a paucity of studies that highlight leadership as a critical factor to predicting project success (Hall & Dentico, 1997). It is believed that this is attributed to the common belief that he or she can effectively lead because of personal demographic factors or technical abilities (Ng & Walker, 2008). Furthermore, according to McGuire (2006), it is also erroneously assumed that IT managers have the technical experience, competencies, and communicative skills needed to work effectively with cross-functional teams consisting of internal and external stakeholders. As such, these assumptions are problematic because project managers and senior leaders may lack effective soft skills and experiences needed to motivate stakeholders or followers.

Given the fact that project management and leadership characteristics overlap, Anantatmula (2010) describes the differences between the two leadership functions to clarify the effect on followers and stakeholders in the project management context. He describes project management as a process involving planning, implementation, and organizing activities to improve the effectiveness of the project. In contrast to PM, Anantatmula explains that the leadership role is directing followers to engage in problem-solving and to work collaboratively to achieve the stated project objectives (Bond, 2016; Tinoco, Sato, & Hasan, 2016).

Further, he suggests that effective leadership is "motivating and guiding people to realize their potential and to achieve tougher and challenging organisational goals," (Anantatmula, 2010, p. 14). Hence, in support of the transformational leadership style, Swanepoel et al. (2000) posited that leadership approaches that influence organisational commitment among stakeholders could help organisations increase their competitiveness and achieve project goals. Moreover, Priyanka and Taranjeet (2016), studies on leadership behaviours associated with the information technology (IT) sector, posit that transformational leadership greatly influences a follower's organisational commitment and job performance when they perceive project managers or executive leaders have transformational values and behaviours.

2.14 Leadership Development

As noted earlier, much of the earlier literature on project management and leadership failed to investigate leadership performance and the developmental critical success factors that determine project outcomes (Hall & Dentico, 1997). Consequently, the omission has incorrectly attributed project failures to technical reasons instead of leadership incompetence (i.e., hard and soft skills), and inadequate project management training and development. According to Ng and Walker (2008), in the work environment, organisational leaders that effectively maximize

stakeholder engagement and commitment, trust, information sharing and cooperation, and stakeholder satisfaction are rated as effective dyadic leaders (Avolio & Gardner, 2005).

One definition offered for leadership development defines it as the ability to improve or extend a person's essential skills, abilities, and performance capabilities to work as an effective leader and collaborator in his or her assigned leadership role (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Tinoco, Sato, & Hasan, 2016). In the research on the professional development of managers, the need for government organisations and private firms to invest in the growth and development of their leaders to improve leader performance, business success, and follower satisfaction is strongly recommended (Hall & Dentico, 1997). Specifically, the social impact of producing and sustaining quality leaders' overtime can result in increased business growth, financial profitability, achieving organisational goals, and employee retention (Bond, 2016; Cacioppo, 1998).

2.14.1 Performance Feedback: 360 Method

As a leadership development strategy, to build future project managers and executive leaders within an organisation, feedback online managers and senior leaders' performance as perceived by their followers can be useful to a manager's growth inside the workplace (Eskerod, Huemann, & Ringhofer, 2015). With the intent to inform top administrative leaders on skill gaps, structured feedback captured by the 360-performance evaluation is commonly utilised by human resource departments. The feedback ratings on the performance assessment tool is designed to assess a leader's professional skills, group interactions, overall performance, and strengths and weakness that make he or she effective or ineffective in managing the day-to-day operations.

The 360-degree feedback methodology is currently used by 90% of all fortune 500 corporations as a human resource appraisal tool to improve the performance of current and

potential organization leaders (Atwater & Walkman, 1998). Rodgers' et al. (2002) findings suggest that organisations viewed the 360-degree feedback method as critical to supporting leadership development and improving the relationship between followers and leaders (Atwater et al., 2000). Another study revealed that 50% of the 360-degree participants experienced improved work performance and leadership skills because of receiving different feedback from selected 360-feedback raters (Fulmer & Goldsmith, 2000).

Operationally, the feedback process using the 360-degree methodology involves the selection of 6 to 10 individuals to become performance raters, and the leader completes a self-evaluation sheet for later comparison with the gathered feedback. The assessment tool completed by anonymous individuals, rate the leader's performance, professional job strengths and weaknesses that may support or limit the organisations mission and leadership effectiveness. Next, the completed information is collected and analyzed; then a formal feedback report is prepared to inform the project leader on what professional development and training is needed to function as an effective leader.

However, organisations should be aware that there are some methodological concerns expressed by researchers, individuals receiving the feedback, and employers working in public and private work settings (Nowack, 1998, 2005). Nowack (2005) discusses four primary limitations that can lead to leaders feeling a sense of frustration with the group evaluation process. The first criticism of the 360-degree feedback relates to matters of subjective opinions given by raters, which may not provide valuable insight into the developmental needs of the manager. As a result, within the organisation, this can discourage future participation in the evaluative feedback technique. The second concern is that over-raters tend to focus on personality weaknesses instead of offering objective comments regarding actual work

performance and skills. As a result, this can demotivate participants and cause dissatisfaction with the evaluative performance process. The third criticism is that performance raters make suggestions that may be perceived by the leader as unfair or unrealistic expectations. Lastly, the fourth complaint is that participants may refuse to accept the rater's feedback and discontinue the evaluative process due to perceived negative experiences associated with the process.

Despite these limitations, according to McCauly et al. (2004), if the results are openly accepted, a manager can benefit from professional development opportunities in the form of leadership coaching, mentoring, classes or job-related training to close the skill development gaps (Nowack, 2005).

2.15 Project Management Planning

In the research on project management (PM), the relationship between leadership and project management techniques are seen as complex processes that emphasize various leadership styles and business operations (Tinoco, Sato, & Hasan, 2016). Moreover, project management remains one of the most widely discussed topics in the behavioural sciences, business organisations, and in the leadership studies literature (Rost, 1991). Theoretically, leadership performance is viewed as fundamental to project planning because of the emphasis on influencing the work of project teams and determining what individuals can effectively work together as a team to generate positive results (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2005; Patterson, 2010).

Project management planning is an important step that is critical to launching new ideas, new programs, or services in public sector organisations. It is described as a function that encompasses innovation, strategic thinking, project action, and proficiency to accomplish project goals on schedule and on budget (Baars, 2006; Missonier & Loufrani-Fedida, 2014). When managing project teams, it is essential to follow a sequence of formal steps to problem-solve

challenges and limitations and access cross-organisational support from internal and external stakeholders (Paul & Paul, 2011). Figure 7 below illustrates a planning outline used to assist in the coordination and implementation of PM activities. The sequential six-phase model for PM is displayed below (Wijnen, 2004):

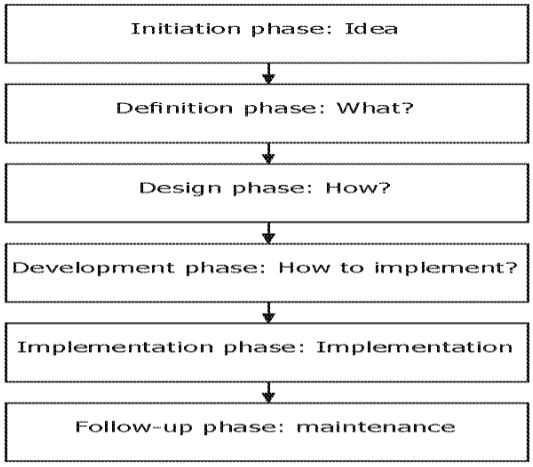

Figure 7. Six Phases of Project Management (Wijnen, 2004).

Wijnen (2004) described the six phases as critical for optimal project planning and implementation. Phase 1 is the formal initiation stage of a project; it begins with an idea or end goal and requires information gathering on the possible challenges and limitations. Phase 2 is the definition stage, which defines the purpose of the project and involves information gathering and research on best practices. Phase 3 is the design phase and involves analyzing and sequencing the project planning steps needed to complete different tasks. For the third stage, total project time, the arrangement of financial resources, and additional education and training are reviewed to achieve the desired results. In Phase 4, the development phase, this is an examination of the support resources needed to implement and sustain the project management plan effectively; this can include seeking additional management support or government support, funding, regulatory changes, collaboration with stakeholders, and procurement of necessary resources (Zhai, 2009).

Phase 5 is the implementation phase. This is the action stage that involves the strategic execution of the project plan. The final stage is Phase 6, and it is considered the follow-up step; it is the maintenance and assessment of the results through continuous feedback.

Collectively, these important six steps are used as critical indicators by project managers to determine if the project was effectively implemented; especially the last step, which is regularly monitored to assess needed changes (Baar, 2006).

2.15.1 Project Management Challenges

The Standish Group (2013), an international advisory organisation that investigates information technology trends and global project management practices for IT solutions, found that a significant amount of money was spent on deploying innovative IT projects (Blaskovics, 2016) with only one-third of IT projects completed successfully (Lee-Kelley & Loong, 2003; Standish Group, 2013). In addition, the Standish Group (2009) also focuses attention on IT problems related to non-technological project management issues, such as the implementation of deliverables, and end user results.

Specifically, issues that result in failure at different implementation phases of the project are often due to inadequate planning, lack of management support, poor leadership, lack of technical skills, regulatory policy changes, and misalignment of organisational goals and project goals (Brown & Brudney, 1998; Cats-Baril & Thompson, 1995; Cross, 2005; Goldfinch, 2007). In this context, with research attention on IT outcomes, the group reported that although new IT projects increased by 44%, the IT project failure rate was 18% in 2004; 19% in 2006 (Standish Group, 2008); and 44% in 2009 (Standish Group, 2009) due to poor project management, low user acceptance, and low consumer satisfaction. In general, it was pointed out that persistent budget shortfalls and scheduled completion overruns were common in both private and public IT

sector organisations, with 20% of IT projects canceled before they were fully completed (Lee, Kelley, & Looney, 2003; Standish Group, 2013).

Korzaan and Morris (2008) confirmed this failure claim and purported that the failure rate for IT projects was actually 60 to 80% for noncompletion. However, for high risks technical projects, there is an 85% failure rate that is attributed to non-technical problems (Nam & Pardo, 2011). In looking at information communication technology (ICT) project outcomes, Wright and Capps (2010) commented that with increased complexity of modern technology, ICT projects are expected to have budget overruns and schedule delays, thus causing total or partial project failures. For instance, one such example of ICT failure is the Ireland Health Service Executive (HSE) Personnel, Payroll, and Related Systems (PPARS) project with an allocated budget of $10.7 million (Elkadi, 2013). The ICT software replacement project implemented in 1995 to track employee functions, monitor work hours and attendance, and manage the payroll for a large hospital system with 120,000 employees was not carefully managed.

After 10 years of activity and spending $180 million, the PPARS project was discontinued in 2005 before completion because of failures related to: (a) lack of project management leadership; failed to meet regularly with stakeholders for project activity discussions and tracking, (b) lack of a clear vision; failed to define progress milestones and identify critical success factors (CSF); (c) implemented software project too quickly; HSE health systems were not technically ready for system changes; and (d) budget; no evidence of budgetary savings was reported (Sammon & Adam, 2010).

Concerning the second factor, Rockart's (1979) definition of CSF which is the most cited in the management literature, is described as "the limited number of areas in which results, if they are satisfactory, will ensure successful competitive performance for the organisation" (p.

85). He further noted that there are six main dimensions to assess CSFs for different management projects. They are: (1) industry-based factors, (2) competitive strategy, (3) industry position, (4) geographical factors, (5) environmental factors, and (6) temporal factors. According to Esteves (2004), the definition presented by Rockart (1979) on CSF indicates that there is an essential relationship between the organisational environment and management practices.

2.16 Critical Success Factors

Organisations that use CSFs as a source of information for planning and implementing various projects are likely to gain valuable information needed for strategic management considerations and when evaluating progress or failure of stated goals (Botwe & Aigbavboa, 2016; Esteves, 2004). For example, in the field of IT, it is well known that ICT projects have scheduled delays and may fail to deliver the expected benefits to consumer stakeholders. In a study conducted by Earnest and Young (2009) in the Czech Republic, they reported that more than 50% of ICT projects were not completed on time nor on budget. Thus, as a result, 5% of the projects were stopped before completion which resulted in partial failure because of problems linked to several recorded CSFs for implementation (Wright & Capps, 2010). Accordingly, the reasons for failure were linked to the following reasons:

- Lack of competency of project manager
- Poor project planning
- Lack of regular communication and project reflection
- Low support from top managers
- Lack of a clear vision and strategic approach to implementation

As noted by Ewusi-Mensah and Przasnyski (1991) and Whitaker (1999) complete IT failure is likely when non-technical concerns, related to organisational policy, project

management, and leadership competency are not aligned with CSFs. It is interesting to note that the degree of failure occurs more often with public sector e-Government organisations than in the private sector. According to Pieterson and Ebbers (2008), the reasons for the higher failure rate may be linked to several factors such as regulatory policies, lack of technical expertise, ICT project readiness, lower usage rates, and high budgetary costs. Thus, from an implementation perspective, this failure outcome may be linked to leadership not monitoring CSFs for strategic planning efforts. Figure 8 provides insight on this relationship with directional arrows pointing from the leadership dimensions to the client satisfaction factors and the three-factor iron project triangle (time + cost/or budget + quality; Globerson & Zwikael, 2002; Weaver, 2007).

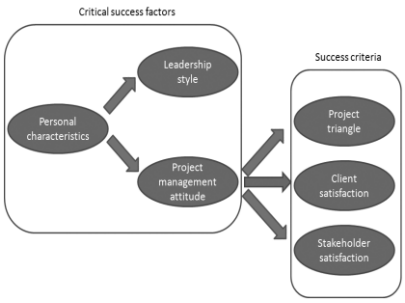

Figure 8. Critical Success Factors and Criteria (Blaskovics, 2016).

In the visual, conceptual model, the CSF one-way directional arrows point to critical factors needed to complete the project, such as control of budgetary cost and satisfying stakeholders. Keller (1992) and Geoghegan and Dulewicz (2008) posited that in recent years, critical evaluative factors associated with PM leadership such as performance (*competency level*), attitude, knowledge, and personal characteristics, which are relevant to effective leadership, are recognized as critical success factors (CSF) that impact project and budgetary performance.

Dr. Martin Barnes, who first introduced the three-factor iron triangle (i.e., time + cost/or budget + quality/or output) specification in his 1969 "Time and Money, Contract Control Course, revealed the interconnectedness between the three budgetary factors that are used to evaluate success and failure variables associated with project management implementation, product delivery, and product quality (Globerson & Zwikael, 2002; Weaver, 2007).

However, Baccarini (1999) argued that these three critical factors for success are not enough to evaluate leadership performance. Thus he proposed three additional critical measures that are viewed as positively correlated to successful project performance and project outcomes. They included "quality of the project management process; leadership performance; and satisfying project and stakeholder's expectations" (p. 28). It is interesting to note that earlier leadership studies, beginning with the 1970s to 1990s, focused primarily on the three-factor project triangle as the most important critical factors needed to assess project management success outcomes (Fortune & White, 2006; Nixon, Harrington, & Parker, 2012; Thomsett, 2002).

2.16.1 Critical Success Factors and Project Outcomes

Given the technological importance of advancing IT/ICT projects, such as smart city developments, it is useful to establish criteria success factors (CSFs) early in the development process to evaluate technical performance (Bond, 2016; Botwe & Aigbavboa, 2016). In this context, managers can utilise information data for decision-making purposes and propose new technological directions if needed (Gu, Hoffman, Cao, & Schniederjans, 2014; Slevin & Pinto, 1986). Interestingly, researchers studying CSFs have asserted that organisations in the same industries may report different internal or external CSFs based on the project focus (Rockart, 1982). In line with this idea, four studies on CSF were comparatively examined.

First, a study conducted by the Standish Group (1995) evaluated the critical factors that influenced product success for two IT firms. The researchers administered two measures: (1) survey questionnaires, and (2) qualitative interviews with IT business executives working for small and medium-size corporations. The research question was "what factors attributed to IT project success?" The findings suggest that three primary reasons led to project success: (1) broad user involvement, (2) executive management support, and (3) providing information on requirements. In addition, 11 other key success factors were modestly reported as critical to IT project outcomes. The following list represents the 11 project success factors and the response rate reported by study participants (Standish Group, 1995, p. 8).

1. End-User Involvement - 15.9%
2. Executive Management Support - 13.9%
3. Clear Statement of Requirements - 13.0%
4. Proper Planning - 9.6%
5. Realistic Expectations - 8.2%
6. Smaller Project Milestones - 7.7%
7. Competent Staff - 7.2%
8. Ownership - 5.3%
9. Clear Vision & Objectives - 2.9%
10. Hard-Working and Focused Staff - 2.4%
11. Other Success Factors - 13.9%

The second study conducted by DeLone and McLean (1992) analyzed over 100 peer-reviewed scholarly journals on IT leadership and project success from the years 1981-1987. In reviewing relevant journal articles, the researchers identified the CSFs commonly used for IT

industries, which they named the D&M success model. They proposed seven critical success factors within the IT industry that determine the success or failure of an IT or ICT system project. The seven interrelated CSFs are described as:

1. System quality. Evaluate the information processing system function.
2. Information and service quality. Measure information system output and the quality of the service function.
3. Information usage. Measure client engagement of the information system.
4. User satisfaction. Evaluate client usage and response to the information system.
5. Individual impact. Assess the use of the information received by the client.
6. Organisational impact. Evaluate the impact of the information on organisational performance outcomes.

In the third study, Slevin and Pinto (1986) defined CSF as "factors which, if addressed, significantly improve project implementation chances" (p. 22). The research on CSFs conducted by Slevin and Pinto examined project management practices and experiences of 50 project managers and found nine critical success factors that they deemed important to evaluating project implementation outcomes (see Table 2).

Table 2
Key Critical Success Factors

Critical Success Factor (CSF)	CSF Definition
1. Project Mission	Having clear project goals that are understood by the team and supportive unit.
2. Top Management Support	The degree of support and resources project management can expect to receive from the executive managers.
3. Project Schedule/Plan	The time schedule and project milestones for the implementation phase.
4. Client Consultation	Maintaining adequate communication of client needs and user needs.
5. Personnel	Establish a functional project team with the skills necessary to perform the task.
6. Technical Tasks	Possess the necessary technologies skills and expertise to perform the responsibilities of the job.
7. Client Acceptance	The act of selling or presenting the final project to the end-user.
8. Monitoring and Feedback	Maintaining and monitoring comprehensive information at each implementation phase for input.
9. Communication	Maintaining a network of team members and stakeholders and sharing information with key agents for feedback.

Source: The Project Implementation Profile: New Tool for Project Managers (Slevin & Pinto, 1986).

Furthermore, based on their findings, the researchers commented that it is essential to maintain project communication between and across multiple stakeholder groups and end-users throughout the project. When measuring progress, it is also essential to ensure shared information is consistent, and product troubleshooting coincides using the CSFs as an evaluative method to assess product completion and project success outcomes (Hyvari, 2006; Pinto & Slevin, 1988a). Also, later, due to the increasing complexity of technology, the researchers introduced three interrelated CSFs as a tool for analyzing project success: (1) technical validity; (2) organisation validity; and (3) organisational effectiveness. They are described as follows:

1. Technical Validity. Indicates the project is operating the way it should.
2. Organisation Validity. Evaluates if the project is satisfying client expectations.

3. Organisation Effectiveness. Evaluates the impact of the implemented project whether the feedback is positive or negative. User and stakeholder satisfaction are also assessed according to product sales and financial profit indicators (Pinto & Slevin, 1988b).

The results of the fourth CSF study introduce the factors framework developed by Atkinson, (1999). In this study, which he refers to as the square root model for IT project management, CSFs are categorized into four success factor dimensions: (1) benefits to stakeholder and client community; (2) information system success; (3) benefits to business and organisation, and (4) iron triangle (Atkinson, 1999).

Table 3
Atkinson's Square Root Success Factor Framework

Benefits to Stakeholder and Client Community	**Information System Success**	**Benefits to Organisation**	**Iron Triangle**
Satisfied Users Social and Environment Impact Personal Development Professional Learning Contractors Profits Capital Suppliers Content Project Team Economic Impact on the Surrounding Community	Maintainability Reliability Validity Information – Quality Use	Improved Efficiency Improved Effectiveness Increased Profits Strategic Goals Organisational Learning Reduced Waste	Cost Quality Time

Source: Atkinson's Square Root Success Factor Framework (Atkinson, 1999, p. 341).

Thus, in looking at various studies on CSF relative to the project management field, it is evident that multiple success factors before product delivery is essential (Gu et al., 2014). Yeoh and Koronios (2010) noted that this practice enhances organisation, processes, and technology development, which include identifying pre-project planning goals, configuration goals linked to the deliverable, securing on-going management support, improving team commitment,

developing system guidelines, improving user acceptance, and maintaining stakeholder commitment and satisfaction (PMI, 2013).

2.17 Defining Configuration Management (CM)

Heeks (2002) contends that many developed and underdeveloped countries have undertaken innovative e-Government ICT projects that focus on improving public policy, controlling financial resources, improving access to government digital services, and increasing technology user acceptance. Although the allocated financial resources and degree of stakeholder support may differ globally for high-risk technological projects, only a limited number will achieve complete or partial project success, and the others may completely fail (Pardo & Jiang, 2007).

Considering the role of management, which is described as a broad range of functions that involve different organisational activities with salient constituents (Dibb, Simones, & Wensley, 2014), the starting point to ICT system development and sustainability begins with configuration management (CM). Developed initially in the 1950s by the U.S. Department of Defense (DOD) to document and control system changes of constructed missiles, the CM literature for the field of technology, engineering systems, and product lifecycles, has produced a paucity of research studies on the role of configuration management in project planning, product implementation, and product delivery (Burgess et al., 2005).

There are multiple definitions for CM across different industries, that share similar descriptions of configuration approaches regarding function areas in project management. The first definition offered by Whyte et al. (2011) describes CM as a system engineering approach, that involves hierarchical, sequential, and asynchronous processes to manage change based on a product configuration baseline description. The U.S. DOD Military (2013) perspective states

that the CM purpose is "to ensure there is documentation which completely and accurately describes the intended design, the actual product matches the documentation, and there are processes in place, so this continues throughout the product's life (p. 10).

