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Stakeholder-centric development of performance indicators in a local government context:

A multi case study examination of cultural precinct performance measurement

by

Rebekah Schulz
M Litt. and MA

Supervisors:
Associate Professor, Dr Andrew Sense
Dr Matt Pepper

A thesis is presented as part of the requirement for the conferral of the degree:

Doctor of Philosophy

This research has been conducted with the support of the Australian Government Research Training Program Scholarship

The University of Wollongong

Faculty of Business, School of Management, Operations and Marketing (SMOM)

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Stakeholder-centric development of performance indicators in a local government context:

A multi case study examination of cultural precinct performance measurement

ABSTRACT

Rebekah Schulz

A Thesis for Doctor of Philosophy

Faculty of Business, School of Management, Operations and Marketing (SMOM)

Purpose: Senior officers and elected members (internal stakeholders) within Australian local government are taking an active interest in the development of cultural precincts. However, this interest is hampered by the lack of available research or literature on the benefits, value, or performance indicators (PIs) for such facilities. Whilst communities (external stakeholders) are primary consumers of cultural precinct services, genuine community engagement is often lacking in public administrations. As a result, community expectations of cultural precincts and precinct performance is not understood. This thesis considered what relevant PIs (and associated decision-making procedures) could be devised to appropriately gauge the performance of cultural precincts and to effectively engage internal and external stakeholders in this context.

Methodology: To progress this study a mixed method approach applied to multiple case studies was pursued. This approach consisted of five distinct research phases involving five case Councils in New South Wales, Australia. These cases were at various stages of cultural precinct development. A literature review examined the study of performance measurement in public administrations, particularly the local government sector, the use of the balanced scorecard and the quadruple bottom line; as well as performance management literature from the fields of public administration, service industries and total quality management. Government reports were reviewed such as master plans, community strategic plans, engagement strategies, and relevant policy documents. Empirical data collection was undertaken utilising semi-structured interviews, focus groups and participative action research (PAR). Analysis was informed and guided by the principles of quality function deployment (QFD) and an enhanced performance indicator "house of quality" (PIHoQ) was developed to execute the needs of this research and to deploy into the field for preliminary testing and refinement of the framework.

Results: This original research provides new insight into performance measurement of local government cultural precincts from multiple stakeholder perspectives. The PIHoQ and associated PAR processes developed to meet the needs of this context, known as performance indicator cultural precinct assemblage (PICPA), facilitated strong analysis of the relationship between customer expectations and the identified PIs. The development of strategic features for cultural precincts assisted in the advancement of relevant PIs that can be utilised to gauge the performance and ensure the continuous improvement of cultural precincts. PICPA serves as a strategic management decision-making framework and genuine engagement program for cultural precinct performance measurement.

Conclusion: This research contributes to theory on PIs and their development for local government cultural precincts utilising multiple stakeholder perspectives from a social constructivist epistemological approach. The research challenges the concept of standardised PIs and benchmarking, calling for future research on the contextualisation of PI development. The research builds on the knowledge of cultural precincts in the context of local government, providing new interpretations of cultural precincts, their benefits and stakeholder understanding of such facilities. The PICPA espoused in this thesis provides a new methodological approach to effectively co-produce PIs in the face of a dearth of any systematic guidance to facilitate such participatory democracy for effective performance measurement. Finally, this research contributes to practice in that it provides a set of processes and a framework for practitioners to pursue in developing contextualised cultural precinct PIs.

Keywords

Local government, cultural precinct, performance indicators, quality function deployment, customer service, customer values, participative action research, stakeholder engagement.

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And finally, everyone at Georges River Council for their support, particularly my former boss, Laurie O'Connor who approved my undertaking of this thesis on local government. My current boss and General Manager, Gail Connolly for affording me the opportunity to finish it and stretching my ability to write. And Franzi Mintus, EA-extraordinaire who put up with me at work.

Finished!

CERTIFICATION

I, Rebekah Schulz, declare that this thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the conferral of the degree Doctor of Philosophy, from the University of Wollongong, is wholly my own work unless otherwise referenced or acknowledged. This document has not been submitted for qualifications at any other academic institution.

Rebekah Schulz

5 December 2019

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Action research	AR
Balanced scorecard	BSC
Central business district	CBD
Community strategic plan	CSP
Communities of practice	CoP
Creative city index	CCI
Cultural precinct	CP
Electronic medical record	EMR
European foundation for quality management	EFQM
Fit for future	FFF
Frequency	F
House of quality	HoQ
Intangible performance indicator	IPI
Integrated planning and reporting	IPR
International Organization for Standardization	ISO
Key performance indicator	KPI
Local government area	LGA
Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award	MBNQA
Museum of Applied Arts and Sciences	MAAS
New public management	NPM
New public sector management	NPSM
New South Wales	NSW
New South Wales Office of Local Government	NSW OLG
Participative action research	PAR
Performance indicator	PI
Performance indicator cultural precinct assemblage	PICPA
Performance indicator house of quality	PIHoQ

Performance measure	PM
Performance measurement system	PMS
Pricewaterhouse Coopers	PwC
Quadruple bottom line	QBL
Quality function deployment	QFD
Tangible performance indicator	TPI
Technical requirement	TR
Total quality management	TQM
Triple bottom line	3BL
United States of America	USA
Voice of the customer	VoC

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Schulz, R., Sense, A. & Pepper, M. 2020. Apprehending and embedding customer expectations in the collaborative development of performance indicators. *Systemic Practice & Action Research*. Accepted for publication November 2019.

Schulz, R., Sense, A. & Pepper, M. 2018. Conceptualising a framework for effective performance measurement in cultural precinct development and operation. *Australian Journal of Public Administration,* vol.7, no.1, pp.35-49.

Schulz, R., Pepper, M. P. J. & Gross, M. 2012. Performance measurement for cultural precinct development: A case for regionalism in local government. *In:* DALZIEL, P., ed. *Refereed Proceedings of the 36th Annual Conference of the Australian and New Zealand Regional Science Association International,* 2012 University of Wollongong. AERU Research Unit, 247-258.

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1.BACKGROUND

The genesis for this thesis came from a discussion between the researcher and colleagues from local government councils in New South Wales (NSW), Australia. A colleague asked, “why do we build these cultural precincts when we don’t know if they work?” This led the researcher to reflect on the fact that more and more local government agencies are indeed developing and operating cultural precincts (CPs) (Consider for example, Parker 2011) and engaging in creative clusters and the assumed benefits of enabling a creative city (Stevenson and Magee 2017). Within academia the cultural precinct, or a defined geographical area that contains facilities and services related to artistic and intellectual activity (Schulz et al. 2018) (See Section 2.4.1.), is known as a “cultural cluster” or “quarter” (Gibson and Freestone 2002) whilst such terms are likewise commonly practiced in local government and public administrations (NSW Government Architect and Newcastle City Council 2004; City of Vancouver 2008b; Council C 2010; Council E 2013; Australian Trade Commission 2014; Council C 2015; HillPDA 2017; NSW Government and City of Parramatta 2018). Yet, academic literature and practicing public administrations lack a clear understanding as to the nature of CPs, their benefits to communities, stakeholder expectations of such facilities and how performance of such precincts is understood (Schulz et al. 2018). CPs are costly facilities to develop and operate (For example, see Anonymous 2003b; Scanlon 2004; Anonymous 2011; Rankin 2014; HillPDA 2017). Equally, in the local government context, CPs can be politically sensitive and open to media scrutiny (Anonymous 2003a; Anonymous 2005a; Anonymous 2005c; Anonymous 2006; Ryan 2010; Anonymous 2012b; McGuire 2014; Anonymous 2018). The absence of CP discourse within the extant academic literature, coupled with the significant costs of such facilities, potential for political influence and strong media scrutiny within the local government context clearly demonstrates some current deficiencies within academic theory and public administration practice.

As a result of these deficiencies, it behoves academics and practitioners alike to examine the nature and make up of CPs and the benefits derived from their operations. Further, it is conjectured that one could derive performance indicators (PIs) for CPs in order to gauge performance that takes due regard to stakeholder requirements and, ipso facto, avoids negative media coverage charging local government with claims that community’s needs were ignored. Performance measurement is a relatively recent phenomenon in public administrations (James and Moseley 2014), though recognised well before within classic literature such as Bernard Shaw’s acknowledgement in his 1903 play “Man and Superman”: “The only man who behaved sensibly was my tailor; he took my measure every time he saw me, whilst all the rest went on with their old measurements and expected them to fit me.” (Shaw 1946, p.75).The challenge, it was extrapolated, was finding an approach through which to define community needs and align PIs. A quality function deployment (QFD) tool, an enhanced performance indicator house of quality (PIHoQ), was developed, applied and tested in the study and is considered an effective framework for public administrations to enable them to develop and implement PIs in CP operations and to effectively engage stakeholders in that process. QFD is a means of planning (Evans and Lindsay 2011) that acts as a methodological tool through which the researcher and participants define customer requirements and align these to technical requirements (Evans 2008) in relation to CP development and operation. As a form of communication (Adiano and Roth 1994), the data obtained during the research phase, is encapsulated and presented in a traditional house of quality (HoQ) as shown in Figure 1-1 (Adiano and Roth 1994, fig.2, p.28). The enhanced component of the PIHoQ, analysed in Chapter 5, integrates other performance measurement tools including the balanced scorecard (BSC) and quadruple bottom line (QBL). These integrations alleviate the challenge of standard HoQ implementation, namely in relation to the complexity inherent in CPs and the challenge of measuring the intangible elements of CP developments and operations. The research emphasised a need for a suite of customisable and flexible PIs which necessitated the development a refined model utilising a maturity pathway to guide practitioners in the appropriate selection of PIs. The adoption of these refined PIs and their alignment with community needs and technical requirements were a further enhancement of the PIHoQ. Finally, Chapter 5 examines the process design for the PIHoQ and the utility of participative action research (PAR) to support a genuine stakeholder engagement process.

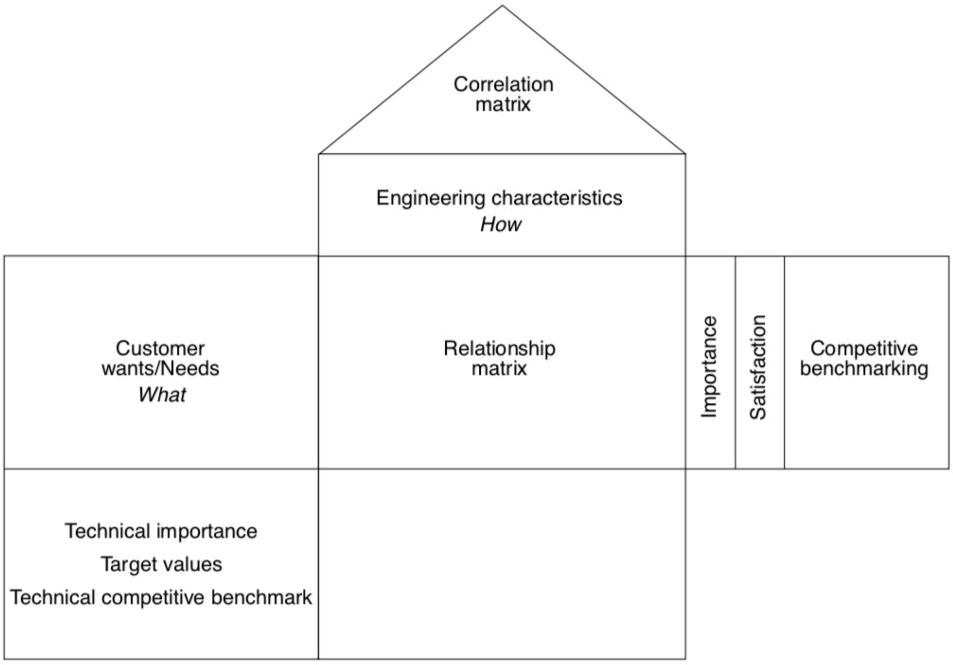

Correlation matrix
Engineering characteristics
How
Customer wants/Needs
What
Relationship matrix
Importance
Satisfaction
Competitive benchmarking
Technical importance
Target values
Technical competitive benchmark

Figure 1-1: Typical house of quality (Adiano and Roth 1994, fig.2, p.28)

This thesis assimilated five overarching research questions, those being:

- What form might a decision-making framework take to assist local government in the development of performance indicators to measure the performance of cultural precincts?
- What relevant and effective performance indicators can be developed for cultural precincts in a local government context to gauge performance and support continuous improvement?
- What benefits do stakeholders expect from cultural precincts?
- By what criteria do stakeholders gauge the success or otherwise of cultural precinct performance?
- What processes can be utilised to enable genuine stakeholder engagement in developing PIs within local government?

In order to address these research questions, between 2013 and 2018, this study utilised a five-phase, mixed method approach to data capture and analysis across five councils in NSW, Australia. In phase 1, a comprehensive literature review covered local government and public administration, stakeholder theory, performance measurement, QFD and its application in service industries, CPs from urban planning and cultural consumption perspectives. The research examined relevant current practice as evidenced within public administration documents such as master plans, community strategic plans (CSPs), business plans, plans of management, survey results and current performance measurement practices. Knowledge gained in that initial phase informed the application of semi-structured interviews with internal stakeholders in phase 2 to determine stakeholder requirements (known as the voice of the customer), technical requirements and PIs for CPs. Phase 3 saw the inclusion of external stakeholders in focus groups to further expand the voice of the customer (VoC). The data gleaned from these phases saw the development and refinement of the PIHoQ in phase 4 which was assessed and further refined with internal and external stakeholders in phase 5 of the research. This final phase applied participative action research in order to develop an adaptive decision-making framework, a PIHoQ for cultural precinct performance measurement. The participative action research cycles confirmed a series of representative performance indicators for cultural precincts and contributed to the formulation of a process for genuine engagement with key stakeholders.

The primary research for this study was undertaken in the third tier of Australian public administration: local government. Local government in Australia has evolved differently from state to state (Grant and Drew 2017) and due to logistical access considerations for the researcher, the case studies involved in this study were sourced within one Australian state. The case councils were located in NSW and each case was chosen based on the stage at which its CP was currently developed: in planning stage, developed, and completed and under review. The cases were geographically dispersed across NSW, with councils in both urban and regional settings.

The remainder of this introductory chapter is concerned with contextualising the research, reflecting on the theory underpinning the research, local government in Australia, the key research participants and finally the researcher’s background and ethical considerations. These elements can be envisaged as an inverted pyramid, as in Figure 1-2, moving from the broadest contextualisation with the epistemology and theory underpinning the research, and progressively narrowing to observe the context of the Australian local government sector, the key research participants (both councils and internal/external stakeholders), the researcher’s background and finally the ethical considerations. Having provided the context within which this research was conducted, the remaining part of the introductory chapter highlights the significance of the research and the thesis structure.

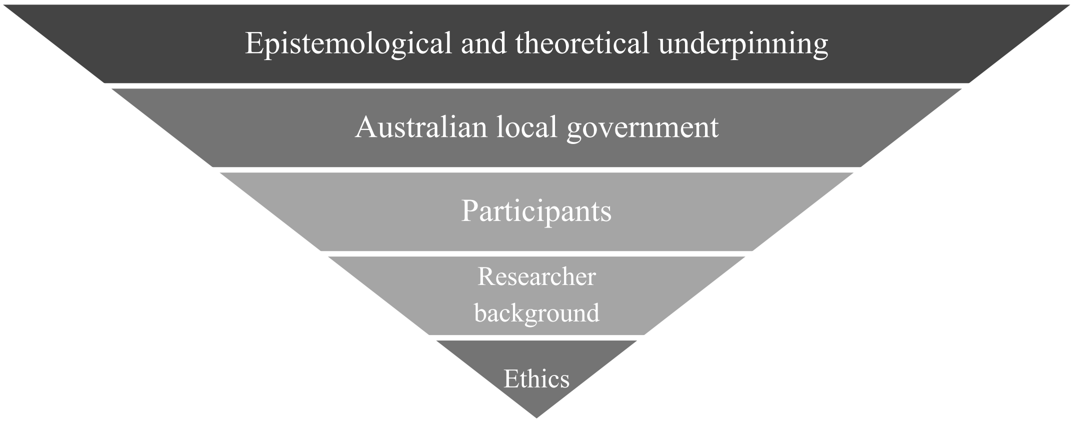

Epistemological and theoretical underpinning
Australian local government
Participants
Researcher background
Ethics

Figure 1-2: Contextualisation of the research

1.2. CONTEXTUALISATION OF THE RESEARCH

1.2.1 A social constructivist and quality management approach

The epistemological framework or the theory supporting how and why knowledge is generated through this research project is social constructionism where “meaning is not designed, but constructed” (Crotty 1998, p.9) and is a product of the social context from which it derives (Berger and Luckmann 1979). Indeed, social constructionism has often acted as the foundational epistemological framework through which public administration theory has been studied and understood. Social constructionism, it has been argued, highlights how politics and different stakeholder opinions impact administration policy development and analysis (Wagner and Morris 2018). This epistemological framework is scrutinized in greater detail in Chapter 3. Suffice to say here that the research is based on the premise that there is no universal truth, that meaning is constructed within social context and knowledge is not predetermined. In this research total quality management (TQM) theory was a primary influence in informing key aspects of the processes developed and pursued. TQM is also underpinned by a social constructivist approach and supports the generation of knowledge whilst participants address real issues as a collective (Park 2001). TQM is discussed in detail in Section 2.3.2. What is particularly notable in this study is that the study employs a social constructionist perspective and adapts quality management principals to the phenomenon of the customer development of PIs for CPs.

1.2.2 Australian local government and the setting for cultural precincts

The primary research for this project was undertaken primarily in the Australian local government context, specifically the State of NSW as will be outlined in detail in Section 3.3.1.1. By way of introduction, this section examines the broader frame of the Australian local government sector, current service provision and the role of CPs within this sector. Australian local government was not uniformly established across the country (Grant and Drew 2017) with each state of Australian today operating under their own legislative framework (For example, see State Government Victoria 1989; State Government New South Wales 1993; State Government Queensland 2009). Each of the six Australian States and the Northern Territory established the third tier of local government. It is noted that local government is not constitutionally recognised in Federal legislation; remaining subordinate to State Government (Twomey 2012). Legislative reform within each State has been iterative: for example, in NSW the legislation covering local government began with the *Shires Act* of 1905, followed by the *Shires Act and the Local Government (Extension) Act* of 1906, the *Local Government Act* of 1919 and the current legislation *Local Government Act* (State Government New South Wales 1993) (Abelson and Australian National University 1981). Councils across Australia vary in size, population, funding, demographics and service provision. On this basis, one cannot conveniently ideate all local government areas (LGAs) as the same. A level of adaptability and flexibility is required when examining local government.

Local government is notably responsible for the provision of a very broad array of services, though such services differ within LGAs. It has been found that core services within the Australian local government sector include waste, footpath delivery and maintenance, drainage, roads, parks and libraries (PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC) 2006). Over time service provision within local government has evolved with the spending on recreation and cultural services doubling between 1960 and 1990 (Commonwealth Grants Commission 2001), for example. A recent Australian study on outcome based reporting in local government found that of a randomly selected sample only 34% had current cultural development plans while another 17% were out-dated (Uppal and Dunphy 2019). The literature highlights a gap between the growth in cultural-led service provision and appropriate planning for such cultural growth.

1.2.3 Key research participants

This study focused on key stakeholders, "someone who is affected by, is concerned with, etc., an issue or enterprise" (Macquarie Dictionary 2016), of CPs within the Australian local government sector, specifically in the State of NSW. Case councils were selected based on the current development state of their CP (in planning, developed or developed with a continuous improvement plan), as outlined in Section 3.3.1.1. The five case councils were selected from a single State given the lack of homogeneity in Australian local government from State to State, as outlined above. The case study councils represent the "everyday" (Yin 2012) or are considered representative (Bryman 2012) of NSW local government but provide the necessary diversity (i.e. geographical location within metropolitan Sydney or regional NSW, population, budget and current stage of CP); effectively deploying theoretical sampling (Eisenhardt 1989), to provide a contribution to this research. The councils were designated an alpha code (A to E) to effectively anonymise the research data. The key characteristics are briefly summarised below in Table 1-1 for ease of reference. The case councils participated in research phases 2, 3 and/or 5: the semi-structured interviews with internal stakeholders, the focus groups with external stakeholders and the PAR cycles with internal and external stakeholders. Internal stakeholders were selected to ensure a mix of key decision-makers with management, political and cultural-facilities perspectives, including the Mayor, Councillors, General Managers, Directors, and Managers. From the stand point of social constructionism, meaning and knowledge can be contested within power relations (Jacobs and Manzi 2000) of key decision-makers. As a result, the methodology employed, provided multiple levels of enquiry such as interviews and survey tools to understand contested meanings. External stakeholders included different CP consumers including users, behind-the-scenes users such as hirers of spaces and special interest groups such as Friends groups or historical societies. Whilst phases 2 and 3 separated stakeholder groups, phase 5 brought internal and external stakeholders together to test and refine the PIHoQ tool and the process through which the PIHoQ was developed. These research phases and participants are analysed in detail in Chapter 3.

NSW Council	A	B	C	D	E
Classification	Metro	Regional	Regional	Regional	Metro
Population	Over 85k	Over 99k	Over 51k	Over 206k	Over 87k
Total expenses per annum	$70,223k	$191,007k	$101,221k	$241,645k	$73,758k
Current state of cultural precinct	Planned	Planned	Developed & improvement program	Developed	Developed
Phase 2: Semi-structured interviews (internal stakeholders)	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Phase 3: Focus groups (external stakeholders)	✓			✓	
Phase 5: Participative action research (internal and external stakeholders)			✓		✓

Table 1-1: Case councils

1.2.4 Researcher's background

Bell and Bryman (2007) suggest that in the case of management research, researchers declare their interest or affiliations to avoid bias. Within the social constructionism frame, it is noted that key decision-makers in an organisation play an active role in the construction of meaning (Currie 1999) and this role should be understood by researchers and readers alike. The researcher of this study, whilst undertaking research on local government CPs, has held senior positions within NSW local government including a Manager of library, museum and entertainment centre services, a Manager responsible for Councillor management, council meetings, corporate reporting and community engagement and, most recently a Director in charge of cultural and community-based services. At varying times in the researcher's career, she has managed cultural facilities, planned for CP developments and sought to understand cultural facility performance through the implementation and analysis of performance measures and data. The researcher has also focused on cultural facilities in previous academic studies which included the completion of a Master of Letters with a major in Museum Studies.

The initial research concept was borne out of the researcher's work in the local government sector and professional interest in cultural facility management, cultural production and consumption and performance measurement, but care was taken, as outlined below in Section 1.2.5, to avoid potential conflicts between the researcher's work and research. In order to avoid researcher bias Yin (2012) recommends clearly defining the case, the case study design and using theory to establish the design. These aspects are clearly articulated in Section 3.3.1. Research questions for every phase were pre-prepared to avoid researcher bias. There is recognition in the academic sphere of the challenging position a researcher is in managing both academic and practitioner demands (Badham and Sense 2006). As an executive in local government, it was important that the researcher acknowledge the potential bias that could occur when working so closely in the field of cultural management and declare that interest to all participants. A statement was made to participants in all research phases indicating that the researcher was working with them to explore the PIHoQ process and was not with them in a professional working capacity. Further, the research participants were not members of the researcher's team at the council in which she worked prior to or during the data collection process.

1.2.5 Ethical considerations

Within a social constructionism epistemology, as employees within an organisation, it is important to recognise our role in shaping meaning; that people are not passive vessels for knowledge sharing but active agents in the creation of meaning (Currie 1999). As such, the following declaration was made to research participants by the researcher of this study: "I am a senior Manager at Georges River Council at the time of conducting this research and a Director of Community Services during the write-up of this thesis". To safeguard the research process it was important to ensure that the collected data was valid and relevant to participants and that an imbalance of power did not occur between the researcher and the stakeholders (Creswell 2007). To address this issue as part of the design process all semi-structured interviews, focus groups and PAR cycle questions were pre-prepared to ensure consistency at the sites. Further, the researcher would answer participant questions with her own questions to avoid being perceived as the expert in the field and to limit the researcher's own ideas influencing the participants responses. Questions asked to elicit participant understanding included "why do you think…?", "what does that mean for you?" or "how does this work in your council?" In so doing, the researcher takes on the role of "facilitator" of enquiry (social constructivist approach) rather than the provider of knowledge (positivist approach) (Wadsworth 2001). These ethical considerations were also addressed in the University of Wollongong's 'Human research ethics' application process and approved by the Ethics Committee in August 2012 for phases 1-2 and in December 2014 for phases 3-5.

1.3. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

This research presents both academic and practical contributions to the field. Firstly, the research is significant because it provides theoretical contributions to public administration theory, stakeholder engagement theory, public value, asymmetric information, and performance measurement. The thesis advances academic appreciation and knowledge of CPs within a local government context; providing a rich understanding of the criteria by which stakeholders (internal key decision-makers and external customers) determine the performance of CPs, and the priorities of CP stakeholders, thereby filling a substantial gap in the extant academic literature.

The uniqueness of this research is most discernible in the ground-breaking creation and refinement of a performance indicator cultural precinct assemblage (PICPA). This assemblage comprises an adaptive and flexible PIHoQ framework for the selection of PIs that align with stakeholder expectations of CPs and address strategic objectives. This thesis is the first to advance, as the second component of the PICPA, a stakeholder-centric methodological process to support the development of customised performance indicators through the utility of participative action research. The third component of the PICPA addresses the challenge in local government, and in the broader public administration context, of the variance between entities (in this case, CPs) and their differing development phase, maturity level and performance measurement needs. These unique elements of each entity are addressed in the PICPA through the use of a maturity pathway incorporated into the PIHoQ. The assemblage has high utility for performance indicator development across other fields and industries, particularly in the context of public administrations.

The research provides a practical contribution to local government in the form of an assemblage (PICPA) for genuine stakeholder engagement (participative action research) that can be used by practitioners to create a contextual framework (PIHoQ) that is highly relevant to the organisation and its stakeholders. The unique PIHoQ would assist practitioners in the selection of performance indicators that measure the right things (customer expectations), communicate levels of satisfaction and demonstrate where an organisation must target resources.

1.4. THESIS STRUCTURE

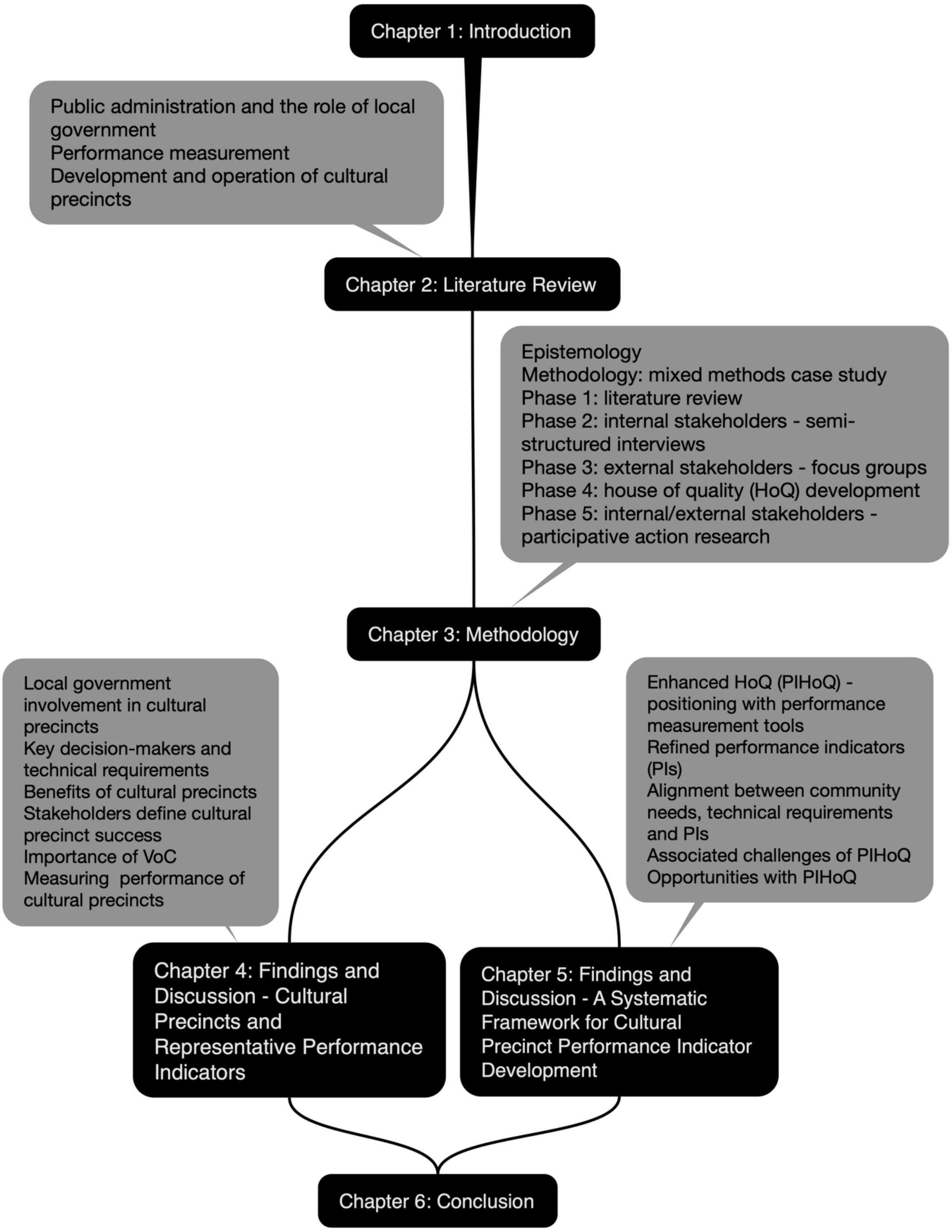

Chapter 1: Introduction
Public administration and the role of local government
Performance measurement
Development and operation of cultural precincts
Chapter 2: Literature Review
Epistemology
Methodology: mixed methods case study
Phase 1: literature review
Phase 2: internal stakeholders - semi-structured interviews
Phase 3: external stakeholders - focus groups
Phase 4: house of quality (HoQ) development
Phase 5: internal/external stakeholders - participative action research
Chapter 3: Methodology
Local government involvement in cultural precincts
Key decision-makers and technical requirements
Benefits of cultural precincts
Stakeholders define cultural precinct success
Importance of VoC
Measuring performance of cultural precincts
Enhanced HoQ (PIHoQ) - positioning with performance measurement tools
Refined performance indicators (PIs)
Alignment between community needs, technical requirements and PIs
Associated challenges of PIHoQ
Opportunities with PIHoQ
Chapter 4: Findings and Discussion - Cultural Precincts and Representative Performance Indicators
Chapter 5: Findings and Discussion - A Systematic Framework for Cultural Precinct Performance Indicator Development
Chapter 6: Conclusion

Figure 1-3: Introduction to thesis chapter

The thesis is organised into 6 chapters which are summarised in Figure 1-3. Chapter 2 provides a detailed review of the extant academic literature in relation to public administration, local government, performance measurement and CPs; and the convergence of the academic streams. This literature review interrogates the available literature and highlights the significant gaps within academia that are relevant to this thesis and the resultant research questions generated from these theoretical and practical gaps. Chapter 3 reflects on the epistemology and methodology adopted in order to collect and analyse the data required to respond to the research questions. The chapter outlines the mixed methods employed in this study, involving five key phases designed to elicit deep and rich data collection and analysis across five case councils. Following the data collection and analysis, Chapters 4 and 5 provide the findings and discussions on the outcomes of the study. Chapter 4 focuses on CPs within the local government context, the benefits of CPs from the stakeholder perspective and examines a range of PIs that support the holistic performance measurement of CPs. Building on Chapter 4, Chapter 5 scrutinizes the core elements of the PIHoQ and the opportunities and challenges arising from the development of the PI decision-making framework. This chapter also explores the genuine stakeholder engagement process utilised to develop the PICPA – the assemblage of the PIHoQ framework, the stakeholder-centric methodological process and the utility of the maturity pathway. Chapter 6 concludes this thesis and summarises the key themes and findings of this study and articulates the study's contributions to theory and to practice. It also details some limitations of the study and outlines recommendations for future research in this area. Attention must now turn in Chapter 2 to the contextual focus of this thesis: public administration and local government.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. INTRODUCTION

This review covers three expansive disciplines of literature including public administration/local government, performance measurement and cultural precincts (CPs). This review included a deep exploration of relevant themes in those disciplines in order to understand the phenomenon of performance measurement of CPs operated by local government as demonstrated in Figure 2-1. This figure depicts how this study embraces the convergence of the themes from those three literature disciplines.

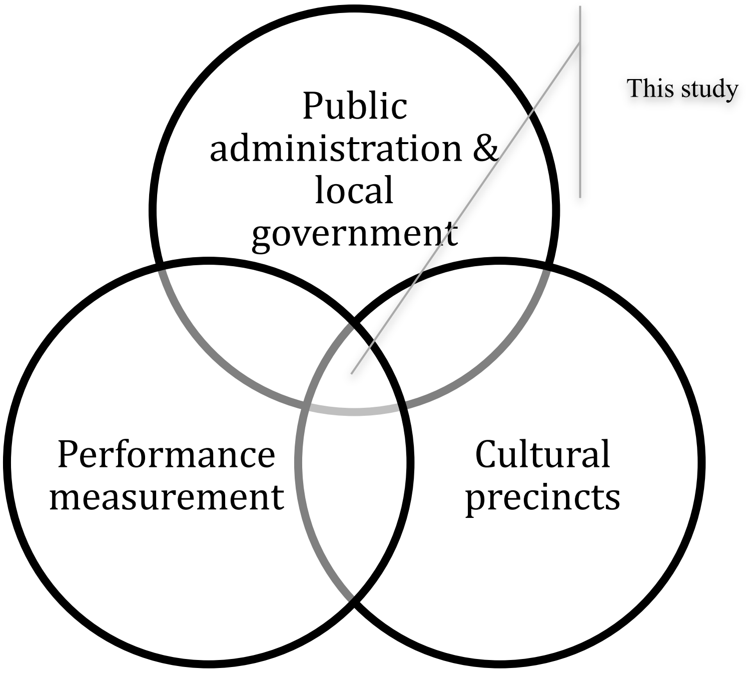


Figure 2-1: Literature review framework

Each review began with a broad examination of the relevant authors in the fields at an international level and then narrowed to review literature at a national level in Australia. Finally, the State perspective in NSW was examined, where available; NSW being the Australian state from which the case studies were sourced as part of the overall research project. This literature included relevant academic books and journal articles on the topics investigated. Where available, publicly accessible government reports were also reviewed. Relevant media reports were also considered to provide context on the key themes particularly in relation to the development of CPs in a local government context.

The review also examined and accounted for literature pertaining to the stakeholders in public administrations and local government. These included both internal and external stakeholders: key decision-makers at a political, executive and management level within local government, along with community members' expectations of local government.

The second part of this review examined performance measurement literatures. Of great importance was an up-to-date understanding of current performance measurement usage in multiple tiers of government (Federal, State and local), particularly in the Australian sector but also internationally. Where available, literature on the use of performance measurement in the Australian local government setting was assayed. There was a plethora of literature covering different models of performance measurement across a range of sectors internationally. As this study was interested in the development of PIs, this component of the literature review focused on studies that have investigated their use, identified challenges and recommended further research and development. Where the literature was available, a review of studies into the use of different models of performance measurement (such as the balanced scorecard or BSC and QBL) in Australian and other government sectors was a focal point.

As elaborated on further in the forthcoming Chapter 3, QFD provided a formative framework for the development of PIs and a tool for the performance measurement of CPs in the local government context. To provide a broad understanding of QFD theory, literature related to the assessment of the QFD approach with recommendations for enhancement was initially examined. The utilisation of QFD, particularly in government services, cultural services and the services industry was examined in respect to its effectiveness in understanding customer expectations, aligning with organisational directions and continuous improvement. This covered studies that have used QFD in community, culture and arts sectors outside traditional sectors that use QFD such as in manufacturing and marketing. This section of the literature review also reviewed how performance was measured within CPs, services and facilities to provide further insight into how PIs are currently used and how they inform ongoing continuous improvement.

The third major literature field examined involves the development and operation of CPs. CP development internationally and then specifically in Australia were reviewed in relation to the challenges and issues faced by governments in the planning, development and implementation of such facilities. As the literature in this section of the review is more sparing, the majority of the literature has an international perspective.

Finally, as another aspect of CP literature, a review of publicly accessible government documents from local government authorities was undertaken in order to appreciate and understand local government sector practice in relation to managing CPs and performance management of such facilities.

2.2. PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND THE ROLE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT

"In many ways, local government is the fabric that binds people together as a community. It is therefore incumbent upon us, as a sector, to ensure that we can continue to support and serve our communities with strength, resilience and flexibility."

(NSW Department of Local Government 2011, p.4)

Local government serves communities through the provision of a diverse range of services and infrastructure, one form of which is cultural facilities and services. An understanding of the local government sector is required in order to reflect on the role of CPs in this context. In this part of the literature review, Section 2.2.1 reviews major theoretical discussions on public administration in order to understand the broader context within which local government is framed. Section 2.2.2 is concerned with the challenges faced by local government internationally and how these challenges impact cultural services, infrastructure provision and CP development. Literature on the challenges and issues specific to Australia and NSW local government is addressed in Section 2.2.3. Section 2.2.4 studies the theory of government reform. The remaining sections explore the efficacy to this thesis of stakeholder theory and community engagement in Section 2.2.5, followed by the stakeholders of local government and public administrations in general, including internal stakeholders in Section 2.2.6 and external stakeholders in Section 2.2.7.

2.2.1 Public administration

While the field of public administration theory is, arguably, "conceptually muddled and decontextualized" (Durant and Rosenbloom 2017, p.719) public administration or the "political-management system (structures and processes) of public bureaucracies" (Podger 2018, p.151) seeks to find a balance between effective and efficient service delivery and quality service provision (Tomaževič et al. 2017). Arguably, the field of public management faces a poor economic outlook and a need for innovation in the face of resource shrinkages (Ashworth et al. 2013). As far back as 1993 the Federal Government in the United States of America (USA) released a paper entitled "From Red Tape to Results: Creating a Government that Works Better and Costs

Less" (Gore 1993) with a clear desire to find this balance between effective, efficient and quality service provision.

The evolution of the issues faced and discussed within the study of public administration can be gleaned from a bibliometric analysis of public administration journals, such as that undertaken by Ni et al. (2017). In this paper (Ni et al. 2017) 3,934 articles from the journal *Public Administration Review* between 1940 and 2013 were analysed. Articles between 1940 and 1964 were pre-dominantly concerned with the role and responsibilities of government, particularly at a Federal level and public policy (Ni et al. 2017). In the period of 1965 to 1989 the journal included articles concerning politics, public policy, political economy and budget reform; as well as technology and the use of computers (Ni et al. 2017). From 1990 to 2013, the articles were concerned with reform, innovation, service delivery, performance management, privatisation, public participation in the sector and e-government (Ni et al. 2017). The literature around performance management and public participation in the sector are both relevant to this study and are discussed in more detail in the sections below.

The concept of "new public management" (NPM) or "new public sector management" (NPSM) has its roots in an article published in 1989 entitled "Public administration and public policy: Intellectual challenges for the 1990s" (Hood 1989). Also referred to as the theory of governance (Stoker 1998), the term refers to a theory or reform in which government moves towards an operating system more like private business; one that is more transparent and in keeping with community needs (Dziak 2016). In a bibliometric study of journal articles on NPM, Curry and Van de Walle (2018) found that of the 1,069 articles reviewed, the categories of public administration and political science were the most popular. While the breadth of NPM continues to grow, as attested by the growing number of articles on NPM, the articles tend to reference earlier literature rather than contemporaneous works (Curry and Van de Walle 2018). This could suggest that the academic literature is not building on the findings of contemporaneous works in order to develop a rich and deep understanding of NPM. Bouwman and Grimmelikhuijsen (2016) recommend research replication across designs and contexts in order to build on public administration research. In a similar bibliometric study of public service management literature published between 2004 and 2014, the authors found that the categories of social science; and business, management and accounting was most heavily studied in academic journals (Juliani and de Oliveira 2016). The most cited keywords within the literature were NPM (5.5% of articles), public service motivation (5.3%), public sector organisations (5.1%) and, followed some way behind, performance and governance (Juliani and de Oliveira 2016). This research highlighted gaps in the extant literature on public service management, namely in public service motivation, and of interest to this research, performance management (Juliani and de Oliveira 2016). These results also suggest a divergence between two key lenses of public administration literature, namely the political lens (focusing on public service motivation) and the managerial lens (covering performance and governance); thus, suggesting that the political lens receives significantly more academic attention than the managerial lens.

In order to improve our understanding of public administration, O'Toole Jr and Meier (2015) argue for the application of contextual study, that being the exploration of the context within which public administrations operate. The authors suggest the inclusion of a table providing an analysis and comparison of a public organisation's context, as provided in the sample Table 2-1.

Category	Context	
Political context – concentration of power		
Separation of powers	Unitary	Shared
Federalism	One level of government	Multiple levels
Process	Corporatist	Adversarial
Performance appraisal	Established	No formal system
Environmental context		
Complexity	Complex	Simple
Turbulence	Turbulent	Placid
Munificence	Rich	Poor
Social capital	Present	Absent
Internal context		
Goals	Clear and consistent	Multiple and conflicting
Centralisation	Centralised, hierarchical	Decentralised
Professionalism	Professional	Not professional

Table 2-1: Public management context (O'Toole et. al. 2015 p.253)

Utilising a contextual framework would ultimately allow researchers an opportunity to compare studies and contribute to a more robust contextual theory within public management research (O'Toole Jr and Meier 2015). At its most basic level, it is useful to consistently contextualise a study for the understanding of the researcher and the audience. Experimentation in the field of public administration is also deemed useful in reducing the issue of endogeneity in research, allowing for deliberate manipulation of the variables in order to ensure robust data collection and to answer causal questions in the development of theory (Bouwman and Grimmelikhuijsen 2016). Bouwman and Grimmelikhuijsen (2016) reviewed 42 public administration experiments published between 1992 and 2014. The themes predominantly focused on within these experiments were government performance (21%), decision-making (21%) and government information and communication (10%) (Bouwman and Grimmelikhuijsen 2016). Reviewed papers categorised as government performance focused on, for example, public service motivation (Bellé 2013) and, relevant to this research, public ownership and performance (Walker et al. 2013). However, this research did not find a statistically valid differentiation between different countries and their tradeoff between performance elements such as equity [equity referring to equal and fair access to services and information (Macquarie Dictionary 2016)], efficiency and probity; with countries tending to make slightly greater tradeoffs against equity than they are willing to make between efficiency and customer service (Walker et al. 2013). In other words, equity was a less important performance element relative to efficiency, probity and customer service. This experiment focused on students completing a Master of Public Administration in East Asia and the US and therefore, it could be argued that as study participants they represent a narrow view of internal/external stakeholders of public administrations and are not representative of the wider stakeholder community.

The use of the term “stakeholder” or “someone who is affected by, is concerned with, etc., an issue or enterprise” (Macquarie Dictionary 2016), is deliberate in this thesis in order to represent the views of both internal and external stakeholders in the context of public administrations. A review of the available public administration academic literature found no studies clearly delineating between internal and external stakeholders. The distinction between internal (within government, i.e. staff and elected members) and external (i.e. the customer) is, in fact, assumed knowledge as demonstrated in the work of Conduit et al. (2014) where both internal and external customer orientations are implied. The term “customer” is utilised in theory (Payne et al. 2017), with an increasing prevalence in discourse around the “customer experience” (Kim et al.

2018) and is used in local government practice (For example, see Adelaide Hills Council 2016; City of Vancouver 2016; Local Government NSW 2018; Local Government Victoria 2018). However, the terminology around "customer" focuses quite narrowly on the external customer; hence "stakeholder" is the preferred term to reference both internal and external stakeholders.

In the public administration sphere, performance information theory refers to both "formal" and "informal" methods of acquiring performance information (James and Moseley 2014). The "informal" approaches include user-experience, word of mouth and media channels whilst "formal" approaches might be those published by agencies and auditors and include outputs, outcomes and efficient/effectiveness measures that are absolute (specific results), relative (results compared to performance information from similar organisations) or both (James and Moseley 2014). Comparative or relative data has been found to impact customer choices (James and Moseley 2014; Pope 2009) and even change a customer's view in relation to policy when faced with factual information (Kuklinski et al. 2000). It is therefore important that performance data is aligned to stakeholder expectations, to ensure the government body is measuring and presenting the right information. Low absolute and relative information lowers customer perceptions about performance whilst high results improve customer perceptions (James and Moseley 2014). Similar results were obtained in research related to relative performance information from school districts in the USA (Barrows et al. 2016). Likewise, in a study of the impact on citizens exposed to local government performance information, it was found that low performance impacted citizen's perception of local government performance (James 2011b). Negativity bias suggests that customers will respond more significantly to poor performance data (Olsen 2015). Compounding this is a propensity within the media to report on negative performance results, particularly those relative to other organisations (Dixon et al. 2013). As a result, decision-makers within government may be reticent in releasing information on poor performance, particularly relative performance information; instead preferring to report only good performance.

The literature above compared the affect or impact of high or low performance on customer perception but failed to acknowledge how the same performance data presented in different lights might impact customer perception. An experiment testing the expectancy-disconfirmation theory found a causal relationship between a citizen's overall view of a public organisation and its performance (Van Ryzin 2013). Olsen (2015) studied customer perceptions of satisfaction data utilising a positive and negative framing of the same performance data (equivalence framing). The equivalence framing effect occurs when different decisions are made as a results of this difference in framing (Rabin 1998). Olsen's (2015) research found that negative framing of performance information in turn, negatively impacted customer satisfaction results. This research demonstrates the impact and, therefore, the importance of how performance information is presented to the community.

Public administration research in the area of performance reporting has investigated the difficulties of obtaining "real" or factual performance data. For example in the work of Van De Walle and Van Ryzin (2011), it was shown that the order of questions in a customer satisfaction survey impacted the level of satisfaction reported by participants. Priming participants, it was shown, negatively impacted the overall satisfaction rating. Given that such satisfaction ratings are often used by public administration to change policy or budget allocations (Van De Walle and Van Ryzin 2011), it is imperative that diverse and meaningful PIs are used to take a holistic picture of an organisation's performance and not rely solely on one measure that may change dependent on its context in a survey instrument.

Since the seminal work of Moore (1995) on the concept of public value, significant focus has been on understanding public value but limited attention has centred on the measurement of public value (See, for example, Faulkner and Kaufman 2018). Central to public value management is the concept that public administration practitioners manage within a complex context, seeking positive public outcomes (Moore 1995) where the benefit outweighs the sacrifice made (Papi et al. 2018). Within public value theory, there are two distinct perspectives: that of the customer or citizen whose objective is satisfaction with the service and the public service practitioner who seeks efficiency of service delivery (Papi et al. 2018), though it is difficult to define and measure public value particularly with recognition that the "public" is not a singular, homogenous group (Prebble 2018, p.114). This relationship between the customer and public service practitioner has the potential to be competitive or oppositional and is reminiscent of the dichotomy articulated in stakeholder theory (Miles 2012) and has serious implications for government, policy-makers, public servants and the community experience of public administration decisions (Mintrom and Luetjens 2017). This theory is further elucidated below in 2.2.5. Without clear performance measurement of public value, it is not possible to improve or maximise public value (Faulkner and Kaufman 2018). Literature on the measurement of public value, as limited as it is, is extremely relevant to this research and is summarised in Table 2-2. The table highlights the lack of PIs aligned within the available literature to the various elements of public value. Rather, literature is sourced from further afield to support the inclusion of PIs for public value elements. It is suggested in Table 2-2, for example, that Faulkner and Kaufman's "efficiency" element can be measured by asking respondents: "My local agency acts flexibly and avoids unnecessary bureaucracy" (Meynhardt and Bartholomes 2011, p.297), while cultural outcomes might be measured through participation rates (Conolly 2013) and service delivery quality through perceived ease of use (Al-Hujran et al. 2015).

Elements of public value (Faulkner and Kaufman 2018, p.77)	Examples (Faulkner and Kaufman 2018)	Performance indicators
Outcome achievement	Social Economic Environmental Cultural	No generalist PIs posited (Faulkner and Kaufman 2018) Participation in cultural life – museum visitor numbers (Conolly 2013, p.119) Measure using a survey instrument (Meynhardt and Bartholomes 2011, p.297) Utilise contribution analysis to understand outcomes (Connolly 2016) Social: Temporal, quantitative, qualitative and monetary effectiveness Economic: Financial equilibrium and efficiency Intangible: Structural, human, relational, empathetic and evolutionary value (Papi et al. 2018, p.4)
Trust and legitimacy	Trust in organisation Transparency Perception of legitimacy	No generalist PIs posited (Faulkner and Kaufman 2018) Measure trust using a survey instrument (Meynhardt and Bartholomes 2011, p.297)
Service delivery quality	Satisfaction Responsiveness Engagement Accessibility Convenience	Measure quality, satisfaction and responsiveness using a survey instrument (Meynhardt and Bartholomes 2011, p.297) Measure perceived ease of use (Al-Hujran et al. 2015, p.191)
Efficiency	Value for money Minimal bureaucracy Benefits outweigh costs	Measure agreement with the statement "My local agency acts flexibly and avoids unnecessary bureaucracy" (Meynhardt and Bartholomes 2011, p.297)

Table 2-2: Measurement of public value

Connolly (2016, p.693) suggests the use of contribution analysis in order to understand the outcomes of public value and the use of a range of evidence in order to achieve this, including "population-based statistics, survey data, needs assessments, process and outcome evaluations, economic analysis and evaluation, systematic reviews and other evidence synthesis, international policy and analytical work, reports of stakeholder meetings/discussions, policy documents, diaries, testimonies, observations, field notes, communications, press clippings, questionnaires, descriptive statistics, financial information". Alemán et al. (2018, p.105) accounted for ten factors to determine customer satisfaction, those being: reliability, responsiveness, competence, accessibility, courtesy, communication, credibility, security, understanding and physical infrastructure. Whilst the academic literature on public value and performance measurement differs in terms of what they measure and how, there is a key understanding by researchers that a holistic or diverse approach to performance measurement is required, whether it be Faulkner et al.'s fundamental elements to public value or Alemán et al.'s customer satisfaction factors. Taking the notion from Taylor and Taylor (2014), this approach calls for a performance measurement methodology that combines measures for both efficiency and effectiveness, financial and non-financial elements. In fact, the holistic approach taken by these authors is reminiscent of the BSC and QBL, discussed in further detail below in Section 2.3.3.

2.2.2. International perspective on local government

From an international perspective, a study by Proeller (2006) on future reform trends in local government in Europe was of interest to this research. This study found that in the thirty-two European countries surveyed, the top future reform trends would include the redistribution of responsibilities and duties across all tiers of government, provision of online services and tools, planning and operating management information systems, the decentralisation of tasks and resources, benchmarking and measuring performance (Proeller 2006). The growing need to utilise benchmarking and performance measurement tools in local government was important given the increasing pressure to justify the distribution of limited resources. This study demonstrated that experts in local government saw the need for performance measurement and utilisation of effective performance measurement would be key issues in the future of local government. Some caution, however, was required in the application of this study as the data was collected via a survey with "practice-oriented" scholars (Proeller 2006, p.8); those being primarily academics, with only one respondent working in the local government sector and all other respondents working in senior positions within universities or consulting agencies (Proeller 2006). As such, the survey had a strong leaning towards academia and could potentially miss trends that were more important to practitioners and perhaps more relevant to the sector at a practice-based level. The value of studies such as this one, although high, are diluted by the omission of data from practice-based internal local government stakeholders.

“Corporatising” of local government is part of a push within government agencies to engage private-sector tools, such as performance measurement tools, to create efficiencies within the sector; or in the words of Denters and Rose (2005, p.6) “the rise of more output-orientated, more demanding, more critical and more action-prone citizens forces local governments to improve their capacity for effective and efficient governance”. Indeed, performance governance emerged from the growing tendency towards third sector or service industry practices and corporatising of the public sector (Halligan et al. 2012). Continuous improvement theory and practice has gradually gained pace in public administrations also (Elias and Davis 2018). The public sector recognised the benefits of performance measurement in the continuous improvement of local government. The utilisation of performance measurement tools is addressed in more detail in Section 2.3 of this literature review. The utilisation of performance measurement, as shown above, was intrinsic in both the European reform trends and in the growing trend towards the corporatisation of local government; demonstrating that performance measurement is not new to local government but is of growing importance to the sector.

Local government is, in general, being asked to do more with less funding and with no increase in income (Honadle 1984). One response to the need to provide “more for less” (Røge and Lennon 2018, p.392) has come in the form of “lean government” theory: “Fiscal stress, demand for lower taxes and the expectation of improved government services mean that public sector managers face an environment where lean thinking is very attractive” (Scorsone 2008, p.61). This theory expounds the maintenance of both productivity and quality whilst improving the use of resources (Radnor and Osborne 2013) and lean theory has utility in addressing inefficiencies in government practice (Radnor and Boaden 2008). However, there are challenges in the implementation of lean management tools within the public sector, the most immediate being that local governments serve all residents, unlike private industries that select and serve particular customer-bases (Scorsone 2008). It is difficult to apply lean practices when the organisation’s role is to serve all members of the community. In other words, it is difficult to address the sheer scale and diversity of customer requirements. An American case study demonstrating the positive implementation of lean practices in a government department suggested that the development and implementation of lean system redesigns was both possible and beneficial to government (Krings et al. 2006) but was reliant on embedding performance measurement into the system to ensure “lean” practices were maintained, reviewed and improved over time. The case study demonstrated theoretical improvements to processes but had yet to be implemented in practice. More recent research did not reflect on the impact of embedding performance measurement within lean practices (Kavanagh and Krings 2011) and as a result there was no tangible evidence of actual improvement. What was clear in this study was that PIs were used to ascertain areas for improvement such as the timeframe for the recruitment of police officers. PIs were also required to determine if the improvements to the timeframe had occurred. Radnor and Osborne (2013) argue that further research is required on performance measurement for lean theory, with a move away from measures of efficiency to measures of public value to provide a contextual focus on the customer.

The body of literature on lean government is primarily from the USA, United Kingdom and Europe (Furterer and Elshennawy 2005; Krings et al. 2006; Radnor 2010; Scorsone 2008; Suarez Barraza et al. 2009) with more recent literature from an Australian perspective (Price et al. 2018). This literature is focused on lean practices and processes in administrative functions of government rather than the application of lean principles in service provision to the community, such as cultural services. It might be deemed too difficult to apply lean principles in such services, but whatever the reason, the application of lean principles has not been documented in the extant literature. It's application to this research is in how lean theory could inform stakeholder requirements of CPs, essentially asking stakeholders, in the words of Krings, Levine and Wall (2006, p.17), "Shall I reduce costs but face criticism for slippages in the quantity and quality of services?" Local government needs to ensure the level of quality and quantity of service provision is addressed in the planning of CP development and in the development of PIs that make these levels of provision clear to both staff and expectant communities.

In the Lyons Inquiry into English local government, Lyon's defined "place-shaping" as the "creative use of powers and influence to promote the general well-being of a community and its citizens" (Lyons 2007, p.60). This term was fundamental within the Inquiry's final report that was initially established to interrogate the financial case for local government in England. Lyons (2007) understood place-shaping as encompassing local government's role in representing communities, decision-making and efficient/responsive service delivery. While the recommendations within the Lyons Inquiry were well received, critics have advocated for caution in relation to issues such as the devolution at the State level of centralised control, indicating that devolution will not automatically lead to empowerment of local government and communities (Grant and Dollery 2011).

The amalgamation of LGAs is an issue being analysed in the USA (Tickell 2010). Tickell (2010) argued that amalgamations were one component of the NPSM paradigm; a move towards private sector initiatives. Like lean government theory and the corporatisation of local government, NPSM seeks a more effective and efficient local government. At the same time, American local government authorities, like their Australian counterparts, find the renewal of infrastructure a challenge within budget constraints. Local governments maintain a range of infrastructure including libraries, roads and community buildings, to name only a few. The literature supporting the notion of amalgamations made the assumption that the consolidation of LGAs would bring efficiencies in service delivery and improve infrastructure (Tickell 2010). However, this assumption was not supported in the evidence tabled within the study. The study also failed to consider how amalgamations impact the customer. The evidence for improved infrastructure was based on a drive-by visual comparison of an amalgamated LGA in Victoria, Australia with a non-amalgamated LGA in Pennsylvania, USA and the appearance of their infrastructure (Tickell 2010). The challenge of infrastructure renewal in the Australian context is addressed below in Section 2.2.3.3. CPs, as will be shown below, are a combination of services within facilities or infrastructure in a single geographical location. The infrastructure or assets are an important component of CP development and ongoing operation. Therefore, a method of measuring the condition of infrastructure is clearly required if local government wishes to compare one LGA's infrastructure with another. The previous issue presented by lean government theory is also relevant here; a clear understanding of the desired quality and quantity of available infrastructure is required for the staff to reach performance targets and the community to understand the level of asset renewal they expect. Developing PIs that address this gap in the literature could assist local government in benchmarking projects and add further quantified data in the ongoing research on corporatisation, lean government theory, local government amalgamations and how it may influence infrastructure renewal. Performance measurement of CPs must appraise the dichotomy between efficiency and effectiveness of lean theory whilst addressing the very real infrastructure renewal crisis in order to meet community needs and remain sustainable.

2.2.3. Challenges faced by Australian local government and the associated international perspective

Moving now to the Australian perspective, local government in Australia provide facilities that:

> *"accommodate the services that LGAs deliver to their communities. Each of these facilities is a drain on financial and physical resources and in order to justify expenditure, LGAs must be able to demonstrate their benefit to the community"* (Brackertz and Kenley 2002, p.284).

Some caution is factored in here, as it is often incorrectly assumed that the establishment of local government in Australia was a uniform process that resulted in similar local government institutions and practices (Grant and Drew 2017). It is an important distinction to make in that one must not assume that the issues impacting local government are necessarily universal. This caveat is factored into the following discussion and analysis of the challenges faced within the Australian local government sector. The literature of Brian Dollery, a seminal researcher and author on current Australian local government issues and trends (For example, see Dollery 1997; Dollery and Wallis 2001; Byrnes and Dollery 2002; Dollery et al. 2006; Dollery and Manley 2007; Dollery et al. 2007; Dollery et al. 2008; Dollery et al. 2010; Dollery and Mounter 2010; Dollery and Grant 2011; Dollery et al. 2012), are reviewed within this section of the literature review along with past studies that shed light on these issues and challenges. This section also surveyed important contributions to theory in the Australian local government context and draws on international literature that provides further insight to relevant issues. This analysis gives the reader an understanding of the context within which CPs are developed in Australia and the inherent issues local government faces in the planning, development and continuous improvement of such services and facilities.