The last definition describes CM as technical and management processes that facilitate the requirements of a product, system or process from the point of implementation to the end of the project lifecycle (SAE International, 2011). As a result, the CM documentation helps project managers and stakeholders sustain baseline functional and configuration technical data requirements. Thus, in this situation, the configuration management (CM) framework is used to diagnose internal and external system changes, monitor the system build, make informed decisions, and apply immediate updates throughout the project lifecycle (Morris, 2013). Although CM is recognized as an important part of the project management process and is linked to change management decisions, the research literature on the CM practice is not recognized as an independent approach that can influence the quality of the product and reduce project time and budgetary cost (Ali & Kidd, 2013).

This is viewed as unfortunate, considering that to maintain the integrity of the product, CM provides internal and external project stakeholders with in-depth information on applied changes, product guidelines, build standards, and baseline information on project management standards to determine implementation readiness of product changes (Sebastianelli & Tamimi, 2003).

2.17.1 Implementation and Readiness Standards

With an increase in implementing high risk, IT projects, and significant financial support allocated to support new technology projects, it is important to establish organisation configuration control standards that align with the project and implementation goals (Kidd, 2001;

Subiyakto, Ahlan, Katiwi, & Sukmana, 2015). CM is essential to analyzing new and existing system builds and helping project leaders make decisions regarding implementation strategies and product performance (Billingham, 2008). The use of CSFs for configuration management planning will help configuration staff and project managers avoid potential project failure by establishing CM readiness factors and measuring the build effectiveness at different stages of development for product improvements (Ali & Kidd, 2012; Subiyakto et al., 2015).

Ali and Kidd (2014) conducted a literature review on CSF's relationship to CM and found no recent or past studies on the subject matter, although CSFs has been studied extensively across different industries (Fortune & White, 2006; Subiyakto et al., 2015; Wang & Liao, 2008). As a result, they conducted a mixed-methods approach with a qualitative case study on the relationship between CM and CSF, using a sample of CM professionals working in the aerospace and defense field. The study findings resulted in 13 success factors and seven failure factors, that are summarized below, with the CSFs listed first:

1. Management support
2. CM specialists and straightforward CM processes
3. Good standards
4. CM planning
5. Efficient software tools
6. Effective communication
7. Proper resources allocation
8. Training
9. Cooperation
10. Good leaders

11. Teamwork
12. Creative and committed professionals
13. Continuous improvement

The seven CM failure factors are,

14. Lack of management support
15. Lack of CM training
16. No clear career paths for CM personnel
17. Lack of resources
18. Lack of standardization
19. Poor user acceptance and continuous improvement strategies
20. Lack of communication, coordination, and cooperation. (p. 253)

Specifically, the results confirmed the value of CM as a methodology used to measure system processes and capabilities. The results suggest CSFs that are viewed as acceptable to CM professionals, may improve total quality outcomes and reduce the risk of failure (Ali & Kidd, 2012).

2.18 Total Management Quality Perspective

Griffin and Hauser (1992) have noted that in the context of project planning, the essential inter-linkages between marketing, manufacturing, engineering, and R&D can result in new quality products and more profitable outcomes that make a firm or organisation more efficient and productive over time. Considering that many government IT initiatives face technological and total quality management (TQM) challenges when developing and implementing innovative communication products, organisations may benefit from stakeholder involvement and feedback

to address unexpected end-user challenges (Bailur, 2006). Mansir and Schacht (1989) defined TQM as a management process that requires all individual efforts throughout an organisation to improve job performance.

Other researchers such as the Federal Quality Institute (FQI; 1989) described TQM as a quality management system that involves all managers and the participation of different staff members to achieve product satisfaction. Similarly, Harrington et al. (2012) described TQM as a quality-centered management tool that requires members of an organisation to work as a team to achieve long-term success and customer satisfaction. According to Stratton (1989) and Turof (2011), the main objectives of the TQM system for new product development is threefold. They explained that TQM as an organisational practice should focus on cost reduction measurements, increasing quality services, and product profitability by determining customer needs (i.e., implied and through consumer dialog), and satisfying specific market expectations of all stakeholders (Mansir & Schacht, 1989).

In today's markets, many corporations are committed to developing better products and services to gain a competitive edge over their rivals. Thus, making TQM an organisational philosophy and management practice is critical to delivering consistent quality to global consumer markets (Cheon & Stylianou, 2001). From this perspective, Dr. Joseph Juran, the recognized statistical guru that served as an international business management consultant and engineer, is credited with developing contemporary quality processes.

2.18.1 Joseph Juran's Contribution

Juran is widely known in the U.S. and Japan manufacturing industries as the father of quality control to improve management practices. He purported that quality extends beyond the

physical product and departments and instead must be a fundamental and continuous goal throughout the entire organisation (Raymond, 2008).

Based on the TQM philosophy noted above, he founded the modern total quality management movement during the 1950s, which derived from his consultancy work on "controlling for quality" with Japanese business leaders. From this experience, he developed the quality trilogy for quality planning (Donkin, 2008). According to DeFeo and Vecchio (1994), Juran named the quality management approach "quality trilogy" because it emphasized that business outcomes are determined by the quality of the product and services delivered by the organisation. Juran (1995) described the trilogy as a cross-functional (e.g., marketing, manufacturing, engineering, and research) team approach based on three interrelated managerial and collaborative processes that can improve business performance and product quality (Mullin, 1993). They are recognized as,

- Quality planning
- Quality control
- Quality improvement

Quality Planning. The process of identifying the customer base that consists of both internal and external stakeholder groups. This entails determining their product needs related to specific goods and customer services. Thus, with stakeholder feedback, organisational quality goals are established to meet consumer and NGO partner expectations without excessive cost. Thus, the objective is to demonstrate that the organisation's processes are effective and can satisfy operational quality goals (DeFeo & Vecchio, 1994).

Quality Control. This is determining what needs to be controlled and how to control it using established quality and product standards. For example, deciding on units of measurement

and product and performance standards and determining the quality of the outcome by evaluating and measuring the difference between the actual outcomes (DeFeo & Vecchio, 1994).

Quality Improvement. The process of demonstrating the need for improvement and administrative problem-solving. This involves identifying specific projects needing improvement and strategically leading or guiding the project toward needed change. Once a new project or redesigned project is targeted for necessary improvements, numerical metrics are analyzed to determine the financial impact. With support from business operations, management strategies are planned with the goal of sustaining quality improvements over time (DeFeo & Vecchio, 1994).

In addition to the three management phases outlined above, quality management planning involves changes to the organisational culture, mission statement, and stronger commitment from staff to achieve customer satisfaction (Early & Godfrey,1995). The two primary benefits of utilising a cross-functional team for the quality management approach is the reduction in project cost and less time needed to implement various phases of the product/or service development design requirements (Stephens & Juran, 2004). These various quality components result in significant implications for business operations and stakeholders. One example is that cross-functional teams improve decision-making outcomes, creativity, and problem-solving abilities from start to finish based on stakeholder's commitment.

2.18.2 Limitations of TQM

Although, Total Quality Management operationalized in private and public-sector organisations is a popular management philosophy for both small and medium-size enterprises, there are some noted criticisms such as: (a) a time-intensive process,(b) not practical for large organisations, (c) use of vague terminology, (d) lack of theoretical definition, (e) difficulties in

changing the institutional culture to a TQM mindset, and (f) perception that it is another management trend (Hensler & Klefsjo, 2004; Teschler, 1994). For example, Hensler and Klefsjo (2004) concluded that "The methodologies and tools for TQM are, in most cases, developed for large organisations." and "we as advocates for quality improvements, have to realize that the concept of TQM and, not least, the implementation process have to be adapted to the small organisation's context" (p. 61).

W. Edwards Deming (1994) also remarked that "the trouble with total quality management, the failure of TQM, you can call it, is that there is no such thing. It is a buzzword. I have never used the term, as it carries no meaning " (p. 22). Nevertheless, despite the remarks about weaknesses of the TQM practice, it remains a customer-centric focus that enables organisations to apply a stronger focus on delivering customer satisfaction and product quality from the design phase to implementation phase (Bellou, 2010).

2.18.3 ICT and Quality Management Planning

The performance of e-Government and smart government projects in the government sector are dependent on strategic and committed efforts of senior executives and organisational leaders to institutionalize specific CM standards and policies as part of the goal to construct digital infrastructures (Alshehri et al., 2012). In digital governments, e-Government and, m-Government have a higher probability of success if quality standards are applied and stakeholder involvement begins in the initial stages of ICT project development (Zack, 2003). To influence collaborative relationships with internal and external stakeholders, it is critical to have intergovernmental policies to guide each step of the project. For example, in the UAE these standards may include the following actions (Paul & Paul, 2011),

1. Establish reforms to make e-Government the new method for public service interactions in the UAE.

2. Deployment of services and applications designed to make services convenient for citizens and businesses.

3. Establish network readiness indices to evaluate feedback on ICT in the community.

4. Maintain and provide adequate internet bandwidth for citizens at an affordable price.

In today's growing high-tech consumer market, mobile technologies, cloud computing, and integrated Web software is being used for information storage and retrieval, automated data search, prototyping, and simulation functions (Whyte, Stasis, & Lindkvist, 2016). As such, in private and public-sector organisations, developing digital infrastructures that support smart city development are being led collaboratively across project-based ICT managers, researchers, specialists, and experienced IT computing experts as an organisational strategy for continuous innovation (e.g., new ideas, new practices) and quality improvement (Sorensen & Torfing, 2012; Zack, 2003).

Several studies have evidenced the vital relationship between the integrated specialized units and how their role is useful in achieving optimal project planning, marketing/branding, and seamless ICT deployment to diverse consumer markets (Hartley, 2005; Hospers, 2008; McLeod, Doolin, & MacDonell, 2012; Skinner, 1986). From a project management perspective, forming relationships with stakeholders (e.g., consumers or NGOs) that have an interest in the project and organisation can also improve the implementation of new technological system advancements that meet stakeholder expectations and product specifications (Braglia & Frosolini, 2014).

As a result, the organisation becomes more competitive because of stakeholder involvement and input into strategic planning activities (Gonzalez et al., 2004; Massonier &

Loufrani-Fredida, 2014; O'Shannassy, 2003). Thus, collectively as a project team, mutual commitment to building and maintaining highly complex IT/and ITC system projects that can satisfy consumer demands and expectations is necessary for smart city acceptance and adoption (Swanson, 2015). The use of the term "complex systems" refer to innovative high-tech projects that require effective management/and administrative support, significant funding, a long timeline to product implementation, and team collaboration between internal and external departments and unit stakeholders for effective decision-making (Davies & Hobday, 2006). For example, the existing research in the field of IT management articulated that significant cooperation and communication between product development teams, that are comprised of constituents from marketing, manufacturing, engineering, community, and R&D can collectively address the challenges related to understanding stakeholder needs and usage patterns (Cooper, 1983; Davis, 2014; Dutta, 2003; Griffin & Hauser, 1992; Kogure & Akao, 1983).

2.19 Quality Function Deployment

According to Stephens & Juran (2004) from an industrial perspective, the term "quality is primarily a business problem, not a technical problem (p. 84). A second definition from a managerial perspective suggest that the concept "quality" means meeting customers' needs and providing superior value. Crow (2016) and Deming (1986) defined it as satisfying the desires and needs of the customer. Although there are different definitions use in quality discussions to define "What is quality?" researchers and management practitioners cannot ignore the holistic fact that the multiple definitions emphasize three common values: (1) interests in customer needs; (2) focus on product value; and (3) importance of the business and stakeholder relationship. Thus, organisations that understand meeting consumer stakeholder needs through

delivery of quality products/services is not only crucial to their survival but can lower production costs and improve business performance and reputation (Hennig - Thurau, 2004).

Conceptually, Quality Function Deployment (QFD) was developed by Dr. Yoji Akao in Japan in the 1960s as a method to achieve product/or service quality (Akao, 1990). It is defined by AUT University (2000) as "a systematic approach to design based on a close awareness of customer desires, coupled with the integration of corporate functional groups" (p. 1). It is also defined by Akao (1990) as an effective system used to translate customer requirements into technical specifications using a product development structure and manufacturing requirements (Gonzalez et al., 2004). QFD is viewed as a cross-functional approach to designing specifications and applying the TQM philosophy to new product development (Basri, 2015; Sweet et al., 2010). The QFD concept is also described as an integrated learning strategy used to give consumer stakeholders a voice, by listening to their feedback and involving them in product/or service development decision-making (Gonzalez et al., 2004). As a result, this allows the organisation to become strategically proactive throughout the decision-making process thereby identifying quality problems early to respond to customer complaints (Herrmann et al., 2006).

In a study conducted by Chan et al. (1999) they found that organisations with a QFD environment experienced a 60% cost reduction in product design, 40% reduction in initial design time, improved communication, and improved relationships between management and employees. However, it should also be noted that a third of QFD applied projects were not profitable due to low customer satisfaction (Chan et al., 1999). In this instance, Wasserman (1993) suggest that the assessed consumer dissatisfaction may be related to inaccurate ratings or misinterpretation of their technical demands. Thus, although this noted concern raises essential

questions relative to the analysis of customer feedback, QFD remains a significant management tool to understanding the needs of stakeholders in different organisational domains (Drummond, 1992; Liu, 2011).

2.19.1 Edwards Deming: Father of Quality Management

The role of quality management in relation to quality improvement is perceived as a solution to achieving customer satisfaction, organisational efficiency, and improving product specifications (Liu, 2011; Walsh et al., 2002). It should be noted that the basic tenets of Total Quality Management (TQM) and Quality Function Deployment (QFD" derived from Frederick Taylor's (1911) perspective that not all project supervisors can design new products to determine the best techniques to construct quality end-products for customer satisfaction (King, 1987). Instead, he theorized it is the role of experienced production engineers to build quality designs into new products for organisational growth and success (King, 1987).

During the 1950s, like Juran, W. Edwards Deming became internationally recognized as an influential pioneer in the quality revolution and successfully advanced Taylor's idea of quality improvement inside the workplace. Deming was an American management consultant, educator, engineer, and statistician that advised the Japanese Union of Scientist and Engineers (JUSE) in the 1950s on statistical process methods. As a consultant, he helped Japanese leaders during the second Post-World War to improve their product quality, management systems, stakeholder interactions, worker productivity, and quality function designs (Deming, 1986).

Thus, to produce quality operations, Deming advised executive organisational leaders and managers to focus on consumer needs and develop specific QFD specifications to satisfy their demands. In the case of implementing QFD, Deming (1986) noted it is a technical performance and cost-effective system, where quality transformational outcomes are determined by (1)

efficiency and commitment of management; (2) engaging in continuous planning; (3) informed project implementation; and (4) working collaboratively to implement changes based on stakeholder feedback.

As such, Deming (1986) in his landmark book "Out of the Crisis", he outlined several holistic initiatives to achieve strategic management effectiveness through a total quality system. The 14- point philosophical management method, which is globally accepted by private firms, emphasizes transforming workplace efficiency to improve survival and support mid-level managers to bolster profitability and worker productivity. The 14– points presented by Deming are listed as (Deming, 2006, pp. 23-24):

Point 1. Create constancy of purpose toward improvement of product and service, with the aim to become competitive and to stay in business, and to provide jobs.

Point 2. Adopt the new philosophy. We are in a new economic age. Western management must awaken to the challenge, must learn their responsibilities, and take on leadership for change.

Point 3. Cease dependence on inspection to achieve quality. Eliminate the need for inspection on a mass basis by building quality into the product in the first place.

Point 4. End the practice of awarding business on the basis of price tag. Instead, minimize total cost. Move toward a single supplier for any one item, on a long-term relationship of loyalty and trust.

Point 5. Improve constantly and forever the system of production and service, to improve quality and productivity, and thus constantly decrease costs.

Point 6. Institute training on the job.

Point 7. Institute leadership. The aim of supervision should be to help people and machines and gadgets to do a better job. Supervision of management is in need of an overhaul, as well as supervision of production workers.

Point 8. Drive out fear, so that everyone may work effectively for the company.

Point 9. Break down barriers between departments. People in research, design, sales, and production must work as a team, to foresee problems of production and in use that may be encountered with the product or service.

Point 10. Eliminate slogans, exhortations, and targets for the work force asking for zero defects and new levels of productivity. Such exhortations only create adversarial relationships, as the bulk of the causes of low quality and low productivity belong to the system and thus lie beyond the power of the workforce.

Point 11. a. Eliminate work standards (quotas) on the factory floor. Substitute leadership.

b. Eliminate management by objective. Eliminate management by numbers, numerical goals. Substitute leadership

Point 12. a. Remove barriers that rob the hourly worker of his right to pride of workmanship. The responsibility of supervisors must be changed from sheer numbers to quality.

b. Remove barriers that rob people in management and in the engineering of their right to pride of workmanship. This means, inter alia, abolishment of the annual or merit rating and of management by objective.

Point 13. Institute a vigorous program of education and self-improvement.

Point 14. Put everybody in the company to work to accomplish the transformation. The transformation is everybody's job. (pp. 23-24)

Some of the 14 points are grounded in the socio-behavioural discipline relative to changing the organisational culture (Anderson et al., 1994). For instance, Anderson et al. (1994) suggest that points 8 and 9 create an open and trusting work environment between senior managers and employees. Further, points 3 and 4 support methodological methods and techniques to improve the planning process and product/or service designs. Therefore, in support of Freeman's (1984) theory, building product value and satisfying multiple stakeholders implies not only listening to the needs of consumers through feedback but multiple stakeholder markets that are "affected by the achievement of the organisation's objectives" (p. 46).

2.20 Voice of the Customer: House of Quality

The voice of the customer (VOC) represents a hierarchical order (i.e., primary, secondary, and tertiary needs) of customer demands, where each product/or service demand is assigned a technical rating of importance to initiate the decision-making process (Griffin &

Hauser, 1992; Kim & Park, 1998). In the field of quality management, VOC is a stakeholder tool used by managers to understand consumer needs and demands in order to increase marketplace value and profitability (Deming, 1986; King, 1987). Thus, translating VOC into quantitative technical specifications for product development involves first collecting internal and external input from stakeholders, and charting the information using a "house of quality" strategy.

The House of Quality (HoQ) was developed by Mitsubishi Industries in the Kobe Shipyards in 1972, which is identified as the first matrix of the QFD process (Akao, 1990; Hauser & Clausing, 1988). It is described as a quality planning strategy that delineates multiple interrelated houses in a format that resembles the structure of a house. Each of the charted houses represents qualitative data gathered through market research and qualitative interviews on the needs and expectations of consumer stakeholders (Shahin et al., 2016).

This quality technique presents a visual translation process that merely uses the graphical matrix to organize collected data from stakeholders during the QFD process for product design and manufacturing planning decisions (Akao, 2004). The stated goals of the quality matrixes are positioned on each side of the house, which is then divided into six major parts (see Figure 9). *The first house.* Customer technological needs define the conceptual link between customer desires and preferences to the engineering specifications of the product. *The second house.* This is characterized as the action step. In this phase, the multi-disciplinary team outlines specific actions the organisation needs to implement to develop the design and relevant benchmarks. *The third house.* This connects technical designs to development actions in this implementation planning step. It emphasizes the planning process throughout the development life-cycle such as decisions on how the product will be manufactured according to technical specifications. *The*

f*ourth house.* Refers to design requirements and represents how the manufacturing and marketing team will deliver the product/or services in a cost-effective manner and the regard in which the design will meet the needs of various consumers in the marketplace. *The* f*ifth house.* This refers to technical correlations and is the evaluation of the technical design to determine quality value. Lastly, the s*ix house* is the design score and is the product/or service index benchmarking stage to assess if product characteristics meet consumer demands in comparison to their competitors (Baxter, 2015; Bouchereau & Rowlands, 2000; Hauser, 1993).

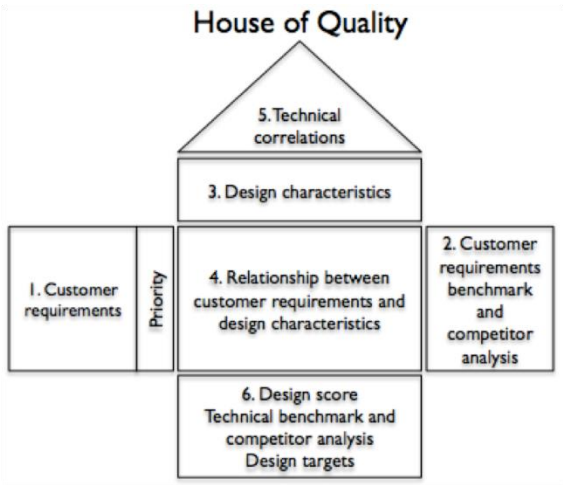

Figure 9. House of Quality (Baxter, 2015).

Hence, the six integrated strategies for the QFD quality house concept facilitates the product development cycle, beginning with the customer requirement phase and ending at the index benchmarking and marketing phase. Thus, to sustain an organisations market position, it is essential that marketers and the sales unit work together to communicate stakeholder demands consistently and regularly share the information with the product design team (Gonzalez et al., 2004).

2.21 Chapter Summary

In the organisational context, the stakeholder term has multiple contextual meanings. A "Stake" is defined as one that has an interest or a share in the operations of a business organisation (Carroll,1999). Adding to this definition, Buchholtz and her colleague suggest that having a moral right is also a stake in a situation (Buchholtz & Carroll, 2008). For instance, it is reasoned that an employer should consider the implications of organisational change upon the well-being of employees that have an interrelated link to the organisation (Laszlo et al., 2005). Moreover, in the strategic management field individuals with a stake in an organisation or business are perceived as constituents that contribute to the success and sustainability of an organisation (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012).

Conceptually, the earlier use of the term stakeholder originated with SRI and R.E. Freeman (1984), introduced the contemporary use of the term stakeholder theory in his groundbreaking book "Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach," which argued that managers are not just accountable to shareholders with interests in profit value or advisory boards, but also internal and external groups that influence the success and growth of an organisation (Hillenbrand et al., 2015). The origin of Freeman's (1984) stakeholder framework emerged from four main areas: (a) the social sciences, (b) ethics, (c) economics, and (d) management theory (Mainards, Alves, & Raposo, 2012).