2.2.3.1. Reform and service provision changes

Local government in Australia is responsible for service provision across a wide range of areas such as roads, parks, waste management, libraries, sports grounds (Australian Federal Government 2011). A study of Australian local government sustainability attempted to define the "core" services of local government, as shown in Figure 2-2 below. The study suggested the core or essential services provided by local government across Australia included waste, footpaths, drainage and roads. The spectrum also included parks and libraries as "narrow" or essential services. As demonstrated, there is a wide array of services typically provided by local government. In practice, a wide array of facilities are consider part of a "recreation and culture" program, including for example, "public libraries, museums, art galleries, community centres and halls, performing arts venues, other performing arts, other cultural services, sporting grounds and venues, swimming pools, parks and gardens, other sporting, recreational and cultural services" (Port Macquarie-Hastings Council 2017c). Interestingly in the PwC study, libraries were seen as core services while community centres, museums and theatres were not. However, as shown in a later section, museums, theatres and community centres are often incorporated into Australian local government CP development, alongside libraries. PwC (2006, p.72) recommended that "further work needs to be undertaken by many councils to regularly ensure that they are providing services that they have a comparative advantage in providing and that are a priority for the community in the context of state and federally provided services". Certainly, as PwC recommended, councils need to carefully assay the benefits and develop a robust business case for any major development including CP developments. PwC and the extant literature did not provide the means or tools with which to undertake such a comparative advantage review. However, to ensure there is a comparative advantage in service and infrastructure provision, it is suggested that local government needs the appropriate tools to enable this appraisal process whilst not losing sight of the need to embed changes in direction or practice (Radnor and Boaden 2008).

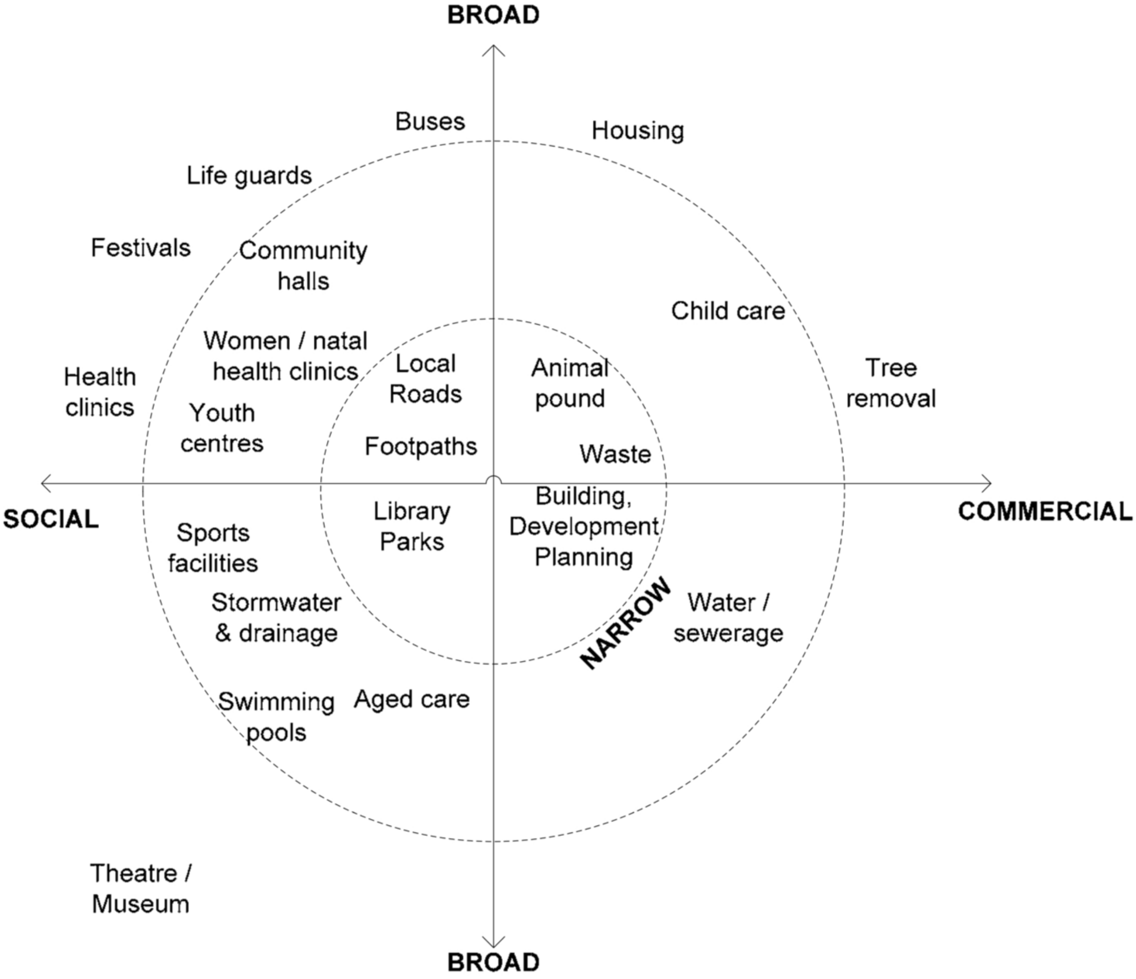

BROAD
Buses
Housing
Life guards
Festivals
Community halls
Child care
Women / natal health clinics
Local Roads
Animal pound
Health clinics
Tree removal
Youth centres
Footpaths
Waste
SOCIAL
COMMERCIAL
Library Parks
Building, Development Planning
Sports facilities
Stormwater & drainage
NARROW
Water / sewerage
Swimming pools
Aged care
Theatre / Museum
BROAD

Figure 2-2: Spectrum of typical council services (PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC) 2006, p.42)

Since the 1990s Australian local government has undergone legislative reform in the majority of the states (Worthington and Dollery 2002) that clarifies local government's role and responsibility in delivering effective and efficient services and infrastructure to communities. In NSW, for example, governed by the *Local Government Act* (State Government New South Wales 1993), Section 24, councils have the ability to:

> *"...provide goods, services and facilities, and carry out activities, appropriate to the current and future needs within its local community and of the wider public, subject to this Act, the regulations and any other law."*

This was amended from previous versions including the *Shires Act* of 1905, the *Shires Act and the Local Government (Extension) Act* of 1906 and the *Local Government Act* of 1919 with further amendments over time (Abelson and Australian National University 1981). As a result, local governments have evolved as the demographics, needs, and expectations of their communities have undergone significant change. However, significant reform in a politicised environment such as local government is often slow and difficult to embed, as was the case in planning controls in response to climate-based issues (Measham et al. 2011). By 2012, local government in NSW for example, was viewed as "superficially well enough, but is really in quite poor shape" (Independent Local Government Review Panel 2012, p.9) with councils providing additional services without increases in income. The provision of cultural services slowly grew in importance as demonstrated by increased spending on recreation and cultural services in local government, almost doubling between the 1960s and 1990s (Commonwealth Grants Commission 2001). In a recent study of local government authorities and their outcome-based cultural planning, it was found that 97% had a council plan (for example, in NSW this plan is known as a Community Strategic Plan) (Uppal and Dunphy 2019). However, of the 97% of respondents with a council plan, only 34% had a current cultural development plan and 17% had out of date cultural plans (Uppal and Dunphy 2019). Significantly, this is evidence of the gap between a growing cultural service provision compared with the level of planning for cultural provision. With the changing demographics of communities, councils are ever evolving, and their challenge is to ensure service and facility provision match community expectation. Section 2.2.7 of this review analyses the changing expectations of the community and the demands of increasing citizen engagement.

2.2.3.2. Efficient and effective service delivery

There is a need for local government authorities to demonstrate the benefit of facilities and services to communities while also managing all aspects of the business efficiently and strategically. In an inquiry into local government in 1981 Abelson (1981, p.7) defined efficiency as "providing households with what they most want at least cost or, more precisely, maximizing the surplus of benefit over cost and not just minimizing the cost of services”. This is a very different form of management practice than that of lean government theory, covered in Section 2.2.2. Rather than trading community benefit for cost, Abelson argued for maximum effectiveness for the community and efficiency of cost. There was recognition within the sector that effective and efficient delivery of services should be a prime strategic direction in the State of NSW (NSW Department of Local Government 2007) and that consistent performance measurement across the sector was beneficial and currently lacking (NSW Department of Local Government 2007). How each NSW council defines effective and efficient service and infrastructure provision remains unclear but there was clear advocacy to improve effectiveness and efficiency and develop the right PIs to measure performance. For the purposes of this thesis, primary research with case study councils addressed the issues of effectiveness and efficiency in relation to CP development.

The study of shared services within local government has gained momentum in recent years, as a model to improve effectiveness and efficiency (Dollery et al. 2012) and potentially reduce administrative costs (Dollery et al. 2016). There was recognition in the New South Wales Office of Local Government (NSW OLG), formerly known as the NSW Department of Local Government, that shared services had the potential to benefit councils and communities (NSW Department of Local Government 2007). Shared service provision assumes economies of scale will be feasible though recent research (Dixon and Elston 2019) suggests otherwise. Shared service provision is also assumed to reduced costs and, thereby improve financial sustainability of the partnering local government entities (Drew et al. 2019). However, this too is refuted by recent research (Drew et al. 2019) and suggests that further research is required to understand the costs of shared services. In order for local government authorities to work regionally, whether to share services or resources and knowledge, they need to effectively communicate their intended objectives. Councils with opposing objectives, or not having a full understanding of their own objectives can derail regional cooperation (Dollery et al. 2012), and perhaps ongoing sustainability of regional partnerships and projects. A clear understanding of stakeholder requirements, organisational objectives and their strategic alignment is imperative for regional sustainability. Strong performance management and benchmarking projects between councils could assist in the development of regional cooperation, highlighting areas of similarity and demonstrating points of divergence from which councils can learn and develop strategies for continuous improvement.

2.2.3.3. Infrastructure renewal crises

There was recognition of an infrastructure crisis in the Australian local government sector (Dollery et al. 2007), where aging facilities increasingly required maintenance and repair or replacement while existing finances were unable to handle the problem. The impact of ageing infrastructure typically left council's financially unsustainable such as what was seen at Sutherland Shire Council in NSW (PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC) 2013). The term crisis was not overstated, with "25 per cent of urban councils…renewing less than 30 per cent of the infrastructure that should be replaced each year" (Independent Inquiry into Local Government Inquiry 2006, p.13) and a backlog of over $6 billion was calculated for NSW local government alone in 2006 (PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC) 2006). A national review of local government sustainability found that the infrastructure crisis was due to poor asset management and a lack of knowledge of the problem and process in local government (PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC) 2006). At the same time, the local government sector acknowledged the infrastructure backlog crisis and sort strategies to resolve it (Independent Local Government Review Panel 2013). Dollery and Mounter (2010) believed that the provision of greater non-core services and cost-shifting by Federal and State governments had contributed to the infrastructure crisis. The NSW State Government indicated a $5.6 billion infrastructure backlog across NSW councils (KPMG 2015). The NSW State Government in 2015 indicated that savings from mergers of metropolitan councils would finance new infrastructure projects for communities and assist with infrastructure renewals, a continuing problem for councils in NSW (KPMG 2015). Since May 2016, 46 former councils in NSW were merged to become 20 new councils. In February 2017, the NSW Government reported that over $200 million of savings was re-allocated by newly merged councils towards infrastructure renewal and projects (NSW Department of Premier and Cabinet 2017). At the time of writing, an updated estimate of the infrastructure backlog was not published.

Infrastructure refers not just to buildings such as libraries and other cultural and community facilities but also roads, footpaths and park equipment. The areas of greatest need seem to be in the renewal of aquatic facilities, community spaces and library services (Dollery and Mounter 2010). Interestingly these assets are for services that are typically outside the core service provision of local government, as Figure 2-2 demonstrated, and may illustrate that while councils seek to provide non-core services such as community centres, they do not prioritise their maintenance and renewal (Australian Centre of Excellence in Local Government 2010). Local governance has an obligation to ensure service provision meets stakeholder requirements and is managed in alignment with asset and infrastructure management schedules, given that cultural facilities within a precinct are often managed by local government. The inclusion of asset management is, therefore, an important consideration in the development of PIs and a decision-making framework for local government CPs.

To ensure the financial sustainability of local government in NSW the Independent Inquiry into Local Government (2006) recommended, amongst the 49 final recommendations that local government reduce the infrastructure backlog, maintain assets, meet community needs and improve planning and increase efficiency. To date, there is no available evidence to testify that these recommendations have led to tangible changes in policy or operational planning for infrastructure renewal. Further research in this area is required to bridge the gap between understanding customer expectations and developing strategies that meet these preferences. When respondents in a survey on learning in local government by Artist and O'Connor (2011, p.11) were asked about future topics for learning programs, 52% sought more knowledge on “Asset and infrastructure management”. One might surmise from this data that a reason for this ongoing issue with infrastructure renewal might arise from a lack of knowledge within local government about infrastructure renewal and the utilisation of performance measures to assess performance. The learning topic of infrastructure renewal rated in the top five topics for councillors (Artist and O'Connor 2011); however, only 33 responses were from councillors and as such, this finding’s value in terms of what it tells us about local government’s elected representatives is limited. What the study does tell us is that senior management, as key decision-makers in local government, required greater knowledge on asset and infrastructure management, core components of CP development in local government.

Musawir et al. (2017) found that the utilisation of good governance, alignment with strategic objectives and an understanding of a project’s benefits were highly interrelated and critical in the success of a project. Major infrastructure projects like CP developments require the creation of comprehensive business cases to ensure planning is effective, operational requirements are met and agreed benefits are realised. To ensure local government does not further add to the infrastructure renewal crisis, councils need to understand the objectives of all projects and develop clear strategies and PIs to measure outcomes against original objectives and agreed benefits. Development of relevant PIs for infrastructure is critical to guarantee new infrastructure projects do not add to the renewal backlog in the future and existing infrastructure meets current requirements (Ruparathna et al. 2017). Further consideration of infrastructure and facilities management was undertaken but deemed of less relevance to this current study. This discourse in provided in Appendix 1.

2.2.3.4. Sense of place

In Western cultures there is strong sense of place or "notion of a tie between place and human identity" (Malpas 1999, p.4). As already seen in Section 2.2.2 above, "place" is an important concept in the local government industry (Lyons 2007). The creation or notion of place is a popular component of local government strategy, having become part of the lexicon of local government planning in Australia (For example, see Adelaide Hills Council 2016; City of Darwin 2016; City of Hobart 2015; City of Swan 2017; Moree Plains Shire Council 2017; Whitehorse City Council 2017) and reflects the English equivalent, within the Lyons Inquiry, discussed earlier. Yet, as a term understood by modern communities, it has been essentially marginalised (Malpas 1999), being a term well-used but largely back-of-mind. Malpas (1999, p.36) argued in his seminal work on place that the "social does not exist prior to place nor is it given expression except in and through place". Key to this argument is that place is not interpreted but is the context within which interpretation occurs (Grant and Drew 2017). Assuming for a moment, that this premise is accepted as accurate, this has major implications for local government. Take for example, the arrival of new migrants to towns and cities where they establish connections to place; they, in turn, make or shape place, providing new meaning to place rather than meaning and place being established by local government from above (Ip 2005). Place-making is therefore important in the planning of services and facilities: important to communities in order to establish connections and important to local government to understand how place can be shaped.

Communities, whether resident or tourist, develop a sense of place, according to Laing et al. (2014), through their interrelated experiences of the landscape. Control and ownership of this landscape, however, can cause tension within communities (Florida 2012). Hambleton and Howard (2013) argue that community empowerment and innovative reform are possible when actors from all spheres interact and work in partnership to develop a place or sense of place. See Section 2.2.7 below for further detail on Hambleton and Howard's place-based leadership. The quality of place is a significant contributor to an individual's sense of happiness and well-being (Florida 2012). As already outlined above, government, and specifically local government, are responsible for the provision of a significant range of facilities, infrastructure, services and programs. In the USA, a study in 2010 found that the foundational services of government such a roads, rates and rubbish were not the primary services that improve quality or sense of place (John S. and James L. Knight

Foundation 2018). The top three attributes assigned to a person's attachment to place were: social offerings, openness and aesthetics (John S. and James L. Knight Foundation 2018). These findings are particularly important to a local government sector struggling to cope with its broad remit whilst endeavouring to work collaboratively with communities to develop a sense of place.

The notion of belonging is assimilated within the public administration literature on social cohesion, such as the work of Kearns and Forrest (2000). Andrews (2014) found, in the case of English local government, a 60:40 split between internal and external management optimised the possibility and positivity of external community social cohesion. However, he also warns against local government strategic decision-making being hijacked by vocal minorities as a result of increased external management for the sake of social cohesion (Andrews 2014). Kearns and Forrest (2000, p.996) outline 5 dimensions to social cohesion, including: common values and civic culture, social order and control, social solidarity and a reduction in wealth disparities, social networks and capital and place attachment and identity. The first dimension, common values and civic culture, refers to communities sharing values, objectives and purpose (Kearns and Forrest 2000). Social order and control reflect on the relative absence of social conflict within communities and the conditions under which communities work in unison (Kearns and Forrest 2000). Social solidarity and reductions in wealth disparity reflect the belief that cohesion is also borne from equal access to opportunities be they social, environmental or financial opportunities (Kearns and Forrest 2000). The social networks and capital dimension argues for connections between family members and wider community relationships (Kearns and Forrest 2000). Finally, place attachment and identity relations to our notion of belonging in a spatial setting (Kearns and Forrest 2000). There is some debate that the rhetoric of social cohesion diminishes differences unlike the earlier concept of multiculturalism which moved discourse away from concepts of race or ethnicity (Lewis and Craig 2014). Policies, within the social cohesion paradigm, are concerned with shared values and discourage single-user group services or activities (Lewis and Craig 2014). Whilst the concept of social cohesion is understood to be beneficial to communities, the academic discourse, as related above, demonstrates some tensions in the paradigm.

2.2.4. Theoretical approach to government reform

Grant and Drew (2017) assert that it is Aulich's (1999) theoretical approach to reform that has gained dominance in the Australian local government landscape. In this approach there is tension between the traditional democracy and the more contemporaneous concept of efficiency (Aulich 1999). In Aulich's model, democratic values are in opposition to efficiency values, as shown in Figure 2-3. This theoretical approach, Grant and Drew (2017) argue, is predominant not only in its regular citation but also due to the historical development of local government in Australia either developed in response to community need or imposed from State Government. Reform in the context of amalgamations, they argue, continued to be framed around this dichotomy between democracy and efficiency (Grant and Drew 2017). Understanding community expectations within the framework of Aulich's heuristic model for local government is a useful lens through which to see the tension between what external stakeholders want (expectations) and what internal stakeholders provide. This heuristic recognises the sometimes-oppositional nature of understanding and managing reform within a democratic public administration. Further, it highlights the need, when undertaking research, to understand very clearly the different (or similar) needs or expectations of stakeholders. It also supports the earlier assertion that stakeholders, be they internal bureaucrats or external customers, understand the dichotomy between quality and efficiency in lean theory (Krings et al. 2006). Clearly, therefore, understanding both internal and external stakeholder needs and expectations are critical to achieving organisational objectives, as both sets of stakeholders play crucial roles in the tension between efficiency and democracy; between efficiency and quality.

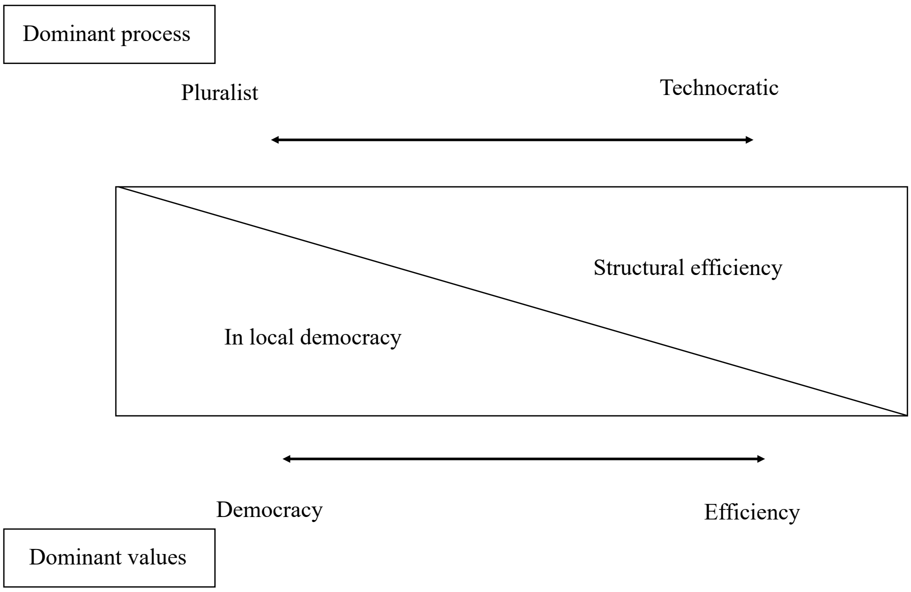


Figure 2-3: Models of local government reform (Aulich 1999)

2.2.5. Stakeholder theory, engagement and participatory practices

Stakeholder theory attests that whilst different stakeholder groups may be oppositional or competitive, they are all concerned with the success of the organisation (Phillips 2003). While the concept of the "stakeholder" is greatly contested in the academic literature, it has been conceded that perhaps one does not need a universal definition of the term stakeholder in order to utilise it (For example, see Miles 2012). Within the study of public value, outlined above, the competitive or oppositional nature of the relationship between the customer and the public servant was evident. Moore (1995) argued that public servants worked in a complex environment, seeking positive public outcomes at minimal cost to the community (Papi et al. 2018) whilst recognising that all stakeholders ultimately sought the success of the organisation. Given that a diversity of stakeholders, internal and external to an organisation, assess the performance of public agencies (Walker et al. 2013) it is important to understand stakeholder performance priorities. James (2011a) found that external stakeholders' understanding of performance information assists in improving customer expectations.

In 1970 Hirschman (2004) first published his work on consumer loyalty, conceptualising the strategies available to dissatisfied consumers. In this seminal work, Hirschman (2004) describes a consumer's choice as "exit" (discontinue with the organisation) or "voice" (express concerns to the organisation in hope of positive change) through which an organisation might gain or re-gain "loyalty" or lead to "neglect". This "voice" is key to the current research, in that the customer's "voice" is critical not just to Hirschman's dissatisfied consumers but to all customers of CPs. Sharp (1984) built on this model and argued that local government had propensity to become Hirschman's "lazy monopoly", without interest or desire to understand customer needs and re-gain loyalty of existing customers. More recent research (Pierre and Røiseland 2016) on the exit/voice dichotomy in the local government sector tentatively suggests that, at least in the local government context, exit and voice could be complementary. These concepts of exit and voice are important to the current study as they provide a model for how stakeholders engage (or not) with the local government entity. Research on how voice is impacted by reporting on poor performance information found that the collective voice was not activated by performance information (James and Moseley 2014) but dissatisfaction, often amplified by media and the negativity bias, does drive the collective voice into action (James 2011a). On the other hand, Jacobsen and Jakobsen (2018) found that staffs', more so than managers', understanding of performance was negatively affected by a perception of red tape. Clearly, stakeholders, whether internal or external to an organisation, perceive performance in different ways.

“Genuine engagement” practices are acknowledged as important to the success of CP developments (Porter and Barber 2007, p.1346). Effective community engagement (Pansari and Kumar 2017) to elicit customer voices or expectations must scrutinize the desired attributes or requirements that both internal and external customers believe are important enough to be measured and can be tangible or intangible in character (Greatbanks et al. 2010). Holistic and systematic processes focused on achieving such outcomes are not currently described or prescribed in literature and the lack of such processes is noted by some researchers in the field (See Moxham 2009; Taylor and Taylor 2014; Yuen et al. 2015; Kumar and Pansari 2016). This is in spite of the growing industry practice to actively engage communities: in the State of NSW in Australia for example, integrated strategic planning at a local government level has developed out of, amongst other things, a growing movement towards participatory democracy (Prior and Herriman 2010); where power and decision-making is collectively shared (Menser 2018).

Aulich (2009) suggested that communities now expect an active role in decision-making, as trust in representative democracy diminishes. One author (Hanson 2018), however, notes participatory democracy can lead to mistrust and community blame. Further, the mere coming together of internal and external stakeholders in the framework of participatory democracy does not guarantee effective dialogue (Bartels 2015). Recent discourse has questioned how democratic participation is expedited (Gross and Schulte-Römer 2019) as academic discourse has focused on the theory of participatory democracy but failed to examine the process or tools through which participatory democracy is delivered. Research has also shown that local government is unclear of the processes to use to undertake participatory democracy or genuine engagement (Brackertz and Meredyth 2009). Lessons might be evident in the literature on communities of practice (CoP), also described as peer-to-peer knowledge exchange (Smith 2016), which was focused on the public administration context. In Smith’s (2016) study, successful knowledge sharing in this environment was attributed to the flexibility of the framework to support structured and unstructured exchanges, opportunities for the telling of stories, inclusion of experienced participants, a variety of communicative tools used and the assurance of confidentiality. Arguably then, this suggests that the development of a framework to engage stakeholders would have a positive impact on successful knowledge sharing.

2.2.6. Internal stakeholders: Key decision-makers in local government

In Section 2.2.1 the research of Ni et al. (2017) was discussed. Interestingly, this paper found that the ratio of articles written by government officers or practitioners decreased from over 50% in the 1940s to less than 5% by the 2000s with the majority emanating from the academic sector (Ni et al. 2017). The decrease in practitioner authors in research papers and the potential disjunct between practitioner knowledge and academic research is a concern within academia (Ni et al. 2017). This concern is supported by Podger (2018) who encourages a balance between the perspectives of practitioners and scholars. Durant and Rosenbloom (2017) similarly argued that public administration theory needed to focus attention on aspects relevant to practitioners in the field, namely, reconceptualisation of the organisation's purpose, reconnection with community to reduce estrangement and prioritisation of the utilisation of limited resources. Elected representatives, executive and senior managers are the senior decision-makers within local government authorities. In order to understand the challenges they face in making decisions, leading the organisation and managing significant projects such as CP developments, this section of the literature review looks at the pressures these individuals face. Firstly, it is noted that the discussion below recognised that "key decision-makers" are not an homogeneous group; that elected officials may have different agendas or motivations to other elected members (Bottom and Copus 2011) and to senior executives, and therefore, their utilisation of PIs may vary (Caiden 1998). The 2006 inquiry into the financial sustainability of NSW local government found that councils often provide services because they are unable to increase income due to rate-pegging, facing political pressure, managing significant demographic needs and might be the only available provider of a needed service (Independent Inquiry into Local Government Inquiry 2006). Dollery and Grant's (2011) concur that there is a distinct tension between the dual purposes of local government: democracy and efficient service provision. In other words, there are competing priorities within local government that require reconciliation. Clearly local government is faced with a range of pressures that are, as a whole, unique to the third tier of Australian government. Local government decision-makers are also pressured by Federal and State governments to provide certain services (Independent Inquiry into Local Government Inquiry 2006). This adds further pressure to local governments' financial sustainability.

In Jones' (2008) case study of three council's economic development policies, he identified a number of assumptions that continued to be attributed to local government and associated politicians. These included a perception that part-time elected representatives did not have the knowledge or ability to deal with complex issues and that councillors were unable to deal with policy alternatives due to the "issue-based" nature of local politics. Jones (2008, p.35) also indicated that the community believed "councillors would oppose developments not in their personal interests". These assumptions concerning local government politicians require acknowledgement within the sector in order to fully appreciate the political context within which local government resides. Add to this the regular election of a new mayor, increased in 2016 to every second year in the Local Government Act NSW (State Government New South Wales 1993, s.230), either by popular vote or councillor vote, and it becomes clear that local government is faced with regular changes to leadership, policy and direction. Given the potential lack of strategic alignment between political and local objectives and the perception of parochialism in local government, these issues could significantly impact on major project planning, implementation and continuous improvement initiatives.

Research related to councillors' or elected members' own perceptions of their role within local government comes from international literature (For example, see Hale 2013; Heinelt 2013). Councillors, in a study of elected representatives from across Europe and Israel, indicated that representing the views of minority groups and women, and controlling local government activities were important components of their role (Heinelt 2013). Councillors understood their civic role as having an internal and external focus. In order to fulfil their civic role, it has been shown that councillors consume performance data in a variety of ways. For example, councillors in the Norwegian local government sector were likely to use external sources such as the local community views to bring an issue to council's agenda but over 70% of surveyed councillors also made use of performance information in the decision making process (Askim 2007). Christensen et al. (2018), on the other hand, found that governance preferences generally outweighed goal preferences when reviewing performance data during decision making. Thus, leading to the conclusion that ideological beliefs hold more value than performance measured against goals (Christensen et al. 2018). Lavertu (2016) warns that politicians external to an organisation (and indeed advocacy groups) are less likely to understand and interpret the performance data. While politicians would also use performance information to provide commentary on political opponents, Dooren et al. (2010) cautions against seeing this as a negative use of performance information, instead contextualising such use as a functioning component of a democracy. While research on how councillors perceive their role and their utilisation of performance data in policy decisions is limited, the available literature points to councillors understanding their civic role and the use of performance data to inform policymaking but potentially making decisions based more on ideological grounds or governance preferences over performance data.

In Dollery and Wallis' (2001, p.17) study of government failure in a local government context, they categorised the issue of part-time elected representatives' lack of knowledge as "asymmetric information and councillor capture"; based on the terminology of Banks and Weingast (1992) who argued that bureaucrats hold an imbalance of power in comparison to politicians. Byrnes and Dollery (2002) argued that the disproportionate knowledge held by council officers in comparison to councillors could lead to "an incentive for managers to pursue objectives in variance with those espoused by councillors". This theory is supported in later research by Whitford (2008), who demonstrated the use of a monitoring technology and oversight by interest groups reduced the impact of asymmetric information on politicians. The theory of asymmetric information as it relates to politicians and advocated in Byrnes and Dollery's theory did not account for elected representatives making decisions in opposition to agreed council objectives and council officer recommendations based on their lack of understanding or mastery of complex issues. Returning to Jones' (2008) work on local government assumptions, councillors may also ignore council officer recommendations due to personal interests or any number of other reasons including a particular political agenda. Ignoring or not understanding organisational or project objectives on the part of politicians and council officers can lead to government failure. Byrnes and Dollery's (2002, p.55) extension to the Dollery and Wallis (2001) taxonomy into "political entrepreneurship" might go some way to explain this failure. However, it attributes decision-making and behavior to a politician's desire to further his/her political career when the decision might also relate to a lack of understanding or knowledge. While the literature is not unanimous on the issue of elected representative knowledge, there is still a clear dichotomy between the role of councillors in policy development and strategic planning, and that of the bureaucrats or staff. Attention is undoubtedly required to reconcile the knowledge advancement of key decision-makers and the impact of asymmetric information.