In looking at stakeholder theory as a contested concept (CC), it is suggested that although stakeholder theory is accepted across various disciplines, normative stakeholder and stakeholder theory are both considered contested concepts (Miles, 2012). According to the earlier philosophy of Gallie (1956), a contested concept term or concept is identified as vague, ambiguous, and general in nature (cited in Kekes, 1977, p. 71). Although it is argued that stakeholder theory, is a

contested concept with over 435 conflicting definitions in the research literature, from a managerial perspective, numerous researchers have shown that regular and effective communication and interactions between management and vested stakeholders is essential for effective marketing and to achieve project goals.

In the next chapter, an extensive review of the literature for marketing and smart government is discussed.

CHAPTER THREE

Literature Review on Marketing and Smart Government

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a broad examination of different types of marketing approaches and explains the relationship between stakeholder marketing and smart city development relative to the public and private sectors. Conceptually, marketing has been investigated from many different perspectives from the general to the specific, relative to targeted groups and the impact upon different stakeholder groups. Therefore, for this literature review, an extensive overview of marketing, engaging project stakeholders in decision-making, the development of smart cities, and providing digital information to access public services is explored.

3.2 Understanding Marketing

The marketing concept as a distinct business strategy dates back thousands of years (Jones & Shaw, 2018; Kotler & Levy, 1969). In the 1940s it was introduced as a project management tool for private firms (Barksdale & Darden 1971; Levitt, 1960), and later adopted by non-profit organisations that understood the benefit of having a market-oriented approach to promote products/or services to achieve customer satisfaction. Kotler (1972a) posited that "marketing is a relevant subject for all organisations in their relations with all their publics, not only customers" (p. 47). Meaning, that marketing is a relational concept, applicable to any organisational domain; whether it operates in the private or public sector. The traditional and earlier definitions used to describe "for profit" marketing is defined as a transactional approach to business operations that normally focuses on one group; the customer, thus suggesting that this is a dyadic relationship (Neville & Mengue, 2006). The second definition from a

management viewpoint considers it a traditional marketing tool so a "firm's goal can be best achieved through identification and satisfaction of the customers' stated and unstated needs and wants" (Business Dictionary, n.d.).

More recently, the American Marketing Association (AMA, 2012) offered a contemporary definition of marketing with a stakeholder perspective. They defined marketing as an activity; a set of institutions and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large". From a theoretical perspective, the AMA definition broadens the marketing field to suggest a holistic impact on society (Sheth & Uslay, 2007). Furthermore, it also suggests that it can improve consumer value for all stakeholders through an marketing exchange relationship.

In the mainstream practitioner-oriented literature, the contemporary definition for marketing, which is like the AMA's version, broadly describes it "as activities within a system of social institutions and processes for facilitating and maintaining value through exchange relationships with multiple stakeholders" (Hult et al., 2011, p.57). Additionally, Hult extended his definition to include that organisational success is dependent on the cooperation of multiple internal and external stakeholders for profitability, rather than focusing on isolated customer relationships. However, it should be noted, that while there are several definitions describing marketing or the marketing practice, "the term marketing practice rarely has been defined and its general use seems to be a catchall for marketing theory. In short, marketing refers to what sellers do (or should do)" (Kjellberg & Helgesson, 2006, p. 842). Thus, in reviewing the multiple marketing definitions, this may suggest that there are inconsistencies and not a definitive understanding of what marketing is when applied to other organisational settings or sectors outside of the sales management field (Dibb, Simones, & Wensley, 2006).

3.3 Stakeholder Management and Marketing

Polonsky (1995) pointed out that before the 1980s, focus on the interrelatedness of stakeholder theory in the marketing field was not widely used to guide marketers' strategic decisions or marketing practices to any great extent. Although marketing managers during the early 60s adopted a system thinking perspective, which is described as the degree to which one understands the whole stakeholder value system (Hillebrand, Driessen, & Koll, 2015) they ignored the importance of having multiple customer networks to achieve business success (see Alderson, 1957). Moreover, the firm's narrow "one stakeholder" view and traditional organisational culture were unprepared to respond to the needs of different stakeholder networks (Hillebrand et al., 2015).

As a simplistic approach, during the 60s era, organisational units or departments relied on individuals to work independently within their department (rather than centralized), directing marketing activities without objectively researching the diverse needs of customers and non-customers as a multi-disciplinary team (Gundlach & Wilkie, 2009). Research (see Table 4) influenced by Hillebrand et al. (2015) on the conceptual differences of traditional marketing practices in comparison to the contemporary stakeholder marketing approach is presented below side-by-side.

Table 4
Traditional Marketing and Stakeholder Marketing

Traditional Marketing Perspective	**Stakeholder Marketing Perspective**
The interests of stakeholders are viewed as independent	The interests of stakeholders are viewed as interrelated
Value perceptions of stakeholders are viewed as differing in importance, with customers taking primacy	Acknowledging the value perceptions of multiple stakeholders is critical for success
Value is viewed as created by the firm	Value is viewed as co-created with a multitude of stakeholders

Source: Comparison of Marketing Types (Hillebrand et al., 2015, p. 414).

Similarly, with few exceptions, Didd's et al. (2006) generalization of the traditional marketing focus is consistent with the above-noted differences outline by Hillebrand et al. (2015). They are the following:

1. The focus is on activities performed by marketing practitioners.
2. Marketing is typically concerned with customers rather than multiple stakeholders.
3. Marketing literature presents a functional or market orientation perspective.
4. The term marketing is treated as a philosophical concept relegated to the marketing department, rather than action-oriented. (p. 382)

In contrast, to date, the relational marketing management perspective is considered a strategic approach within different organisational contexts and sectors (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). It focuses on practices related to building business and customer relationships and may "entail database marketing, e-marketing, interaction marketing, and network marketing" (Dibb, Simones, & Wensley, 2014, p. 385). Moreover, relationship-oriented approaches to marketing place emphasis on stakeholders, with attention focused on building collaborative relationships across different departments or units and establishing personal connections through communication and project engagement with crucial constituents (Kjellberg & Helgesson, 2007).

For example, in an empirical study conducted by Rowley (1997) he found that stakeholder marketing positively revealed the importance of engaging cross-functional, multidisciplinary teams and salient stakeholders (e.g., sales, suppliers, manufacturing, and community groups and other non-employees) in marketing projects. Moreover, Gummesson (2008) found that marketing with various stakeholder dimensions positively influenced marketing campaigns and contributed valuable input to the implementation of new products/or services that satisfied customer demands.

Therefore, it is critical that organisations have an interrelated marketing strategy that consists of several action plans when promoting services or products that are consumer driven (i.e., appealing to existing and new customers).

3.4 Marketing Strategies

Currently, the most common marketing strategies involve face-to-face interactions and releasing mass-marketing promotional ad campaigns (Cramm, 2006). However, according to Jucevicius and Jucevicius (2014), the initial step before implementing marketing plans is assessing individual interests and quality expectations of diverse stakeholder markets to measure customer needs and preferences. Other organisational strategies cited by Jucevicius and Jucevicius (2014) encompass: (1) securing external resources, (2) intelligence sharing, and (3) building interactive relationships and networking with other smart cities for sustainability.

Additionally, Jucevicius and Jucevicius (2014) posited that it is usually the role of local political leaders and senior-level managers to initiate policies that support product/or service value through collaborative decision-making, affordable pricing, engagement of internal and external stakeholders, and strategic planning. Strategic market planning as an approach to increase awareness of products/services is often used as a managerial tool to expand stakeholder relationships to their full extent and to generate greater product value in the marketplace (Gummesson, 2008; Kotler, 1972b). In the earlier scholarly literature on traditional strategic marketing, the emphasis was “dyadic.” Meaning a narrow focus on customer relationships was the overall practice, instead of giving full attention to a diverse group of stakeholders and their varied interests (Hult et al., 2011).

According to Laczniak and Murphy (2012), this narrow perspective is problematic because it fails to acknowledge and view stakeholders as an interrelated network, with the ability to

influence a continuous chain of other stakeholder groups that help to create value. Other research from the field-based business management literature, suggests that stakeholder influence is a holistic exchange relationship that is needed to achieve success and to gain valuable information on technological developments, access to resources, and support from other constituent networks (Neville & Mengue, 2006; Subiyakto et al., 2015).

3.4.1 Network Marketing

Stakeholder network marketing requires that organisations classify and categorize different stakeholder domains to manage and reduce unexpected tensions between the organisation and stakeholders. Thus, to understand the diverse interests of different constituent groups, and what their interests and linkages are to the organisation is an essential step (Jones & Shaw, 2002). Although there are several relationship classification models used by business marketing managers such as the individual two-value exchange model (*analyzing the one-on-one value exchange relationship*) and stakeholder mapping model (*grouping stakeholders into three areas: internal, external, and connected*) which focuses on identifying key stakeholder relationships (Hillman & Keim, 2001) the most comprehensive approach is the six-markets model.

This classification model, which groups stakeholders according to similar needs and wants is an interactive field-based project planning approach that targets different stakeholder groups. It was developed by Christopher et al. (2002) as a managerial tool to identify and focus on traditional stakeholder markets and other major networks that influence the organisation.

The main six market domains include the following stakeholder groups:

1. *Customer Markets*. This market domain includes existing and prospective customers as well as intermediaries.

2. *Referral Markets*. This market domain has two main categories: (a) existing customers that recommend their suppliers to others, and (b) referral sources, or multipliers.

3. *Influencer Markets*. This market domain includes financial analysts, shareholders, the business media, government, and consumer groups.

4. *Employee Markets*. This market domain is concerned with hiring the right candidates or employees for the organisation.

5. *Supplier Markets*. This market domain includes traditional suppliers as well as organisations that have an established alliance with the firm.

6. *Internal Markets.* This market domain includes internal departments and staff members. (Christopher et al., 2002 as cited in Payne et al., 2005, p. 858)

By using this model, senior and mid-level managers can identify key constituent groups in each of the above categories and sub-groups that are assigned to different market domains. As a result, leaders have the opportunity to optimize and develop a high number of relationships with existing stakeholders and potentially new customers as well (Davis, 2014). For instance, using smart Government technological innovations as the example, sustained marketing focus and receiving continuous feedback from the six-markets of stakeholders may result in a higher acceptance and usage rate of digital products/or services offered by the government.

3.4.2 Marketing ICT to Stakeholders

The practice of stakeholder marketing employed in IT or ICT industries is a "relationship business" (Cramm, 2006, p. 2). Thus, to achieve product success for new or redesigned technologies or software, it's critical that managers from public and private organisations in various market sectors (e.g., smart technology, software engineering, and technical

manufacturing industries) understand the importance of satisfying the demands of internal and external stakeholders (i.e., department personnel, and consultants; Turof, 2011).

From a management perspective, ethics professor R.E. Freeman (1984) described a stakeholder as an individual or group, that can influence, or is influenced by the achievements of organisational goals and objectives (p. 46). In comparison, inside the IT domain the definition proposed by Willcocks and Mason (1987), described stakeholders as "people who will be affected in a significant way by or have material interests in nature and running of the new computerized systems" (p. 79). A second definition of the IT stakeholder relationship offered by Henry (2004), relative to software project management describes the concept as those with a direct linkage or investment in the project. The important points that stand out with both IT definitions is the importance of focusing on stakeholder input to achieve project success and monitor continuous improvement (Davis, 2014; Subiyakto et al., 2015; Tams & Hill, 2015)

With similar beliefs, Jones and Wicks (1999), Savage et al. (2004), and Phillips et al. (2010) suggests that the core themes taken from stakeholder theory for any business environment, are the following:

- Organisations engage in relationships with many groups that either influence or are influenced by them, stakeholder terminology uses in accordance with Freeman's (1984) definition.
- The theory focuses on relationships regarding processes and results for the company and the stakeholder.
- The interests of all legitimate stakeholders are of intrinsic value and no single set of interests prevails over all others, as proposed by Clarkson (1995) and Donaldson and Preston (1995).

- The theory focuses on managerial decision-making. The theory identifies how stakeholders seek to influence organisational decision, making processes so they are consistent with their personal needs and priorities.
- With regard to organisations, they should strive to understand, Reconcile, and balance various participant interests. (cited in Mainardes et al. 2012, p. 1863).

Thus, at multiple leadership levels within an organisation, having various participatory stakeholders involved in the decision-making process can help shape implementation steps, marketing strategies, and processes relative to designing technical specifications and determining the ICT configuration structures (Cramm, 2006; Davis, 2014; Haverila & Fehr, 2016). Holistically, internal and external stakeholders can seemingly improve the quality of the "smart" infrastructure, by engaging in the following activities: (1) knowledge sharing, (2) knowledge creation, and (3) group decision-making. According to Jucevicius and Jucevicius (2014), the effective interaction between the three dimensions can create "social, economic, and ecological sustainability as a result" (p. 511). Meaning, the involvement of different stakeholders can thereby translate into improvements in teamwork, organisational profitability, customer loyalty and a better community (Alshehri et al., 2012).

To understand the essential roles of different project stakeholders involved in the planning and implementation stages of marketing ICT projects, the engagement model below (see Figure 10) displays the different levels of the collaborative network that exist between management, the political shift, administrative shift, end-user shift, citizen shift, and technical and service delivery shift (Subrahmanyam, 2011). This diagram suggests that an effective stakeholder involvement strategy for digital government projects involves various salient stakeholder groups that must be

represented in each ring of product engagement and have an interests in public sector projects (Alshehri et al., 2012). Therefore, to sustain these collaborative relationships, it is critical that both private and public sector organisations utilise a project management approach that is perceived as supportive and engaging across the different partners (Abednego, 2009; Gu et al., 2014).

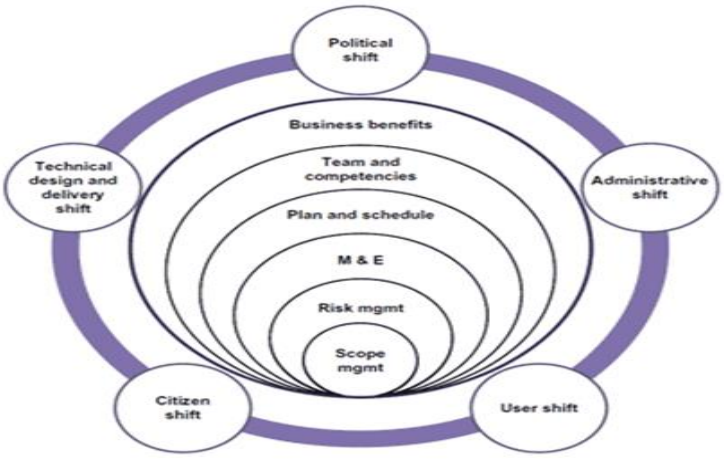

Figure 10. e-Government Project Management Framework (Subrahmanyam, 2011).

Hence, the different stakeholder and project management themes noted above in the funnel diagram are viewed as positively impacting ICT project management outcomes and customer satisfaction. They are described in detail as the following (Subrahmanyam, 2011):

1. Political Shift Level: demonstrates leadership and commitment towards openness, honesty, integrity, and ethical behaviour.

2. Administrative Shift Level: professionalizes "IT" as a key function in government performance and holds the administrative unit accountable for the alignment of IT goals with the government's national agenda. It also institutionalizes IT risk management procedures for the prevention, identification, and mitigation of specific risks associated with e-Government projects. Various administration departments are responsible for building e-Government projects

around key outcome indicators such as customer satisfaction, service delivery needs, usage, flexibility, and efficient access.

3. Technical Design and Delivery Shift Level: because of the vested interests between the government and the private business sector there is an expectation for the business or industrial sector to help drive new innovations in technology development to avoid organisation structural rigidity, which can restrict or delay the delivery of integrated services to constituents. A strong focus on strategy, structure, and integrated systems are needed to successfully manage technical and non-technical issues like underpricing, under-staffing, or under-delivering new products or services to the communities.

4. End User Shift Level: end users directly and indirectly influence management decisions, training and development, and communication between various government offices and consumers. They also ensure that different programs and services are integrated to form an effective and comprehensive e-Government system that can deliver high quality and efficient online services to its citizens.

5. Citizen Shift Level: provides critical feedback on the level of convenience to access e-Government services and user satisfaction. Thus, a comprehensive citizen-centered program should be directed toward influencing government transparency and building trust with ICT users. (p. 49)

For example, within the public sector of the UAE, at the citizen level, police departments are now able to perform criminal tracking as a digital function and share relevant information with staff members across and outside the law enforcement department. Moreover, at the industry level, the e-Government initiative allows different departments and units to interact as

partners and to share a range of open data sources and knowledge to promote ICT services and products. As a result, this management action is expected to enhance governance of public sector organisations due to having a more democratic approach to engaging stakeholders at all levels of the relational framework (United Arab Emirates Information Technology Report, 2016).

3.5 The Emergence of Smart Cities

According to Gil-Garcia, Pardo, and Nam (2015) smart cities have 4 main components that are described as computing technologies, real-time data, physical infrastructure, citizens, and government. Greiner and Poulfelt (2005) contend that the progressive IT era transformed and evolved across three major development eras: (a) 1960–1980; the data processing era, with mainframes and batch processing; (b) 1975–2000; the micro era, with the introduction of microcomputers and the personal computer, resulting in decentralization; and (c) 1995–2010; the network era, driven by internet growth, with multiple definitions given later to define a smart city (Holland, 2008; Nam & Pardo, 2011).

However, a practical description for smart city development offered by Rahman (2015) is linked to maintaining a technological flow that connects citizens and improves or redefines how services are delivered in the public sector. Some researchers emphasize that smart government is focused on changing societal experiences related to technology, social justice and culture, and urban architectural design (Accenture, 2012; Tams & Hill, 2015). For example, West (2004), reported that smart city computing makes public services more intelligent, interconnected, and efficient. Moreover, Rios (2008) posits that improving the livability of residents and sharing knowledge is a smart business practice for organisations. Partridge (2004) contends that social justice and citizen rights to participate in urban opportunities is used as an effective smart city strategy. Thus, established antecedents of a smart city should focus on the strategic

implementation of IT systems and sustainability of fair use practices through social policies (ITU, 2014a; ITU, 2014b; Nam & Prado, 2011).

Two smart cities often highlighted in the research literature and recognized as smarter cities are Chicago and Boston in the United States (U.S.). Chicago measures customer's satisfaction with ICT services offered by the city's operation department as part of the citizens and project management initiatives adopted to address issues with the smart government transformation. The economic situation in Chicago was connected to a financial decline from 2000 and 2010, when 7.1% of jobs were lost during the U.S. economic downturn of 2008, along with a state budget reduction of $600 million. In 2011 a financial strategy was proposed that focused on four core strategic principles to build smarter city projects. An overview of these core principles is shown in Table 5 below.

Table 5
Smart City Projects in Chicago

Strategic Principle		Objective
1	Transparency	Make information regarding expenditure policies open to both the public and private sectors
2	Accountability	The administrative sector would be accountable for the investment of money and taxes
3	Analytics	Strategic data collection and information gathering to evaluate city operations
4	Economic Development	Accessible and reliable open data networks for business and city services

Source: The City of Chicago Tech Plan (City of Chicago, 2013).

The four principles noted above in Table 5, resulted in three important goals to bolster the economic recovery in the city of Chicago. They were (1) building a stronger ICT infrastructure, (2) community development, and (3) economic development. With a focus on these constructs as guiding principles toward becoming a digital community, the ICT developments resulted in

integrated digital networking, online learning resources, smart health centers, and engaged citizens as stakeholders to help transform the city's financial crisis.

Another smart city example is the bottom-up smartness model in the housing projects of Boston Massachusetts in the U.S. This model was designed to improve the quality of life for the residents through improved civic engagement. The project focused on improving the valuing of citizens by becoming more citizen-centered, instead of remaining government-centered in the decision-making process and meeting the public service needs of diverse communities identified as community stakeholders. In an ITC study conducted by Partridge, (2004) he found that the practice of maintaining citizen-center transactions can improve the interactive interface and trust between the government and the public, which he described as having a "civic engagement space." Schrimmer (2015) described this space as creating innovative spaces and channels (sometimes digitally) where government and residents can interact and communicate with each other.

For the Boston smart project, there were three essential strategies; participatory urbanism, clicks and bricks, and 21st-century learning that encouraged citizen involvement in community projects (see Figure 11). The three strategies are presented as (a) participation urbanism; focus on citizen-based technology to deliver public services. For example, the use of smartphone applications to report service problems and provide improved interconnectivity, (b) clicks and bricks; evaluates new technologies that connect city government with communities to address neighborhood concerns online instead of having face–to–face in-line interactions, and (c) 21st century learning; focuses on providing integrated and long-term learning opportunities to citizens by building relationships between educators, students, and parents (BetterWorldSolutions, n.d).

Figure 11. Three Core Strategies for Smart City Implementation (Concept derived from BetterWorldSolutions, n.d.).

With the implementation of these smart program initiatives, the city of Boston improved community relationships and the efficiency of city operations for housing residents.

3.6 Improved Public Services

The meaning of public service, regarding whole communities is viewed as addressing the needs of the citizenry that are most in need of government interventions (Katz, 1997; Loffler, 2009; Tams & Hill, 2015). To build a sufficient infrastructure, a quality administration must be in place to empower staff to increase their learning, knowledge, and creativity to reduce government cost and use their innovation to design quality systems that meet the needs of citizens (Ovretveit, 2005). The use of the term *quality* in public administration, generally refers to promoting wellness (i.e., meeting legitimate personal goals), to meeting client expectations (i.e., establishing a relationship between the administration and clients), and showing professional enthusiasm and advocating for social inclusion (Hobday, 1998).

In considering the Prahalad model (see Figure 12; Prahalad, 2004), which relies on the basic premise of co-creation, there is a focus on citizen involvement as opposed to being government-focused. This may suggest that internal and external stakeholders are essential in government decision-making and program development (Larson, 1989; Tams & Hill, 2015). Thus, the belief is that motivating citizens toward participatory involvement in government elevates and reinforces the value of the relationship between government and communities (Leonard, 1992; Prahalad, 2004). Figure 12 reveals that the co-creation model (creating

personalized value through interactions) is interdependent and has the potential of influencing quality outcomes by involving four factors: (1) state development, (2) smart governance, (3) investment inflow, and (4) quality of life for citizens.