A study of NSW local government (Haidar and Spooner 2017) found that of the 132 councillors (9% of NSW councillors) surveyed, the majority felt that councillors were the trustees to the community while council officers undertook their duties with a high degree of neutrality. Further, the respondents preferred neutrality from council officers. A participant councillor in follow-up interviews stated, "I see them [council staff] as bureaucrats. They are technical advisers. I do not want them to give me what they think is the opinion of the community. That is my job" (Haidar and Spooner 2017, p.504). Councillors want (and receive) impartial advice based on evidence. However, performance data, according to research undertaken by Jones et al. (2016), could be influenced to suggest a different outcome. During the NSW Government's "Fit for future" (FFF) program, councils were required to demonstrate strong performance in order to avoid potential amalgamations; with some councils, such as Liverpool City Council re-evaluating its infrastructure backlog ratio to improve performance, arguably, as a result of this FFF program (Jones et al. 2016). The infrastructure backlog, addressed above in Section 2.2.3.3, was duly noted in the New South Wales Treasury Corporation (TCorp) (2013b) reports during the FFF program and highlighted that the performance outlook for NSW councils was, neutral (48.7%) or negative (48%) (New South Wales Treasury Corporation (TCorp) 2013a). This reporting on poor performance was notably undertaken by TCorp, not the respective councils. While council officers reportedly provide performance data and information to councillors with some degree of neutrality, it must be conceded that performance measurement can be manipulated to support particular outcomes. Hildebrand et al. (2011) in a case study of local government performance management and performance reporting in Lethbridge, Albert, Canada, found that oppositional factions within the elected members of council resulted in poor performance reporting. In other words, when managers felt the performance data would be used for political point-scoring, they would be less likely to support its collection and dissemination. Further, politicians are less likely to employ performance information during times of financial austerity (Bjørnholt et al. 2016).

In the local government context, community engagement is explicitly sought in order to understand community needs and this requirement for comprehensive community engagement is regularly reported in government documents (For example, see Council B 2017; Council C 2017). However, politicians, executive and senior managers are under pressure from the so-called "iron triangle" where "individuals and interest groups seek to influence both policy formulation and implementation in self-interested ways" (Dollery and Wallis 2001, p.23). The iron triangle might see alliances between an elected member, interest group and a bureaucrat, through which particular policies are pushed. This might occur by small but politically savvy interest groups understanding the right channels through which to gain traction or groups with abnormal needs having no other service provider able to provide the required service. The iron triangle could have a significant impact on major projects such as CP development, because domination by a special-interest group has the potential to skew services and infrastructure provision to meet their needs and no others. As such, it may be that a model of engagement is required that can review all stakeholder requirements and prioritise needs objectively. Potential models for such a decision-making framework based on performance measurement systems are discussed in detail in Section 2.3 below.

A further pressure faced is that the training and skill set of council officers has been shown to impact the effectiveness of performance management programs (Christensen and Grant 2016). As Christensen and Grant (2016) point out, a lack of the right skills to implement an engagement program designed to obtain data from the community may end in failure of the engagement process, and, ultimately, the performance management program that the engagement process aimed to inform. Further, organisational readiness (Hartz-Karp 2012) to understand and participate in the engagement process is imperative in the delivery and success of the program (Christensen and Grant 2016). Oppositional behaviour from staff may also result in engagement processes failing (Christensen and Grant 2016). Understanding customer requirements rests in part with appropriately skilled and engaged council officers. Council officers therefore need to develop proficiency in successful community engagement and performance management programs.

The above discussion of issues impacting internal stakeholders, those being the key decision-makers in local government, are very relevant to the development of CPs. In order for large and costly infrastructure projects to succeed and continuously improve, local government must ensure it minimises the risk of failure by adopting policies, procedures, appropriate business plans and PIs to gauge performance. There is a clear requirement to navigate the complex pressures on local government and decision-makers and seek to align political and community pressures with project objectives. In order to do this, key decision-makers must be aware of the risks and seek to alleviate them. Frameworks and tools to drive this alignment may help improve this process.

2.2.7. External stakeholders: Changing expectations of the community

Given that stakeholders play a major role in the success of a project, government is beholden to its community to effectively identify stakeholders and engage with them (Elias 2016). As found with internal stakeholders in the section above, external stakeholders are similarly diverse with a multitude of perspectives (Brackertz and Meredyth 2009). The term “community” in the context of local government most often refers to the people residing in an LGA with little to no power or individual influence over the government entity (Grant and Drew 2017). The external stakeholders or the community of a local government are often loosely defined by the council that serves them; for example in the case of the City of Sydney, the LGA covering the central business district (CBD) of Sydney, the community strategic plan (CSP) supports the priorities of the "diverse communities (that) live and work in and visit Sydney" (City of Sydney 2013, p.1). Similarly, Broken Hill City Council (2017, p.12), situated in the far west of regional NSW, articulated a desire for their city to remain vibrant to "live, play, work and invest"; implying that the communities served by the CSP operated in one or more of these broad categories. The City of Newcastle acknowledged the community for its engagement in the development of their CSP, indicating that residents, business community and community agencies participated in the engagement program (City of Newcastle 2011). While Tweed Shire Council (Tweed Shire Council 2017), located on the north coast of NSW, identified a range of participants in their CSP: peak organisations, Indigenous, business, residents associations, sporting groups, business chambers, residents, visitors and community groups. The CSPs of councils across NSW demonstrate, as the examples show above, that "community" is a broad term used within the local government sector to represent the diversity of stakeholders participating in the LGA. This thesis, therefore, understands external stakeholders as the diverse communities that utilise an LGA without implying any further commonalities beyond geographic location, unless stated and argued elsewhere.

The place-based understanding of communities commonly used by local government (as documented above), fails to explore the broader political context within which councils and communities interact (Grant and Drew 2017). Local government requires a clear definition of community that indicates who is part of a community and, by extension, who is not, in order to work with communities, engage with them and build community capacity (Grant and Drew 2017). The research of Hambleton and Howard (2013) suggests that place-based civic leadership, across three categories including political, managerial and community/business spheres, working together in a place can innovatively achieve more. They argue that real reform or radical improvement comes from the political rather than solely managerial sphere (Hambleton and Howard 2013). Given that the strongest factors for improving quality of place are, as shown above, social offerings, openness and aesthetics (John S. and James L. Knight Foundation 2018), a place-based civic leadership approach focused on these attributes may benefit local communities and their sense and quality of place.

Asymmetric information, as shown for elected members above in Section 2.2.6 is a similar concern for the communities within a LGA, as will be shown below, when compared to the knowledge-base of council officers. Communities expect to play a role in decision making in local government, despite having, arguably, a lack of knowledge or specialisation to understand complex issues in order to make informed decisions (Brydon and Vining 2016). Community engagement practices have increased in Australia as more citizens exert a desire to participate in the determination of policy and strategy, a belief within government that understanding community needs results in more effective policy development, the resulting legitimisation of government from engagement programs and the growing ease of engagement in the online environment (Grant and Drew 2017). Online or e-participatory community engagement research indicates that online engagement tools influence policymaking within the local government context (Alonso and Barbeito 2016). Innovative approaches to multi-tiered collaborations show promising signs of increasing engagement and improved policy integration and strategy development (Hodgson et al. 2005).The use of deliberative processes in community engagement, such as those used for participatory budgeting, was found to be useful in providing the community with the appropriate level of knowledge to actively participate in developing a council budget (Christensen and Grant 2016). Participatory budgeting describes a process that derives budget or financial priorities through community engagement (Christensen and Grant 2016). The deliberative process involved in participatory budgeting was considered by Christensen and Grant (2016, pp.467-468) as effective in the development of, what they call, “well-considered recommendations” from the demographically representative samples that engaged in the participatory budgeting process. Broadening the engagement process in local government was motivated by, Head (2007) argued, a desire to broaden responsibility for decisions and their ultimate success or failure. He also found that community participation in policy formulation may assist in the restoration of trust in government (Head 2007).

Community stakeholders often lack knowledge of or experience with performance information (James 2011b). The inclusion of community stakeholders in performance management practices could improve asymmetric information and improve the value of performance data (Epstein et al. 2006). Epstein et al. (2006, p.19) argued that the community participate in performance management practices in a number of ways, as “stakeholders”, “advocates”, “issue framers”, “evaluators” or “collaborators”. The roles of community members are summarised below in Table 2-3. A community member may take on multiple roles or singular ones. By participating in a number of ways, the community may increase their knowledge which then improves collaboration between internal and external stakeholders of local government to enhance services, meet community needs and improve performance. Van Ryzin and Lavena (2013) found that when reporting performance to stakeholders the author of the report, regardless of whether the author was the government department, Mayor, unknown or independent of the organisation, did not impact the credibility of the performance data. Epstein et al. (2006, p.19) contended that the community's role as "issue framers" was most critical in ensuring effective performance management; where issue–framing was seen as the action of setting the vision, goals, budget and issue-based priorities of an organisation. Given that this present thesis sought to develop indicative PIs for CP developments in the local government context, it was important to reflect on how the community as external stakeholders could most effectively participate in the development of PIs that are meaningful in understanding the performance of the organisation against key deliverables and community needs. The concept of issue framing is examined further below in relation to the participation of stakeholders in the development of the VoC requirements within the QFD approach. It should be noted that the involvement of community in active decision-making and engagement practices within government, whilst common, has not resulted in extensive sharing of power between government and communities. Head (2007) argues, government continues to maintain control through budget management, legislation and contract management. It is conjectured here, and tested in the coming chapters, that community participation in the development of relevant PIs, together with a stronger understanding of their meaning and usefulness, could improve collaboration between internal and external stakeholders. In order to effectively and meaningfully engage stakeholders in the development of PIs an engagement process is required. This too will be discussed in coming chapters. The deployment of an engagement process in the form of PAR is discussed in detail in Chapters 3 and 5.

Role	Action
Stakeholders	Performance reporting to stakeholders
Advocates	Protect interests or advance a specific issue
Issue framers	Setting visions, goals, budget priorities or issue-based priorities and developing solutions
Evaluators	Rate conditions, importance or satisfaction
Collaborators	Find compromise between competing priorities, co-produce services and engage others to achieve goals

Table 2-3: Participatory roles of communities (Epstein et al. 2006, p.19)

It is important to understand how and why communities make use of performance information as critical stakeholders in the performance of the local government sector. Quinlivan et al. (2014) assumed that communities used performance information to gain a benefit, and not necessarily a financial benefit. However, subsequent research found that residents did not use performance information to inform their opinion of local government but those that lobby government did when it related to a specific issue (Quinlivan et al. 2014). Further, residents perceived council-performance based on their relationship with the entity rather than on the available performance information, they valued the availability of performance information as a form of self-regulation for local government and felt performance information was important in decision making (Quinlivan et al. 2014). Other research on the challenges of performance management found that the absence of council performance data led to suspicion amongst the LGA's communities (Hall 2017). These findings are further discussed below in Section 2.3 in relation to different performance measurement models and their use by communities.

2.3. PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT

> *"Ultimately, no one can generate results without knowing how the "bottom line" is defined. Without a performance target managers manage blindly, employees have no guidance, policymakers don't know what's working, and customers have no idea where they may be served best"* (Gore 1993, p.77).

Section 2.3.1 begins with a review of literature surrounding the overall uptake and challenges of using performance measurement in a governmental context. The review begins from the international perspective, followed by the national and ending with the Australian State of NSW perspective. Section 2.3.2 then looks at quality function deployment as a model for performance measurement whilst Section 2.3.3 examines those performance measurement models commonly employed in government and local government specifically. Section 2.3.4 evaluates the utilisation of PIs, whilst Section 2.3.5 examines performance measurement in the Third Sector and service industries. This is followed in Section 2.3.6 by exploration of literature on performance measurement of cultural facilities and precincts.

2.3.1 Performance measurement in a multi-level government context

Firstly, in order to establish terminology, performance measurement was understood in this research as the data collection process for PIs (Poister et al. 2015). While a PI is "a criterion in a performance management system which is used as a measure of the success or efficiency of an operation" (Macquarie Dictionary 2016). The available literature does not provide a distinction between the terms "performance indicator" and "performance measure". For the purposes of this current research, a number of performance measures can represent a single PI and are "used by management to measure, report, and improve performance" (Parmenter 2010, p.24). Indicators may measure outputs or outcomes (Quinlivan et al. 2014) and efficiency and/or effectiveness (Pollanen 2005). This study seeks to develop effective and relevant indicators for CP performance measurement. However, limited research exists in the past on public sector development and the use of performance measures or indicators, particularly in Australia (Farneti and Guthrie 2009); though this research is steadily increasing in volume. By way of comparison, a full database search for "government performance measurement" between 2002 and 2009 found 559 academic, peer-reviewed articles whilst between 2010 and 2017 there were 1,239 articles retrieved. Within the literature on public service failure for example, there is acknowledgement that it is difficult to document and understand service failure as the public service has typically had limited performance targets (Van De Walle 2016). Research also suggests that public administrations facing fiscal stress or political predicament are more likely to implement a performance measurement system (Rhodes et al. 2012). Such an increase in the use of performance information in public administration has been well documented (For example, see James and Moseley 2014, p.493), with significant increases in performance management research in the past 25 years (Cuccurullo et al. 2016). As performance measurement practices evolve and research advances, measuring performance has become a step in a broader process to align strategies with performance measurement and research focused on the way organisations use performance data (Cuccurullo et al. 2016). Performance management in the local government sector has not had the same level of up-take as that seen in the Federal and State government sectors (Hall 2017). Understanding the context in which performance measurement occurs is also critical to successful performance management practice and future performance data gathering (Van Dooren et al. 2010). Thus, the discussion below appraises the challenges of performance measurement within the government context, drawing on literature internationally and, where available, within the Australian - and the local government contexts.

Globally, government agencies have adopted performance measures to review performance, with varying degrees of uptake and success (Marr 2008b; Hall and Handley 2011). Official performance measurement in the State governments of the USA began in the 1990s (Hatry 2010). In 2005 a study of performance measurement uptake by local governments in the State of Florida found that 56% of cities did not use performance measures (Kwon and Jang 2011). A study from 2012 found that in the development and implementation of a State-wide benchmarking program for local government in Florida, a number of challenges were identified (Boyer and Martin 2012). Those relevant to this study include balancing the dichotomy between measures for services (internal) and those for community (external), utilising measures that give a balanced view of the organisation and ensuring data informs practice and improvement (Boyer and Martin 2012). Speklé and Verbeeten (2014) found that performance measurement was more successful in organisations where goal setting was clear, PIs were not manipulated, and managers understood the process. In support of these findings, Gerrish's (2016) meta-analysis found that management practices had a significant impact on performance in public administrations.

The effective utilisation of appropriate performance measures is challenging for government practitioners and its uptake has not been universal within public administrations (Schulz et al. 2018). For example, in a study of Italian local government agencies, Cepiku et al. (2017) found that performance data was used passively. They also confirmed that performance results were mainly used internally for communication with staff. Though their research was focused on a case study within two Italian councils, it demonstrated that public managers and key stakeholders had little involvement in the design of the performance management system and they hypothesized that greater synergies between the stakeholder needs and the performance management system's design would improve utilisation of the performance data (Cepiku et al. 2017). In contrast, Røge and Lennon (2018) found that junior managers lack of performance measurement knowledge negatively impacted the development of effective PIs. One might arguably surmise from these findings that deliberative learning and genuine engagement in the formulation of PIs might improve PI effectiveness. Measuring performance in the public sector is challenging given the complexity of the services provided (Cabral and Lazzarini 2015) and that they are, at times, seen as misaligned to organisational objectives, resulting in poor decision-making (Chan 2015). Hammerschmid et al. (2013) studied over 3100 public managers' use of performance information across six European countries. In this study they found that alignment between performance tools or frameworks, management systems and processes improved the use of performance information (Hammerschmid et al. 2013). In the Australian public sector, similar challenges have been faced in the quality of performance measures and their utilisation (Hawke 2012). Whilst performance measurement in public administrations is increasing, the effective utilisation is not guaranteed.

de Bruijn and van Helden (2006) suggested that performance measurement systems are most effective if they are co-designed, the indicators are broad and offer a variety of measures and include both quantitative and qualitative performance data. There are a number of factors influencing the effective utilisation of performance measures; being "hindered by factors such as inadequate training, the inability of existing information systems to provide timely, reliable, and valid data in a cost effective manner, difficulties selecting and interpreting appropriate performance measures, lack of organizational commitment to achieving results, and limited decision-making authority" (Cavalluzzo and Ittner 2004, p.265). For example, effective training of staff (and others) in the use of performance measurement is vital if such tools are to lead to continuous strategic improvement. In order for governments to pursue performance measurement and address these hindering factors, it seems that key decision-makers and community stakeholders first need to agree on the measures or indicators in place.

Marr (2008a) surmised that government agencies tend to measure 'outputs' rather than 'outcomes' and focus on those aspects that are easily measured. However, the sole-use of outcome-based measures has also been shown to skew performance information and limit a public administration's understanding of meeting efficiency targets (Røge and Lennon 2018). The important lesson is that performance measures for their own sake serve little purpose. Measurement alone is unsustainable and holds little merit; the information gained through performance measures must be used (Grifel 1994) to ensure transparency to stakeholders and continuous strategic improvement. The Auditor-General of Victoria commented that "Ambiguity and complexity are not an excuse for a lack of transparency; indeed, many councils now do an excellent job reporting on their performance in ambiguous and complex contexts" (Pearson 2011). Performance measures must directly link to strategic direction within a culture that promotes learning from performance data (Marr 2008a). These requirements add to the complexity of government performance measurement programs but are vital given the need for transparency within public administrations. Outcome-focused performance management aligns closely with organisational objectives and is more likely to embed improvement programs than an output-based measurement framework (Stewart 2014). However, it is difficult to measure complex outcomes in a meaningful and useful way that also allows for individualised organisational prioritisation and cross-council comparisons (Hall 2017). It is little wonder, therefore, that measuring performance in government is often seen as an administrative burden that rarely produces insight to support the business or lead to change (Røge and Lennon 2018). In relation to Marr's (2008a) government research, mentioned herein: while it was a global project, only 12% of respondents were from Australia with only 11% of this figure comprised of responses from State or local government. As such, the research relevance was limited. Challenges to government in the effective use of performance measurement tools include "changes in the organizational environment, changes in organizational leadership, lack of coordination and cooperation within agencies, overlapping accountability frameworks and a lack of willingness to use evaluation findings" (Wholey 2010, p.65). In 2000, for example, the Institute of Public Administration of Canada (IPAC) found that performance measurement in government bodies in North America was ineffective and rarely led to positive change (Plant 2006). Essentially the bureaucratic culture of government can stand in the way of effective performance measurement.

Caiden (1998) argued that performance measurement was not a neutral practice, but could be employed to justify a particular outcome. This argument was later supported by Jones et al.'s (2016) research, discussed above in Section 2.2.5. Further, reviewing and improving performance measurement in government can be costly and time-consuming (Hatry et al. 1994). And yet, performance measurement is important in gauging an organisation's continuous improvement and ongoing success (Caiden 1998). Moreover, it can be implemented in order to entrench cultural changes or innovation (Bartlett and Dibben 2002). While performance measurement can be time-consuming and resource intensive, research, such as those studies summarised above, demonstrate the utilisation of performance measurement as a means to justify an outcome, to ensure continuous improvement and to entrench cultural change or innovation.

The development of a performance measurement system and indicators from the ground-up - ensuring its usefulness to managers and understanding by stakeholders - was more successful upon implementation than the alternative and has been utilised to inform continuous improvement (Hildebrand and McDavid 2011). In contrast, an international study by Brusca and Montesinos (2016), examined the utilisation of performance reporting and found that the majority of countries did not engage stakeholders in its development and concluded that such engagement could strengthen performance reporting. These findings suggest a constructive role for stakeholder participation in the development of PIs, which would in turn improve the successful implementation of those indicators and a focus on continuous improvement.

Some research has demonstrated that internal stakeholders within the government sector do not see a natural correlation between performance data and its ability to influence change or improvement (Melkers and Willoughby 2005). A study in 2013 found, for example, that of 24 LGAs in the USA with strong performance measurement systems in place and in use, only 4 applied performance data regularly (more than quarterly) to improve services (Sanger 2013). Thus, the implementation of performance measurement practices may not necessarily lead to continuous improvement. Sanger (2013) concluded that the successful use of performance data required councils to collect, analyse, and discuss the right data and continuously improve.

Academics, in their quest to find successfully implemented performance measurement practices, have examined in detail a suite of performance management models. In a study undertaken by Tomaževič et al. (2017) of 104 public administrations across Slovenia, they found that these agencies wielded a range of performance management models including the BSC, public sector scorecard, the International Organisation of Standardisation (ISO) standards, the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) and the

Common Assessment Framework (Tomaževič et al. 2017). The BSC is considered below in Section 2.3.3.3. The public sector scorecard, primarily enlisted in Europe, extends on the BSC and incorporates seven perspectives involving service user/stakeholder, strategic, financial, service delivery, innovation and learning, leadership and people, partnerships and resources (Moullin 2017). The ISO Standards, developed across 140 countries and relevant to performance management, focus on improving customer satisfaction (Tomaževič et al. 2017). The use of the EFQM model is widespread in Europe and requires detailed documentation of strategy development, monitoring and continuous improvement in order to attain "excellence" (Campatelli et al. 2011). The Common Assessment Framework, a quality assessment tool, was designed to measure and improve public administration services (Kalfa and Yetim 2018). Whilst all frameworks measure different aspects of an organisation's performance, their similarities are in the range, diversity and complexity of the performance indicators to ensure a diverse range of aspects of the business are measured and that the data provides opportunities to improve service provision or processes.

In the Australian context, Yetano (2009) undertook a study involving two case councils and found that improvements to the customer focus, council performance, better decision-making and a desire for prominence in the sector were key drivers for the implementation of a performance measurement system. Within the Australian State of NSW there is potential for increased transparency and consistency in performance measurement with the NSW Government's adoption of an integrated planning and reporting (IPR) framework for local government. This requires councils to develop and approve a CSP that identifies community priorities for at least a ten-year period as outlined in the Local Government Act (State Government New South Wales 1993, Section 402). Integrated reporting requires the organisations' to measure and communicate performance across all aspects of the business, usually including sustainability and financial performance over the short, medium and long term (Churet and Eccles 2014). This adoption in NSW local government suggested that the NSW Government saw performance measurement as an important requirement within all LGAs. By June 2012, all NSW councils adopted the new IPR requirements with the development of a CSP and accompanying plans and programs. A wide array of key performance indicators (KPIs) was required within council CSPs, as part of the reporting component of the framework. The indicators, when developed in a balanced, strategic manner, aimed to provide management with an indication of the council's performance and alert the organisation to areas of improvement. As this was a relatively new planning and reporting process for NSW councils, little analysis of IPR has occurred in the academic arena (Prior and Herriman 2010). As such, it remains to be seen if IPR has led to improved performance measurement and strategic, continuous improvement. Within the document study of this current thesis, community strategic plans were reviewed to understand the link between strategies developed at a local government level and the performance indicators used to measure their achievement of those strategies. The findings from the document study as part of the case study process are outlined in Chapters 4 and 5 of this thesis.

2.3.2 Utilisation of QFD as a primary performance measurement tool

Quality function deployment (QFD) is a component of total quality management (TQM); a strategy designed to balance quality with efficiency for continuous improvement (Westphal et al. 1997). TQM involves the identification of stakeholder requirements and cross-functionality within an organisation (Beer 2003). However, TQM does not guarantee the success of continuous improvement programs (Beer 2003). In fact, Beer (2003) argues that for TQM to be successful, a regular organisational learning program must be implemented; particularly with the knowledge that learning drives change (Wheeler et al. 2013). This notion will be further developed in Section 3.3.6 in relation to the utilisation of PAR. QFD is used to ensure that customers' "requirements are met throughout the product design process and in the design and operation of production systems" (Evans 2008, p.293); helping to guide design and marketing through alignment to the customer voice (Evans and Lindsay 2011). The resulting house of quality (HoQ), aligns the stakeholder requirements (voice of the customer) with technical requirements (the "how" or characteristics of the product or service) (Evans and Lindsay 2011). The voice of the customer represents the expectations of the customer. As seen earlier, the terms external stakeholder and customer are used interchangeably. However, as this study is concerned with the voice of internal and external stakeholders, the voice of the customer is, in this current research, reflective of both the internal and external stakeholders' perspectives. While most often used for design and manufacturing purposes, QFD essentially links the customer requirements with the relevant technical requirements used to manufacture or deliver the product or service (Evans 2008). In the present study, QFD applies a focus on the stakeholder requirements and ensures both the internal and the external stakeholders participate in the data capture process; while also seeking to align the voice of the customer with relevant indicators to measure performance. This is fitting given that the customer perspective is an integral component of performance measurement (Goetsch and Davis 2013; Tucker and Pitt 2009). While the inclusion of PIs within the HoQ are not a common element, there is literature identifying the need for performance data in the HoQ to improve its efficacy (Hassani et al. 2018; Digehsara et al. 2018; Walker 2002).

The customer or stakeholder becomes involved in the QFD process as the framer or evaluator of an issue or service, setting priorities and rating the importance and satisfaction of requirements, thereby improving the relevance and effectiveness of performance management (Epstein et al. 2006). In Canada there was documented success in the utilisation of the QFD approach within community services - described by the author as "large-scale social systems" (Gerst 2004). In Gerst's (2004) study he argued that complex systems such as the social and health services of the Regional Municipality of Wood Buffalo in Alberta were difficult to assess using conventional evaluation programs and QFD met their requirements. In a Swedish study of safety promotion using QFD, the researchers found that the QFD approach successfully mapped the VoC and the prioritisation of customer needs (Kullberg et al. 2014). In the Swedish QFD study, the authors also suggested that QFD alone did not capture all customer voices and suggested that, in the case of their study, the voices of the "vulnerable" and disadvantaged required other data capture techniques (Kullberg et al. 2014). Another study used customer requirements segmentation to understand and communicate the nuance of different stakeholder needs within the QFD framework to effectively understand the intangibility of service-related industries and manage large HoQ matrices (Shahin and Chan 2006). However, it is perhaps bewildering to find that very few documented processes exist for the productive capture of the voice of the customer (Griffin and Hauser 1993); particularly, given the importance of the customer requirements. In order for the customer requirements within the QFD approach to be meaningful and reflective of the community they represent, the processes used to source the data must be well-designed and effective. Further, community engagement in the process is required to reduce the problems associated with asymmetric information (See previous Section 2.2.7), enable effective decision-making (Christensen and McQuestin 2019) and increase cross-stakeholder communication (Chin et al. 2001). It has been found that "collective involvement" or stakeholder engagement in the TQM process can raise performance (Pimentel and Major 2016, p.1007). Engagement with stakeholders in the QFD approach would also improve the likelihood of PIs being appropriately used by the community, as previous research has demonstrated (See Section 2.2.7). Deep and rich data collection, such as in the participatory budgeting example referenced above, required a demographically representative sample to participate in the engagement process (Christensen and Grant 2016). However, such processes may not be representative of divergent views (Christensen and Grant 2016). The requirements of internal and external stakeholders represent multiple perspectives (Chao and Ishii 2004) and, as these views encapsulate the highly important voice of the customer, the multifarious views are critical to the successful implementation of the resultant HoQ (Schulz et al. 2018). The stakeholder engagement process also supports learning and organisational improvement (Marr 2009). The engagement process and the sampling of community and practitioner representation are, therefore, critical to the success of the QFD approach.

In Gerst's (2004) study of social services, for example, he argued that QFD explicitly demonstrated through the visual elements of the HoQ, the causal links between customer needs and organisational objectives. As such, QFD also acts as a method of communication (Adiano and Roth 1994) with data, analysis and outcomes displayed in the HoQ. The resulting HoQ assists in translating stakeholder values, aligning them with the technical requirements and demonstrating the relative importance and satisfaction of each VoC attribute. In a study (Martins and Aspinwall 2001) on the use of QFD in the UK it was found that 20% of respondents saw teamwork improve as a result of the QFD implementation. There was also an identified improvement (15% of respondents) in communication between internal and external stakeholders (Martins and Aspinwall 2001). While QFD is primarily understood to improve products and services for customers and, *ipso facto*, customer satisfaction; the indirect benefits of QFD are also documented: reduction in internal silos, improved communications (Knowles et al. 2002) and increased confidence in key decision-makers within the organisation (Walker 2002). The employment of tools that increase transparency and improve communication are required in the local government and public administration sectors, as the literature on NPM attests. The inclusion of performance data in the HoQ provides additional value for customers wishing to understand an organisation's performance and an organisation's need to communicate performance to its stakeholders, as was incorporated into the Swedish safety promotion study (Kullberg et al. 2014).

In 2008, Carnevalli and Miguel completed a review of QFD literature published between 2000 and 2006; citing 157 articles in total (Carnevalli and Miguel 2008). The major challenge of QFD, as identified in Carnevalli *et. al.* (2008), was the extensive size of the matrices between the voice of the stakeholder and technical requirements. The scale of the matrices is an important aspect of the QFD process, allowing the researcher access to varied data and the complex relationships between stakeholder needs and technical requirements. In the development of a regional approach to cultural industries in Taiwan, Chen (2011) utilised the BSC in conjunction with the QFD model. However, in an attempt to ensure continuous improvement within the QFD model, Chen (2011) converted the voice of the stakeholder into a series of themes such as leadership, strategic planning and customer focus based on the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award

(MBNQA). The use of MBNQA in the QFD model runs the risk of converting the voice of the stakeholder into further process and operational requirements rather than outcomes. It also diminishes the actual VoC, as words are manipulated to fit in to the MBNQA categories; which is contrary to the expressed purpose of the VoC.

The utilisation of QFD and HoQ as a strategy-making tool has received some attention in the academic literature (Ocampo Jimenez and Baeza Serrato 2016). In their Mexican case study, the HoQ was applied in a local government agricultural setting which demonstrated the feasibility of using a QFD approach in local government policymaking. In the care of the elderly, QFD was also used to determine policy decisions in Taiwan (Chen 2016). A recent study explored community expectations and service quality in a single local government entity using a service quality scale and QFD (Yildirim et al. 2019). However, this study solely took a quantitative approach with a small, single-survey sample of 382 citizens situated in Ardahan, Turkey. Arguably, this approach may lack the rich detail available through qualitative means and fail to understand the intangible and complex elements of local government service provision. Other studies, such as in the work of Jin et al. (2015) demonstrated the process of translating the customer voice into technical requirements but failed to develop the VoC from multiple stakeholder perspectives. QFD has been shown to have efficacy in mapping relationships between service provision and technology in a case study of a local government smart city project (Lee et al. 2013). The work of Chao and Ishii (2004) demonstrated the successful application of QFD in a non-traditional design industry. These limited examples demonstrate the utility of the HoQ tool for identifying customer needs and reflecting them as technical requirements in order to improve services and performance. However, the traditional HoQ tool does not directly link customer needs and technical requirements with PIs to show the correlation between strategy and performance. In order to utilise the HoQ tool for the expressed purpose of developing relevant PIs, an adapted HoQ tool is required and will be explored in coming chapters.

2.3.3 Performance measurement models in the local government context

2.3.3.1. Triple bottom line (3BL)

By the late 1990s a growing number of academics and business practitioners were championing the triple bottom line (Elkington 1998; Allenby and Richards 1999; Elkington 1999; McDonald 1999; Sarre 2000;

Norman and MacDonald 2004). The triple bottom line (3BL) is a "form of auditable company reporting which seeks to balance financial gain against responsibility to society and to the environment, in response to a corporate strategy that aims for economic, environmental and social gain" (Macquarie Dictionary 2016). The three elements of the 3BL clearly include economic, environmental and social accountability. Elkington (1999) argued that business and government must address the 3BL in order to ensure long-term sustainability. Surprisingly, while 3BL is widely used in business it has limited coverage in the academic sphere (Norman and MacDonald 2004; Tullberg 2012). More recent literature took stock of the tensions prevalent within organisations utilising 3BL, advocating organisations understand these tensions and work across the 3BL to ensure innovation (Ozanne et al. 2016). These tensions are salient in the local government sector where opposing community expectations and multiple demands on government services (See Sections 2.2.3.1 and 2.2.7 for details) create tension and a struggle for dominance between competing priorities. Moreover, detractors of the 3BL argue that there is no rigorous methodology to calculate performance in terms of social and environmental factors (Norman and MacDonald 2004).

2.3.3.1.1. Economic

The economic bottom line traditionally refers to the profitability of the business, or assets minus liabilities (Elkington 1999). Broadening this definition to review the economic sustainability of business or government requires an expansive view of assets to include physical, financial, human and intellectual capital (Elkington 1999).

2.3.3.1.2. Environmental

In the 1990s when the 3BL was gaining recognition within business and government, an understanding of what constituted environmental sustainability for business was not fully formed (Elkington 1999). The ISO released international environmental management standards in 1999 that provided benchmarks for businesses and governments to strive towards. ISO 14000 suite of environmental management standards were updated in 2004.

2.3.3.1.3. Social

Elkington (1999) viewed the social bottom line as a number of factors including human capital, such as public health, skills and education. He also viewed social capital as the level of trust built within an organisation and its staff to work towards common goals. Hubbard (2009) succinctly defined the social bottom line as "the impact a firm (and its suppliers) has on the communities in which it works". Social capital relates to a sense of belonging and the interactions that impact well-being (Kitchen et al. 2012). Tsai and Ghoshal (1998) reflected on the structural (location or social interaction), relational (trust) and cognitive (shared paradigm or common understanding) dimensions of social capital. Liu (2018) found that the cognitive dimension of social capital was instrumental in the sharing of a common purpose (organisational vision) and further enhanced the structural and relational dimensions of social capital.

2.3.3.2. Quadruple bottom line (QBL) & the inclusion of corporate governance

The QBL developed out of the 3BL with the earliest known reference to the QBL found in a paper from Woodward et al. (2004). Woodward *et al.* (2004) added a fourth dimension to the 3BL: *corporate governance* and indicated that the reporting framework of the Royal Dutch Shell company inspired the development of the QBL. Corporate governance referred to "the system by which a business institution is controlled and directed, especially with regard to regulation of decision-making procedures" (Macquarie Dictionary 2016).

The IPR in NSW advocated for a balanced approach to planning and reporting by using the QBL (NSW Division of Local Government 2010). Similarly, in the United Kingdom and New Zealand, decision-making, strategic planning and performance measurement was supported by the implementation of QBL (Dalziel et al. 2006). A balanced approach requires local government authorities to proactively manage and report on all aspects of the business across social, environmental, economic and corporate governance areas. In NSW Australia, local government is required to communicate their value to the community across the QBL to demonstrate performance in all aspects of their business. This approach also accounts for economic constraints on local government in an environment where they are increasingly required to do more for less (Dollery and Grant 2011) where the inadequacy of local government income is far outweighed by community expectation (Passant and Mclaren 2011). This issue is not only faced in Australian local government environments, but also in other countries such as the United States (Plant 2006).

2.3.3.3. Balanced scorecard (BSC)

Kaplan and Norton's balanced scorecard advocated for four areas of value:

1. Financial
2. Customer
3. Internal business processes

4. Learning and growth - employees (Kaplan and Norton 2001, p.23)

The BSC was described by Niven (2006) as “a carefully selected set of quantifiable measures derived from an organisation’s strategy” (p.13). The BSC allows the organisation to measure performance holistically, implement and improve strategy, and deal with the issue of intangibles (Niven 2006). The BSC benefits organisations by focusing on the critical measures, ensuring relevance and relating to the business’s core values and mission (Kaplan and Norton 1992). Increasingly, intangible assets were seen as an important aspect of business success (Marr 2007) whilst it is challenging to measure both tangible and intangible attributes (Schulz et al. 2018). In government, it is often difficult to quantify and contentious to measure performance, particularly in the cultural sector where financial concerns were often secondary to community participation and access. The BSC ensures that organisations look beyond just financial measures to assess performance by facilitating the measurement of intangibles. The BSC thus provides government, including local government, with a suitable way to engage stakeholders with the intangible elements of a CP.

The BSC is also used across an organisation as a tool for communication, performance measurement and strategic planning and improvement. Figure 2-4 below illustrates how the BSC is often defined; playing three integrating roles. Firstly, the BSC provides decision-makers and stakeholders with clarity on how the business is performing in relation to the most significant strategies within the organisation. It is also a strategic management tool, articulating strategic directions based on the vision and objectives of the organisation. This leads to the BSC as a measurement system that translates strategic direction into performance measures or KPIs that measure performance against objectives. Thus, the BSC provides government with a framework to ensure that strategic direction is clarified, quantifiable and communicated.

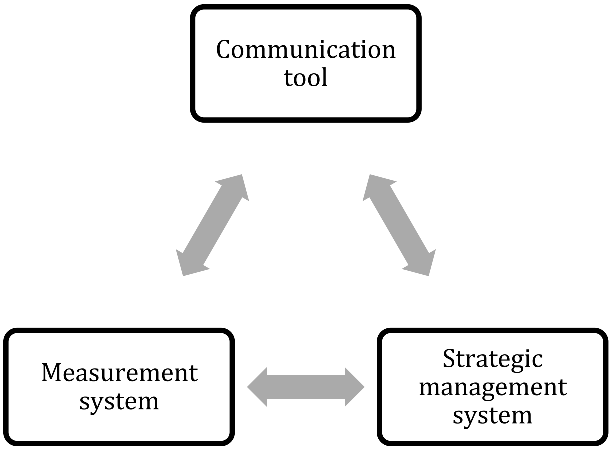


Figure 2-4: What is the balanced scorecard? (Niven 2006, p.14, exhibit 1.3)

While the concept of the BSC was introduced into the business and management world in the 1990s, an upsurge of academic interest occurred with 60 published papers in accounting journals between 2007 and 2011 (Hoque 2011), demonstrating continued interest in the BSC. There is also evidence that the BSC is somewhat used in the public sector (Perera et al. 2007; Sharma and Gadenne 2011) with case studies available from many countries including the USA (Lang 2004) and the United Kingdom (McAdam and Walker 2003). In an American study of local government uptake of management tools, the authors found only 18% of respondents utilised the BSC while benchmarking received the highest usage rate at 82% and TQM a rating of 56% (Ho and Kidwell 2000, p.48). Australian research indicates that the BSC has been adopted in some councils with one study showing 17% of responding councils had already adopted the BSC or were in the process of doing so (Perera et al. 2007). Utilising actor network theory, Cooper et. al. (2017) found that BSC was popularised through the dissemination of trials and experimentation with the tool. The establishment of the BSC Hall of Fame, for example, highlighted international case studies of the BSC application and were often subsequently used by Kaplan and Norton for future research and academic writing; thereby extending the concept of BSC as a "best practice" model (Cooper et al. 2017). Importantly, whilst the BSC is highly used internationally, Cooper et. al.'s study reminds us that its popularity should not be solely viewed as a result of its practicality and usefulness; it's popularity may also be a result of successful marketing.

The BSC was used in a 2005 study of performance measurement systems in, primarily the United Kingdom's tourism, hospitality and leisure sectors (Phillips and Louvieris 2005). The researchers conducted semi-structured interviews with practitioners from 10 best practice organisations including 2 hotels, 2 pubs, 2 restaurants, 2 leisure facilities and 2 visitor attractions. The interview questions were designed to gain a deep and rich understanding of performance measurement practice and issues in the sector using a BSC framework. The research identified key factors to support the development of appropriate indicators to measure performance and strategies to improve it. See Table 2-4 below for a summary of the factors, beginning in the first column with the perspectives of Kaplan and Norton (2005) and then incorporating the concepts of (Brewer and Speh 2000). While these critical success factors related specifically to the tourism, hospitality and leisure sectors in the United Kingdom, they were useful in this review in order to understand the relationships between the BSC and the ultimate development of PIs and strategies that support organisational improvement. Phillips and Louvieris (2005) established that staff engagement in the development of a performance measurement system and indicators was imperative to the success of the system.

Perspective	Key to developing PIs	Success factor 1	Success factor 2	Success factor 3
Kaplan and Norton (2005)	Brewer and Speh (2000)	Phillips and Louvieris (2005)	Phillips and Louvieris (2005)	Phillips and Louvieris (2005)
Financial – "to succeed financially, how should we appear to our customers?"	Lag-factor – measure of financial success.	Collected appropriate financial data to understand changes to business.	Businesses valued the speed and accuracy of digital aids in the collection of financial data.	Integration of financial management systems allowed for improved financial forecasting.
Customer - "to achieve our vision, how should we appear to our customers?"	Measure customer opinion.	Undertook a customer profile (who, where they are from, their expectations and likelihood of return).	Communication with customers promoted loyalty and assisted in the collection of anecdotal performance data.	Service quality improved customer satisfaction and retainment rates.
Internal Business Process – "to satisfy our stakeholders and customers, what business processes must we excel at?"	Measure internal processes that meet or exceed customer needs.	Investment in staff was critical to measuring internal business process performance and developing strategies for improvement.	Measuring productivity was critical i.e. wages paid as a percentage to achieve turnover	
Learning and Growth – "to achieve our vision, how will we sustain our ability to change and improve?"	Future-focused measures based on retaining customers and human resource management.	Staff drove innovation with learning encouraged, staff-initiated new ideas sought	Undertook benchmarking or cross-industry comparisons to promote innovation.	

Table 2-4: Balanced scorecard critical success factors based on Phillips and Louvieris (2005)

While rates of adoption in Australian local government were small but similar to countries like America, one recent study found that the effectiveness of the BSC on "performance related outcomes" was higher than in councils not using the BSC (Baird et al. 2012, p.172). Llach et. al. (2017) similarly found that tracking PIs across the four BSC perspectives were interdependent and improved organisational success. Challenges in the implementation of the BSC included a lack of commitment from leadership and political representatives to its implementation, and with the absence of competition within the sector there is little incentive to adopt the BSC (Perera et al. 2007). Another issue with the effective adoption of the BSC within Australian local government was aligning the complexity of local government's role and diverse portfolio with the BSC; with the authors Sharma and Gadenne (2011) recommending improved planning from the outset. However, they did not provide any detail on the planning required to improve the BSC adoption.

The BSC was considered an appropriate tool to engage with in this study as it is an effective tool to communicate a holistic view of an organisation's priorities and performance. However, on its own it is simply inadequate because the BSC categories do not align the ever-important VoC, with the technical requirements and PIs. This alignment is critical to the development and deployment of PIs for CPs. The BSC therefore may add value to the HoQ process in that it categorises or groups VoCs to ensure the development of VoC attributes across financial and non-financial categories, or at least highlights when a BSC category is not used. This categorisation is helpful in confirming that a holistic picture of CPs is communicated. Further, the BSC's strength in identifying intangible attributes is highly useful in the present study where CPs need to account for and measure intangible attributes.

2.3.4 Performance indicators as successful measures of performance

This section turns attention to what makes a successful PI. Indicators are the tools used to measure performance across a range of business objectives and are often used in conjunction with performance management tools such as QFD, BSC and QBL. However, there is definitional problems with terms such as "measure" and "indicator" used interchangeably in the available literature (Choong 2014) as was outlined in Section 2.3.1. Parmenter (2010) identified seven characteristics of PIs, including:

1. Non-financial
2. Measured frequently
3. Are acted on by senior management
4. Clearly indicate what action is required by staff
5. Are measures that tie responsibility down to a team
6. Have a significant impact (affect more than one BSC measurement)
7. Encourage appropriate action (tested to ensure a positive impact on performance)

Within government, research showed that collecting performance data for communication and reporting was ineffective: “PIs were introduced into the public sector based on the Australian government’s conviction that they would improve the accountability and performance of the public sector. For this to occur, PIs, at the very least, should be used by both public agencies and accountability authorities to assist in their decision-making process” (Taylor 2009, p.866). The BSC, as shown above, ensures data collected through PIs is assimilated in the making of decisions whilst also being communicated to stakeholders.

Research in the 1990s cautioned against an uncritical view of PI data, citing, for example, a case where an advocacy organisation with limited understanding of performance measurement utilised PI data ineffectively, thereby diminishing their reputation within the sector by communicating inaccurate data (Edwards 1998). A composite indicator manipulates multiple indicators into a single summary indicator that can be used for comparative purposes (Saltelli 2007). These indicators are used, like all indicators, for the analysis of performance; and are known to be used in advocacy and political messaging (Saltelli 2007). Composite indicators and their role in advocacy while important to the overall understanding of PIs, are not central to the current study. Asymmetric information, as outlined in Sections 2.2.6 and 2.2.7, is a concern for both internal and external stakeholders of the local government sector. A limited understanding of PI data can be detrimental to the application and communication of performance data. Edwards (1998) argued that consumers need to maintain a critical perspective of PIs to ensure their relevance and usability. A loss of that critic, Edward (1998) argued, was a loss of customer empowerment.

Benchmarking, a tool particularly used in facility management theory, was also examined in light of the fact the components of CPs are often viewed from a facility management perspective. Also, it is common practice in some public administration functions to develop league tables showing comparison performance data (Jacobs and Goddard 2007). PIs, when applied across multiple organisations can be used for comparative purposes. There is benefit to benchmarking, as shown in research from the United Kingdom, where comparisons lead to the identification of strengths and weaknesses which in turn, lead to improvements (Galera et al. 2008). It was similarly identified within the hospitality sector a need for cross-country benchmarking to support strategic decision making (Phillips and Louvieris 2005). However, a major issue that makes it difficult to benchmark across different organisations is the inconsistent application of definitions that result in variable data and an inability to make comparisons (Galera et al. 2008). In an article discussing process benchmarking in regional councils, the authors indicated that in performance benchmarking the variables often result in a range of outputs that lack viability and are therefore abandoned purely due to effort and cost (Hawley et al. 2010). It is perhaps premature to abandon performance benchmarking due to effort and expense if there are tangible benefits in undergoing benchmarking across councils. However, research suggests that there remains a degree of uncertainty in the literature about the utility and effectiveness of using comparative, composite indicators for benchmarking purposes in public services (Jacobs and Goddard 2007). The use of benchmarking, it is argued by Battaglio and Hall (2018) may be at the expense of a deeper understanding of local context. In the development of PIs for CPs it was, therefore determined important to ensure locally developed and non-composite PIs were clearly understood and derived by councils and their communities.

2.3.5 Performance measurement in the Third Sector and service industries

Non-profit organisations or the "Third Sector'" are under pressure to demonstrate their efficiency and effectiveness through performance measurement in a similar fashion to public services (Ashworth et al. 2013). Within the Third Sector the need for performance measurement was driven by a need to report financial results, to illustrate achievements, to ensure control of operations and expedite continuous improvement (Moxham 2009). And yet, whilst drivers for performance measurement are common, research demonstrated that the indicators were prolific but not universal (Moxham 2009) and performance management terminology was not common nor consistent leading to confusion in the extant literature (Woerrlein and Scheck 2016). This in turn has made any attempts at benchmarking organisations in this sector difficult.

Like public services, the Third Sector has a diversity of stakeholders that complicates an organisation's ability to meet community needs effectively (Taylor and Taylor 2014). Taylor and Taylor (2014) summarised the required elements of a performance measurement system for the Third Sector as including the needs of stakeholders whilst meeting strategic objectives. They argue for the use and further study of stakeholder theory to pinpoint relevant stakeholders, discern their expectations and meet their needs (Taylor and Taylor 2014) – ensuring performance measurement tools measure areas of importance from the perspective of the stakeholders (Van Dooren et al. 2010). Certainly, in the public services too, where multiple stakeholders have varied "power, legitimacy and urgency" (Mitchell et al. 1997, pp.865-867) it would be useful to map stakeholder influence and its impact on objectives and performance measurement.

The adoption and adaption of performance measurement frameworks such as the BSC, EFQM, the performance pyramid and performance prism have been used in varying degrees within the Third Sector (Greatbanks et al. 2010; Hatzfeld 2014). In addressing practitioners' frustration in utilising the available performance measurement frameworks and their failure to address the intangible attributes of Third Sector outputs and outcomes, Greatbanks et al. (2010) recommended the use of anecdotal performance reporting to support the frameworks already in place. They saw anecdotal performance to be more reflective of, and sympathetic to, a voluntary organisation's principles, objectives and attainments (Greatbanks et al. 2010). Such an approach applied within government, would arguably improve the visibility of intangible attributes, the values and strategic direction of the organisation.

In summary, the Third Sector faces similar challenges to government in effective performance measurement where services and stakeholders are diverse and (sometimes) have competing priorities, and intangible aspects require measurement. The Third Sector literature suggests a range of tools to assist the sector including the use of anecdotal performance reporting and stakeholder theory analysis. While anecdotal performance reporting is perhaps too open and generic to satisfy government performance reporting requirements, an understanding of stakeholder influences, requirements and expectations would greatly assist government in prioritisation of strategic directions and associated performance measures.

Moving now to the literature on performance measurement in the service industries, it was useful in understanding performance measurement for CPs, as both are localities consisting of facilities and services. Service industry literature highlighted a number of benefits of performance measurement, namely "increased transparency, incentives for output, and improved accountability" (Yasin and Gomes 2010, p.218). Literature on performance measurement practice also suggests that a broader organisation-wide view of performance is required within service industries (such as the inclusion of social outcomes, for example) (Bezerra and Gomes 2018). Performance measurement in service industries received increasing attention, particularly since 1998 with an operational, customer and strategic focus (Yasin and Gomes 2010). Early service industry literature recognised a need for performance measures that dealt with the intangibles which were inherently difficult to measure (Fitzgerald 1988) yet contributed to the value delivered within the service industries (Tyagi and Gupta 2013). The complexity inherent in the service industry's outputs and the variable demand on services are also reflected in the academic literature (Jääskeläinen et al. 2012). Within services industries, such complexity means performance measurement was deemed difficult particularly in areas like public services where stakeholders are diverse with broad or even conflicting needs (Yasin and Gomes 2010). Interestingly, the implementation of performance measurement systems (PMS) within the service industries has also received some attention; for example, Groen et al. (2012) demonstrated that the success of a PMS implementation was due in part to stakeholder participation in its development and a growing understanding of the PMS process.

Facilities management literature focused on the needs and expectations of the customer, referred to as customer satisfaction (Tucker and Pitt 2009). Facility management is concerned with assets such as buildings and the services they incorporate (Lavy et al. 2010). The development of customer satisfaction measures moves in the direction of Marr's recommendation to focus on outcome-focused measures. In attempts to fully understand and act upon customer requirements, service-industry literature presented an importance-performance analysis tool to measure customer satisfaction (Van Ryzin and Immerwahr 2004; Van Ryzin and Immerwahr 2007) which could be used to compare the importance and performance of services rendered (Van Ryzin and Immerwahr 2007). Other facility management literature focused on the development of PIs and the categorisation of such PIs for use in the sector, for example see the research of Lavy et. al. (2010). Within their study they identified four categories of indicators: financial (cost-related indicators), physical (building condition indicators), functional (functioning PIs) and survey-based indicators (environmental or psychological indicators). The fourth category was later re-categorised as user satisfaction to provide a more meaningful category for customer satisfaction (Lavy et al. 2014a). They argued that appropriate categorisation provides meaning to practitioners and improves usage of performance data (Lavy et al. 2010).

Facilities management literature also advocates for the use of benchmarking in performance measurement as a means to understand organisational strengths and weaknesses in order to improve the strategic direction of the facilities (Tucker and Pitt 2009). In a study by Brackertz and Kenley (2002), a set of indicators based on council objectives that measure performance and benchmark across all facilities was preferred over a range of specific indicators for each facility, with four important areas of performance: physical performance (building compliance and condition, design, fit-out, IT and environmental impact), service delivery (access and utilisation), community satisfaction and financial sustainability. Notably too, these reflect the intentions of the BSC platform.

Tyagi and Gupta (2013) developed a service performance index (SPIN) for service industries (which originated from a BSC framework) that allowed for benchmarking across similar service businesses. Within this research, the authors argued for seven performance attributes within service industries: growth, leadership, acceleration (rate of improvement), collaboration, innovation (impact of staff engagement on service innovation), execution (accuracy and responsiveness) and retention (customer) (Tyagi and Gupta 2013). The current development phase of the organisation would influence the nature and number of the elements within their scorecard. These elements are converted into a SPIN. Taking into account the previous caution of literature on the detrimental effects of over reliance on simplified or singular indicators, a service performance index may be counter-productive to organisational improvement. A systemic performance measurement approach, on the other hand, brings together the various actors or stakeholders within service industries (Jääskeläinen et al. 2014; Laihonen et al. 2014). The systemic approach models the business processes and develops measures that reflect three-tiers: meeting organisational goals, shared objectives across a network, and customer expectations. This approach has benefits for public services where diverse stakeholders with different or conflicting expectations are coupled with a strong emphasis on reporting outcome-based service provision and productivity over the bottom-line (Jääskeläinen et al. 2014). As many CP developments are a conglomerate of different services and facilities operated under the umbrella of government, they are subject to the silo-mentality that could impact effective performance measurement. Taking a systemic performance measurement development approach towards CP performance measurement may help address this constraint and better support the effective performance measurement of those facilities and services.

In sum, service industries literature, like the Third Sector and government literature, recognised the need to measure intangibles that are both difficult to measure whilst contributing significantly to the perception of value delivered and strategic fit. Also, similarly, service industries worked with a diversity of stakeholders with broad and sometimes conflicting expectations. Facilities management literature focused on measuring customer satisfaction as a means of ensuring services meet stakeholder needs. There has been significant attention paid within service industry literature to the use of an importance-performance analysis tool to measure customer satisfaction. Other tools highlighted in the literature included benchmarking, a service performance index (SPIN) and a systemic PM approach. Systemic performance measurement, due to its use in diverse service industries with multiple stakeholders, appears most relevant and potentially useful for consideration in government-run CPs.

2.3.6 Performance measurement of cultural precincts

The performance measurement of CPs is often insufficient. Take, for example the European models of cultural quarters where "The Museums Quartier in Vienna established visitor numbers as a key measure for judging performance…for other projects…there is little published output evidence. Which, given the scale of resources involved and physical impact, is surprising, but is a general weakness of national and international Cultural Quarter development" (Roodhouse 2010, pp.196-197). Examples are evident elsewhere, including in the USA where the National Assembly of State Arts Agencies (2015) recommended the implementation of a performance appraisal process to measure the success of cultural districts. Further research is required to measure the performance of CPs and develop indicators for their assessment (Chapain and Sagot-Duvauroux 2018). In fact, there has been limited practical use of, and little research undertaken on, performance measurement of CPs within the Australian government context (Schulz et al. 2018). Communication of CP performance results is also required, in order to provide opportunities to reflect and learn (National Assembly of State Arts Agencies 2015). Public administrations have tended towards passive use of performance data and a predilection towards only communicating performance data to staff (Cepiku et al. 2017), as seen in Section 2.3.1. Indeed, performance data utilisation as a communication tool, as recommended by (Hood 2012), would benefit CPs and inform stakeholders.

With the knowledge that local government authorities in NSW are now implementing CSPs with a QBL, it is necessary to identify the PIs being used in relation to cultural facilities. However, there is a general lack of knowledge or guidance available in theory or practice to support the alignment of PIs with community needs (Schulz et al. 2018). In his discussion on cultural cities, Philip Cooke asks the questions:

> *"Is culture, broadly defined, a complex set of services that is meant to have direct effects upon the happiness of citizens who may consume more 'culture' accordingly? Or is it primarily an economic service that creates routine service jobs (in the main) while the city acts as a kind of international host to tourists whose discretionary expenditure fuels the labour." (Cooke 2008, p.29)*

Cooke's questions highlight a fundamental issue for local government, that is, the need to clearly define why CP development is required within an LGA. The government entity may determine that the CP should meet customer needs, perhaps increase the happiness of citizens, for example. In may be an economic driver for local, interstate, national or international tourism. The CP may aim to do all of these things. By understanding this requirement and community expectations, PIs can be developed to holistically measure the performance of CPs. PIs need not solely measure the number of customers through the door but could provide complex and far-reaching data to inform decision-making.

Quality of life, like “happiness”, is a complex and intangible element. Despite this complexity, quality of life surveys occur globally (Johansson 2002). In Sweden such quality of life surveys developed in the 1960s due to a growing concern over the complex problem of poverty and the distribution of wealth (Johansson 2002). A living conditions survey considered, amongst other aspects, culture and recreation with recognition that quality of life extends beyond economic opportunities (Johansson 2002). There is an assumption that cultural facilities increase economic development and quality of life (Stevenson and Magee 2017). Urban regeneration is increasingly linked to cultural strategies that stimulate cultural and, consequently, economic development (Jones 2017); indeed, the two are often viewed as two sides of a single coin (McManus and Carruthers 2014; Montgomery 2003). Stevenson and Magee (2017) found that cultural consumption was more likely in highly educated demographics (who may or may not be of lower socio-economic means) rather than the anticipated higher socio-economic communities. Measuring cultural consumption is, therefore, useful in understanding quality of life though this measure must be interrogated in the appropriate context such as the spatial location, education level, gender and so on.

The difficulty and complexity in developing and using performance measures for culture and its consumption are an issue many cultural development workers grapple with daily in local government; and these issues have been discussed in a lead article in a local government sector magazine (Dunphy 2012). Dunphy (2012) outlines work in Queensland, Victoria and the City of Sydney in NSW to develop indicators to measure the contribution of culture in LGAs, and concedes that further work is required to develop the indicators to reflect cultures’ contribution in areas of “social equity, economic viability and environmental sustainability” (p.13).

Local government in NSW reports on a range of PIs within their CSP. CP development, cultural services and management are often measured solely in relation to cultural benefits or social-oriented indicators, as part of the QBL, rather than on a measure of financial gain, internal business processes or learning and growth in the BSC (For example, see Council C 2011; Blacktown City Council 2009; City of Newcastle 2011; Council A 2011; Penrith City Council 2011). For example, at Council C in southern NSW, an outcome of the CSP was to increase community participation in cultural programming. A PI was set for 2012, for the Library and Museum, of a 2% increase (4,000 visitors) in participation rate compared with 2010 figures and a 2% increase (4,000 loans) in number of items loaned (Council C 2011). In the case of this regional council, the CSP focused solely on outputs (visitor numbers, loans of items and the number of programs) rather than outcomes for measuring the success of their cultural facilities. They are similar measures to those of the Museums Quartier in Vienna, discussed earlier, that also focused on outputs rather than outcomes. One of Blacktown City Council's nine focus areas in their CSP in the strategic area of "a creative friendly and inclusive city" is to "establish Blacktown Arts Centre as the cultural centre of the City and as an iconic cultural institution" (Blacktown City Council 2009, p.34). However, the CSP does not provide PIs or targets to measure the success of these objectives. In Penrith City Council, the CSP excludes any mention of the city's cultural facilities (Penrith City Council 2011). There is no clear evidence that CPs meet customer expectations. The provision of PIs for CPs development will, on the face of these few examples, remain elusive. Such a situation may be influenced by many factors but even so, it suggests a need to pursue research that generates a greater understanding of the benefits of CPs and the development of PIs to measure their performance.