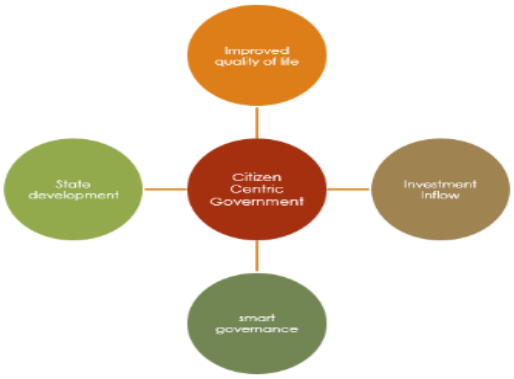

Figure 12. Co-Creation Prahalad Model (Prahalad, 2004).

On the other hand, Rahman's et al. (2015) model shows the perceived value of the main digital components that can help government agencies improve the delivery of public services, while also improving digital operational efficiency, effectiveness, and quality of life for citizens (see Figure 13). In this regard the successful interoperability of electronic and mobile technology can lead to improved government services.

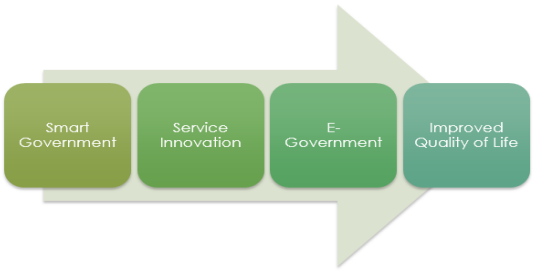

Figure 13. The UAE Model of Smart Government (Rahman et al., 2015).

Furthermore, smart government technology serves as a new standard of governance, hence improving public service quality for all technological advances, specifically in the UAE, which underscores the importance of the consumer markets (Tams & Hill, 2015).

3.7 Smart Government in the UAE Public Sector

Few nations have achieved the degree of success that the UAE has experienced in their ICT transition to becoming an m–government. Through organisational commitment, best practices, and administrative support, the UAE has realized unprecedented success since launching e-Dirham in 2001; the first online e-payment service system introduced by the Ministry of Finance. Since that time, with renewed commitment and best practices, the collaborative efforts of government officials and stakeholders has led to the government's launch of Smart-Government in the United Arab Emirates (Rahman, 2015). Table 6 exhibits the progressive history of digital infrastructures implemented in the UAE; with e-Government and m-Government serving as the most recent national developments toward building a smarter government.

Table 6
Digital Infrastructure Development in the UAE

Highlights	Year	Brief Description	Owner
E-Dirham	February 2001	The first online service launched by the Ministry of Finance in the federal government to replace the traditional means of fees collection for government services	Ministry of Finance
eGovernment Programme	November 2002	The Coordinating Committee for the Federal eGovernment Programme was formed and led by the Ministry of Finance and Industry	Ministry of Finance
eGovernment Strategy	March 2003	IBM was assigned to conduct an assessment study for the federal agencies and to develop an implementation plan	Ministry of Finance
The eGovernment Implementation Plan	June 2004	A Memorandum of Understanding was signed with the Emirates Telecommunications Corporation (Etisalat) to provide the infrastructure for the eGovernment. The plan was divided into three phases ending in 2007	Ministry of Finance
eGovernment Portal	March 2005	The launch of the first eGovernment portal in cooperation with Etisalat, which was exclusively assigned to implement the plan	Ministry of Finance
Assigning the Ministry of Government Sector Development to oversee the eGovernment Programme	March & July 2006	A ministerial decree was issued to move the eGovernment programme from the Ministry of Finance to the Ministry of Government Sector Development	Ministry of Government Sector Development
Development of the Information Systems Strategy of the Federal Government	June 2008	A ministerial decree was issued to assign the TRA to lead the efforts to develop a strategy for the information systems in the UAE. TRA, in cooperation with Booz Allen Hamilton, developed the Information Systems Strategy of the Federal Government	Telecommunications Regulatory Authority
Development of the Government Service Strategy	2010	The Office of the Prime Minister developed a Government Service Development Strategy, which was the third foundational element of the eGovernment Strategy	Prime Minister's Office

Source: The e-Government Evolution in the UAE (Rahman et al., 2015).

As displayed in the above chart, the advancement toward becoming a digital country began with only one online government service offered by the Ministry of Finance. Currently, the country now has multiple smart-government programs that represent part of the government's 5-Goal Strategic Service Plan, which was presented in 2010. The government established a public service 5-Goal Strategic Initiative, which is exhibited below (see Figure 14).

Figure 14. e-Government's 5-Goals in the UAE (UAE Government, 2012).

Figure 14 displays the Ministry of Finance strategic policy intents, strategic objectives, and work themes (public service initiatives) that support the smart government plan, thereby ensuring reliability, security, and privacy of end-user data. One of the main objectives is to maintain a business infrastructure that ensures quality delivery of e-Government services and mobile technology applications. The 5-Goal e-Government strategy also focuses on facilitating the delivery of effective and efficient smart services and measuring performance outcomes using KPIs to determine the overall performance.

In May of 2013, the head administrator and Vice-President Prime Minister of the United Arab Emirates, Sheik Mohammed Rashid, launched the Mobile or m–Government Enterprise, (smart computing government) with the intent of providing citizens and businesses with 24/7 access to online services from any location. In a speech, the Vice-President Prime Minister stated, "the researcher has succeeded in propelling a present-day idea of an innovative Smart-Government" (Al Mansoori, 2014). With the expected success of the new smart government

initiative, government organisations can offer stakeholders online services through applications designed for mobile telephones and other flexible electronic devices.

3.7.1 Challenges Affecting Smart Government Projects

Many outcome factors are considered when building a framework for the implementation of e-governance or smart projects (Mansoori, 2014; McManus, 2005). Therefore, whether the project succeeds or fails, follow-up is needed using performance indicators to determine the reasons for the unexpected outcome. However, usually there is not just a single reason for the failure or slow progression of a new technological development. Hence, to evaluate the outcome of implemented smart government projects, KPIs are often used to assess the degree of success or failure using three evaluative categories (Dada, 2006):

1. Complete failure. the initiative could not be implemented or was abandoned soon after implementation.
2. Partial failure. Major goals for the initiative could not be accomplished or produced unfavorable outcomes.
3. Success. Most major goals were achieved, and undesirable outcomes were not experienced by the organisation.

As for e-Government, according to the TRA (2013), failure of e-Government projects impact organisations on six different budgetary or financial levels. These levels are identified as,

1. Subsidiary Financial Costs. Money spent on time and effort of public employees involved in the project.

2. Direct Financial Costs. Money and other resources invested in equipment, specialists, new facilities, training programs.

3. Opportunity Costs. Different ways in which that money could have been spent, if it were not spent on failed ITC projects.

4. Political Costs. Embarrassment for individuals, organisations, and nations for the failure.

5. Beneficiary Costs. The loss of benefits that a successful e-Government project would have achieved.

6. Future Costs. e-Government failure increases the chance of failure for future e-Government projects in two ways. First, it impacts the confidence of stakeholders; particularly internal specialist (employees) that could have instead worked in the private sector or abroad. Second, lack of reliability and loss of confidence in e-Government initiatives, which can reduce the interests of stakeholders that are vested in the project.

Unfortunately, a common problem reported among e-Government ICT researchers is that there is a lack of awareness within organisations relative to the cost of failed projects. Challenges connected to either the success or failure of project performance are costly to organisations that are vested in IT/ICT product/or services for its citizenry (Ramaswamy & Dawson, 2014). Therefore, for these reasons the research literature on project failure, relative to improving the return on investment is numerous with recommendations addressing failure occurring in both the public and private sectors (Nixon, Harrington, & Parker, 2012). The adverse effects are associated with the following technical and non–technical failures (Al-Ahmad et al., 2009):

1. *Hard-Soft Gaps*. Many e-Government ICT systems are designed with mechanical and engineering concepts. Thus, the concern for many e-Government specialists is linked to why government organisations do not follow these “hard' ideas?” Instead, practitioners are guided

by “soft' factors”; politics, traditional sentiments, and philosophy. A large gap is observed when a hard e-Government strategy meets a soft reality which will likely fail.

2. *Private-Public Gaps*. The public sector remains structurally different from the private sector, which is sometimes forgotten by private IT firms, IT consultants, and government officials. As a result, they introduce an information system that was designed for the private sector and attempt to redesign it to meet the needs of the public sector. This is a classic case of square pegs in a round hole; the public sector cannot perform like a private for-profit business. Thus, the outcome usually results in a lot of failed projects.
3. *Country Context Gaps.* Government agencies, independent donors, private businesses, and private consultants searching for practical solutions utilise strategies from other countries that do not match their situation. Therefore, practical technological solutions from under-developed cities or transitional urban countries with a limited digital infrastructure will not be practical for a highly technological industrialized nation with an advanced e-Government or smart infrastructure. As a result, either partial or total failure may be the outcome.

   An overview of other causes of IT/ICT failure relative to smart government projects are also proposed by Heeks (2008; see Table 7).

Table 7
Causes of Failure for Smart Government Projects

Causes of Failure		Description of Failure
1	Lack of internal drivers	Little understanding of smart government and pressure from the IT sector only
2	Lack of vision and strategy	No long-term vision and direction. No link between ends and means. Ever-changing policy and unstable political environment
3	Poor project management	Multiple proprietorships of projects. Lack of controlled management and accountability
4	Poor change management	No resource allocation. Dispersed stakeholder involvement
5	The dominance of politics and self-interest	Prime focus on personal needs and gain of power. Replication of smart government policies for advertisement purposes. Short term vision. No accountability of corruption
6	Technological incompatibilities	Lack of IT expertise. Lack of datasets. No flow and interchange of information
7	Inadequate technological infrastructure	Lack of adequate computers and networking systems
8	Lack of requisite competencies	Lack of competent IT developers, officials, and operators
9	Unrealistic design	Inappropriate involvement of foreign entities and firms and consultants. Also, lack of direction, and lack of operationally fit organisational structure

Note: e-Government for Development Information Exchange (Heeks, 2008).

Therefore, in looking at the above-noted causes of IT/ICT failure in the urban context, the common problems identified are related to social dynamics, political climate, management, technological infrastructure, and organisational issues (Bharadwaj, Keil, & Mahring, 2009). However, in this regard Alias, Mohd-Idris, and Ashaari, Kasimin (2011) noted that user satisfaction is a significant indicator in determining the success or failure of e-Government. Overall, it is evident that at a strategic level, achieving sustainable "smartness" goals first require key infrastructure conditions that align with the social dimensions (e.g., strong economy, public

governance, supportive communities, stakeholder interest, smart living, health systems, and a knowledge-driven environment) outlined by Jucevicius & Jucevicius (2014) to build a sustainable smart city. Interestingly, because a smart city is an innovative long-term project with continuous developments, technological and social infrastructure complexities are an expected and unavoidable challenge (Jennings, 2010), especially for the public sector; with higher accountability measures applied by the government (Potts & Kastelle, 2010).

3.8 Chapter Summary

The extensive review of the literature revealed the importance of engaging multiple stakeholders in different phases of organisation product development/or service projects. Stakeholder Theory, formally introduced by R.E. Freeman (1984) as a managerial tool, is recognized in the empirical literature as a broad concept that draws on both normative and instrumental elements to stimulate stakeholder influence relative to decision-making, marketing, and operational functions. In the field-based context of IT/ICT, salient and non-salient stakeholders are both critical to the success of new or redesigned IT/ICT products and services developed as part of the government's "smartness" initiatives.

Across many Arab countries, innovative smart-government advancements are considered a pathway toward achieving a higher and sustainable economy that may improve the lives of its diverse citizenry, while remaining transparent in its public undertakings (Mishra & Mishra, 2013; United Arab Emirates Population, 2018). The UAE believes that adopting and implementing an appropriate stakeholder strategy to increase smart-government acceptance can build more stakeholder relationships and stronger collaborations between different UAE federated agencies. For instance, identifying salient internal and external stakeholders across varied departments, units, and other governmental agencies may allow organisations to engage in

information and knowledge sharing of controlled access data and strengthen other ICT innovations. Moreover, the sharing of technological systems, across government agencies and private sector organisations, can create the opportunity to increase stakeholder support for smart government and e-commerce applications and initiatives. In the current, implementation of smart government policies in the UAE are considered a progressive step toward technological change relative to the use of integrated smart mobile telephone applications and wireless technology to access public services (Rahman et al., 2012).

However, the two-year technological transformation from e-Government to m-Government (i.e., mobile government or smart government) launched between 2013 to 2015 in the public-sector, resulted in mixed results in comparison to the e-Government outcome. Mainly, the usage of m–government applications by both consumer and business stakeholders was not as high as expected, despite adequate financial resources spent toward the large smart project. Thus, this has become an important issue and priority for the government who is seeking new methods and strategies to achieve smart government goals.

To respond to stakeholder satisfaction and engagement needs, the government established new target goals to increase IT/ICT usage and access by 2018. In addition, the government budgeted 200 million dollars to finance the continuous development of smart government initiatives and projects (TRA, 2013). To understand the range of issues that contributed to the low IT/ICT usage outcome, which is partly explained by the inability of the organisation to engage salient stakeholders, it is critical for the organisation to both adopt a stakeholder commitment throughout government organisations and establish CSFs to monitor the progress of new developments.

This is line with Mitchell's et al. (1997) stakeholder framework, which posits that managerial attention should be given to critical stakeholders identified as having the power,

interest, motivation, and network relationships to influence other stakeholders. Further, given the importance of advancing ICT projects such as the smart city development, establishing criteria success factors (CSFs) to evaluate technical and non-technical performance is useful to managers in decision-making and proposing new technological directions to address consumer usage issues. Therefore, the major strength of this literature review is that it confirms the importance of project management and the resourcefulness of organizational leaders, marketers, and salient stakeholders to produce successful implementation outcomes of ICT initiatives. Moreover, project management is also useful in identifying the technical and non-technical causes for the success or failure of important tasks (Yang, Huang, & Wu, 2011).

In the next section, chapter four introduces the "research methodology" and the theoretical models used to examine and interpret the study results. As such, a discussion follows with information on the research design and research participants used for the study. Additionally, detailed information will be presented on the analysis of the findings and how the study was conducted.

CHAPTER FOUR

Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the research design and the methodology, theoretical framework, description of the research setting, the researcher's philosophy and the four research questions under investigation. In this study, which explores the role of stakeholder theory on project management outcomes, there are four research questions specifically concerned with project management (*success and failure*), implementation of smart government technology, stakeholder involvement relative to decision-making and stakeholder influence on accomplishing the goals of the IT/ICT projects in the UAE.

Although previous studies have addressed the importance of project management and stakeholders (Aaltonen & Sivonen, 2009; Andriof, Waddock, Husted, & Rahman, 2017; Davis, 2014; Eskerod & Huemann, 2013; Verbeke & Tung, 2013), only a few studies have recently examined strategic project management combined with technological ICT innovations (i.e., e-Government and m-Government initiatives), and stakeholders relative to smart city government projects in the UAE (Akman, Ali, Mishra, & Arifoglu, 2005; Alghamdi & Beloff, 2016; Alnaqbi, 2017). In examining the factors that contribute to the failure or success of smart projects, especially in the UAE, this study provides insight into the following topics:

- Challenges linked to addressing different stakeholder needs using project management strategies.
- Balancing internal and external stakeholders for smart government initiatives.
- Awareness of the causes of lower user acceptance of m-Government technology.
- ICT issues that hinder successful implementation of smart government projects.

- Maintaining stakeholder commitment and involvement in smart government projects.

The overall purpose of this research study was to focus on project management and stakeholder involvement and it sought to determine how salient stakeholders and their networks affected project management planning, outcome, and user acceptance of smart technology in the UAE as determined by internal (*employees*) and external (*consumers, community, and government business partners*) stakeholders. It is argued in studies on strategic management that collaboration and mutual exchange commitment with salient stakeholders (internal and external) can improve a company's relative visibility, reputation, and value perception in major public domain consumer markets (Davis, 2014; Payne, Ballantyne, & Christopher, 2005).

4.2 Research Design

Globally electronic governance (e.g., internet, cellular phones, email, database) is predicted to transform how citizens and private companies conduct business and interact digitally with different public administrative government offices (Albino, Berardi, & Dangelico, 2015; Alnaqbi, 2017; Müller & Skau, 2015; TRA, 2013). However, with a focus on enhancing the information flow and transparency of communication exchanges within the UAE, this advance technological method is dependent on internal and external stakeholders to provide critical feedback. In addition, they are expected to become involved in the development process of project design, planning, and implementation for successful outcomes (Eskerod & Huemann, 2013). Understanding the vital role of stakeholders relative to smart government, a qualitative interview approach was deemed appropriate because it gathered important input data on the experiences of project managers, employees, project consultants, and external constituents involved directly and indirectly in UAE smart government initiatives (Al-Khouri, 2014).

Therefore, employing a qualitative measure as the research design was used to objectively collect verbal data from 25 respondents employed at three different public-sector government offices in the UAE. The three government agencies were: (1) Abu Dhabi Police Department (GHQ), (2) Abu Dhabi Municipality, and (3) Telecommunications Regulatory Authority (TRA). Concerning the instrument administered, with written consent from participants, a demographical survey created by the researcher was administered individually to each subject that participated in the study to collect background profile data. The background characteristics included on the demographic survey was gender, marital status, education, tenure with the organisation, project management experience, leadership or non-leadership role, consumer stakeholder status, and current position with the organisation.

The interview protocol for the study was developed by the researcher and consisted of 14 questions that were informed by the literature review. These questions were understandable to the interview participants and easy to administer by the researcher and research assistants that helped to conduct face-to-face interviews inside their workplace. The scheduled appointment time for the interviews, was flexible enough to avoid placing any undue time restrictions or pressure on the volunteer participants. Thus, individual interviews were scheduled by participants at a convenient time that fit their work schedule. The four research questions that derived from the review of the literature are the following:

1. What are the major non-technical constructs (stakeholder involvement, management, marketing strategies) that hinder or support IT/ICT smart government initiatives?
2. What organisational leadership practices contribute to the effectiveness of smart government implementation activities?

3. Is the stakeholder model a viable method to improve citizen usage of smart government (mobile phone application) technology?
4. What leadership practices are central or key to sustaining internal and external project-stakeholder involvement in technology-driven projects?

4.3 Rationale for Adopting a Qualitative Methodology

Quantitative and qualitative research are the two methodologies primarily used by researchers in various contextual disciplines. Quantitative research involves examining frequency data and relationships between variables by measuring the numerical data using statistical procedures to determine correlations based on the significance or insignificant interpreted findings (Creswell, 2009). On the other hand, qualitative research design is a pluralistic approach that explores the voice of the participant, which is the missing element with quantitative methodologies (Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls, & Ormston, 2013). Studies that utilise qualitative methodologies capture what people are thinking, feeling, and how they are affected by a phenomenon within the context of the investigative study findings (Flick, 2009; Paton, 2002).

One previous definition offered by Kirk and Miller (1986) regarding qualitative research is that it reflects "a particular tradition in social science that fundamentally depends on watching people in their own territory and interacting with them in their own language, on their own terms" (p. 9). According to Creswell, the benefit of using the qualitative technique is twofold. First, it allows researchers to empirically explore a topic or concept using detailed information collected from structured or unstructured conversations and non-verbal observations related to one’s actions and behavioural characteristics. Second, it helps researchers answer what and why

open-ended interview questions using study participants', while also enabling study participants to speak freely and expressively without applied restrictions.

The rationale and benefit of using a qualitative measure, as noted by the researcher, pertain to the opportunity to identify emerging internal and external factors that impact smart government implementation and multiple stakeholder relationships. With stakeholder networks, having first-hand knowledge of the quality of the interactions, the UAE government is able to effectively engage in the project planning process and communicate strategic decisions. Thus, although the qualitative inquiry process is criticized for being subjective and lacking scientific rigor (Mays & Pope, 1995), the qualitative method is considered useful because it is democratic and non-threating due to the flexibility and face-to-face interpersonal interactions between the researcher and interview participants. As a result, participants are likely to feel more comfortable when speaking openly with the researcher within their work setting.

Also, it should be noted that the qualitative research technique consists of a combination of induction and deduction elements which proves useful in situations where invited actors such as diverse stakeholders and government staff members are involved in individual interviews and focus group processes. Considering the broad range of data obtained from one-on-one interviews, only the qualitative analysis of the varied responses can capture and interpret the complexity and contradictions that emerge with this method of instrumentation. Through compared responses from participants, interviews may uncover complex and dynamic relationships, problems or positive interactions, and perceptions of the organisation. Furthermore, proponents of the qualitative technique believe it improves the researcher's chance of constructing a more accurate approach due to the recorded and transcribed in-depth dialog from multiple sources to discover explanatory themes (Creswell et al., 2003).

The qualitative analysis framework provides a wealth of insight and flexibility compared to the quantitative research method (Boddy, 2016). For example, to understand the verbatim data that may vary between participants and identify meaning and different themes that emerge during the interview process, the researcher can redress comments made by listening to the recorded interviews or recontact participants for verbal clarification of their responses. However, it should be noted, that unlike quantitative studies, where researchers evaluate and document the validity and reliability of research findings for large sample sizes (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Payton, 1979) results derived qualitatively are not statistically generalizable to other populations outside of the research study and sample sizes are normally smaller (Guest et al., 2013; & Leech, 2005).

Boddy (2016) adds that the terms reliability and validity are not adequate for qualitative research designs. Instead, the terms credibility or trustworthiness of qualitative data is used to convey that transferability and truth verification through data saturation is a top priority during the data analyses process (Patton, 2002). According to Guest et al. (2006), data saturation is realized when there is no new information or themes that emerge from the collected data. Moreover, for practical reasons, Boddy (2016) postulated that for qualitative studies, 20 to 30 participants is enough for inquiry. Thus, a sample size with more than 30 participants may require justification by the researcher because it is considered too large and difficult to administer and analyze for interpretation of the findings (Marshall et al., 2013).