Local government is effectively caught in a vicious cycle of being prepared to improve services and facilities but with no measurable means to do so. Although the CSP is a positive advancement for governance at a local government level in NSW, an unintended consequence is that it perpetuates the silo-mentality by limiting the functionality of cultural facilities to the social value, as Council C's (2011) CSP demonstrates. The cultural facilities and CPs are not required to demonstrate success in economic, environmental or civic leadership areas of the QBL, for example. Equally, council's do not measure cultural facilities against learning and growth or financial attributes in the BSC model. And yet key decision-makers, like the Chairman of Ports North in Cairns, Queensland, Mr Clive Skarott, believe that tourism and the associated economic benefits are important drivers for CP development (Egerton 2010). Therefore, if tourism is important to stakeholders then some PIs should align with measuring that attribute and likewise for other key objectives associated with a CP.

Within the industry of facilities management, CPs being a series of facilities established in one location, research indicates that performance measurement is neither effective nor accessible (Tucker and Pitt 2009). In the exploration of other performance measurement systems that could support CPs, some deliberation was given to creative city indexes (CCI) and their usefulness within the context of CPs. The CCI allows a city to benchmark performance against competing cities across a range of criteria: creative industries, micro productivity, attractions, participation, public support, human capital, global integration, openness and tolerance (Hartley et al. 2012). However, the CCI is a broader benchmarking tool, developed to measure city-performance, and not specifically relevant to the measurement of CP performance. As such, it was not a focus for this research.

In sum, a relevant and effective set of performance indicators are necessary for local government to measure the performance of and to assess the requirement for improvements to cultural precincts. Performance indicators, in order to be meaningful and relevant, should be derived across a range of holistic attributes as observed in the BSC (customer, financial, learning and growth, and internal process) and the QBL (social, economic, environmental and civic leadership). A transparent assessment of the need for cultural precincts and of ways to measure their performance are not currently apparent and are therefore desirable goals.

2.4. DEVELOPMENT AND OPERATION OF CULTURAL PRECINCTS

2.4.1. Defining cultural precincts

At the broadest level “cultural” can be defined as “relating to the cultivation of the mind or manners, especially through artistic or intellectual activity” and “precinct” refers to “an enclosed or clearly defined area, e.g. around a cathedral…” (Moore 2004). Cultural policy in the public sector traditionally focuses on creative practices and the arts, though its scope is broadening into social and economic aspects also (Stevenson et al. 2010). A precinct is also referred to as a “cluster”, “district” or “quarter” within literature related to cultural planning (Cooke 2008; Lorenzen and Frederiksen 2008; Bell and Jayne 2004; Roodhouse 2010). The concept of the “cultural district” or “quarter”, according to Gibson and Freestone (2002, p.143) is not new with examples globally including the French Quarter in New Orleans or SoHo in London, for example; and are primarily focused on “clusters of entrepreneurial activity”. It has been argued that the concept of the CP (or other terms mentioned above) has become ambiguous within the academic literature in disciplines such as urban planning and cultural studies (Chapain and Sagot-Duvauroux 2018). The terminology and the conscious discussion and articulation of cultural quarters gained prevalence in the 1980s (Montgomery 2003) and the investigation of the phenomenon is now widespread (Evans 2009). Galligan (2008) states that a cultural district is an American term with over 90 cultural districts developed or planned by 2011 (Brooks and Kushner 2001), whilst a cultural quarter is the British terminology. In Australia, a cultural precinct appears to be the preferred nomenclature (For example, see Australian Trade Commission 2014; Homan 2014; NSW Government Architect and Newcastle City Council 2004; Penrith City Council 2010), as it does in South Africa (Mbhiza and Mearns 2014). There is also some evidence in the Australian context for the use of the term “cultural hub” (For example, see Council B 2009).

The terminology, whether “cultural” or “creative; or “precinct”, “quarter”, “cluster” or “district”, are utilised interchangeably within the literature (Mould and Comunian 2015). These CPs might focus on the live music scene or fashion, for example, and tend to cover a large footprint in a suburb or city. Cultural precincts are also diverse in their cultural and creative outputs, how they are managed and with whom they engage (Schieb-Bienfait et al. 2018). Santagata (2002) attempts to categorise these districts into four types:

1. Industrial cultural districts
2. Institutional cultural districts
3. Museum cultural districts
4. Metropolitan cultural districts

In each case Santagata (2002, pp.12-20) describes the requirements for these districts to develop and in all cases this includes "the existence of an area whose property rights structure is not too dispersed" or, in other words within a defined geographical area. Montgomery (2003, p.295) considered three main characteristics of cultural quarters, focusing on the activity (the uses which encourage activation), built form (the relationship between buildings and place) and meaning (place-based meaning). These are summarised in Table 2-5 below. He argued that these characteristics provide the framework by which to understand the performance or success of the cultural quarter. Though, Montgomery's work has its detractors (Mould and Comunian 2015). Much of the literature discussed in this section is planning- or urban planning-based, focused particularly on the livability of the place.

Activity	Built form	Meaning
Diversity of primary and secondary land uses	Fine-grain urban morphology	Important meeting and gathering spaces
Extent and variety of cultural venues and events	Variety and adaptability of building stock	Sense of history and progress
Presence of an evening economy, including café culture	Permeability of streetscape	Area identity and imagery
Strength of small-firm economy, including creative businesses	Legibility	Knowledgeability
Access to education providers	Amount and quality of public space	Design appreciation and style
	Active frontages	

Table 2-5: Characteristics of cultural quarters (Montgomery 2003, p.295)

Mould and Comunian (2015) cautioned against the application of a one-size-fits-all approach to CPs; indicating that a singular model of CP development does not guarantee its success. Nonetheless, evidence suggests that CP performance improves when cultural activities cluster with other services or functions

(Hitters and Richards 2002). The positive performance of CPs is inextricably linked to adaptive flexibility and personalisation of the space and services (Chang 2014). Indeed, giving due deliberation to the literature concerning place-making outlined above in Section 2.2.3.4, a successful CP would need to draw upon a community's sense of identity and belonging, thus mitigating the likelihood of homogenous CPs that fail to connect community with place. However, Nuccio and Ponzini (2017, p.418) found in their study of 68 CPs across Italy, that in spite of their unique heritage and distinct "social and cultural conditions", the planning documents were homogenous and strategies were not specific to the place. Further, they contended that local community engagement was not prevalent in these precincts (Nuccio and Ponzini 2017).

As this thesis is studying the development of CPs in a local government setting, the "metropolitan cultural district" is the most relevant to this study. Certainly the dominant aspects of the metropolitan cultural district conform with examples from Australian local government such as the "initial range of artistic and cultural activities: museums, libraries, theatres, art galleries, concert halls, studios and art shops" (Santagata 2002, p.19) which can be found in many LGAs. Galligan (2008) adds to this convention centres, restaurants, hotels and retail. Further, Galligan (2008) argues that CPs are evolving. Initially they were created around an arts organisation whilst more recently they have evolved into mixed-use models that encourage art production and small arts businesses with art consumption. In the USA, for example, there are 15 States with a formalised cultural district (National Assembly of State Arts Agencies 2015). In the NSW city of Hurstville, prior to amalgamation in 2016, the planned civic and cultural centre included the Hurstville City Library, Museum & Gallery, Hurstville Entertainment Centre (incorporating an auditorium, theatre and meeting rooms), Hurstville Senior Citizens Centre with the Council Civic Centre next door. Whilst Georges River Council (an amalgamation of the former Hurstville City Council and Kogarah City Council) developed a precinct plan incorporating a mixed model of culture-based uses with retail, restaurants, commercial and residential (Georges River Council 2018). Importantly, Santagata (2002) states that the range of facilities and services on offer is dependent on the choices made by the administering body and has the potential to impact tourism (the external impact) and community quality of life (internal impact). However, this is perhaps oversimplifying the potential benefits and challenges faced in the planning, development and ongoing management of a cultural district or quarter, or as defined below, a CP, and will be analysed in more detail within the document study and case study interview processes.

In the Italian context, cultural precincts (or "districts", as utilised by the authors) were focused primarily on supporting diverse cultural activities or managing heritage, offering communication, education and research (Nuccio and Ponzini 2017). The University of Western Australia defined their CP on the basis of a clearly defined area that contains facilities and services related to artistic and intellectual activity: "The Cultural Precinct encompasses the arts and cultural activities of the University of Western Australia, showcasing the creative work of staff and students and opening a lens onto contemporary life" (University of Western Australia 2010). The city of Melbourne, identified three distinct CPs by geographical boundaries:

- "*Chinatown, focused on Little Bourke Street (east of Swanston Street) in the CBD;*
- *"The Lonsdale Greek precinct, centred on the south-side of Lonsdale Street between Swanston and Russell Streets in the CBD; and*
- *"Lygon Street precinct (the heart of Melbourne's Italian community), generally between Victoria Parade and Palmerston Street in Carlton"* (Ratio Consultants 2007, p.3)

In these cases the areas are defined by the predominant cultural communities within the area, rather than relating specifically to the provision or generation of artistic and intellectual activity. A similar precinct based on the development of a cultural group can be found in the NSW city of Leichhardt:

> *"A public, non-profit company, Italian Forum Ltd, was formed to oversee construction and management of the new development. The ruling idea was to create a forum in 'authentic' Italian style, with a central piazza and bell tower, to provide cultural space serving not only the Italian but the wider community. The key cultural facilities to be included were an auditorium, function hall, meeting room, art gallery and library, constituting approximately 40 percent of the total ... Further, according to the 1989 covenant resting on the land title for the Italian Forum, one of the roles of the registered proprietor was to 'ensure that the cultural facilities and outdoor recreational areas are utilised principally for cultural and similar activities'"* (Gibson and Freestone 2002, p.167).

In both the Melbourne and Leichhardt cases, the precinct is similar to the "institutional cultural district" developed by Santagata (2002). However, the Leichhardt case also contains the facilities and services outlined in the "metropolitan cultural district" and is a local government initiative that was outsourced to a private developer. In the Victorian city of Geelong, the CP contains a park, library, town hall, art gallery, old court house and performing arts centre (Roodhouse 2010). Clearly, the terminology of "cultural precinct" is used broadly both within academic circles and within the government sector. As shown, there are a variety of CP models with examples found internationally and within Australia. Models of CP, and the hybrids within these models each have their own challenges and opportunities. However, this study is interested in the CPs developed by local government and contains facilities and services that support and generate artistic and intellectual activity. For the purposes of this study the term “cultural precinct” refers to a clearly defined geographical area that contains facilities and services related to artistic and intellectual activity.

2.4.2 Activation and revitalisation of public space

Increasingly, CPs are recognised as tools used to regenerate or activate public space, drive tourism and ensure economic development (Galligan 2008). CPs are credited with making public spaces vibrant and safe (Mbhiza and Mearns 2014). They are similarly comprehended as opportunities for revitalisation within the local government sector; as evidenced in a report on the Broadway Cultural Quarter in the City of Los Angeles (Garay-English 2012). As a form of public space, our understanding of CPs is informed by the growing academic literature on landscape (Brown and Corry 2011) and its activation; that is, understanding how the landscape informs community utilisation of space (Abbott 2011) and architecture involves communities on both a physical and psychological level (Hjort et al. 2018). However, well-designed landscapes and architecture alone do not guarantee active public spaces (Roman and Chalfin 2008). Community members in neighborhoods with high-crime rates, for example, may be less inclined to participate (Roman and Chalfin 2008) in CP facilities, particularly night-based activity. Further caution is called for by Sacco et al. (2014) who warn against over simplifying the rhetoric of social cohesion, economic development opportunities and urban regeneration in CP development in favour of the more easily digestible cultural consumption. To safeguard the value and complexity of social cohesion, one might utilise the Kearns and Forrest (2000) categorisation of social cohesion when considering PIs to measure social cohesion. Clearly, all such assumptions about the value or benefits generated in CPs need to be carefully studied and the performance measured in order to truly understand their actual benefit rather than that which is perceived. Local contexts such as the perception or actuality of crime impacts the extent to which public spaces are activated.

The utilisation of iconic or unique architecture to promote tourism and activation is well documented (Stevenson and Magee 2017). However, research has also found that these iconic or “flagship” precincts require additional evaluation both in terms of their performance and the potential tension between the precinct and the sense of place or local context (Chapain and Sagot-Duvauroux 2018). Cultural development, it has been shown, aids urban regeneration; though the balance between cultural development and private development is difficult to attain (McManus and Carruthers 2014). Mould and Comunian (2015) argue, however, that CP projects, including state of the art or iconic projects, do not guarantee successful urban regeneration. Further, they see culture and its production being highjacked as a place-making marketing tool for tourism (Mould and Comunian 2015). This argument assumes that place-making does not involve stakeholders in its development and production. As discussed in Section 2.2.3.4, place-making initiatives involving key stakeholders as active participants in the creation of place (Hambleton and Howard 2013) may go some way towards reducing such activities as a mere marketing tool to promote tourism; ensuring a genuine sense of place develops with the communities who inhabit the CP. Iconic architecture alone does not result in a successful precinct. There is also a strong need for a contextualised CP, one that responds to the local environment and community; what Tsang and Siu (2016, p.211) term “dense and deafening social ties”.

2.4.3 Development phases and maturity pathways

This section explores how the development phases and maturity levels might impact and inform how CP performance is understood. CPs develop in a variety of ways and councils are in varying stages of CP development. In Albury, NSW, Australia, for example, the council had a central area in which cultural facilities (a library, art gallery, performing arts centre and conservatorium) were located (Clement 2006). The CP was created in this location with stage one consisting of the planning and construction of a converged library and museum. From planning to delivery, the stage one CP took nine years to realise; from formation of a cultural facilities review committee in 1998, to building works in 2006 and the final opening in 2007. Council B developed the CBD master plan for the city in 2011 with the view to “create a town centre heart through improved civic facilities, open space, entertainment and leisure facilities” and to “establish performance targets to improve the energy efficiency and sustainability of the centre” (Council B 2011, p.17). One outcome of the plan was the inclusion of an action to “create a cultural precinct around the library, Arts Centre and former School of Arts building” as a medium-term priority (Council B 2011, p.104). Planning and work on the CP have not yet begun.

Understanding the level of maturity of an organisation could, arguably, increase organisational learning and define the level of sophistication of an organisation for improved performance measurement (Bititci et al. 2015). That is, understanding where an organisation is at present in respect to maturity is a learning in itself, and in knowing that it sets the scene for other determinations about what to measure and why. Thus, it is reasonable to suggest that performance measurement and indicators should align with the maturity-level to ensure the more relevant performance data is captured to maximise strategic improvement (Schulz et al. 2018). The utilisation of maturity models has also been associated with improvement programs, ensuring effective and efficient performance assessment (Bititci et al. 2015). However, maturity models have received some negative academic commentary, with varying alternative models suggested as replacements, such as developmental models using divergence theory (Niehaves et al. 2013). A model for understanding and categorising the diverse range of development phases for CPs is desirable. Here, I turn to Larry Greiner's study *(1997)*, *Evolution and revolution as organizations grow*, in which he argues for five phases of growth for businesses (and associated crises that lead to the next stage of development) including creativity, direction, delegation, coordination and collaboration. These stages of growth, Greiner argues, are evident when reviewing the history of an organisation. He suggests that it benefits an organisation to understand their current growth phase in order to prepare for the accompanying crisis (Greiner 1997). Similarly, in studying the development of CPs it is useful to understand the range of development phases in order to assist in understanding the needs of the stakeholders during that development phase. Based on Greiner's work, the stages of CP development are categorised into five phases of development and illustrated in Figure 2-5 below. Each phase is discussed in detail below with a focus on both the development of a CP and post-development operations of a precinct.

Phase 1: Creativity – the birth phase of a cultural precinct development. The idea of developing a CP is conceived but plans are not in place and there is no understanding of what that precinct may look like. The precinct is in the early phase of operation where creative ideas are being implemented.

Phase 2: Direction – structures such as "master plans" are developed and put in place to understand the place of the cultural precinct within a city or community. At this stage there is high-level direction on the placement of the precinct and the services conceived as being part of this precinct but no details on further planning, development and delivery. In the case where an operational CP is already in place, this phase might include the development of a vision and/or mission that is implemented.

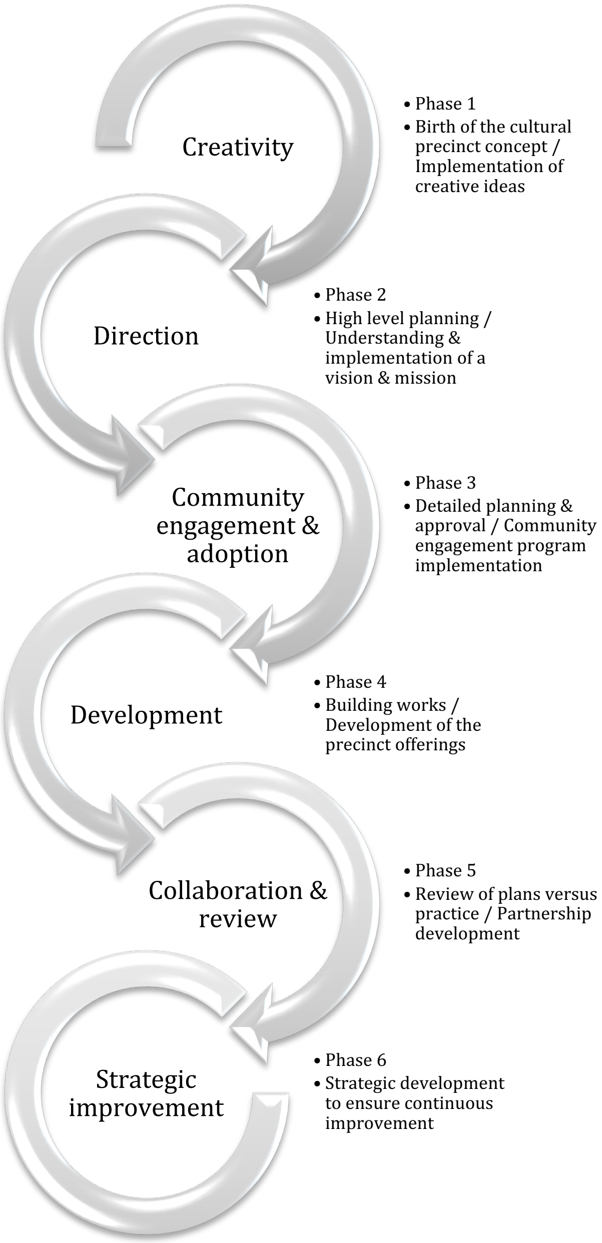

Creativity
• Phase 1
• Birth of the cultural precinct concept / Implementation of creative ideas
Direction
• Phase 2
• High level planning / Understanding & implementation of a vision & mission
Community engagement & adoption
• Phase 3
• Detailed planning & approval / Community engagement program implementation
Development
• Phase 4
• Building works / Development of the precinct offerings
Collaboration & review
• Phase 5
• Review of plans versus practice / Partnership development
Strategic improvement
• Phase 6
• Strategic development to ensure continuous improvement

Figure 2-5: Proposed phases of cultural precinct development

Phase 3: Community engagement and adoption – in this phase, staff or consultants are deployed to consult with the community (community engagement) and develop the detailed concept, budget and architectural plans for the cultural precinct development. Plans are adopted by council. The operating CP is undertaking community engagement.

Phase 4: Development – In this phase the development goes ahead with building works (either ground-up building or refurbishment) and services are installed. The operating precinct is developing its offerings such as programming, staffing and learning opportunities. Learning is an important aspect of the precinct's development with research demonstrating that the place-based learning environment needs to adapt to the precinct's model of operation and its occupants' needs (Sinozic and Tödtling 2015).

Phase 5: Collaboration and review – Services and facilities are in operation and at this point a review of services should occur to compare stated objectives within the master plan and concept plans so as to match final outcomes. The operational cultural precinct is in a phase of partnership development and review of service offerings.

It was acknowledged previously that public administrations require an improved focus on the strategic direction and continuous improvement of services and facilities. An additional phase could be added at this point to address this need:

Phase 6: Strategic improvement – Following review of services and facilities in Phase 5, this phase sees the cultural precinct in place for some time and performance data has been collected showing trends over time. In this phase, strategies for managing weaknesses are developed, aligned and implemented to ensure continuous improvement.

Important here is the recognition that CPs are at different stages of development, and as Greiner attests above, it is important to understand those differences to order to effectively manage the business. Further to this, practitioners and academics alike require:

> *"A recognition of the different phases of development concerning cultural precincts and the necessity to employ performance measures responsive to those levels of maturity. This in turn asserts an opportunity to devise and test classification tools such as a cultural precinct maturity model to assist government officials and community stakeholders in determining a broader grouping of appropriate performance measures. Moreover, the use of such tools may aid communication on and understanding of the selected measures, which itself is a community engagement issue worthy of further investigation"* (Schulz et al. 2018, p.45).

The Greater Sydney Commission (2018), whilst focused specifically on health and education precincts, identified a "maturity pathway" whereby clusters mature into precincts and then into innovation districts, as depicted in Figure 2-6 (in the final (3rd) row). Some caution is required when considering this research model of the maturity pathway and the innovation district as the research comes from industry practice, lacks academic rigour and appears to have developed through a single case study that is not sufficiently explained nor referenced.

However, as an industry document, it is highly relevant to the discussion on development phases and maturity of CPs. Both models compared in Figure 2-6 serve a different purpose in that the first model (1st row) articulates the previously discussed development phases for CPs whilst the second (2nd row) is a model representing the predicted maturity pathway for the health and education industries – with the 3rd row indicating the health and education precinct types associated with that industry model. This industry paper states that current health and education clusters are not guaranteed to reach the diversification and/or ecosystem point of the maturity pathway (Greater Sydney Commission 2018), shown in Figure 2-6 (in the 2nd row). The reference to "clusters" is a reminder of the work of Mould and Comunian (2015) from Section 2.4.1 and the interchangeability of terms such as "cluster" and "precinct". However, the work from the Greater Sydney Commission (2018) implies that a "cluster" is an informal grouping of like-minded services though not stated outright. Of note is the agreement in the two models that "collaboration & review" and "agglomeration" are an indication of growing maturity. Successful collaborations, however, must continually manage tensions and require ongoing team building to maintain the collaborative process (Hodgson et al. 2005). The two models pose useful milestones for potential use in this growing understanding of CPs but require further separate study to confirm their utility.

The term "diversification" in relation to the industry maturity pathway in Figure 2-6 (2nd row), is not extrapolated by the Greater Sydney Commission (2018) though it implies the growth in diverse service provision and it is feasible to tie this diversification to collaboratives that, in the words of Hodgson et al. (2005, p.27), "move beyond the 'usual suspects'". The industry model provides a telling understanding of how government perceives and understands the maturity of a precinct. It makes clear a desire to move from a precinct to innovative district where a diverse range of education and health-related services contribute to innovation in the field. The terminology of the maturity pathway is useful as it suggests a path that is not mandatory but provides signposts and signals to support the maturity of a precinct, whether that be cultural, health and education or otherwise. Given the benefits of applying a maturity model to performance practice, as outlined above, it is useful for researchers to be mindful of how such a model or maturity pathway might be utilised in conjunction with performance measurement and management to improve its efficacy.

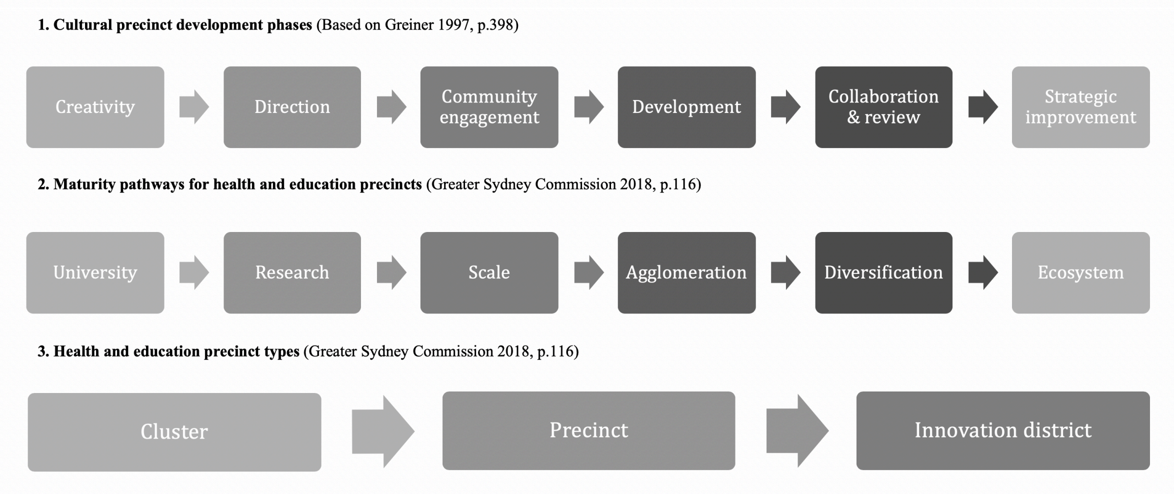

1. Cultural precinct development phases (Based on Greiner 1997, p.398)
Creativity
Direction
Community engagement
Development
Collaboration & review
Strategic improvement
2. Maturity pathways for health and education precincts (Greater Sydney Commission 2018, p.116)
University
Research
Scale
Agglomeration
Diversification
Ecosystem
3. Health and education precinct types (Greater Sydney Commission 2018, p.116)
Cluster
Precinct
Innovation district

Figure 2-6: Comparative maturity pathways and precincts (Greater Sydney Commission 2018; Greiner 1997)

2.4.4 Expectations and assumptions of cultural precincts

There are a range of expectations and assumptions of the role of CPs found within the academic literature and industry practice. A systematic review of CP literature identified three key factors explored in the CP literature: economic benefits, tourism and urban regeneration but the review also indicates that further research was required to explore the impacts of CP developments (Chapain and Sagot-Duvauroux 2018). A USA-based cultural industry document articulates seven key benefits of CPs, including:

> *"Attracting artists and cultural enterprises*
> *Encouraging business and job development*
> *Addressing urban and rural needs*
> *Establishing tourism destinations*
> *Preserving and reusing historic buildings*
> *Enhancing property values*
> *Fostering local cultural development"* (National Assembly of State Arts Agencies 2015, pp.3-4).

However, a dearth of evidence exists in the study of CP benefits (Schulz et al. 2012). It may however be reasonably concluded that from a government perspective CPs are expected to act as a meeting place for a community or tourist destination, as demonstrated in a media release from Cairns where the Chairman of Ports North, Mr Clive Skarott indicated: "'The Precinct will act as a major attractor for Cairns' and the Mayor of Cairns Regional Council states that 'the Cultural Precinct can be designed and operated in a way that will deliver economic benefits and maintain the vital infrastructure and operations of the Port'" (Egerton 2010, p.1). However, research suggests that the economic benefits derived from CPs are not equally distributed throughout a creative community (Martin et al. 2015). Indeed, many workers (with and without trades) are worse-off in a CP (Martin et al. 2015). Moreover, there is limited tangible evidence to support the claims of economic benefits (Macdonnell 2015).

In the city of Albury, NSW, the convergence of a library and museum into a CP was brought about by a belief at a management level that the development would bring "economies of scale, funding imperative, service and skill enhancement and audience development" (Clement 2006, p.15). CPs are believed to encourage economies of scale (Hee et al. 2008). The assumption that smaller organisations, such as local governments, will pay more for services has been discussed in a number of contexts including performance management (Hall 2017), amalgamations (Hanes 2015) and shared services (Kortt et al. 2012). The economies of scale, or what Nuccio and Ponzini (2017) refer to as economies of agglomeration, are somewhat supported in the academic literature (Branzanti 2015; Nuccio and Ponzini 2017) though the literature lacks supporting evidence of performance data to substantiate the claim. A study of the Australian university sector's economies of scale also conveyed surprise at the limited data available to support the notion of economies of scale (Worthington and Higgs 2011). In research undertaken by Clement (2006, p.17), members of the Albury community were asked "what does Albury Cultural Precinct mean to you?". The responses were varied; some not understanding the term "cultural precinct" while others felt that there were benefits in bringing services together including improved accessibility, tourism and economic impact (Clement 2006).

In the Northern Territory the construction of the CP for Katherine was reported as costing $7.4 million (Delahunty 2012). In 2016, the expansion of the Carriageworks CP development in Sydney was estimated to cost over $50 million and aimed to increase creative content and commercial utilisation (Taylor 2016). The high costs, amongst other issues, associated with the development of CPs has often led to unfavourable media coverage for local government (For example, see Anonymous 2003b; Scanlon 2004; Anonymous 2005a; Anonymous 2005b; Creagh 2007; Anonymous 2011; Delahunty 2012; Rankin 2014). A high-profile case was the Glasshouse developed by Port Macquarie-Hastings Council in northern NSW. In 2003, when Port Macquarie-Hastings Council released a vision and model for a cultural centre, including a theatre, art gallery and tourist information centre, community feedback indicated that the new precinct, located near the town square was "wonderful" but was in the wrong location and parking would be limited (Anonymous 2003a). Two years later, the NSW Minister for Local Government, Kerry Hickey met with the council following significant feedback from the community concerning the project (Anonymous 2005c). On this occasion the concerns revolved around location, project management and poor community engagement practices. The Department of Local Government raised concerns about the project costs and the financial sustainability of the CP project (Anonymous 2006) and following approval of the project by the council, they faced fresh, negative media coverage (Creagh 2007). The development of this CP is unique in that the management of the project resulted in a public inquiry (Willan 2008) and, ultimately, the council was placed under public administration (Anonymous 2008; Sanna 2008). The public inquiry found, amongst other things, that the councillors and council staff failed to understand the costs of the project and the ongoing budget required to maintain the facilities (Willan 2008). Further, the council failed to engage the community in planning for the precinct and as a result, failed to provide facilities that met community needs (Willan 2008). The council remained in administration until 2012 (Grimm 2009). In 2009 the Glasshouse was built to a cost of over $50 million and the NSW news program, Stateline, featured the new precinct and the community division related to its development (Grimm 2009). In this program, the precinct was criticised as being in the wrong location, being too costly to develop and maintain, and the design was unsympathetic to the local area. The facilities were designed to take national and international performing arts and art exhibition touring programs, as well as hosting local community performances. In 2012 the Glasshouse was awarded Australia's best performing arts centre (Anonymous 2012a). This came about as the council adopted a vision for the precinct that focused on its national significance, the provision of economic benefits to the region, as well as its role in place-making with commercial, cultural and community activities (Port Macquarie-Hastings Council and Glasshouse Sub-Committee 2014).

Mould and Comunian (2015) express concern in relation to the "short-termism" of many CPs where commercial (short-term) services are prioritised over longer term cultural or community activities, as commercial services would provide, it is argued, greater economic benefits. Nuccio and Ponzini (2017) posited that stakeholder placation, at least in the case of Italian CPs, was more important to officials in the short-term, than ensuring the sustainability and monitoring performance in the long-term. Add to this the complexity of CP developments being managed across different government departments or agencies (Galligan 2008), and you have further difficulty in establishing a sustainable, long-term strategy for CP performance. Similarly, the council's newly developed strategy for the Glasshouse (Port Macquarie-Hastings Council and Glasshouse Sub-Committee 2014) failed to provide PIs in order to measure the performance of the facilities. It did, however, advocate for an assessment to measure the economic impact of the Glasshouse (Port Macquarie-Hastings Council and Glasshouse Sub-Committee 2014). A review of the Port Macquarie-Hastings Council annual reports demonstrate that the small number of PIs related to the Glasshouse remained relatively unchanged over four years, were output focused and did not reference strategy documents (Port Macquarie-Hastings Council 2014a; 2014b; 2014c; 2015a; 2015b; 2015c; 2016a; 2016b; 2016c; 2016d; 2017a; 2017b; 2017c). An understanding of the potential economic impact of the precinct was clearly required prior to the development of the precinct. Failing that, there is no evidence that this economic impact assessment was completed following the development of the 2014 Glasshouse Strategic Plan. This case, uniquely well-documented having been in the media over more than seven years, provides a distinctive understanding of the issues and divergent expectations in the development of a CP in the local government context. Further, it supports academic literature discussed above; namely, that media coverage often portrays negative relative performance information over positive performance information (Dixon et al. 2013). What emerges from the review and analysis of the available documentary evidence from the Glasshouse case study, is that poor community engagement on the preferred options for the CP development, coupled with an unclear understanding of the benefits of the CP caused significant and noteworthy public dissatisfaction with the council. Stakeholders were unclear of the CP's objectives and were not engaged in the decision-making process.

2.4.5 Convergence as a new paradigm for cultural precincts

There are an increasing number of local government authorities investigating the development of new services, facilities and CPs across Australia (Anonymous 2005a; Anonymous 2006; Anonymous 2007; Anonymous 2010b; Ryan 2010; Anonymous 2010a). The move from collaboration to convergence of like-minded facilities such as galleries, museum, libraries, archives and entertainment centres has also gained greater international attention (Victorian Competition & Efficiency Commission 2009; Zorich et al. 2009). Convergence has been experienced internationally, such as in Canada (Cannon 2013), the USA (Given and McTavish 2010) and Hong Kong (Lo et al. 2013), for example. According to Zorich et al (2009, p.11) convergence is the end point on a continuum where cooperation, coordination and collaboration must occur before convergence is possible (See Figure 2-7). Convergence is defined, then, as "a state in which collaboration around a specific function or idea has become so extensive, engrained and assumed that it is no longer recognised by others as a collaborative undertaking" (Zorich et al. 2009, p.12). Convergence is not just about melding physical space but also services, staff and internal processes.

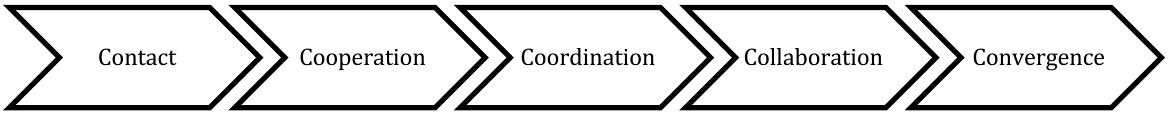


Figure 2-7: The collaboration continuum (Zorich et al. 2009, p.11)

Research indicates that CPs can develop organically; initially developing at a grassroots level (McManus and Carruthers 2014). This is also termed "vernacular" where the "authorship" of the precinct is community-based (Shorthose 2004, p.2). Mould and Comunian (2015) indicate that CP developments slowly moved from organic or informal interventions to more conscious (or engineered (Shorthose 2004)) planning in order to improve socio-economic issues.

Benefits identified by industry professionals for collaborative and converged facilities include increased opportunities to learn from each other and lending to each other (Zorich et al. 2009), reduction of silos (Cannon 2013) and achievement of economies of scale (Hall 2017). Government agencies, such as the Victorian Competition and Efficiency Commission, recognise the benefits of converging facilities that comprise a CP:

> *"including improving service delivery and expanding the scope of services (especially in interactions between service providers), encouraging social connectedness within communities, facilitating access to and participation in activities…, improving efficiency (especially in maintenance costs) and better use of land"* (Victorian Competition & Efficiency Commission 2009, p.xxiii).

In a planning tool for the development of public library buildings in NSW, there is a short section devoted to convergence that describes the benefits of co-location or joint use as including the sharing of resources, encouraging wider community use, improving cost effectiveness, reducing duplication, rationalisation of property portfolios, providing specialisation, reducing staff isolation, increasing hours of operation and increasing security (Library Council of New South Wales 2011). The localisation of similar businesses or facilities for the economic benefit of these activities is discussed by Lorenzen and Frederiken (2008). For example, the development of converged facilities in the City of Wanneroo, Western Australia was driven by economic regeneration, increased community engagement along with cost saving initiatives (Robinson 2011).

It has been argued within the cultural sector that factors driving the move towards convergence of cultural facilities include:

> "•*Cultural and social planning*
>
> •*Cost shifting service delivery to local government*
>
> •*Desire to reduce resources spent on local government services*
>
> •*Desire to improve services*
>
> •*Public expectations*
>
> •*Growing affinities in service delivery agenda*
>
> •*International models*" (Stapleton 2007).

A study (Duff et al. 2013) of converged facilities in Canada and New Zealand found that the impetus for convergence was borne out of a desire to improve customer satisfaction, increased support of professional experience, opportunities for improved technology, budget and administrative efficiencies and holistic collection management. However, CPs may also evolve more consciously out of, as Nuccio and Ponzini (2017, p.419) assert, "the impulse of political agencies". These findings demonstrate a sector belief, which is supported within the academic literature, that converged cultural facilities will be more financially efficient, improve the socio-economic problems in a city, regenerate a flailing urban environment and improve tourism and economic development. What is lacking in the academic discourse and sector discussion is the performance data to confirm or refute the intended benefits of convergence. While some of the factors that drive the development of converged facilities are understood, research on measuring performance against stated convergence aims is lacking.

Within the library, museum and archives sectors strong debate ensues in relation to cultural convergence, as attested to in forums such as the International Conference on the Convergence of Libraries, Archives and Museums (ICLAM) held in February 2011 (Trant 2009; Madsen 2010; Parker 2011; Katre 2011; Prasad 2011; Robinson 2012). Convergence, of course, has its detractors who are concerned with the abandonment of the "ideologies, philosophies, central missions and diverse histories" that make up a cultural facility (Filmer-Sankey 2009). Robinson (2018) found that museums, for example, were adversely impacted with professional expertise compromised as a result of the convergence of (typically) administrative functions. The sector is also concerned by issues of "professional integrity" (Clement 2006, p.15), where professionals within the sector feel that their training and skills will be lost as services are converged and possibly generalised. The tension between the production and consumption of culture is a further challenge for converged cultural facilities (McManus and Carruthers 2014), given that CPs are often generated with strategies designed to increase cultural consumption and production (Montgomery 2003). Further, the production of culture has been found to be of secondary importance to an organisation's desire to create an iconic or flagship CP (Mould and Comunian 2015). Indeed, Mould and Comunian (2015) attest that in recent years many CP developments centre around an architectural flagship. This is borne out in recent Australian examples, such as the Glasshouse in Port Macquarie (Grimm 2009; Anonymous 2012a; Port Macquarie-Hastings Council and Glasshouse Sub-Committee 2014) and, most recently, the Museum of Applied Arts and Sciences (MAAS) project (Deloitte 2017; HillPDA 2017; City of Parramatta 2018; NSW Government 2018; NSW Government and City of Parramatta 2018). Currently, these challenges and issues that have developed in converged CPs are unable to be tested, and performance measures to assess their validity do not exist. Whether one is for or against convergence, the fact remains that as demonstrated in the extant literature, no rigorous performance measurement framework exists for these facilities and coherent and relevant indicators to review performance are lacking.

Very little theory exists to assist councils to measure the benefit of a local government move to develop effective and valued cultural precincts or converged models. Mowbray's (1997) criticism concerning research on Australian local government by the late 1990s is perhaps still relevant in the case of research undertaken on cultural precinct development: "repeated use of claims that are readily falsifiable, or at the very best contestable" (p.255) and continues to be a criticism of international cultural precinct literature in the 2010s (Chapain and Sagot-Duvauroux 2018). It has been shown throughout this chapter that the complexity of cultural precincts, the intangible elements of these facilities and services, the acknowledged complexity of local government and service-based industries, all impact a public administration's ability to effectively measure performance. Rather than see this complexity as a negative or significant challenge to overcome, it is instead argued that this "understood complexity" (Hirschman 1978, p.107) should be recognised as valuable to the cultural precinct and, ipso facto, the contextual nature of this complexity should be acknowledged in any framework formulated to determine performance indicators for cultural precincts.

2.5. SUMMARY: IMPLICATIONS FROM THE LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review has focused on three key literatures including public administration with a local government focus, performance measurement and CPs. Six primary outcomes are evident from this review. Firstly, there is significant research on the challenges and future trends to impact local government around the world but the role and impact of cultural services within local government is not addressed adequately within the body of available literature. Secondly, the literature on performance measurement in government is also extensive but indicates governments' development and use of PIs is ineffective and in need of change. Thirdly, CP development is a relatively new area of research with limited literature examining such development and operation, even though such precincts have been developed over many decades. Fourth, performance measurement of cultural facilities and services in local government is very underdeveloped and perfunctory at best and there is also a need to account for the maturity of CPs in determining what PIs to deploy. Fifth, performance measurement frameworks need to deal with a set of challenging dichotomies relevant to the local government and broader public administration sector. Such frameworks also need to account for stakeholder diversity and acknowledge the local context. Finally, there are some extant decision-making frameworks that can be partly useful in PI decision-making but none on their own, adequately deals with PI development nor accounts sufficiently for CPs in the local government context. However, one quality-oriented framework of QFD and the resultant HoQ, together with relevant adaptations and inclusions of other frameworks, encapsulates and embraces all these challenges of the phenomenon and the context of local government. The following discussion will elaborate slightly on each of these primary outcomes of this literature review.

The study of public administration and local government literature internationally, highlights the broad scope of local government service provision. Over many decades, local government service provision in the Australian context has grown from core services such as roads, rates and rubbish to include cultural facilities and services such as libraries, art galleries and museums. However, the income base of local government has not kept pace with the growing service scope, infrastructure has failed to be maintained or renewed (infrastructure renewal crisis), State and Federal governments increasingly shift costs to the third tier of government, and community expectations have intensified. The financial precariousness of local government in NSW lead to reform and amalgamations, not unlike other Australian States and local government in Europe and America. Academic literature in public administration theory demonstrated a ground-swell in the corporatisation of public administrations; an attempt to improve the effectiveness, efficiency and quality of services and facilities in an effort to improve the financial sustainability of government. Within the study of governance there was a similar move in the 1990s to operate public administrations more like private business with a focus on transparency and meeting community needs. As was acknowledge in the studied literature on experimentation in public administration, there is clear benefit in contextualising a study to support the research. It is within this context of local government and its inherent challenges that CPs are considered within this thesis.

Consideration now turns to the role performance measurement and indicators have played in local government and the broader public administration setting. The literature demonstrates that performance measurement in local government is now understood as critical to the industry, with a direct correlation between the growth of government corporatisation and the implementation of performance measurement systems. The literature also indicates that PIs in government and local government need to be holistic in order to get a comprehensive view of performance. Government indicators are generally output-focused, easy to measure, unambiguous but lacking complexity or links to strategic direction. Council officers and customer are rarely involved in their development and performance data is often not actively used to improve performance. For all the challenges of performance measurement there is documented benefits. The service industry found that good performance data collection and communication increased transparency and accountability. This too was recognised in the public administration literature, in that a lack of performance data could lead to increased community mistrust. Given the benefits inherent in deploying relevant PIs to community trust, strategic direction and continuous improvement, it behooves local government to develop relevant, holistic indicators to provide a comprehensive view of CP performance.

CPs are defined in this thesis as a clearly defined geographical area that contains facilities and services related to artistic and intellectual activity but can be termed districts, hubs or quarters in different countries or disciplines. Research suggests that CPs include a place, an activity and the construction of meaning. Activities, the literature suggests, taking place in CPs usually evolve over time but are generally a mix of services. Literature on CPs is limited and has tended to focus on the town planning aspects of their development, which generally covers the elements of place and meaning construction. However, “place” includes the construction and development of buildings. Drawing from facility management theory, such buildings need to remain in a satisfactory condition which would include its relevance, functionality, safety, reliability and cost efficiency. All of which, if managed correctly, would avoid the asset renewal crisis currently faced in the Australian local government sector. Homogeneity in CP development can lead to poor performance as the precinct should rely on a sense of place evolving from the community up. This notion of the creation of meaning at a community-level is key to Malpas' theory of place and supports the CP elements: place and meaning construction. A sense of place can be guided by the activities available or social offerings, its accessibility and the aesthetics of the place. More limited is the literature from the growing discipline of landscaping that shines light on how the landscape informs people's psychological and physical interaction with place. Cultural studies literature similarly points to place-making and its role in developing identity and a sense of belonging as key to successful CP development. Indeed, in Australia, understanding and defining 'place' has become a principal component of strategic planning in local government. CPs are clearly multifaceted entities, affecting or impacting both the physical and social well-being of their communities and in that complexity, and in recognition of the limited literature concerning CPs, further investigation of this phenomenon is important.

The limited extant literature on CPs offers an array of benefits related to CP development and their operation. They are said to impact tourism, improve quality of life, assist in the regeneration or activation of public spaces, and increase economic development. Documents reviewed from the local government sector also indicate benefits concerning the attraction of artists, the preservation of heritage buildings, local cultural development, the use of CPs by a wider audience or broader community, rationalisation of a council's property portfolio, a reduction in staff isolation, and the improved hours of operation and security of assets. Both academic literature and local government documents from the Australian context indicate an expectation of the achievement of economies of scale and resource sharing as a result of CP development. However, in practice, the production and consumption of culture appears secondary to the development of an iconic building or place. CP developments are often driven by vocal communities, a need for economic regeneration and cost-savings. Negative media coverage of the development of CPs in Australia have particularly focused on the high cost of construction, concerns about the ongoing financial sustainability of the precinct, poor location selection, lack of appropriate community engagement and the development of an iconic building that is not in keeping with the sense of place. This literature also suggests that CPs suffer from "short-termism" where bureaucrats are more interested in placating vocal communities rather than ensuring a financially sustainable precinct where appropriate performance data is collected, and performance monitoring and continuous improvement is undertaken. Further, the available literature does not focus on both community and staff understanding of CP benefits. Clearly, a more in-depth and richer understanding of CP benefits is required from both internal and external stakeholder perspectives. Performance data is also very much needed to assess the benefit claims made in these academic and practitioner literatures.

This CP literature also demonstrates clearly that performance measurement of CPs is, at best, insufficient. In fact, there is very little research on CP performance measurement. What is reported is that performance data on CPs is used internally (within the authority), passively with little active improvement in CP facilities and services, focused almost entirely on social/cultural measures, is only output-focused and lacks alignment with organisational strategies or precinct objectives. Moreover, the performance measurement of CPs do not sufficiently account for the maturity levels of these precincts. These performance measurement limitations impact an organisation's ability to appropriately learn about their operations, to reflect on them with data that is meaningful and through that, thereafter, to generate operational changes or improvements that will positively impact performance. Performance measurement is also made more difficult for CPs due to the intangibility of many elements of a precinct's operations. Therefore, based on the limited and underdeveloped literature available concerning CP performance measurement, it is reasonably suggested that more insights concerning this phenomenon are important and necessary for organisations to be able to effectively measure their performance and initiate and drive changes that meet with stakeholders' needs.

This thesis contends that any performance measurement framework developed and employed in the public administration setting must effectively handle the challenges inherent to the industry. A performance measurement framework for CPs must reflect the public administration context within which these precincts are developed and operated. Key to this context are the dichotomies faced by public administrations which were studied throughout this literature review and summarised below in Figure 2-8. The dichotomies express the explicit or implicit tensions within public administrations. They give academics and practitioners guidance in understanding public administration from different perspectives. These dichotomies show some similarities including public value theory, lean thinking and Aulich's heuristic, where the externally facing customer satisfaction/quality/community needs compete against the internally facing efficient service delivery/sustainability, shown in Figure 2-8. Stakeholder theory informs our understanding of a stakeholder's oppositional nature whilst reminding us that stakeholders also have a mutual desire for success, important in consideration of the formulation of a performance measurement framework. The theories outlined in Figure

2-8 are, therefore, critical to later discussions in Chapters 4 and 5 when examining the findings of this present study.

A performance measurement framework not only needs to deliberate on the dichotomies of public administration theory, but also needs to account for the diversity of the local government sector, to ensure the tool provides a balanced measurement approach, depicted in Figure 2-8. This dichotomy is represented by the learnings from the BSC and QBL where non-financial measures are utilised in conjunction with financial measures. Performance measurement needs an external, community-based approach alongside internally focused measures. These dichotomies similarly play out in a study of the role of various stakeholders in the public administration and local government settings. The literature review established that both external customers and internal staff and elected members are affected by and/or are concerned with CP developments and operations. These stakeholders are not homogenous, they are demographically different, will change over time and their expectations similarly grow. Stakeholders have different levels of learning, capability and access to information. Stakeholder theory argues that while some stakeholder groups may be oppositional and even competitive, they will ultimately have a desire for success. Performance information will be perceived in different ways but a lack of understanding of performance data, asymmetric information (particularly for elected members) and poor communication can negatively impact decision-making. All stakeholders, research suggests, would benefit from a greater knowledge of performance information to better understand the organisation and improve decision-making. Stakeholder engagement in the ground-up development of performance measures would increase knowledge, decrease asymmetric information, improve understanding of community needs, inform choices and improve the successful implementation of a performance measurement system.

Public value theory

Customer satisfaction ←→ Public servant efficient service delivery

Stakeholder theory

Communal desire for success ←→ Oppositional or competitiveness

Lean thinking

Quality ←→ Efficiency and sustainability

Aulich's heuristic

Democracy: customer needs ←→ Bureaucracy: efficiency

Balanced performance measurement

Non-financial measures ←→ Financial measures

External, community-based measures ←→ Internal, service measures

Public administration stakeholders

External customers ←→ Internal staff and elected members

Figure 2-8: Theoretical dichotomies relevant to a performance measurement framework

Existing frameworks show some value in the development of PIs for the measurement of CP performance. TQM and quality function deployment are shown to identify stakeholder requirements and successfully align these with organisational objectives, though traditionally these frameworks were used to guide product design, manufacturing and marketing. QFD's appeal is in the strong development of the customer voice as the issue framer or evaluator which supports the setting of priorities and importance/performance rankings. In fact, the VoC is acknowledged in the extant literature as a critical component of the resulting HoQ. However, the literature does not acknowledge how the diversity of voices are to be carefully developed. Any process that fails to reflect the divergent views of stakeholders will result in a sub-standard framework and outcomes. QFD has had limited use in the community and cultural sector but the research available, particularly in the areas of policy creation and the setting of strategic direction, suggests that QFD has utility in this space, can support the complexity of intangible benefits and, with the support of BSC and QBL, can handle the complexity and depth of data inherent in CPs. Based on the demonstrable utility of the HoQ for this present study, the traditional HoQ was engaged, contextualised and adapted to meet the needs of this present study.

Ground-up development of performance measurement programs are more likely to be implemented and lead to positive change and continuous improvement. If both internal and external stakeholders are involved in the engagement process, the results might also help reduce asymmetric information and raise performance. There are strong benefits in developing a genuine engagement process that effectively captures the VoC. In the following chapter, an engagement process is defined, refined and implemented as part of a participative action research approach (See Section 3.3.6).

Overall, this review has identified significant gaps in knowledge concerning: current understandings of CPs beyond their role in urban planning and revitalisation schemes; how CPs are performance measured; how PIs for CPs can be developed; and how stakeholders involved in CPs can be effectively engaged in developing PIs. With the conceptual framework, which both informs and guides the activities of this study, now established, the following chapter will elaborate on the methodological approach utilised in this study.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter sets out the methodology employed to interrogate the research questions outlined in Section 1.1. This methodology chapter covers the approach pursued by the researcher and the overarching epistemology guiding the research (Stokes 2011). Based on the work of Crotty (1998), Figure 3-1 outlines the epistemology, methodology and methods utilised in this study. The diagram depicts how each element influences the next within the research process that embraced an overarching constructionist epistemology and used a mixed method approach. Figure 3-1 also illustrates that the mixed method approach employed case studies, document searches, interviews, surveys, focus groups, quality function deployment and a participative action research stage to source and analyse the data. The use of such a broad range of methods ultimately underpinned the successful development of performance indicators for the case study cultural precincts (CPs) and a performance indicator decision-making framework, the core research objectives of this study. The framework adopted in this study refined and enhanced a traditional house of quality (HoQ) for application as a performance indicator decision-making tool, known here as PIHoQ; while the engagement process is based on a participative action research or PAR approach. The multiple outcomes of this study, the cultural precinct performance indicators, the framework and engagement process, are encapsulated and referred to in this research as an assemblage: the performance indicator cultural precinct assemblage or PICPA. In short, PIHoQ + PAR = PICPA. Each of the elements illustrated in Figure 3-1 are addressed in turn within this chapter.

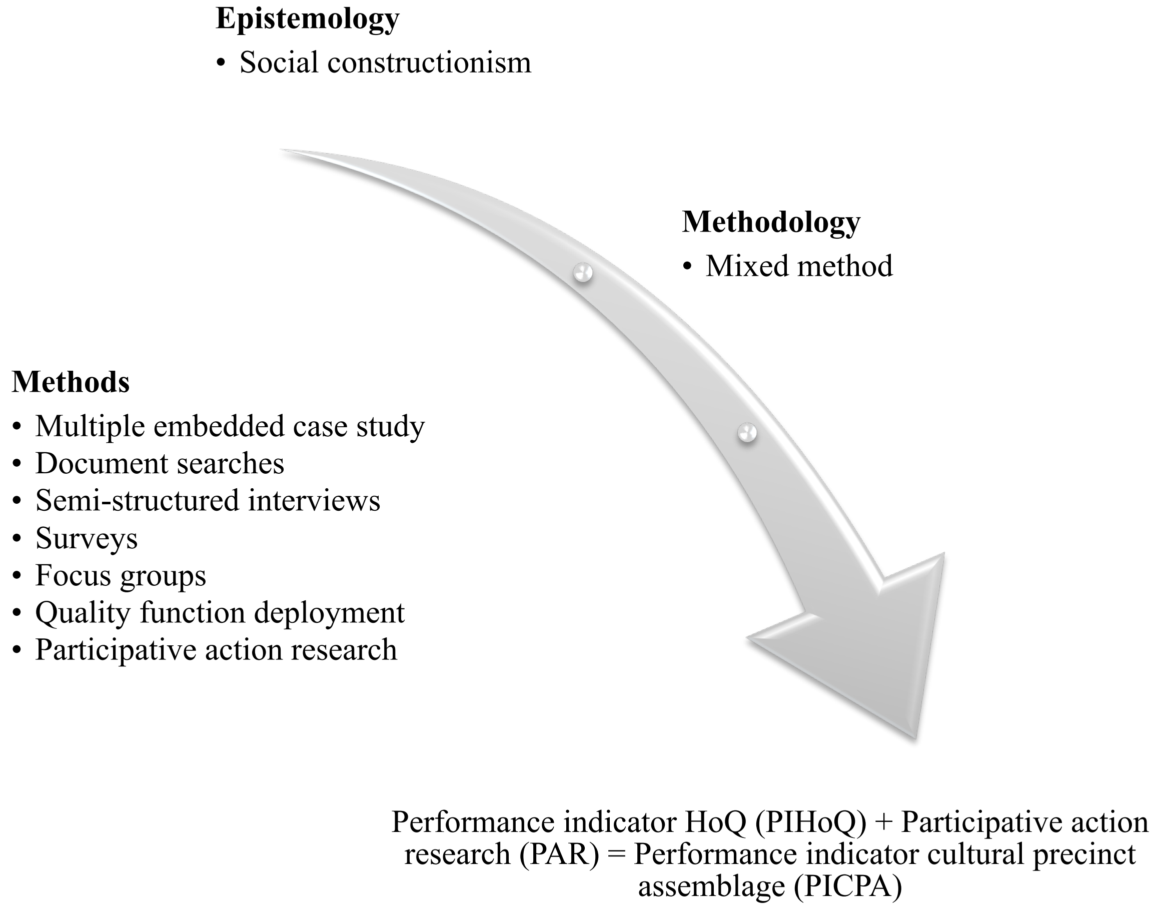

Epistemology
• Social constructionism
Methodology
• Mixed method
Methods
• Multiple embedded case study
• Document searches
• Semi-structured interviews
• Surveys
• Focus groups
• Quality function deployment
• Participative action research
Performance indicator HoQ (PIHoQ) + Participative action research (PAR) = Performance indicator cultural precinct assemblage (PICPA)

Figure 3-1: Elements of the research methodology

3.2. EPISTEMOLOGY: SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONISM

In Section 1.2.1. it was extrapolated that the epistemological framework for this research is social constructionism where meaning is created (Crotty 1998) and is derived from the social context (Berger and Luckmann 1979). A seminal work on social constructionism, *The Social Construction of Reality* (Berger and Luckmann 1979), established a framework to understand both the dynamic creation of meaning and the difficulty in questioning already established meaning (Hirsch and Boal 2000). In this perspective, the researcher considers there to be no universal truth and truth is inductively constructed, according to context, over time. This belief assumes that knowledge does not consist of predetermined facts (Stokes 2011); that knowledge should be understood as a social construction within the "every-day" rather than having its beginnings in theoretical ideas (Berger and Luckmann 1979) and that theory, or "theoretical metalanguage", is borne of everyday knowledge (Crotty 1998, p.57). The epistemology assumes that meaning is created through the language of the research participants (Blaikie and Priest 2017). However, the theory has its detractors including Peterson (2012) who notes the possibility of further complexity when studying "innate" knowledge in the study of psychology. Indeed, it has been acknowledged that the study of performance measurement was firstly and predominately undertaken within a positivist epistemology (Bititci et al. 2012). There is recognition that utilisation of the interpretivist tradition, of which social constructionism is a part, would aid our understanding of performance measurement (Bititci et al. 2012). Notwithstanding the complexity of the epistemology, the assumptions of social constructionism underpin the research undertaken herein, acknowledging that the development of PIs and an effective framework supporting such developments require flexibility to incorporate and respond to different contexts to be both relevant and useful in any circumstance. As such, epistemologically, the PIs and decision-making framework are continuous works in progress; that as facts change and knowledge is re-interpreted, so too will the PIs, and the framework itself may be adjusted to suit the context and interpretation of those involved.

This epistemological approach to this phenomenon also embraces multiple and often diverse stakeholder interpreted meanings (Crotty 1998) and that those meanings are created in the social context within which the stakeholders' exist (Berger and Luckmann 1979). The necessity to actively engage with and value those multiple meanings concerning this phenomenon was also a key consideration in this research. Alternatively, any normative or positivist approach to this issue (if one existed) may erroneously reflect and relegate such variation to irrelevancy wherein key localised socio-cultural influences or determinants of PIs may be excluded. Furthermore, Jacobs and Manzi (2000) call attention to a further benefit of social constructionism in management research: its recognition of contested meaning in the context of power relations in management; where individuals hold varying levels of power which impact knowledge and meaning in a context. This had particular relevance in this research where key decision-makers held varying degrees of power in the local government context, requiring multiple levels of inquiry by the researcher in order to understand the contested meanings applied in relation to CPs. Indeed, the very meaning of “local” within the context of local government is contested and ever-evolving (Cochrane 2016) within the social constructionist framework. It was, therefore, useful within this research to utilise a methodology to enquire and analyse commonly held assumptions with an understanding that meaning is created within a context and time.

With two exceptions, within the extant academic literature the utilisation or development of PIs or performance measures from a social constructionism perspective, is not evident. The work of Jacobs and Manzi (2000) is one exception in this academic space. Jacobs and Manzi (2000) examined the implementation of performance management within housing management using a social constructionist approach. They concluded that, from this epistemological frame, the utilisation of PIs changes power and the means of control within an organisation. The second article by German and Parker (2019) reflects on the contextualisation of social benefit and the challenge of measuring this benefit in light of social constructionism. This current study will thus add to this very limited body of work that takes a constructivist approach to performance measurement and management in organisations.

In performing this study, this epistemological frame proved to be highly relevant to the phenomenon under investigation and the empirical contexts in which the project was conducted. It therefore sensibly and appropriately informed the choices and guided the conduct of the research methodologies and methods deployed, and the data analysis and theory building activities which followed.