Despite the limitations discussed above, it was anticipated by the researcher that the qualitative method would result in nuanced insight on (a) smart government priorities, smartness goals and marketing strategies, (b) project management and stakeholder relationships, (c) organisation decision-making and stakeholders, and lastly (d) stakeholder participation regarding

technological development and implementation. Therefore, in summary the application of a qualitative technique for an IT/ICT research project is useful for the following reasons:

1. *Generation of unbiased feedback*. Interviews and first-hand surveys not only provide the medium for interactive data collection but also generates feedback on existing government initiatives on the implementation of smart government. For example, technologies like Web 2.0 (i.e., web-based applications can be accessed from any location) promotes new means for government-citizen interaction (Jiang & Xu 2009). This allows citizens to become more actively involved in public affairs through online applications.

2. *Transparency of government strategies and policies*. The web 2.0 internet technology encourages public-sector managers to create more affordable and transparent models of implementation (MacMillan et al., 2008). In addition, e-Government is generally considered to be a public administration reform, aimed at enhancing information flows and organisational transparency (Rodríguez et al., 2006).

3. *Raise confidence and trust in the public administration sector*. Interactive technologies have shown to improve information transparency, which in turn increases public confidence in government policies, by monitoring the conduct of managers and politicians in public sector organisations (Hui & Hayllar, 2010).

4. *Participation of citizens in decision-making*. Encouraging active engagement and participation of citizens in the decision-making process (Cooper & Yoder, 2002), relative to public policy and product decisions is an important aspect of this research. Citizens are identified as actors in e-participation, particularly when greater understanding is needed about citizen behaviour or public acceptance of ICT programs. Information needed

includes insight on citizen behavioural patterns and information barriers connected to understanding government policies (Saebo et al., 2008).

5. *Highlights the socio-political importance of smart government*. To a large extent, the choice to use a qualitative approach is a result of both sociological and political reasons. The implementation strategies of smart government in public administration and the impact of those initiatives in establishing a closer relationship with citizens is critical to the success of smart government (Ragab, 2005). The findings from this normative method may enhance the success of public administration programs and have a major impact in increasing citizen-government trust (Cho & Choi, 2004; Shim & Eom, 2008; Kim et al., 2009).

6. *User experience*. User satisfaction has a direct, decisive influence on adoption and implementation of smart government. Promotion of e-Government services demands a more user-oriented approach for ICT user. There is a dire need for user's requests and expectations to be placed at the center of discussions pertaining to stakeholder involvement in government projects, design and development, and implementation of smart programs.

4.4 Implementation of the Qualitative Method

Although many researchers choose to use a quantitative method as a form of inquiry, the researcher for this investigation employed a qualitative technique for the present study. As mentioned earlier, in addition to the qualitative design, which conducted one-on-one interviews as the research approach, a demographic survey component was administered to gather personal background information on each of the participants (Bolivar et al., 2012). For the demographic information; participants were asked to complete a brief survey developed by the researcher

before the start of the scheduled interview. To capture the background characteristics of the sample population, the demographic information sheet asked participants to indicate their gender, marital status, position (job role), tenure in the organisation, the highest level of education, leadership role, and years of experience in the field of project management.

As for the face-to-face or video conferencing, semi-structured interviews were conducted to gather original data related to six different electronic and mobile Government project management categories identified as (a) Smart Government Initiatives, (b) Project Management Planning, and Leadership, (c) Technology, (d) Stakeholder Involvement, (e) Environmental Context, and (f) People and Communities. The interview instrument with five sections and a total of 14 open-ended questions assessed project management leadership practices, the involvement of stakeholders in the planning process, and other explicit factors that can impact the success or failure of an ICT project. The entire interview took 25 to 45 minutes for each study participant.

From an interpretivism approach, which is associated with humanistic qualitative interviews, the researchers recorded observations of the subject's behaviour to help understand their perspectives and work experiences. During the interview process, the researcher collected original verbal data from multiple stakeholders, which included project managers, IT specialist, community members, ICT experts, and UAE government representatives, that served as the study sample. To perform this qualitative investigative study, figure 15 reveals the six phases or steps taken by the researcher to conduct the research study on the relationship between stakeholder theory and project management.

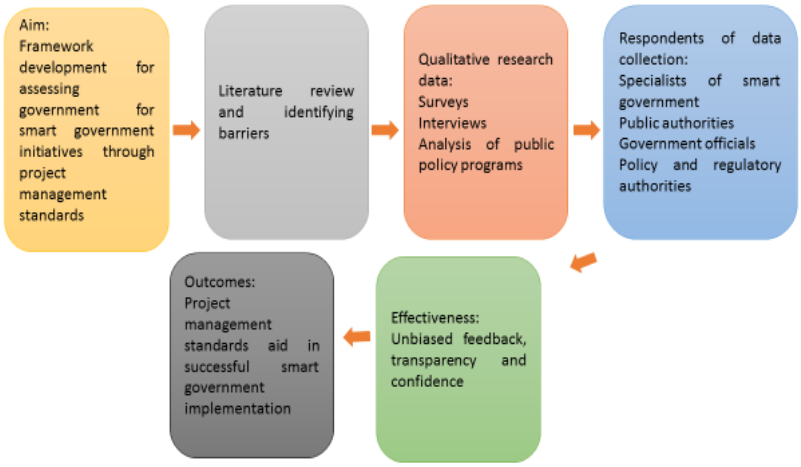

Figure 15. Proposed Phases for the Research Plan (created by Alameri, 2017).

As displayed in the above conceptual framework developed by the researcher: (1) phase one identifies the purpose of the research, (2) phase two identifies how the research study was informed by the literature review on smart government, stakeholder management, and project planning, (3) phase three identifies the research method to capture information, (4) phase four is the selection of the participants, (5) phase five represents the data collection of verbal data, and (6) phase six concerns the outcome of the study (see Patton, 2015). In review of the literature on PM and stakeholder management, it is evident that input on internal and external stakeholders, leadership style, and stakeholder involvement are important to the research process (Abu-Shanab, 2015; Scholl, 2001; Verbeke & Tung, 2013).

4.5 Theoretical Framework

From an operational perspective, Nam & Pardo's (2011) findings on smart technology determined that the long-term failure of e-Government projects was due to technical and non-technical factors such as poor strategic management planning, low stakeholder participation, lack of technological experience, and the digital divide. As a result, these noted obstacles have impacted citizen usage and consumer value of e-Government and m-government services in the

UAE (Alateyah, Crowder, & Wills, 2013). Within the context of smart government, the theoretical considerations for this thesis were grounded in the context of the stakeholder theory framework and technology adoption theory. These theories are recognized as major constructs in various industry domains; from business management to information systems to help interpret and explain research findings relative to marketing and outreach, low IT participant usage, and customer satisfaction with products/or services (Rodrigues, Sarabdeen, & Balasubramanian, 2016; Venkatesh et al., 2003).

The Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (i.e., UTAUT) model developed by Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, and Davis (2003), is a user acceptance adoption model that has four core behavioural components that determine the general public's acceptance of technology and explains their usage decisions (e.g., performance expectancy, operational effort expectancy, social influence, and facilitation infrastructure conditions; Venkatesh et al., 2003). It is speculated that the adoption of the UTAUT theory helps to explain and assess factors that influence stakeholders' perceived interests, usage, and willingness to use new or existing electronic smart government applications (Rodrigues et al., 2016). However, it should be noted that researchers have posited that because this theory is niche focused in technological-related fields and is primarily linked to research studies in the IT/ICT discipline, it lacks theoretical growth for other industries (Williams, Rana, Dwivedi, & Lal, 2011).

In the stakeholder-oriented context, stakeholder theory is formally defined by Freeman (1984), as "any group or individual that can affect or be affected by the achievements of an organisations objective" (p. 46). In addition, Svendsen (1998) described stakeholder theory as a foundational concept that has been adopted for establishing stakeholder involvement goals, gaining constituent commitment, and satisfying constituent expectations through regular

communication and exchange interactions. Therefore, after reviewing the literature on different stakeholder models (Bourne, 2016; Clarkson, 1995; Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Freeman, 1984; Mitchell et al., 1997), this research study utilised stakeholder theory as a theoretical perspective to understand and explain the relationships between organisational management practices and stakeholder involvement and consumer usage of e- Government applications and stakeholder engagement to attain organisational objectives (see Figure 16).

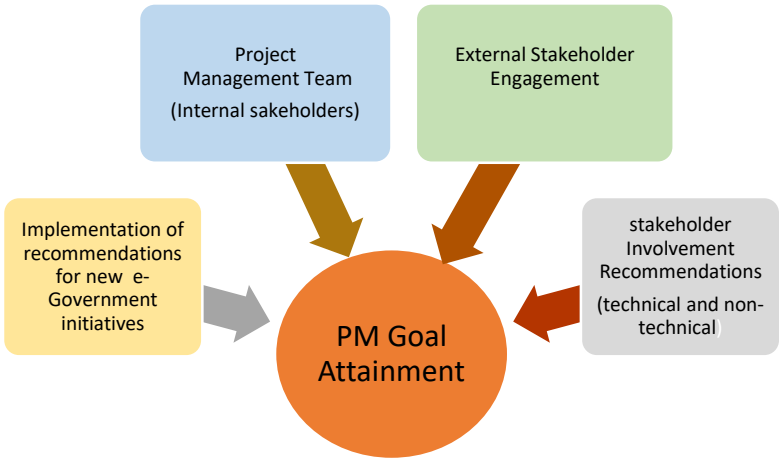

Figure 16. Efficacy of Stakeholder Project Management Process (created by Alameri, 2017).

According to the above stakeholder and project management framework developed by the researcher, internal and external stakeholder involvement and input from development to the implementation phase, are essential to mobilizing resources and to achieve project management goals (Ayuso et al., 2006). Harrison, Bosse, and Phillips (2010) contend that a stakeholder orientation "increases demand and efficiency, higher levels of innovation, and increased capacity to deal with unexpected events" (p. 67). Project managers that attempt to dismiss the significance of stakeholder involvement in the context of design, development, and

implementing technological systems may experience lower public support and fail to reach the established goals (Winter & Szczepanek, 2008).

With an emphasis on the importance of stakeholder exchange in strategic management planning, this study analyzed project management and how stakeholder involvement can help realize new government digital technology goals if accepted (Rivard & Lapointe, 2012). Also, the presumed contributions of this study are linked to enhanced leadership of project managers, cooperative decision-making with multiple stakeholders, and understanding the challenges of the PM process when stakeholder support and involvement is dismissed or not prioritized. In the latter situation, Williamson (1991) argues that managers are not always held accountable for not valuing salient stakeholder input during the planning and implementation stages.

4.6 Researcher Philosophy

The interpretivism philosophy is an approach to qualitative inquiry that is affiliated with idealism (Creswell et al., 2003). It is defined by researchers as an ethical method that applies human interests into an investigative study. It is also described in the qualitative literature as a "meaning-making" and "human-interest" approach that allows the interviewer to engage in natural dialog with respondents to understand their lived experiences and realities (Angen, 2000). According to Myers (2008), "interpretive researchers assume that access to reality (given or socially constructed) is only through social constructions such as language, consciousness, shared meanings, and instruments" (p. 38). In this research study, the researcher utilised an interpretive position to understand the realities voiced by a diverse study sample and interpreted their shared meaning from a social context.

4.7 Recruitment and Selection of Participants

Once the researcher received ethical approval from the university to begin the data collection process, several sites were visited that were known to have mobile applications for their organisation products or services. With permission obtained from senior managers to recruit research participants from their organisation, prospective stakeholders were contacted by telephone, email, and recruitment materials were distributed throughout the organisation with the goal of recruiting a diverse sample (e.g., ethnicity, gender, education, age) of stakeholders with IT/ICT interests or expertise. Thus, the general criteria were that individuals had to be age 18 or older, represent different professional and personal backgrounds across the employment spectrum, and he/or she self-identified as an internal or external stakeholder that worked with or in a UAE government public-sector organisation or as a private sector corporate partner.

That meant they were associated either as an employee, supplier, consultant, or consumer stakeholder with one of the three UAE government agencies that participated as a location in the study: (1) Telecommunication Regulatory Authority (TRA), (2) Abu Dhabi Police, and (3) Abu Dhabi Municipality. In other words, as the target population, they were identified as affiliates in the current or past with different government organisations that included public-sector government alliances, partner organisations, or businesses in the private sector.

The recruitment approach implemented for the current qualitative design was purposive (Partanen & Möller, 2012). However, due to the unexpected difficulty in recruiting an adequate sample of participants the snowballing, and convenience sampling methods were later added. The various techniques are described as:

- *Purposive Sampling*. This is a non-probability technique that satisfies the target characteristics of the population needed for the specific purpose of the study. Thus, the researcher will utilise

this sampling method to quickly identify potential individuals to interview (Cohen et al., 2001).

- *Snowballing Sampling*. This method is used in situations when it is difficult to recruit the target population representing the required characteristics. Further, this technique is dependent on word-of-mouth referrals from participants that were invited and participating in the study. However, one limitation of this type of sampling method is that it may reduce the chance of achieving an adequate cross-section of the population sought for the research study (Gay & Airasian, 2000).
- ***Convenience Sampling***. This nonprobability sampling approach is not random because it accepts anyone that is available to participate in the study if he/or she satisfies the inclusive criteria. Researchers consider this approach quick and inexpensive to conduct because it takes less time and effort to recruit individuals for a study. Thus, in short, everyone has an equal opportunity to participate. For instance, volunteers working in the workplace may be invited to participate because they can be conveniently recruited (Cohen et al., 2001).

The other unexpected challenges for the researcher was that a few government authorities chose not to participate in the study due to concerns related to confidentiality of new technological projects. Other challenges experienced were lack of fluency of the English language among some participants and availability of senior-level managers to find time to participate in interviews during workday hours. In looking at all the challenges faced by the researcher, it should be noted that although multiple recruitment methods were used to ensure an adequate sample, individuals that said they had little or no knowledge or awareness of the smart technology initiatives were excluded from consideration as study participants.

4.7.1 Study Population

A total sample of 25 participants (n=20 internal stakeholders and n=5 external stakeholders) participated in this research study, which consisted of both males (20) and females (5) identified as internal and external stakeholders. Ages ranged from 18 to 50 years, with ages 34 to 41 being the highest participants in the group. The internal stakeholders that participated in the study had employment tenure in one of the three UAE government organisations and external stakeholders were either suppliers, consultants, or corporate partners affiliated with the UAE government.

The three different government authorities in Abu Dhabi that participated in the study were the Telecommunication Regulatory Authority (TRA), Abu Dhabi Police, and Abu Dhabi Municipality. The final study sample represented diversity relative to gender, age, education level, job function, stakeholder role, and geographical location. They also had experience and a working knowledge of smart city development projects and new technological initiatives. This included the smartness planning phases, implementation process, challenges, and awareness of the smart government initiatives in the UAE.

4.8 Research Procedures

Before beginning the study, participants were informed by the researcher of the stated purpose of the study and were told it was voluntary with no recompense as a reward. If the prospective participant satisfied the general criteria screening, they were chosen as a participant and given a consent form developed by the researcher to complete according to the instructions prepared by the researcher (see Appendix B). After each participant read and signed the informed consent form, it was obtained by the researcher or research assistant before

administering the demographic information sheet and conducting interviews in the designated office spaces at the three locations. Participants received detailed information on the purpose of the study, and each was reassured that their responses would be kept confidential and utilised only for research purposes. Moreover, each subject was informed that they could withdraw from the study at any time but had to verbally notify the researcher of their intent so that he could respond immediately to the concern.

Respondents were informed that the duration of the interview was 45 minutes to 1 hour and was given a sample question of what type of information the researcher was seeking. They were also informed that interviews were semi-structured and would be audio recorded for transcription at the end of the session. To recall the interview data collected from the 25 participants, field notes were written by the researchers on index cards during and after each interview session. For assurance of confidentiality and to build trust, participants were informed of the procedures that explained how the signed consent forms, interview notes, and transcribed documents gathered from study participants would be kept private.

The procedures for managing sensitive data clearly stated that if an audio recording device was used to record interviews, the final audio recording will be securely transferred to a digital file on the researcher's personal computer on the hard drive and then erased from the hand-held recorder after the study. If the information is shared, it will not include any personal identifiers that can lead to the participants identity. Instead, all documents will be de-identified and have pseudonyms on printed reports for confidentiality.

The paper records, such as interview notes, observation notes, field logs, and transcribed interviews will be secured in a locked file cabinet. Thus only the researcher will have key access to obtain the documents. At the end of three (3) years, after the closure of the research study, the

original tape recordings and printed identity documents will be destroyed, including digital files on the researcher's personal computer. A three-to-five-year data retention timeframe is recommended for research studies involving human participants (Pisani, Wyman, Mohr, Perrino, Gallo, Villamar, & Brown, 2016).

4.8.1 Instrument

Subject questionnaire. The first step was to provide a brief demographic questionnaire to the respondents, which asked their gender, age, marital status, project management experience, education level, and job title (see Appendix E). Also, an interview protocol was used to conduct the individual interviews, which presented probing questions as a guide to assist the researcher and research assistants during the interviews.

4.8.2 Interview Protocol

This qualitiative study used an interview protocol and procedures to capture original data from the 25 interview participants. Open-ended interview questions derived from review of the ICT and stakeholder literature were prepared by the researcher, which consisted of 14 questions linked to six different categories that connected to e-Government and m-Government smart technology initiatives, stakeholder beliefs, and PM (see Appendix F). The six categories are: (1) Section One; Smart Government Initiative; (2) Section Two; Project Management Planning, and Leadership, (3) Section Three; Technology, (4) Section Four; Stakeholder involvement, (5) Section Five; Environmental Context, and (6) Section Six; People and Communities (see Appendix F). The researcher also included guiding probes if needed, to help elicit more detailed information, build trust, and promote continued conversation with the participants throughout the interview process.

As a procedure to maintain uniformity, before the scheduled interviews, each participant was informed of the study's confidentiality statement, signing of the informed consent agreement, and procedures to withdraw from the study if they later decided to not participate (see Appendix B). The interview sessions were semi-structured and lasted almost 45 minutes for each of the 25 participants. All the face-to-face interviews took place on-site at one of the three research locations inside a comfortable semi-private office space. Although each respondent had the option of participating online using video conferencing technology, they all asked for individual face-to-face interviews. Completion of the interview sessions took place over 5-weeks between March 2018 to April 2018, with no monetary compensation given to participants for their voluntary participation in the approved study.

Section 1: Smart Government Initiative

1. What are the *performance* goals for the smart government project in the UAE?

2. What are the smart priorities at the government and organisational level?

3. How committed are staff members and managers in building an effective smart government?

4. What are the non-technical challenges that impact the implementation of ICT smart government initiatives?

Section 2: Project Management Planning and Leadership

5. What project management practices and framework were used to implement the smart government project? Was it effective; and how? (interview probe: project management steps, change of the organisational structure, change in service process and information delivery, framework used, employee input, citizen feedback and input, progress monitoring, evaluation of outcomes, staffing changes, training, financial support, etc.)

6. What leadership skills are important to project management planning and execution? And what are your project planning experiences or involvement with starting new organisational government projects?

Section 3: Technology

7. What innovative ICT ideas are used to promote or improve the implementation of smart government initiatives? (interview probe: progress monitoring, data analysis tools, system integration, social media campaigns, etc.)

8. How often do you use mobile phone technology to access public services on the website? What do you view as positive or negative experiences or challenges facing consumers using mobile technologies to access online services?

Section 4: Stakeholder Involvement

9. How are stakeholders involved in the planning and implementation stages of smart government? And how are they engaged or included in the strategic planning and implementation process?

10. How does management engage stakeholders in PM decision-making regarding smart government project priorities, evaluation strategies, and progress planning? How would you describe your relationship with the leadership team? (interview probe: open, positive, negative, collaborative, supportive).

Section 5: Environmental Context

11. How supportive is the organisational environment regarding smart government?

12. Describe the work environment/or climate here. (interview probe: cultures, social involvement, inclusive, supportive of each other, and demographic information).

Section 6: People and Communities

13. Is the general population and communities accepting of electronic-government services? If yes, please explain.

14. In your professional view do you believe a "digital divide" has negatively impacted the acceptance of smart government technology?

4.8.3 Data Collection

Not all interviews were tape-recorded, due to the request of some participants. In that situation, an audio recording device was not used to conduct the interview. Nevertheless, that did not prevent the researcher from taking notes and transcribing them verbatim after interviews were completed to prevent misinterpretation of verbal information. Next, for respondent triangulation, the transcribed interviews, field notes, and on-site observation notes were shared with individual participants before the data was analyzed and coded for in-depth thematic analysis.

Once the cross–the check was completed by researchers, the interview data were color-coded for word and phrase frequency to gain insightful information connected to understanding stakeholder influence, involvement, perceived challenges of smart government, and project management planning. According to Patton (2002), field notes are useful in performing thorough data analysis. In sum, the participant recruitment and data collection procedures about the qualitative interview approach included the following activities,

1. Recruited internal (employees) and external stakeholders (consumers and consultants) from the public sector, such as project specialist, government IT experts, UAE government employees, and regulatory policy authorities (see Figure 17).
2. Collection of demographic information from the research sample.
3. Reviewed official documents, such as public policy reports, information on past projects, and current strategic plans.

Figure 17. Sample Respondents for the Data Collection (created by Alameri, 2017).

4.8.4 Data Analysis Process

A qualitative research approach was conducted for this study, using Excel 2016 to manage and sort the stakeholder interview data collected from study participants. Using Excel was simple to use and allowed the researcher to manage, organize, sort common themes, and manage the collected data. In contrast to quantitative empirical studies, numbers are not analyzed for statistical significance, and the data consist of verbal and textual observational notes and field notes presumed to be crucial in interpreting the data. The form of thematic analysis used for this study was Template Analysis. According to King and Brooks (2017) "Template Analysis has been used in many areas of human and social scientific research, including health and social care, education, sport and exercise science, and business management" (p. 11).

Moreover, Crabtree and Miller (1999), regarding how thematic codes are developed, asserted that "Researchers can develop codes only after some initial exploration of the data has taken place, using an immersion/crystallization or editing organizing style. A common intermediate approach is when some initial codes are refined and modified during the analysis process." (p. 67). To employ template analysis, there are a series of steps that are procedurally followed during the thematic coding process: (1) understanding your data, (2) reviewing data, (3) coding data, (4) clustering related themes and patterns, (5) developing a template, (6) reporting the data in the template (Creswell, 2003). With more detail, King and Horrocks (2012) also described each of the six steps as follows:

1. *Become familiar with the data*. Read interview transcripts and field notes thoroughly to perform an accurate analysis. If audio recording is used to record the interviews, re-listen to the tapes to improve the accuracy of shared information.

2. *Conduct preliminary coding of the data*. This involves highlighting textual information that is relevant to addressing the research questions and theoretical, conceptual framework to help understand the data results.

3. *Clustering of emerging themes*. This entails grouping emerging and a priori themes in into hierarchical relationships, with broader themes as the main category and narrow themes listed as a subset to the main themes.

4. *Develop an initial template*. This step represents the initial coding for the template analysis technique. This involves creating a diagram that shows the hierarchical organisation of themes and the subset of themes that represent a cross-section of issues and experiences revealed in the collected data.

5. *Apply the template*. Once the relevance of the data is assessed, he or she begins coding and the analysis it is then used to interpret the significance of the findings.

6. *Report the analysis*. Although there is never a final analysis of the template, the researcher can report the findings, and if further analysis is required, the results can be re-examined to help answer the four research questions.

In summary, as applied to the thematic data coding process, these steps involve grouping frequently-used words, themes, and verbal patterns to uncover in-depth meaning from the findings (Davidson & di Gregorio, 2011). Although the thematic analysis technique is like other data analysis techniques, Al-Jaghoub et al. (2010) emphasized the importance of the following considerations when using qualitative methods:

1. *Data Reduction*. This is a continuous process which starts before data collection begins and includes literature review compilation and designing the conceptual framework and ends at the final step of output reduction. This analysis technique focuses on simplification and transformation of raw data from transcriptions into meaningful information. Qualitative studies can generate a large amount of data, which is why this technique is critical to managing and organizing the data.
2. *Data Display*. This is used for the analysis of collected data. It allows the reader to understand the information collected by the investigator and helps the researcher to draw conclusions and implications from the verbal data. This step includes performing thematic and figurative coding to make sense of the information.
3. *Data Verification*. This is the last step of data analysis and focuses on drawing conclusions and verifying the results with the respondents. This step focuses on word

patterns in the collected data and makes the information easy to understand to arrive at a relevant conclusion and implications.

4.9 Limitations and Delimitations

Although the qualitative research study was conducted with unbiased intent by the researchers, there were a few limitations noted in the research literature that raised concerns. Some of the concerns noted in the literature on employing a qualitative research approach are the following (Anderson, 2010):

- Precision and accuracy are harder to sustain, evaluate, and exhibit due to self-reported experiences, which is also a concern with other types of research methods.
- The quality of research is more dependent on the expertise of the researcher, so if he or she is inexperienced, there are more chances for personal preferences and biases. Hence, it can affect the input data received by the researcher.
- It is often time-consuming to analyze and interpret data, so a conclusion can be difficult to interpret.
- Occasionally in the research circle, the qualitative approach is under-used and is recognized as unequal to a quantitative study.
- Concerns of privacy can cause problems when presenting research findings.

Thus, relative to the present study there are limitations and delimitations that the researcher foresees using the qualitative method. First, the data gathered is self-reported by the participants, which must be reviewed with caution. Therefore, to address this concern, the interview sessions were audio-taped for accuracy and participants were verbally probed for higher clarity to remove perceived inaccuracies. The possible delimitation is the fact that the stakeholders that

participated as interviewees came from one of the three locations in the public sector of the UAE.

Further, to avoid potential challenges in managing the data, the researcher performed the following four procedural actions to protect the integrity of the process and handling of the collected research data: (1) for precision and accuracy, recorded field notes and an audio tape was used in each session. Also, the interviews were later transcribed verbatim and a copy of the transcripts were sent to each of the participants for a confirmation cross-check; (2) the same interview script was followed for each participant to make sure the interview questions were the same for each person; (3) all interviews were limited to an hour or less to avoid restlessness; and (4) a comfortable semi-private office space was used at the three different locations to reduce possible background noise present in the surrounding areas.

4.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter provided a detailed overview of the research study and presented the purpose of the investigative study and design of the qualitative approach used to gather interview data related to stakeholder involvement, management, and engagement. A demographic profile survey regarding the participants was revealed, and the interview protocol used by the researcher and research assistants to conduct the semi-structured face-to-face interviews was discussed.

In the next section Chapter 5, the research findings as it relates to the qualitative study will be examined to provide insight into the relationship between stakeholder involvement and project management. Additionally, the demographic profile data relative to the study participants is summarized. The participant's profile information includes background information on the participant's age, gender, marital status, higher education level, and employment position in the UAE government organisation.

CHAPTER FIVE

Research Results

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this exploratory research study was to qualitatively examine the effect internal and external stakeholder involvement has on project management outcomes, relative to IT/ICT initiatives in Abu Dhabi, UAE. The analyses of the data sources collected over a 5-week period included viewing secondary data such as organisational websites and marketing materials, IT/ICT government policies, and interviewing a diverse group of stakeholders face-to-face to assess their lived experiences (e.g., perceptions of the ICT applications, leadership observations, technical competence, experience in the workplace, and project involvement).

The researcher employed Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) to help understand consumer usage of mobile technology applications. It is proposed that the UTAUT theory helps to explain and assess stakeholders' response and perceived interests about their willingness to accept or reject new mobile technology or existing smart government applications. This study also used the Stakeholder Theory which was derived from the stakeholder model. Stakeholder theory, first introduced by Freeman (1984) as a managerial tool for organisations, defined stakeholder as "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organisation's objectives" (p. 46). Further, according to the stakeholder model, quality project management and teamwork are essential factors to mobilizing resources through continuous input and feedback from constituents to achieve established goals (Ayuso et al., 2006).

Therefore, to explore whether the role of stakeholder theory and the project management relationship resulted in significant improvement or rejection of smart technology applications in public-sector organisations was examined. The research questions asked were the following:

1. What are the major non-technical constructs (stakeholder involvement, management, marketing strategies) that hinder or support IT/ICT smart government initiatives?
2. What organisational leadership practices contribute to effective smart government implementation activities?
3. Is the stakeholder model a viable method to improve citizen usage of smart government (mobile phone application) technology
4. What leadership practices are central or key to sustaining internal and external project-stakeholder involvement in technology-driven projects?

This chapter introduces a priori themes based on peer-reviewed journal articles and on the researcher's IT experience relative to the development of smart city innovations. For the analysis, thematic categories were extracted from individual interviews using template analysis procedures to define and organize the relevant themes. Then the results are reported and summarized based on the thematic categories derived from the textual findings from the qualitative interviews. This chapter is divided into several sections that include the profile of the participants, interview protocol, data collection, initial analysis after interviews, results, interpretation of the findings, and limitations of the research.

5.2 Profile of the Participants

Initially there was a total of 30 individuals recruited for the study. However five approved participants that met the established criteria, missed their scheduled interview session and no further contact was made with the individuals. Therefore, this investigative study had a final sample of 25 participants consisting of leaders and non-leader as employees and community members as stakeholders. Of the 25 participants, 12 (48%) were recruited from the Abu Dhabi Police GHQ; 2 (8%) were recruited from the Abu Dhabi Municipality, and 11 (44%) were

recruited from the Telecommunications Regulatory Authority (TRA). Moreover, none of the participants received any monetary incentives for their involvement in the study. With regard to the final sample of 25 participants, 20% (5) were female, and 80% were male. The ages ranged from 18 to 50 years and higher, the mean age was 35 years (*SD* =6.9), and the modal age was 37 years. Of the stakeholder sample, 52% (13) reported having a bachelor's degree. A total of 48% (12) had graduate-level education or higher. Of the participant sample, 52% reported being married; 36% were single; 12% were divorced/or widowed. As for constituent roles, a total of 20% (5) were identified as external stakeholders; 80% were internal stakeholders. Moreover, of the sample, 56% (14) identified as supervisory managers within the organisation and 44% (11) were considered non-managerial (see Table 8).

Table 8
Demographic Summary of Study Sample (N=25)

	Study Variables	n	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	20	80
	Female	5	20
Age Range	18- 25	2	8
	26-33	9	36
	34-41	11	44
	42-49	2	8
	50 or over	1	4
Education Level	High School	0	0
	Diploma	0	0
	Bachelor	13	52
	Higher Education (Advance degree)	12	48
Employment Tenure	No prior IT experiences	2	8
	Less than 5 years	13	52
	6-10 years	5	20
	11-15 years	3	12
	Above 16 years	2	8
	External Consumer Stakeholder	5	20
	Internal stakeholder (employee, contractors, consultants, suppliers)	20	80
Marital Status	Married	13	52
	Single	9	36
	Divorce/Widow	3	12
Number of employees under the leadership (question for senior and mid-level managers)	Between 1- 3	3	12
	Between 4-10	6	24
	Between 11-20	3	12
	Above 21	2	8
	None: non-leadership stakeholder role	11	44

5.3 Interview Protocol

To gather original interview data from the participants, open-ended interview questions were prepared by the researcher, which consisted of 14 questions linked to six different categories that connected to e-Government and m-Government smart technology initiatives, stakeholder beliefs, and PM (see Appendix F). The six categories were: (1) Section One; Smart Government Initiative, (2) Section Two; Project Management Planning and Leadership, (3) Section Three; Technology, (4) Section Four; Stakeholder Involvement, (5) Section Five; Environmental Context, and (6) Section Six; People and Communities. The face-to-face interviews were conducted by the researcher and two research assistants that were trained in inquiry protocol by the researcher for the qualitative interviews. To ensure relevant and thorough textual data was captured for data collection purposes, an interview protocol sheet with guiding probes was created by the researcher and used with each participant to elicit more detailed information, build trust, and promote continued conversation throughout the interview process (see Appendix F).

The interview sessions were semi-structured and lasted almost 45 minutes for each of the 25 participants. All the face-to-face interviews took place on-site at one of the three research locations inside an assigned semi-private office space. Although each respondent had the option of participating online using video conferencing technology, they all asked for individual face-to-face interviews. Completion of the interview sessions took place over 5-weeks to complete between March to April 2018, with no monetary compensation given for their voluntary participation in the approved study. The design of the interview instrument consisted of six sections and a total of 14 open-ended questions assessing project management practices, project challenges, engagement of stakeholders in the planning process, and other factors predicted to

impact the success or failure of ICT projects: (1) Section One; Smart Government Initiative, (2) Section Two; Project Management Planning, and Leadership, (3) Section Three; Technology, (4) Section Four; Stakeholder Involvement, (5) Section Five; Environmental Context, and (6) Section Six; People and Communities.

Section 1: Smart Government Initiative

The first section probed participants to give their view on smart government goals, performance goals, and information on the projects. The questions in this section highlighted the role and commitment of project managers and stakeholders and their knowledge of smart government projects in UAE. The questions included in this section are:

1. What are the *performance* goals for smart government projects in the UAE?

2. What are the smart priorities at the government and organisational level?

3. How committed are project managers and stakeholders in building effective smart Government systems?

4. What do believe are the main characteristics of an effective smart government?

Section 2: Project Management Planning and Leadership

The second section focused on project management practices and initiatives. This section probed participants to describe their true experiences and interactions with project managers and stakeholders. The questions represent the following:

5. What project management practices are used to successfully implement smart government project initiatives? Was it effective; and why? (interview probes: project management steps, changing the organisational structure, change in service process and information delivery, project

framework, stakeholder input, client feedback, performance monitoring, evaluation of outcome, staffing changes, training, increase in financial support, etc.)

6. What leadership skills are important to project management planning and implementation? And what is your project planning experience or involvement working with stakeholders on government-related projects?

Section 3: Technology

The third section focused on the IT/ITC smart government implementation initiatives. The questions in this section were presented to encouraged participants to comment on inter- and intra- organisational activities that support, or hinder marketing strategies used to address low usage of smart technology. The questions for this section are the following:

7. What marketing strategies are used to promote communication technology (ICT) smart government initiative? (interview probes: progress monitoring, data analysis tools, system integration, social media campaigns, etc.)

8. There are low citizen usage of smart government (smartphone technology) services to access public services on the website. What do you view as the barriers or challenges that stop citizens from using smart government technologies?

Section 4: Stakeholder Involvement

This section probed participants to share their lived experiences as stakeholders, which included views on leadership, decision-making processes during the implementation phase of smart government initiatives, and their involvement in project planning activities. Participants were reminded of the anonymity and confidentiality statement to build trust and make their views more open and unbiased. The questions included in this section are the following:

9. How are stakeholders involved in the planning and implementation phases of smart government? And how are they engaged in the strategic planning and implementation process?

10. Who was involved in making decisions regarding smart government project priorities, evaluation strategies, and progress planning? How would you describe your relationship with the project leadership team? (interview probe: open, positive, negative, collaborative, supportive)

Section 5: Environmental Context

This section probed the participants to describe their work environment from both a professional and non-professional community stakeholder viewpoint. This section included questions about the working and social cultures, demographics, and responsiveness at the organisational level. The questions included in this section are the following:

11. How supportive is the organisation regarding implementing smart government initiatives?

12. Describe the work environment/or climate here. (e.g., cultures, social involvement, inclusive, supportive of each other, and demographic information).

Section 6: People and Communities

This section focused on the concerns of consumers. In this section, participants were probed to share their views on acceptance of e-Government and m-Government and the perceived limitations that negatively impact user acceptance. The questions for this section are the following:

13. Are the general communities and stakeholders accepting of using m-Government and e-Government services? If yes, please explain your answer.

14. From your professional view do you believe a “digital divide” negatively impacts the acceptance and usage of smart government technologies?

5.4 Data Collection

To reiterate, the primary interview data collected for this research study was collected from 25 individuals that participated in semi-structured interviews. They consisted of IT/ITC employees as stakeholders, community members, and business professionals that worked in the government public-sector or private-sector as consultants. The public-sector organisations in which participants were obtained, were from the Telecommunication Regulatory Authority (TRA), Abu Dhabi Police (GHQ), and Abu Dhabi Municipality. The interview sessions were semi-structured and lasted almost 45 minutes for each participant. At the beginning of each interview, participants were asked to complete the demographic profile information sheet. They were asked their age, job title and to describe their work responsibilities (see Appendix E). However, it should be noted that prior to the data collection process, the researcher conducted a priori themes based on the reading of peer-reviewed journal articles and on the personal expertise of the researcher.

Although both males and females were recruited to join the study, in the final sample there were more males than females that participated due possibly to their work schedule and parental responsibilities. Most of the interviews were communicated in the English language, except for the participants that were less fluent in English. In that case, they responded in their native language which was later transcribed to English by the researcher. All the face-to-face interviews took place on-site at one of the three designated locations inside a semi-private office space. Although each respondent had the option of participating online using video conferencing technology, they all asked for individual face-to-face interviews. Completion of the interview

sessions took place over five weeks between March and April 2018, with no monetary compensation given to participants for their voluntary participation in the approved study.

The recruitment and data collection steps involved the following activities:

1. Recruited internal stakeholders (employees) working in the public sector as project specialist, government IT experts, UAE government officials, policy and regulatory authorities, and external stakeholders (consumers, suppliers, and consultants; see Figure 14).
2. At the meeting participants were asked to complete and submit the demographic information sheet prior to the interview to collect profile information. They were instructed to not write their name on the demographic sheet. Thus, an assigned number was recorded on the sheets.
3. Prior to the interviews official documents, such as public policy reports, information on past IT/ICT projects, and organisational strategic plans were reviewed.
4. Researcher and research assistants conducted the interviews and discussed the shared field notes after the scheduled interviews.

Some of the interviews were not tape recorded at the request of the participants. However, thorough hand-written field notes were recorded about interviewee observations and responses for all the participants by the researcher and two research assistants that helped with conducting the 25 interviews. Later the interviews and field notes were transcribed verbatim by the researcher after each interview to prevent misinterpretation of verbal information. Next, transcribed interviews, field notes, and on-site observation notes were securely cross-checked with the participants for confirmation of the gathered text. Then the data was analyzed and coded using thematic analysis to gain insightful categorical data related to understanding stakeholder influence, involvement, perceived challenges of smart government, and project management planning.

5.5 Initial Analysis After Interviews

Utilising the template analysis approach to chart information after the collection of interview data from each research assistant, the analysis of important themes using Excel 2016 to manage the data was initiated by the researcher using the instructional steps outlined by King (2012) for template analysis:

1. Become familiar with the data. Read interview transcripts and field notes thoroughly to perform an accurate analysis. If audio recording were used to record the interviews, re-listen to the tapes to improve the accuracy of shared information.

2. Conduct preliminary coding of the data. This involves highlighting textual information that is relevant to addressing the research questions and the theoretical, and stakeholder conceptual framework were used to help understand the data results.

3. Clustering of emerging themes. This entails grouping major and a priori themes into hierarchical relationships, with broader themes as the main category and narrow themes listed as a subset to the main themes (King et al., 2002).

4. Develop an initial template. This step represents the initial coding for the template analysis technique. This involves creating a diagram that shows the hierarchical organisation of themes and the subset of themes that represent a cross-section of issues and experiences revealed in the collected data.

5. Applying the template. Once the relevance of the interview data is identified, he or she begins coding, and the template analysis is used to interpret the significance of the salient findings.

6. Report the full analysis. Although there is never a final analysis of the template, the researcher reports the findings, and if further analysis is required, the results can be re-read to help answer the research questions.

Once the interview transcript data was collected and transcribed the following six steps outlined by King were employed to organize and code (*by hand*) the collected textual data based on King's (2012) template analysis technique. The researcher preferred this method because it is considered flexible and has been adopted and applied to various studies across different disciplines and by researchers that subscribe to various philosophical positions (Brooks et al., 2015). This process involved developing a template to categorize data into meaningful thematic information for evaluative analysis by the researcher (King, 2012).

As applied to the thematic coding process, these six steps starting first with reviewing the interview data and grouping common words, themes, and verbal patterns into specific broad and narrow categories for significance were properly initiated (Davidson & di Gregorio, 2011). The process of coding is a label applied to textual data as it relates to a specific theme or issue that the researcher identified as relevant to the research questions or interpretation of the data (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). In sum, the six steps outlined by King (2012) were conducted as outlined above. First step. Become familiar with the data to begin identifying relevant significant themes. In this step, the researcher and research assistants re-read the transcript, field notes, and listened to the audio recording several times to capture the major themes in the data. There were four major themes frequently voiced in the interviews (see Table 9). They were: (1) Collaboration and Teamwork, (2) Strategic Management and Professional Development, (3) Digital Divide, (4) Stakeholder Orientation and Communication. The second step is conduct preliminary coding of the data. In this step there are five a priori themes identified in this section: (1) integration of

stakeholders into the decision-making process, (2) salient stakeholders not identified prior to project planning, (3) smart technologies digital divide, (4) limited collaboration with marketing team, and (5) effective leadership. These were added to the template as broad or subset themes. The third step, Clustering of emerging themes. In this step, the two groups of themes were assessed to determine overlap of the terminology. The fourth step was developing an initial template. In this step, a final list of significant themes and subset themes in template form were organized categorically. The fifth step was applying the template. In this step, the major and subsidiary themes from the interview data were reviewed and aligned with the a priori themes. Secondary data, such as internal project management documents were also examined before finalizing the template analysis (see Table 10). The sixth step was reporting the analysis. In this step the final themes determined by high-frequency words or phrases from the interview data, field notes, and real-time quotations used to address the four research questions are presented in Table 10.

5.6 Template Data Analysis

In this section, the template analysis chart presents major themes and subsidiary data outcomes as it aligns with the four research questions (see Table 9). Additionally, the four major themes (*collaboration and teamwork, strategic management and professional development, digital divide, stakeholder orientation and communication*) that derived from the template analysis process are presented along with direct quotations voiced by the research participants (see Table 10). To ensure the validity of the collected interviews, the researcher followed several steps to organize and categorize the data: (a) all transcribed data was shared with participants by the researcher and research assistants for verbal cross-checking; meaning to confirm that the text matched their remarks given in the interviews. If errors were found it was corrected in real-time;

(b) transcript data was read and re-read by the researchers in a group meeting and analyzed by each researcher line-by-line to identify keywords or phrases using Excel 2016 to manage the data. Keywords were color-coded in correlation with the four research questions prior to combining the full dataset; (c) after grouping key constructs (by hand) based on the high-frequency count of words or statements, and phrases, quantified themes were charted for further analysis and significant themes were then extracted from each data set and discussed in detail by the three researchers (see Table 9).

Table 9
Template Analysis Chart

Research Questions	Major Themes	Subsidiary Themes/Field Notes
1. What are the major non-technical constructs (stakeholder involvement, management, marketing strategies) that hinder or support IT/ICT smart government initiatives?	**Collaboration and Teamwork** Communicating stated project goals Achieving quality satisfaction Managing large projects Maintaining transparency Relationships with key internal and external stakeholders Understanding consumer quality expectations New employee mentoring	Maintaining timelines Strong IT/ITC and PM background Not trained to perform assigned tasks Consensus building for support Lack of trust among employees Unwillingness to share ideas Not fully motivated or committed to project goals Online security fears Need open interactions between different cultural groups Supportive relationships Lack of collaboration between people and departments
2. What organisational leadership practices contribute to effective smart government implementation activities?	**Strategic Management and Professional Development** Promote creative thinking Maintain high technical standards for job performance Experience in explaining policies Experience in managing stakeholders Provide technical training on smart application development for internal and external stakeholders Value Diversity of staff members to build trust Include Marketing/PR on projects as key member of decision-making team Build an organisation that values input from others	Accept stakeholder feedback/input to promote new applications Stakeholder involvement from beginning to end Address complaints quickly Ability to problem solve complex situation as a team Accountability standards for everyone; managers and staff members Mass media campaign
3. Is the stakeholder model a viable method to improve citizen usage of smart government (mobile phone application) technology?	**Digital Divide** Close digital divide Geographic isolation and lack of education for some consumers-this is a challenge Train citizens on how to use m-technology functions Stakeholder marketing campaigns	Online Technology should be available to everyone Younger people prefer mobile technology-internet savvy Limited education and income impact online usage of apps Older people like face-to-face- they fear technology Use stakeholder marketing to influence other consumer markets and awareness of apps
4. What leadership practices are central or key to sustaining internal and external project-stakeholder involvement in technology-driven projects?	**Stakeholder Orientation and Communication** Identify key/Salient stakeholders Maintain communications with stakeholders Make stakeholders feel valued as a team member Build trust throughout organisation Communicate the smart technology vision and shared goals	Prioritize stakeholders Involve stakeholders at the onset of the strategic planning stage Currently, stakeholders not always asked to participate in implementation and product evaluation or TQM discussions

Table 10
Major Themes and Textual Quotations

Major Theme	Summary of Top Phrases and Quotations
Theme 1: Collaboration and Teamwork (count frequency# 25)	"It's important that the managers communicate the ICT project goals and schedule to everyone" (internal stakeholder) "I think if you don't know how to do your job managers should mentor and coach you" "We need key stakeholders to work and support us to improve quality satisfaction" (internal stakeholder) "To be effective, we have to manage large ICT projects as a team" (internal stakeholder: manager) " I want to make sure that there is transparency for each planning step" (external stakeholder) "Having a good relationship with external stakeholders and their networks can increase the use of our mobile apps" (internal stakeholder) "We do not completely understand what consumers expect; this is a big problem" (internal stakeholder)
Theme 2: Strategic Management and Professional Development (count frequency# 22)	"I think the leadership does a good job encouraging creative thinking" (external stakeholder) "The government has high standards for our job performance in technology" (internal stakeholder) " Managers need to do a good job explaining the smart policies and goals (internal stakeholder) "Having experience managing to customer stakeholders is important" (external stakeholder) "Technical training on smart application designs helps employees as the stakeholders" (internal stakeholder) "All leaders have to welcome and value staff diversity to build trust" (internal stakeholder) " I think by including the Marketing team on projects, and decision-making helps promote apps" (internal stakeholder) "For the smart government to work leaders need to build a culture that values input from everyone" (external stakeholders)
Theme 3: Digital Divide (count frequency# 15)	"We can close the digital divide if we work more with older customers. Younger people prefer mobile technology apps " (internal and external stakeholders) "Stakeholders help reach customers that live in isolated areas and have lower education" (external stakeholder) " When training customers on how to use m-technology functions our stakeholder can help" (internal stakeholder) " I consider myself a customer stakeholder, so I think I can help increase use of m-government by working with marketing campaigns" (external stakeholder)
Theme 4: Stakeholder Orientation and Communication (count frequency# 19)	"As a manager, I should identify key stakeholders early" (internal stakeholder; manager) "To make stakeholders feel welcome, we have to keep open communication with stakeholders at the beginning of the project planning step" (internal stakeholder) "I think to keep the community involved we need to feel valued like a team member" (external stakeholder) "Building trust throughout the organisation is my goal as a leader to improve commitment" (internal stakeholder; manager) "To keep them motivated team leaders must communicate the smart technology vision and goals" (internal stakeholder)

5.7. Interpretation of the Results

Four major thematic categories emerged from the analysis of the interview results (see Table 10 above).

5.7.1 Theme One Category: Collaboration and Teamwork

The first theme collaboration. All the participants agreed to some extent that having a strong relationship with stakeholders can improve the usage of new m-government smart applications. According to one internal stakeholder (*employee*) "They (referring to consumers)

are asked to participate in the decision-making process because of their social influence and survey data is also collected to try to engage them." Ten stakeholders perceived that the problems they have with low usage are somewhat connected to non-technical issues like not meeting a project timeline, not enough people assigned to the project or implementing smart apps too soon. It was also suggested that not everyone is committed to the project goals. According to a senior level manager respondent, this issue is attributed partly to the lack of accountability and training in the workplace, which mid-level managers have tried to address through coaching and mentoring new employees.

The second theme teamwork. Fifteen respondents expressed that the development and implementation of smart applications are associated with supportive relationships in the work environment (teamwork), open communication between team members, and having a relationship with external stakeholders. One internal stakeholder (employee) expressed that consumers want to make sure administrators are transparent in communicating their decisions when working with external stakeholders. For instance, he explained, "To successfully implement technology projects and lower the error rate communication is important." This he perceived would also improve trust between the managers and stakeholders, which he perceived as a present concern. However, three employees as stakeholders suggested that there is some distrust between Emiratis (citizens of the UAE) and Expats (noncitizen) in the workplace due to cultural differences. Thus, although they are friendly toward one another, there is a professional separation between the two employee groups.

5.7.2 Theme Two Category: Strategic Management and Professional Development

The first theme strategic management. There was broad support among the respondents that having consumer stakeholder support may attribute to the successful delivery of m-

Government developments. Two internal stakeholders commented that “if senior managers engaged marketing staff in smart technology project planning that would increase customer trust and usage when its implemented.” Three internal stakeholders stated that senior managers should “do more to encourage different ideas and use expertise to promote creativity” inside the workplace. For example, one stakeholder shared that “showing value for different ideas builds trust.”

The second theme professional development. Six internal stakeholders suggested there is a need for senior-level managers to offer more technical and middle management training to improve strategy development and overall project performance by working together. For instance, a female employee (internal stakeholder) expressed “Setting goals and objectives, dividing tasks into different workgroups would help achieve project targets.” Concerning stakeholder management, eight participants asserted that building a relationship with all stakeholder groups is a skill that managers need to display to promote more intergroup cooperation.

5.7.3 Theme Three Category: Digital Divide

Nine participants agreed that there is a digital divide that affects the usage of m-government among the older generation. On the other hand, seven participants shared that the digital divide may not close due to the age of the group, who prefers face-to-face interactions. Three external stakeholders said, “young people are comfortable using the internet” and then “if organisations used more customer stakeholders to help with marketing that could change the older peoples fear of technology.” There was a consensus among the group that salient stakeholder involvement can influence citizens to participate in using the internet and mobile technologies. Also, many of the participants believed it is the responsibility of managers to

involve stakeholders in decision-making, product design, and aligning their interests with different marketing campaigns.

5.7.4 Theme Four Category: Stakeholder Orientation and Communication

The first theme stakeholder orientation. Having invested so much money into the smart government development, most of the participants supported being more external stakeholder focused or oriented. Explicitly, it was asserted "communication with all stakeholders is important to the success of smart applications." Moreover, another employee stakeholder asserted "The key to the success of any project is stakeholder involvement."

The second theme communication. Three internal stakeholders commented that one challenge for project managers is how to keep stakeholders interested and motivated from the beginning of the project to the end (implementation). One community stakeholder noted that the leaders are doing a good job focusing on the needs of customers because he maintains openness to input. There was agreement among 17 participants that open communication and leaders were showing support toward stakeholders and employees was key to maintaining successful project planning.

5.8 Limitations of the Research Methodology

The principal limitations of this qualitative research approach was that the final sample were mostly internal stakeholders (Emiratis employees) connected to the IT or an ITC related department instead of external stakeholders that represented broader gender and cultural diversity. This was viewed as problematic by the researcher because it likely reduced the degree of insight into the issue of lower usage of end-user m-government apps among a plurality of citizens and noncitizens in the UAE. Another limitation is the fact that the study sample was primarily Emiratis and was comprised of more men than women although several site visits were

made by the researcher to encourage broader participation and higher representation of women. To address this issue the researcher later employed the techniques of snowballing and convenience sampling which increased the sample size from 20 to 25 participants, but participants were still mostly men in the total sample. Nevertheless, this was still disappointing to the researcher considering he has professional relationships with each of the three government agencies.

It should also be noted that there are some methodological concerns in using the qualitative approach. The research literature indicated that results derived from the qualitative approach are not easily generalizable to other groups (Creswell, 2007, 2012). In other words, this suggest that the findings should be interpreted with caution because the results may not be generalizable or applied to other populations outside the study sample or the Arab region, which in this case the present study is specific to the IT/ICT field in the UAE context. Another limitation, that negatively impacted the number of internal stakeholders as participants, is that they were narrowly recruited from IT departments within the government agencies. To address this problem, future researchers should recruit participants from non-IT departments across various government and non-government agencies that have used smart technologies to access services. From a methodological standpoint, this broader group of outside participants may expand the textual data concerning technical and non-technical patterns and themes that impact user adoption of smart technology.

5.9 Discussion of the Results

This study confirmed that stakeholder involvement impacts the success of IT/ICT smart projects in the UAE. The qualitative interviews revealed that working with multiple stakeholders to moderate the relationship between community and government agencies for different e-

technology and mobile projects can make a positive difference in targeted user acceptance. The findings of this investigative study are consistent with both Freeman's (1984) and Donald and Preston's (1995) view that salient stakeholder cooperation and support is needed for a firm or organisation to realize success (Branco & Rodrigues, 2006).

In this case, the research participants comprised of both internal and external stakeholders agreed that working together to co-create usefulness for the organisation's new mobile applications is essential to the ICT field, which is constituent dependent. This view is consistent with Ghemawat (2010), who postulated that "a business has added value when the network of customers, suppliers, and complementors in which it operates is better off with it than without it- i.e., when the firm offers something unique and valuable in the marketplace'' (p. 65) and Abu-Shanab (2015) that suggest usefulness has a strong impact on citizens intention to use m-Government technologies.

Concerning the workplace environment, it is interesting that some of the participants perceived a cultural digital divide between Emiratis and Expats, which might have been observed if the researcher conducted a focus group among the sample. Further, in this study where the majority were men with under five years of experience, it was surprising to learn there were not many temporal comments regarding gender and knowledge differences when discussing collaboration, teamwork, and technical performance among the participants. This suggests that everyone is viewed as valuable, supportive, and essential to the project regardless of age or degree of IT experience.

5.10 Chapter Summary

Based on the results, it is evident that stakeholder involvement impacts the success of IT/ICT smart projects in the UAE. This research study positively documented the importance

and beliefs that salient stakeholder involvement is useful for strategic management planning, implementation of m-government technology, and influencing other stakeholder usage for long-term success. Thus, external stakeholders representing different market segments (e.g., consumers, consultants, suppliers) should be viewed as vested and valuable constituents in the business and marketing context whether their involvement is connected to product development, design or delivery of services. The responses from the participants support some of the research that internal and external stakeholders are critical to advancing any technological reform.

The next section, Chapter six, focuses on the managerial implications based on the findings of the present project management and stakeholder theory study. These broad implications are useful to senior level and mid-level managers that are committed to working closely with diverse stakeholder networks to build and co-create product/or service value for UAE government IT/ICT projects in the future.

CHAPTER 6

Study Implications

6.1 Introduction

The literature review conducted for this research study suggests that there are growing interests and consensus in the academic and management sciences that stakeholder theory is an essential managerial tool to create value and influence use of new or redesigned ICT products/or services. Also, once project managers begin to understand that stakeholder influence and involvement can lead to increased profitability for the firm, improved consumer satisfaction, and better relationships across different departments, then stakeholders will be given higher managerial attention and priority (Andriof, 2017; McLeod et al., 2012; Valor, 2005).

Conceptually, stakeholder theory is defined as "any group or individual that is affected by or can affect the achievement of an organisational objective "(Freeman, 1984, p. 46). Although there are multiple definitions to describe what constitutes a legitimate stakeholder, for example, Friedman and Miles (2006) identified at least 55 different definitions of the terminology in the management context and academic literature for "stakeholder." Nevertheless, the most common and accepted definition is the classic definition introduced by Freeman.

Freeman (1984) asserts, despite some criticisms, the significant importance of stakeholder theory is that the organisation or firm can co-create product/or service value among multiple stakeholder groups and the success of that effort depends on the cooperation, engagement, and satisfaction of the stakeholders themselves and their influence on constituent networks. In line with this belief, other stakeholder theorists, studying field-based management strategies and stakeholder theory (e.g., Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Gummesson, 2008; Haverila & Fehr, 2016; Hill, 1992; Hult et al., 2011) posit that an organisation's success is also dependent on how

effectively they establish a relationship with salient stakeholders and the quality of those interactions (Davis, 2014; Phillips et al., 2007; Rowley, 1997).

6.2 Managerial and Ethical Implications

Within the IT/ICT industry, it is well known that the delivery of acceptable products/or services for various consumer markets is critical to the success and organisational survival of companies (McManus & Webley, 2013). Nutt (2002) argues that the primary source of support for new IT/ICT projects is salient stakeholders. In his examination of 400 decisive actions relative to technology acquisitions and strategic reorganisations, 50 percent of the businesses failed. In this context, failure is defined by Nutt as an organisation's decision to either stop or partially end the implementation of an IT/ICT project due to poor results (Ahmed, 2017). Interestingly, in this case, Nutt (2002) specifically attributed the problem to insufficient engagement of relevant stakeholders.

Moreover, from a strategic management viewpoint, subsequent studies have also suggested that there is a difference in how and whom the private sector IT/ICT organisations prioritize and value as legitimate stakeholders in contrast to government IT/ICT agencies (Feldman & Khademian, 2002; Tams & Hill, 2015). In the context of deregulation (i.e., meaningless bureaucratic oversight) and open competition, corporations identify employees; especially technical professionals, suppliers, and policy regulators as being the highest legitimate stakeholders within the corporation (McManus & Wood-Harper, 2007). For example, in some continental European countries (e.g., Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Spain, and the UK) employees in non-leadership roles are members of stock corporation supervisory boards, which is a collaborative decision-making group consisting of managers, shareholders, and executives that engage in decision-making. Moreover, they are responsible for policy-making,

business strategy, and problem- solving for the broader organisational community. McManus (2005) also found in an earlier technological research study that the factors which guided the business behaviour of for-profit European firms were a code of ethics that included adherence to integrity, fairness, and honesty.

On the other hand, in public-sector government organisations, key stakeholder groups (customers, employees, suppliers, contractors, corporate partners) usually have equal claim to urgency and power in business practices, product development decisions, and project planning initiatives. However, it is worth mentioning that Mitchell et al. (1997) investigated vital stakeholder relationships and asserted that it is unrealistic for managers to prioritize all stakeholders equally and give them the same degree of attention. Thus, he suggests that stakeholders' ability to capture managerial attention is linked to a manager's perception of which constituents represent three key attributes related to a stakeholder's claim to the organisation: (1) power/influence, (2) legitimacy, and (3) urgency (Mitchell et al., 1997). In the context of stakeholder involvement in government agencies, the identification and scope of salient stakeholder groups as a tool for strategic project management must be considered a high priority. Therefore, with the understanding that government organisations have higher accountability standards and are expected to satisfy the expectations of diverse stakeholder groups, normative actions and greater responsiveness to stakeholder input is needed (Eskerod & Huemann, 2013).

If IT/ICT managers focused more on improving the social and normative relationships with key stakeholders during each project phase, then that may improve or enhance the implementation outcome of new technology products/or services and possibly increase the usage of m-technology in the UAE. Research shows that organisations are more likely to respond better

to stakeholder needs and expectations if they have a closer exchange relationship with them (Aaltonen & Sivonen, 2009; Davis, 2014; Jeurissen & van de Ven, 2006).

Theoretically, this is consistent with the user acceptance adoption model, which posits that public acceptance of technology (e.g., performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence, facilitation conditions), is higher if consumers have a positive user experience with mobile computing and services on different organisational levels (Williams, Rana, & Dwivedi, 2015).

6.3 Stakeholder Marketing Strategies

Using Freeman's (1984) traditional stakeholder theory as a framework, stakeholder value is viewed as a dyadic hub-and-spoke value exchange relationship model that enables organisations to gain greater insight into how their product/or services in the marketplace deliver values to multiple stakeholder groups. As a marketing strategy, the stakeholder theory value model helps marketing managers evaluate if the expectations and needs of employees, external non-government partners, consumers, and other primary stakeholder groups are adequately satisfied with product/or service delivery outcomes. Undoubtedly, a strategic marketing approach may enable managers, internal, and multiple external stakeholders to create an adequate plan of mutual value to achieve and sustain success and to understand the failure of new projects (Ballantyne, 2003).

Therefore, based on a review of the literature and the current study findings, there are four significant implications that support marketers that adopt a stakeholder planning framework as part of the business plan. Whether it is a stakeholder network mapping approach (i.e., assessment of the current emphasis on different stakeholder markets) or two-way stakeholder value approach (i.e., a relationship approach that focuses on interrelated shared value) or the six-markets

stakeholder model (i.e., the process of identifying and classifying stakeholder market domains to develop relationships) each method is vital to building and sustaining existing and emerging relationships with diverse stakeholder groups (Christopher et al., 2002).

When integrating a stakeholder marketing model into a project management planning framework, this involves four strategic actions. First, it is critical that managers correctly identify the salient stakeholder networks that influence and communicate information to non-salient stakeholder groups. Second, managers must periodically monitor the strength of the organisation's relationship with different stakeholder markets, making sure that the interactions, interests, cooperation, and support from stakeholders is helping to meet the objectives of the organisation. Third, middle-level project managers should consider developing a centralized stakeholder marketing unit dedicated to closing the digital divide gap, rather than relegating the marketing function to a specific person or a department that controls advertising campaigns and brand marketing for the organisation. Fourth, project managers must maintain a democratic or transformational leadership approach to encourage cross-department internal and external stakeholders to give input throughout the project cycle. According to Hillebrand and Koll (2015), this democratic leadership approach to project planning would,

- Foster systems thinking and broad participation in making decisions.
- Develop a unified understanding of who the salient stakeholders are in the organisation.
- Create an understanding of how to address stakeholder conflicts or issues within the project group.
- Keep stakeholder's interests and product expectations at the top of the marketing and project agenda.

Thus, managers must maintain a stakeholder-oriented mindset and commitment in all phases of product/or service planning development, design, and implementation to gain long-term market loyalty.

6.4 Final Remarks: IT/ICT and Stakeholder Network

In general, to satisfy the technological demands and address the digital divide, UAE organisations need to look within, outside, and across different agencies to establish critical relationships with diverse stakeholder networks. Understandably, organisations do not have all the different resources and nuanced expertise to address technical and social complexities related to IT/ICT project planning design and implementation. Therefore, they must develop collaborative long-term relationships and partnerships with different major stakeholder and external sub-groups to co-create value for their technological products and services (Biondi et al., 2002; Braglia & Frosolini, 2014). Moreover, managers and mid-level managers need an integrated stakeholder mindset that emphasizes sustainability and stakeholder value with specific target groups using the six-market model as a guiding tool.

6.5 Chapter Summary

For stakeholder management, the categorized six market domains strategy is helpful in project planning and branding products/or service value to promote the benefits. By adequately identifying major stakeholder groups, managers from different functional areas or departments can relegate resources and attention to the needs of a wide range of stakeholder groups to meet different IT/ICT objectives and training needs. Professor Narayandas (2005) of Harvard University asserted that IT is a relationship-oriented business; thus the top-down leadership approach is not effective in acquiring nor retaining customer support for an organisation.

Thus, this may suggest that successful project managers that demonstrate specific behavioural characteristics and leadership qualities such as field-based expertise, teamwork, organisational awareness of key stakeholders, and the ability to facilitate cooperation are more likely to be considered useful and stronger leaders. Also, they are more likely to establish lasting relationships with various stakeholder segments that are committed to giving their desired support as a tradeoff for project inclusion (Ng & Walker, 2008). In the next section, chapter seven, the conclusion for this study is presented and discussed based on the review of the stakeholder and management literature and emerging research findings. Recommendations are also proposed by the researcher to guide managers across different government sectors on developing stakeholder relationships and maintaining their retention in different market domains as a project management strategy. Finally, suggestions are presented for future research on the study of project leadership and stakeholder engagement in other regions that are transitioning to advance technological smart government projects.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Conclusion and Recommendations

7.1 Introduction

This research study examined the role of project management in mobilizing stakeholders to engage in decision-making relative to co-creating product and service value, influencing stakeholder usage of smart technology, and involvement in project management decision-making for smart initiatives in the public sector of the UAE. Based on a review of the literature and the extracted findings from the interview data, stakeholder involvement is perceived as an important strategy to increase the acceptance of e-Government and m-Government applications.

Interestingly, this may indicate that stakeholder involvement at the onset of the project planning phase is necessary to achieve organisational goals and objectives. Conceptually, stakeholder theory which was discussed in chapter two was first introduced by Freeman (1984) in the organisational literature as a management tool. He broadly defined the term as "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organisation's objectives." Over the years the term has been redefined by various scholars to fit different business situations and disciplines (see Clarkson, 1994; Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Eskerod et al., 2015; Mitchell et al.,1997; Rowley, 1997; and Frooman, 1999) which has made it a contested concept due to the broad use of the term across different organisational types (Minoja, 2012). Savage et al. (2004) and Phillips et al. (2010) both argue that the principle assumptions of stakeholder theory that draws the attention of project managers are the following perspectives:

- Organisations develop stakeholder relationships that can influence other stakeholders (1984).
- Promoting stakeholder involvement focuses on the benefits to the organisation.

- Managers prioritize salient stakeholders that have a mutual interest in the organisation.
- Stakeholder orientation is helpful for managerial decision-making.
- Stakeholders that perceive their value will deliver consistent support.
- Organisations understand the importance of satisfying stakeholder interests. (cited in Mainardes et al., 2012, p. 1863).

These perspectives are consistent with previous authors, such as Bailur (2006) and Minoja et al. (2010) who posited that stakeholder engagement (e.g., employees, customers, community, and non-government partners) is directly linked to the success and effective implementation of ICT projects and outcomes. Furthermore, the measure to assess user satisfaction and active usage is reported as key indicators linked to predicting ICT success (DeLone & MacLean, 1992). Thus, in a review of the literature on the issues that impact the deployment of smart government product/or services, the present study explored the relationship between stakeholder theory and project management planning, and the impact on smart government implementation outcomes as viewed by salient stakeholders.

7.2 The Qualitative Study

The qualitative methodology for this study were face-to-face interviews. It was employed to collect original linguistic data from internal and external stakeholders (e.g., consumers, employees, government and non-government business representatives) that served as the sample recruited from three different government organisations: (a) Abu Dhabi Police Department (GHQ); (b) Abu Dhabi Municipality, and (c) Telecommunications Regulatory Authority (TRA). The face-to-face interviews were conducted to collect enough meaningful interview data related to six relevant project management categories as correlates of the stakeholder construct. The categories are identified as: (a) Smart Government Initiatives, (b) Project Management Planning

and Leadership, (c) Technology, (d) Stakeholder involvement (e) Environmental Context, and (f) People and Communities.

The interview protocol developed by the researcher, based on review of the organisational and stakeholder research literature, had 14 questions that assessed current project management practices, challenges, involvement of stakeholders in the planning and implementation process, and perceived factors that attributed to either the success, failure, or challenges related to smart government projects. All the interview sessions were conducted by the researcher and two trained research assistants between March and April 2018. Each interview lasted approximately 30 to 45 minutes and all the participants were asked the same questions by the research team.

7.3 Discussion of Qualitative Results

The qualitative interview format was semi-structured, which mostly helped to facilitate flexible and open interactions between interviewers and the 25 respondents. Hill et al. (1997) suggested using an openness strategy that allows participants to communicate their firsthand experiences without a perceived rigid structure and constraints. This approach is different from quantitative research methods (i.e., numbers), which relies on numbers to make judgments instead of verbal responses (Adler & Adler, 1998). Moreover, for the present study, the qualitative procedure allowed researchers to collect significant verbal interview data and record observational notes that pertained to the subject's perspectives, experiences, beliefs regarding the workplace environment, and stakeholder orientation.

To analyze the interview data, a thematic technique was utilised for the study to draw meaningful conclusions. Additionally, the template analysis approach was employed using Excel 2016 to sort and categorize key thematic constructs that either emerged or were extracted

from the collected transcribed data (Elliott, Fisher, & Rennie, 1999). The four research questions that guided the study and the proceeding answers to the research questions are discussed below:

1. What are the major non-technical constructs (stakeholder involvement, management, marketing strategies) that hinder or support IT/ICT smart government initiatives?
2. What organisational leadership practices contribute to the effectiveness of smart government implementation activities?
3. Is the stakeholder model a viable method to improve citizen usage of smart government (mobile phone application) technology?
4. What leadership practices are central or key to sustaining internal and external project stakeholder involvement in technology-driven projects?

RQ1. What are the major non-technical constructs (stakeholder involvement, management, marketing strategies) that hinder or support IT/ICT smart government initiatives?

One finding of this research study revealed that the effort and involvement of salient stakeholders are needed to implement m-Government projects successfully. This belief is consistent with the earlier literature, that posits key stakeholders influence the success and value of the organisation (Das & Teng, 2003; Mitchell et al., 1997). Several respondents mentioned that although in the past government organisations included external stakeholders on project teams to provide input on design and development issues, it was not always successful because they either did not know about the smart initiatives or maintain a commitment as a stakeholder. Thus, the remarks from these respondents suggest that to address the nontechnical issues adequately, salient stakeholders with interests or experience in ICT should be asked to join and commit to project teams and to give input. It was also the view of the respondents that the critical factors associated with successful implementation of smart technology efforts were open

communication, positive support, having clear goals, and having project leaders with broad expertise in the IT/ITC field.

On the other hand, the factors thought to hinder the successful implementation of mobile technology were lack of commitment and attention by employees and external stakeholders, lack of trust between different departments, not socializing with different ethnic or cultural groups, and lack of managerial training in directing the activities of the project team.

RQ2. What organisational leadership practices contribute to the effectiveness of smart government implementation activities?

The findings of this study provided some insight into the relationships between senior managers and internal stakeholders (employees), middle managers, and external stakeholders (consumers, suppliers, non-government partners) and the cultural attitudes about the work environment. Many of the respondents, both male and female, reported that the supportive team environment was related to senior and mid-level managers establishing an open and favorable work climate to improve collaboration and relationships between them. In general, this underscores that stakeholders are considered a priority rather than a means-to-an end attitude by the leadership team. This relationship-based leadership approach is consistent with Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory. These remarks "He is committed to the team, and I relate to him" and "Our environment is very supportive, at least every week I go in to sit with him to discuss the projects" illuminates the importance of a transformational leadership approach (i.e., ability to empower followers by maintaining high expectations and offering coaching and mentoring; Bass, 1985).

Other essential leadership qualities and practices asserted by respondents as significant to smart government development and implementation were: (a) experience in executing policy, (b) planning useful technical training on project planning, (c) understanding different market

domains, which means including marketers on team projects, and (d) valuing input from others to encourage knowledge sharing of new ideas.

RQ3. Is the stakeholder model a viable method to improve citizen usage of smart government (mobile phone application) technology?

Based on the analysis of the interview data, participants understood the importance of collaborating with stakeholders on projects to improve consumer usage of new mobile applications, which is identified as m-Government. Respondents expressed the belief that leaders made a concerted effort to involve internal and external stakeholders in project planning activities. However, one comment of disapproval related to those stakeholders that did not demonstrate genuine interests in the project or maintain a time commitment to ICT meetings. Several respondents remarked how difficult it is to keep the commitment of external stakeholders. Moreover, some respondents stated that key stakeholders should be identified at the onset of project planning and that same group should be considered a priority in order to maintain their support. For example, the following quotation exemplifies this belief:

> "Showing care for key stakeholders may seem simple, but it's not easy. Being empathic towards their feelings and interests can grab their attention and engagement in our planning and implementation process". (Male internal stakeholder)

This shows how important it is to maintain a connection with salient consumer stakeholders, which is in line with the stakeholder theory and the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) adoption theory, which focuses on four domains to explain user acceptance or rejection (e.g., performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence, facilitation conditions).

RQ4. What leadership practices are central or key to sustaining internal and external project stakeholder involvement in technology-driven projects?

The respondents also discussed the impact that leaders have in influencing whether a stakeholder chooses to remain involved or leave the project before full implementation. Two employees made these specific remarks to the question regarding the role of management in engaging stakeholder involvement in the planning and implementation stages of smart government:

> "Stakeholders are defined and briefed by managers; their feedback is given high value and taken into consideration while making changes." (Female stakeholder)

And,

> "I feel that there must be a commitment among the leaders and ministers to give input to stakeholders on the project along its stages. A tool for stakeholder' involvement can be to organize a committee of people with different backgrounds at the beginning of a project until the end for decision-making. It is important to have a shared vision of the projects together to reach our goals". (Male Stakeholder)

These remarks point to the fact the senior leadership and middle managers need to be proactive in engaging stakeholders early in the project planning process to accomplish smart goals and influence end-users to participate as consumers in smartness developments. Although m-Government was implemented, this recommendation is especially relevant in the current due to the low usage outcome of m-Government applications in the UAE.

7.4 Conclusion

Achieving technological driven smartness and making products/or services accessible to everyone in the UAE is an essential goal for government agencies and officials. Although government ICT electronic developments and mobile technology is still evolving it is considered an empowering development that will improve the consumers quality of life by ultimately achieving smartness (network and digital innovations) in conducting business transactions and engaging in online interactions.

For this reason, it is essential that leaders in public-sector government organisations have a stakeholder-oriented mindset to create value for new products/or services, despite low customer usage of m-Government among consumer stakeholders. By adopting a salient stakeholder strategy as a project manager, organisations can use their energies and resources to work with specific stakeholders that have interests in ICT decision-making, products/or service designs, and influencing other stakeholder networks (Donald & Preston, 1995; Driessen & Hillebrand, 2013).

As a managerial tool for practitioners, the research literature and the template analysis results of the present study revealed that stakeholder involvement and identifying salient stakeholders could also help to guide collaborative marketing campaigns, understand usage patterns among consumers, and determine the strengths or weaknesses of the products/or services. Furthermore, as illustrated in the results, which is consistent with the research literature, the stakeholder relationship should not be used as an add-on for project planning, but instead must be treated as a management priority. The main theoretical perspectives used for this study; stakeholder theory and a unified theory of acceptance and use of technology (UTAUT) adoption theory explains the thematic constructs that emerged in this study.

The findings are also congruent with other organisational studies associated with how stakeholders are perceived as positively linked to organisational success over shareholders. Moreover, the present study adds to the research literature because it focused on the understanding and knowledge of how salient stakeholders impact ICT developments and influence consumer technology usage in connection to the UAE (i.e., apps, mobile smartphones, and tablets; Rahman, Albalooshi, & Sarker, 2015).

7.5 Recommendations and Future Work

Because stakeholder theory as a managerial tool is vital to enhancing product development, customer acceptance, and guiding project management decisions, stakeholder engagement should be considered a top priority for project managers. This strategic direction as an approach is supported by Freeman's (1984) classic stakeholder theory. Consequently, both internal and external stakeholders may take a higher interest in using new and existing smart technologies as well as influence their personal social networks to participate in adopting the new apps and technologies (Odendaal, 2003).

Thus, the positive results from this exploratory study documents the importance of stakeholder involvement in ICT smart projects to promote end-user adoption in the Arab region. Moreover, it broadens the applicability of Freeman's theoretical stakeholder model outside the western region in the context of the UAE workplace environment. As a result, the findings have led to five strategic recommendations for organisational managers and future researchers relative to ICT implementation of smart initiatives, planning, and collaboration.

7.5.1 Organisational Domain

Within the organisational domain in the UAE, the management structure, departments, and unit functions, and operations should be examined on four levels to understand where and how to

address problems associated with low stakeholder usage and the digital divide. Thus, project managers need to review: (a) technological policies, (b) recommended organisational and management strategies, (c) stakeholder involvement, and (d) value creation marketing activities.

7.5.2 Technological Domain

From a technological perspective, at the policy and implementation level, there are three unexpected challenges government and senior project managers should address. First, the lower usage of m-Government apps (e.g., use of mobile computing devices) to access government information for services. Second, not all government agencies have set-up service applications online to engage the public in business activities, nor have they set-up information regarding the availability of smart government access, and lastly the mobile service capability is not fully integrated for usage of different types of smart technology devices (Rahman et al., 2015).

7.5.3 Project Management Domain

As for administrative or management support, this vital leadership function is seen as critical to successfully implementing smart government IT/ICT projects in the UAE. Due to the complexity of managing innovative technological developments, senior leadership and managers must co-create a cross-organisational work environment to lead IT/ICT projects. Thus, this involves securing the commitment of different departments, consultants, organisations, and salient stakeholders with various interests and resources. At the most basic level, strong project management abilities can improve in areas related to management skills, team building experience, technological abilities, understanding of policy to facilitate the smartness vision, and ability involve different stakeholders at the development stage, implementation stage, and marketing (Tams & Hill, 2015).

7.5.4 Non–Technical Recommendations

To address non-technical challenges (e.g., project management, stakeholder, and marketing practices) that contribute or hinder the implementation of smart government initiatives and user support relative to IT/ICT projects and stakeholder commitment, a team of specialists is needed to help understand and overcome the unexpected challenges that negatively impact the implementation of smart government projects in the UAE (Cross, 2005). For example, common problems such as inadequate social infrastructure (Kanter & Litow, 2009), poor network infrastructure (Brown & Brudney, 1998), project management issues (Cats-Baril & Thompson, 1995), poor project planning (Cats-Baril & Thompson, 1995), policy readiness (Heeks, 2002), and lack of professional skills (Nam & Pardo, n.d.) are a few of the challenges that should be explored by project managers and salient stakeholders.

7.5.5 Human Resources and Researcher Recommendations

The first recommendation directed to human resources is that the PM in-role job description and expectations need to be rewritten to include engaging critical stakeholders as a PM function and requirement for successful product development outcomes and implementation of smart government initiatives. As stated earlier, Williamson (1995) argued that managers are not held accountable for not valuing the input from salient stakeholders during the planning and implementation process. The second recommendation to help qualitative researchers is when observing organisational behaviour and collecting meaningful information using qualitative methodologies he or she should include a quantitative approach as well to strengthen the validity and reliability of the spoken words from research participants (Nam & Pardo, 2011) or follow with a focus group collect additional information. The third recommendation is that qualitative

researchers should seek to have a balanced sample of both men and women for comparability reasons when seeking qualitative information.

7.6 Chapter Summary

With the predicted success of greater stakeholder involvement and improved project planning outcomes, the UAE government can enhance the performance of smart government, user satisfaction, and productivity, by becoming more stakeholder-centric. Therefore, the significance of the study findings revealed that the improvement of smart government outcomes is equally dependent on non-technical challenges connected to the need for stronger project management support and accountability, organisational commitment, prioritizing stakeholder interests and satisfaction, and experienced leaders with smart technology development experience in the UAE. Thus, this is a crucial step because the successful performance of a sustainable smartness infrastructure is a benefit for the organisation and Arab society.

7.7 Implications for Future Work

Future investigative work might want to replicate the present study on stakeholder project management and stakeholder influence using a larger number of participants and having an equal number of men and women as study participants. Also, a quantitative methodology component is recommended to objectively test the attitudes and basic customer preferences regarding usage of e-Government and m-Government technology applications used in the UAE. In general, this would enhance the creditability of the present study findings and strengthen the advocacy for relational stakeholder management as a vital tool for improving consumer acceptance and broader public support. Furthermore, to stimulate a higher response rate, researchers may want to offer a small monetary stipend to those that agree to participate in the study.

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APPENDICES
Appendix A

Researcher's Biographical Information

The professional work experience of the researcher includes 13 years of experience in the IT/ICT field, working in the public-sector government at both the federal and local level in the UAE. The researcher has served in the role as head Geographic Information System (GIS) security center as well as Director of the Abu Dhabi Police Control Systems Branch. Additionally, as head of the Virtual Systems Department at the ministry of Interior, the researcher's responsibilities included working in the virtual systems section to improve government services through use of virtual technology. And he was also appointed as project manager by the cabinet office of the UK government (Prince 2 Practitioner).

As for the researcher educational training in ICT/IT and leadership, the researcher holds a bachelor's degree in ICT (Information and Communication Technology) from Swinburne University of Technology in Australia. He also has certifications for project management and impactful leadership (IL) which is the highest government certificate offered. The IL certificate is a distinct training program that aligns with the core strategy in the UAE government to achieve global excellence at the highest standard and develop smart government to increase digital smart services in the UAE. As a citizen of this country, I am interested in understanding the challenges and issues faced by all stakeholders and project managers in implementing e-Government projects.

Appendix B

Informed Consent Form

An Exploratory Study on the Role of Stakeholder Management in the Implementation of Smart Government Projects in the UAE

You are being asked to participate in an exploratory research study on Project Management and the impact of stakeholders in implementing Information and Communication Technology (ICT) smart government initiatives. As a government employee or partner working in the public sector or client living in the geographical area, you are being asked to take part in the research study to offer important insight on the study topic. Please read this form carefully and don't hesitate to ask questions before agreeing to participate in the Smart Government study.

Purpose of the Study: The purpose of this study is exploratory with the intent to gain insight on the benefits and challenges connected to smart government transformation, project management planning and stakeholder relationship, and implementation outcomes.

What is your Role as a research subject: If you agree to join the study as a participant, we will conduct an individual semi-structured interview with you face-to-face or through video conferencing. The interview will include questions about your job role, your involvement with stakeholders, implementation of smart government initiatives, and your commitment to the project. The interview will take about 45 minutes with time reserved for questions at the end of the session. With your permission, we will also tape-record the full interview.

Risks and Benefits: "I do not anticipate any personal, emotional, or professional risks involved with your participation in this investigative study**."**

Compensation: This is strictly a volunteer activity, and there are no cash rewards for your participation in the study. However, your input will be used to help future research in this technological study area.

Your Responses will be held Confidential. All interview notes and transcribed documents gathered from study participants will be kept private. If information is reported to the public, we will not include any personal information that can identify you as a subject. Research records will be kept in a locked file; only the researchers will have access to the records for review. If the interview session is tape-recorded, we will destroy the tape after it has been transcribed, which we anticipate will be within three months after its taping.

Participation is voluntary: Taking part in this study is completely voluntary. You may skip any question(s) that you are not comfortable answering. If you decide not to participate in the study

or to skip some of the questions, it will not impact your employment. Thus, you are free to withdraw at any time during the study if needed. However, I ask that you share the reason with the researcher to provide an opportunity to address your concern.

Who is the Researcher: The researcher conducting this study is Taher Alameri enrolled at the British University in Dubai. If you have questions regarding this investigative study, please ask them now. If you have questions later, you may also contact Taher Alameri at toti7445441@gmail.com, or if you have questions or concerns regarding your rights as a human subject in this study, you may contact the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the University.

You will be given a copy of this form to keep for your personal records.

Statement of Consent: I have read the above information and have received answers to the questions I asked. Yes, I voluntarily consent to participate in the ICT study.

Your Signature _____ Date _____

Your Full Name (printed)

_____

In addition to agreeing to participate, I also consent to having the interview tape-recorded.

Your Signature _____ Date _____

Signature of person obtaining consent _____

Date_____

Printed name of person obtaining consent _____

Date _____

*Please Note: This consent form will be kept by the researcher **Taher Alameri** in a secured location for at least three years beyond the end date of the study.*

Appendix C
University Permission Letter

الجامعة البريطانية في دبي
The British University in Dubai
www.buid.ac.ae

11/19/2017

To whom it may concern

This is to certify that Mr. Taher Albraik Alameri with Student ID number 2014132002 is a registered part-time student in the Ph.D. In Project Management offered by The British University in Dubai since September 2014.

Mr. Alameri is currently collecting data for his thesis (An Exploratory Study on the Role of Stakeholder Management in the Implementation of Smart Government Projects in the UAE).

He is required to gather data that will help him in writing the final thesis. Your permission to conduct his research in your organisation is hereby requested. Further support provided to his in this regard will be highly appreciated.

Any information given will be used solely for academic purposes.

This letter is issued on Mr. Alameri's request.

Yours sincerely,

الجامعة البريطانية في دبي
الإدارة الطلابية
Student Administration
The British University in Dubai

Dr. Amer Alaya
Head of Academic and Student Administration

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Appendix D

Human Subject Statement

An Exploratory Study on the Role of Stakeholder Management in the Implementation of Smart Government Projects in the UAE
(For Research Sites)

Human Subject Statement. The participants for this study will be obtained by purposeful selection of employees and community stakeholders involved in an ICT smart project. The researcher will contact two or more government agencies to obtain permission to recruit participants with the understanding that the research participants will first be chosen and contacted by the government agency. Using a purposive sampling technique, the potential sample that will be used for this study will be representative of community stakeholder members, employees, government and non-government partners derived from the public sector and will consist of men and women involved in smart government initiatives in the UAE. A manageable sample size will be selected with the goal of making sure the participants are diverse in terms of gender, age, education, and geographical location, to receive broad viewpoints relative to the implementation process, challenges, and barriers associated with smart government initiatives in the UAE.

For participants meeting the research criteria, the researcher will request participation and schedule an interview to be held at an on-site location at the participants workplace. Written Consent must be obtained from all participants, and a valid signature must be provided to state that he or she has read and understand the procedures of the research study. A copy of the consent form will be provided to the subject and confidentiality of his or her true legal name will be kept private. Only the researcher and his doctoral supervisor and committee will have access to the collected data. Upon request, withdrawal of the participants' participation is granted at any point without penalty to the subject.

Human Subject Risk or Harm. There is no foreseeable risk or harm to the research participants, and there is no monetary compensation for the participants' participation in this study. Confidentiality is protected, and the interview audiotape recordings will be kept in a secured location at the end of the study. And access to the data will be given to the thesis supervisor and committee members and the research assistant wo will transcribe the collected data verbatim. Upon request, the participant has the right to withdraw from the research study at any time without penalty.

Appendix E

Demographic Information Sheet

An Exploratory Study on the Role of Stakeholder Management in the Implementation of Smart Government Projects in the UAE

Gender: Female ☐ Male ☐

Age Range:

18- 25 ☐

26-33 ☐

34-41 ☐

42-49 ☐

50 or over☐

Marital Status: Single ☐ Married ☐ Widowed ☐

For Project Managers Only: years of work experience in IT/ICT Project Management

Less than 5 years ☐

Between 6-10 years ☐

Between 11-15 years ☐

Above 16 years ☐

For Non-Project Managers: years of work experience working with IT/ICT projects?

Less than 5 years ☐

Between 6-10 years ☐

Between 11-15 years ☐

Above 16 years ☐

Highest Level of Education

High School ☐

Diploma ☐

Bachelor ☐

Higher Education (Advance Degree) ☐

How many years' tenure working in the government public sector: _____

What is your current job role (job title): _____

Number of employees under your leadership

Between 1- 3 ☐

Between 4-10 ☐

Between 11-20 ☐

Above 21 ☐

None: non-leadership position ☐

Appendix F

Semi- Structured Interview Protocol

An Exploratory Study on the Role of Stakeholder Management in the Implementation of Smart Government Projects in the UAE

Section 1: Smart Government Initiatives

1. What are the *performance* goals for smart government projects in the UAE?

2. What are the smart priorities at the government and organisational level?
3. How committed are project managers and stakeholders in building effective smart Government systems?
4. What do believe are the main characteristics of an effective smart government?

Section 2: Project Management Planning and Leadership

5. What project management practices are used to successfully implement smart government project initiatives? Was it effective; and why? (*interview probe: project management steps, changing the organisational structure, change in service process and information delivery, project framework, stakeholder input, client feedback, performance monitoring, evaluation of outcome, staffing changes, training, increase in financial support, etc.)*

6. What leadership skills are important to project management planning and implementation? And what is your project planning experience or involvement working with stakeholders on government related projects?

Section 3: Technology

7. What marketing strategies are used to promote communication technology (ICT) smart government initiative? (*interview probe: progress monitoring, data analysis tools, system integration, social media campaigns, etc*.)

8. There is low citizen usage of smart government (smart phone technology) services to access public services on the website. What do you view as the barriers or challenges that stop citizens from using smart government technologies?

Section 4: Stakeholder Involvement

9. How are stakeholders involved in the planning and implementation phases of smart government? And how are they engaged in the strategic planning and implementation process?

10. Who was involved in making decisions regarding smart government project priorities, evaluation strategies, and progress planning? How would you describe your relationship with

the project leadership team? (*interview probe: open, positive, negative, collaborative, r supportive of stakeholders*)

Section 5: Environmental Context

11. How supportive is the organisation regarding implementing smart government initiatives ?

12. Describe the work environment/or climate here. (*interview probe: cultures, social involvement, inclusive, supportive of each other, and demographic information*)

Section 6: People and Communities

13. Are the general communities and stakeholders accepting of using m-Government and e-Government services? If yes, please explain your answer.

14. From your professional view do you believe a “digital divide” negatively impacts the acceptance and usage of smart government technologies?