3.3. METHODOLOGY: MIXED METHODS

This study called on a range of qualitative and quantitative methods to best answer the research questions (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004) and maximise the contribution to practice (Molina-Azorin et al. 2017). The mixed methods approach was established in the 1980s and 1990s, particularly in the fields of management, education and health services, see for example Creswell (2014). In research conducted on public administration papers published between 2001 and 2010 in four leading journals, researchers found that 37.9% of papers took a qualitative approach, 29.2% undertook quantitative research with very few, 5.9%, utilising mixed methods (Groeneveld et al. 2015). Turning specifically to the study of performance management, this same paper found that 46.4% of studies utilised quantitative methods for data collection (Groeneveld et al. 2015). Groeneveld et al. (2015) suggest further analysis of mixed methods in future public administration research, given its low utilisation in past research papers. Turner et. al. (2017), warns researchers to carefully select mixed methods that do not have similar limitations, in order for the mixed methods to strengthen the data capture and findings. A mixed methods approach allows for both “exploration and confirmation” of the data (Denzin and Lincoln 2008, p.12); developing a stronger understanding of the research questions by combining qualitative and quantitative approaches (Creswell 2014). While this approach does not guarantee greater rigour or superior research (De Loo and Lowe 2011), it does provide the researcher with a greater variety of methods to suit the research objectives rather than become confined to either qualitative or quantitative methods. Rigour in the research occurs by adhering to the theoretical foundation and drawing together both qualitative and quantitative data within a triangulation design to compare and contrast the data during the analysis period (Cavana et al. 2001). Divergent research strategies (Turner et al. 2017) were utilised in this methodological process to offset the limitations of one approach with the strengths of another. For example, semi-structured interviews and focus groups were employed with internal and external stakeholders respectively, to capture deep and rich data on the perceived VoC. A document search was used to explore current practice in local government on documented beliefs on the VoC and compare it to the perceived VoC from the interviews and focus groups, while surveys were implemented at appropriate points in the research to understand importance and satisfaction priorities and to generate reflective learning and knowledge development in research participants.

As outlined above, qualitative approaches were useful in the development of the VoC attributes; utilising semi-structured interviews, focus groups and PAR sessions to obtain the necessary data. This qualitative approach allowed for discovery and exploration of constructed CP attributes (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004). On the other hand, and in order to allow for effective comparison of data and analysis in the development of the PI decision-making framework, quantitative approaches were useful, for example, with the utilisation of a survey to prioritise a range of VoC attributes (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004). As indicated in Chapter 2, QFD was engaged as a formative framework in this study, and this approach traditionally requires qualitative methods, particularly in the development of the VoC, and this sole use of qualitative methods has been seen as a drawback of QFD (Bouchereau and Rowlands 2000). Thus, a range of research has utilised or advocated for mixed methods to enhance the QFD approach, as summarised in Table 3-1 below.

Mixed method examples	Research
Utilisation of fuzzy logic, artificial neural networks and the Taguchi method together with qualitative methods	Bouchereau and Rowlands (2000)
Customer requirements in qualitative terms and service requirements in quantitative terms	Bernal et al. (2009)
Integration of Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (MBNQA) and a balanced scorecard (BSC)	Chen (2011)
Use of questionnaires, interviews and Grey relational analysis	Chen and Chou (2011)
Focus group brainstorming, critical-incident interviews and Likert scale questionnaire	Chin et al. (2001)
Action research, case study and quality function deployment with analytical hierarchy process	Dey et al. (2015)
Assessment of a range of methods to develop the voice of the customer, including: • Direct needs evaluation • Needs ranking (high to low) • $100 test • Analytical hierarchy process • 1-2-3 prioritisation	Enríquez et al. (2004)
Mind mapping and affinity charting	Gerst (2004)
Usage survey and benchmarking	Ginn and Zairi (2005)
Surveys, content analysis and benchmarking	González et al. (2011)
Surveys, interviews, affinity and relation diagrams, customer window quadrant and action plan development	González et al. (2004)
SWOT analysis, balanced scorecard and use of The Art of Business Management Sun Tzu	Lee and Sai On Ko (2000)
Brainstorming, focus groups and document searches	Pitman et al. (1996)

Table 3-1: Mixed method approaches in quality function deployment

With recognition of some prior research involving QFD utilising both qualitative and quantitative techniques, as shown in Table 3-1, this study employed a triangulation design, comparing and contrasting qualitative and quantitative results to both validate or expand knowledge on phenomenon (Creswell and Plano Clark 2006). Analysis of the data required a merging of the data-sets (Creswell 2014) into an adapted PI HoQ, later to be termed performance indicator house of quality (PIHoQ).

Following a literature review, multiple case studies were sourced and engaged. Five distinct phases of primary research were undertaken, and these are illustrated in Figure 3-2. Due to a range of access and availability issues and context changes, these multiple cases took an extended period of time to complete, i.e. between 2013 and 2018; which is also consistent with previous research that found a mixed methods approach in organisations could have challenges associated with long time frames (Molina-Azorin et al. 2017). The extended period of time to undertake the data collection was due to the complexity of each research phase with each phase dependent on the completion of the first before the next data collection phase could begin. Also, for phases 2, 3 and 5 significant time was required before each phase to submit each ethics application, obtain approvals from councils to participate, source participants for phases 2-3 and then also separately for phase 5, and find mutually convenient times to undertake the data collection phases. The timeframe was further impacted by the 2016 NSW local government amalgamations which saw the merger of some participating councils. Due to the amalgamations, previously involved or interested councils were no longer available to participate in the research due to merger priorities. As a result, participating councils in phase 5 were re-assessed and new participants were sourced. Phases 1-4 assisted in the development of the VoC, technical requirements (TRs) and PIs within the house of quality. The final phase, phase 5 sought to assess and refine an adapted PIHoQ and confirm the utility of a PAR approach to address this phenomenon conjoined with the PIHoQ, plus also develop a set of PIs for each of the participating councils.

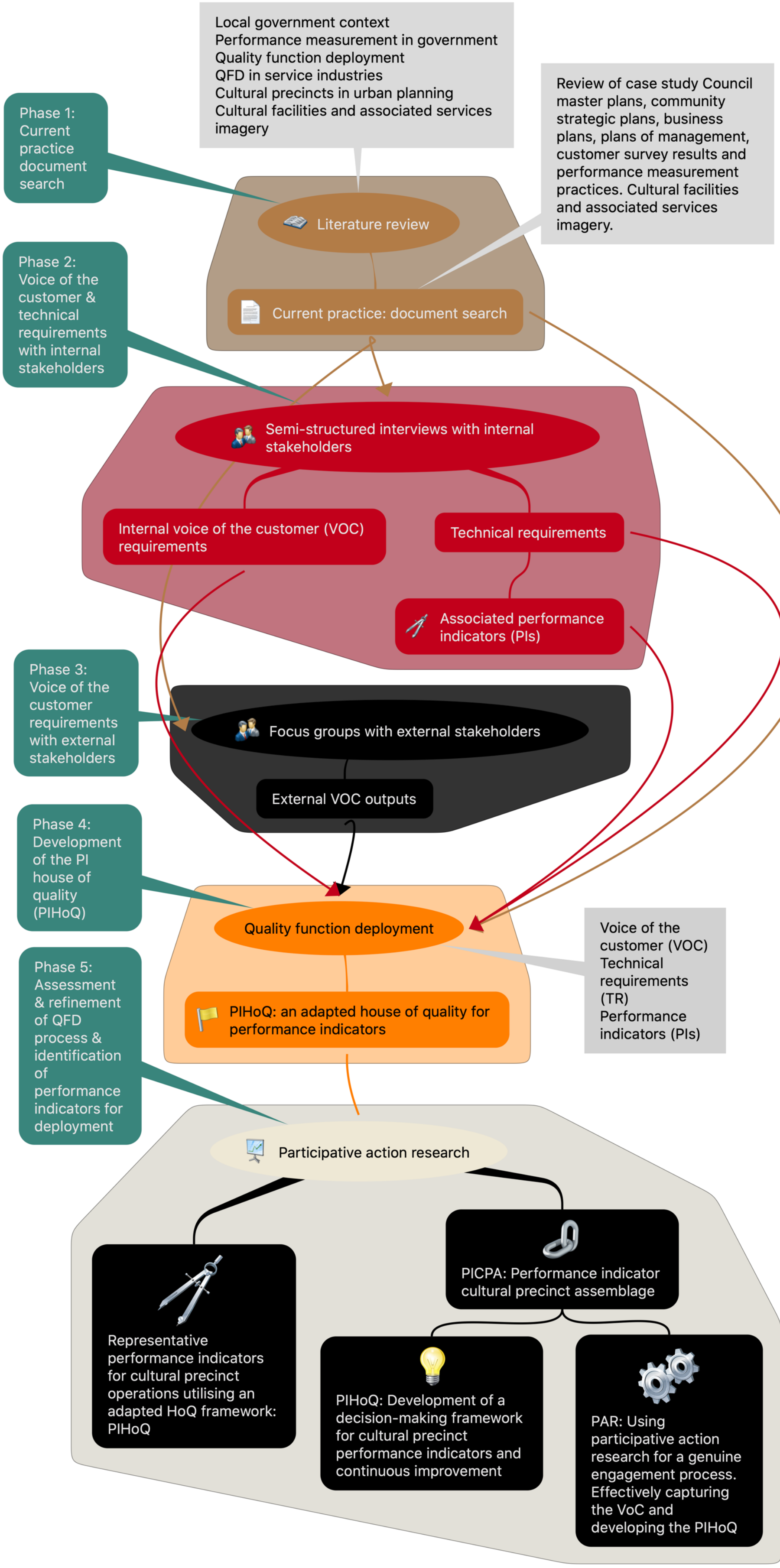

Local government context
Performance measurement in government
Quality function deployment
QFD in service industries
Cultural precincts in urban planning
Cultural facilities and associated services imagery
Phase 1: Current practice document search
Review of case study Council master plans, community strategic plans, business plans, plans of management, customer survey results and performance measurement practices. Cultural facilities and associated services imagery.
Literature review
Current practice: document search
Phase 2: Voice of the customer & technical requirements with internal stakeholders
Semi-structured interviews with internal stakeholders
Internal voice of the customer (VOC) requirements
Technical requirements
Associated performance indicators (PIs)
Phase 3: Voice of the customer requirements with external stakeholders
Focus groups with external stakeholders
External VOC outputs
Phase 4: Development of the PI house of quality (PIHoQ)
Quality function deployment
Voice of the customer (VOC)
Technical requirements (TR)
Performance indicators (PIs)
PIHoQ: an adapted house of quality for performance indicators
Phase 5: Assessment & refinement of QFD process & identification of performance indicators for deployment
Participative action research
PICPA: Performance indicator cultural precinct assemblage
Representative performance indicators for cultural precinct operations utilising an adapted HoQ framework: PIHoQ
PIHoQ: Development of a decision-making framework for cultural precinct performance indicators and continuous improvement
PAR: Using participative action research for a genuine engagement process. Effectively capturing the VoC and developing the PIHoQ

Figure 3-2: Mixed method flow chart

The phase 1 of the research incorporated a literature review coupled with council document searches which identified relevant theory, sought to understand the local government context, current performance measurement policies and practices, the TRs of CPs, the available and relevant PIs and in all, identified knowledge gaps in the academic literature and in current practice. The exploration of councils' documents and reports, newspaper articles and relevant secondary research in relation to CPs and performance measurement in their local government environments helped to understand the establishment and chronological development of CPs in each of the participating case study councils (Pettigrew 1997). Thereby, one could appreciate the technical, political and social motivations behind these developments and how these factors have influenced the performance management of these facilities. All of the information attained in phase 1 informed and/or guided the activities in the subsequent phases of the research.

Phase 2 sought the perspectives of local government, internal key decision makers (such as elected members/politicians, General Managers, Directors and Managers of cultural facilities and town planning) through semi-structured interviews and the development and use of a survey tool applied across four councils. The internal stakeholders developed the voice of the internal customer and refined and added to the TRs initially developed in phase 1. The developed survey tool was used to prioritise these internal voices and this activity led to the final internal VoC outputs. The TRs were illuminated by way of a literature review and the data collection from the semi-structured interviews with these internal stakeholders. PIs were allocated to the TRs in this research phase by the researcher. The interviewees then refined the PIs and reviewed and provided commentary on the allocation of PIs to TRs. These PIs were developed as a result of the literature review and document searches of current practice in the first research phase. The data captured in this phase formed an incomplete set of VoCs and TRs (and associated PIs) but provided the initial critical data for use in a quality function deployment HoQ.

Phase 3 of the research brought forth the voice of the external stakeholder: the community perspective, through two focus groups and a developed survey tool applied across two councils. The external stakeholders consisted of users of cultural facilities, behind the scenes users of facilities and special interest groups associated with cultural facilities. Once the voices from this group were sourced, the developed survey tool was used to have them prioritise those voices and similar to phase 2, this led to a set of final external VoC outputs. As Figure 3-2 demonstrates, the data captured from these two perspectives in phases 2 and 3, the internal and external stakeholders, crucially informed the development of the PIHoQ for utilisation in the next research phase.

In phase 4, using the data from the previous three phases, a single house of quality was created and the voice of the customer and technical requirements and identified performance indicators were located into the house of quality specifically for the development of performance indicators for cultural precincts, thus becoming the initial performance indicator house of quality or PIHoQ. Based on information available in the first phase literature review and document study, the balanced scorecard and quadruple bottom line categorisations were applied to the technical requirements and the "competitive ranking" in the traditional house of quality was replaced by an importance-performance analysis. These enhancements were implemented by the researcher to help assess and refine the cultural precinct performance indicators, the PIHoQ and the participative action research process in the final research phase.

In phase 5, the PIHoQ and the derived inputs of the voice of the customer, technical requirements and performance indicators were then applied in a series of consecutive participative action research activities with two councils. The interventions were undertaken in order to engage both external and internal stakeholders in a learning, reflection and refinement process, to understand the issues associated with the PIHoQ, to assess and refine it and to identify a set of performance indicators for cultural precinct development and operation. The participative action research cycles underpinned this essential customer driven refinement process whereby participants jointly customised their PI selections to a local context and confirmed the utility and industry relevance of the PI development process, the PIHoQ framework and the participative action research engagement process.

The following sections provide specific detail of each of the mixed methods applied in this research.

3.3.1. Case study

Case studies were used in this research to capture an in-depth knowledge of current practices and stakeholder values of council-operated CPs. Case studies were also considered appropriate given that the research questions required rich description and in-depth study (Yin 2012) to understand what drives the creation of CPs and what measures stakeholders should use to determine performance.

In order to progress a successful case study and address issues related to researcher bias and an "inability to generalize the case study's findings to any broader level" (Yin 2012, p.6), the following aspects of case study research were applied in the research process:

1. Defining the case
2. Selecting the case study design
3. Using theory in the design (Yin 2012, pp.6-10) .

Yin advises that the "case" should be defined and that definition should be maintained unless early data collection requires a well-thought out change to the defined case (Yin 2012). The case may be extreme, unique, revelatory or everyday but should offer a compelling theoretical contribution (Yin 2012). In the current study, these cases were examples of the everyday; relevant because they offered an opportunity to understand a previously unexamined phenomenon: CP PI development and the processes therein undertaken in their development within a local government context. The utilisation of these cases could develop a theoretical proposition about the phenomenon that could, in turn, be further examined and tested in other contexts beyond CP developments and/or local government by future researchers.

The design of the case study provides guidance on the number of cases within the research project; where the single case study design offers a simpler implementation while the multiple case study provides greater confidence in the findings whilst being more difficult to implement (Yin 2012). There is recognition, however, that there is no prescribed appropriate number of cases in order to ensure confidence in the research findings (Yin 2012). The utilisation of theory may be helpful, Yin (2012) advises, in the development of the methodology and the units of analysis for the case study design; though the researcher must be prepared to challenge the theory in light of the research findings. These elements were appraised in detail and documented below. This approach ensured the rigour of the research method and clearly defined the intended process in relation to the research questions.

3.3.1.1. Define the case

The cases for this study were local government (councils) in New South Wales (NSW), Australia where CPs were developed and in a state of continuous improvement, in development, or proposed for development. These cases were selected from the State of NSW with the understanding that the Australian local government sector is not homogenous and has developed differently from State to State (Grant and Drew 2017). Each case was an "everyday" occurrence, as outlined above and offered alternate study contexts or representative environments in the local government setting. As discussed earlier, a cultural precinct refers to a clearly defined geographical area that contains facilities and services related to artistic and intellectual activity. When local government refers to a CP, they define a particular geographical boundary, as exemplified in Figure 3-3, showing the City of Newcastle's CP. As the illustration demonstrates, their CP is a large geographical area, bordered by a number of streets and the ocean and may contain both facilities (buildings) and green, open space.

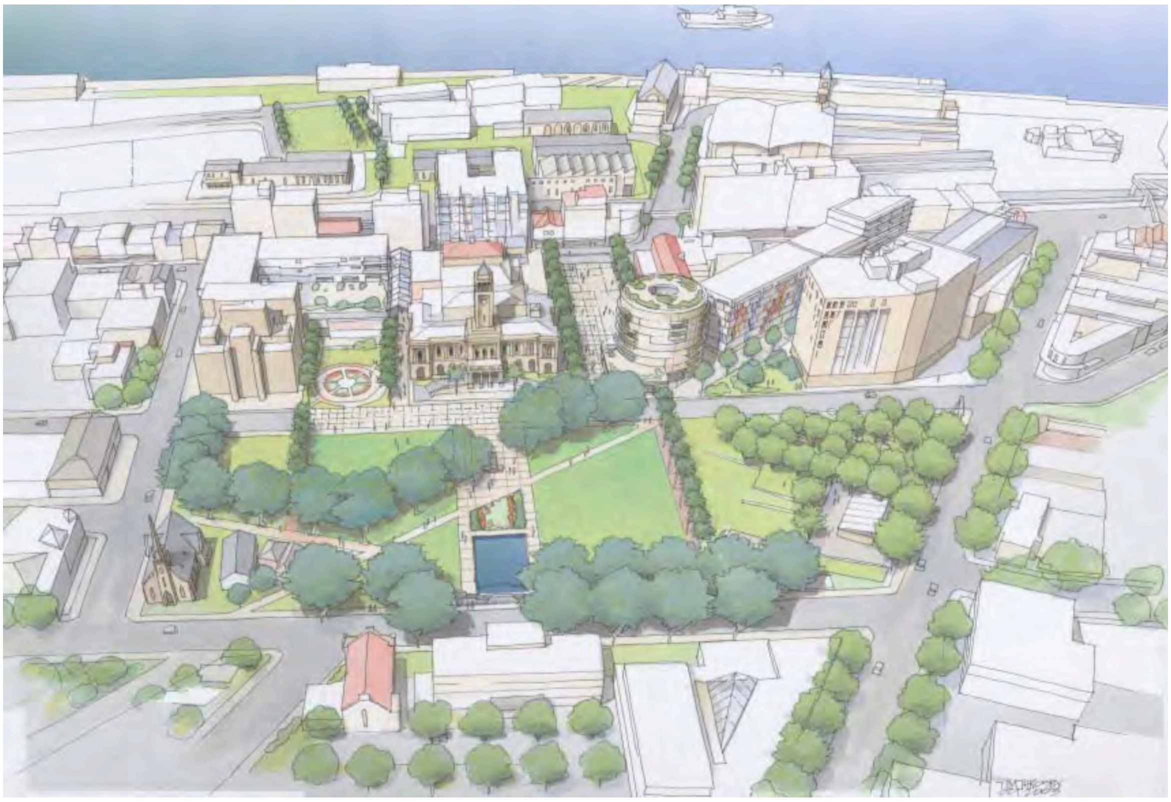


Figure 3-3: Aerial view of City of Newcastle's cultural precinct (NSW Government Architect and Newcastle City Council 2004, p.25)

For each council the components that make up the artistic or intellectual activity can differ slightly. For the City of Newcastle, for example, their civic and CP included a city hall, theatre, library, art gallery, museum and park (NSW Government Architect and Newcastle City Council 2004). For Council C (case study participating council located in the Riverina-Murray region of NSW), the components included a library, museum, an entertainment centre, theatre and heritage buildings (Council C 2010). Penrith City Council CP incorporates a hall, community centre, former Council chambers, arts and craft studio, senior citizens centre, pre-school and youth centre (Penrith City Council 2010). In the present study, the facilities and services considered part of a CP were defined by the documentation and reports provided by the case study councils involved. The selection of case councils is further elucidated below in Section 3.3.1.2.

3.3.1.2. Case study design

The selection of the case councils is based on the case study design, that being a multiple-case study (Yin 2012) with five councils involved. For a summary of the multiple-case study design, see Figure 3-4 below.

The multiple-case study design was relevant in this research because it encouraged multiple lines of enquiry (Yin 2009) and allowed for comparison and contrast between the cases. Figure 3-4 indicates the multiple councils' contexts within which the research was undertaken and whether in each case it had a pre-existing CP. For each case, the units of analysis are also indicated. These units of analysis included internal stakeholders of the case councils (referred to as internal stakeholders), external stakeholders within the case councils communities (referred to as external stakeholders) and participants (referred to as participants and involving a combination of both external and internal stakeholders). Case councils participated at different phases of the research to allow for both representative and divergent perspectives as a consequence of their diverse contexts such as metropolitan versus regional positioning, the current development phase of CPs in the LGA and so on. As depicted in Figure 3-4, it is evident that different phases of the research engaged with different councils so as to ensure continutiy in focus and/or challenges to previously developed ideas from earlier phases outputs.

The cases included councils in the Riverina-Murray region (1 council), Illawarra-Shoalhaven region (2 councils) and Greater Sydney region (2 councils). The cases were selected based on a criterion that assisted in assuring the cases were useful and would effectively assist in addressing the research questions (Creswell 2007). The selection criteria for these cases included:

1. The cases were local governments in the State of New South Wales, Australia
2. The councils had cultural precinct developments being planned, developed or under review
3. The cases were geographically dispersed to represent a range of regional and urban jurisdictions.

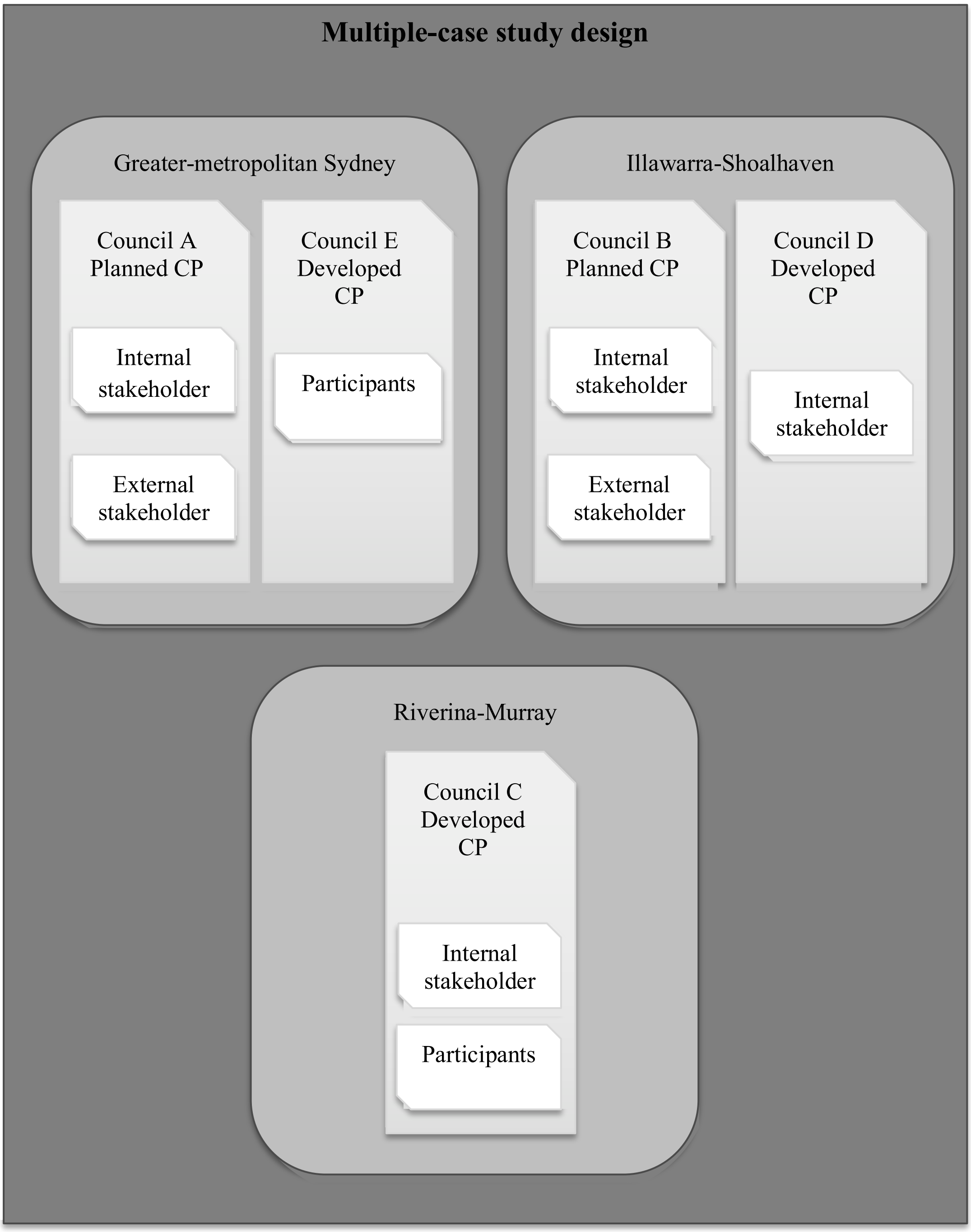

Multiple-case study design
Greater-metropolitan Sydney
Council A Planned CP
Internal stakeholder
External stakeholder
Council E Developed CP
Participants
Illawarra-Shoalhaven
Council B Planned CP
Internal stakeholder
External stakeholder
Council D Developed CP
Internal stakeholder
Riverina-Murray
Council C Developed CP
Internal stakeholder
Participants

Figure 3-4: Multiple-case study design (Yin, 2012)

Council A, located in the south of metropolitan Sydney, had a vision for the future development of a CP in their CBD but had yet to commence work on the project, neither had they scheduled works or commenced with further planning (Council A 2004). Council B developed a new CBD Master Plan in 2011 and co-location of cultural facilities was a priority of the Plan in order to create a CP in the CBD (Council B 2011). Council C, for example, near the Victorian State border, completed work on a CP in the mid-late 2000s. The precinct had a master plan for the further development of the CP over years to come (Council C 2010). Council D, located in the Illawarra-Shoalhaven region, had an existing CP consisting of a hall, art gallery, performing arts centre and the civic plaza. In 2009, Council D proceeded with plans to revitalise the CP (Council D 2009). Council E, located in the north-west of the greater metropolitan Sydney region was developing a number of CPs and was in various stages of development (Council E 2012a). Based on Creswell's (2007) commentary on highlighting that which is normal or average, the author understood this range of council cases as 'typical' of CPs in NSW in that they typified CPs in planning, development, completion and review. Reviewing typical cases was important for this research project to ensure the outcomes were perceived as representative of and relevant to the local government sector as a whole.

As the case councils play a pivotal role in the research, it is necessary to understand the context within which their CPs operate in order to understand the stakeholder expectations of precinct developments and, ultimately, their performance. As outlined in Chapter 2, providing context is important as this context can impact on performance (O'Toole Jr and Meier 2015). Table 3-2 below, summarises the context and key data on the case councils and demonstrates the key differences between them, such as Councils A and E are located in metropolitan Sydney covering a 20km² area whilst B, C and D are classified as regional towns or cities and range in geographic size between 300km² to 4,500km² (Office of Local Government NSW 2015). The diversity of the council's demographic populations is also apparent with the population speaking a language other than English ranging from 3% in Council B to 49% in Council A (Office of Local Government NSW 2015). Council E's socio-economic rating is the highest of the 5 councils, at 138 whilst Council B's was the lowest at 63 (Office of Local Government NSW 2015). Recently released data from the Australian Bureau of Statistics (2016) of the Index of Relative Socio-economic Advantage and Disadvantage places Council's E and A in the highest rankings relative to other Australian LGAs at 96% and 88% respectively. Whilst Council B ranks at 39% in the same comparison (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2016). Table 3-2 shows that Council E expends the greatest percentage of total expenditure on recreational and cultural services at 27% whilst Council C spends the most per capita at $324 (Office of Local Government NSW 2015). Across NSW the average percentage spend on recreational and cultural services is 13%, showing that 4 of the case councils have a higher than average spend (Office of Local Government NSW 2015). The NSW average per capita spend is $214, demonstrating that, on average, the case councils generally spend less per capita with the exception of Council C (Office of Local Government NSW 2015).

NSW Council	A	B	C	D	E
Classification	Metropolitan	Regional Town/City	Regional Town/City	Regional Town/City	Metropolitan
Council area (km²)	Over 20	Over 4,500	Over 300	Over 680	20
Population	Over 85,000	Over 99,000	Over 51,000	Over 206,000	Over 87,000
Language other than English (% population)	49%	3%	5%	17%	36%
Socio-economic index rating	119	63	87	100	138
Total expenses	$70,223,000	$191,007,000	$101,221,000	$241,645,000	$73,758,000
Total revenue	$83,948,000	$231,124,000	$127,668,000	$273,239,000	$99,970,000
% Total expenditure on recreation and culture	18%	11%	19%	21%	27%
Recreation and cultural expenditure per capita	$94	$188	$324	$196	$179

Table 3-2: Case councils summary of key data (Office of Local Government NSW 2015)

The case selection plays a pivotal role in the theoretical generalisability of the research (Eisenhardt 1989). The specificity or uniqueness of the case or cases may preclude the theoretical generalisability of the research (Gillham 2000). While the generalisability of the case, it has been argued, is possible with only one case example, given the right context and phenomenon (Flyvbjerg 2006), it is acknowledged that the use of a single council for the case study could limit the value of the research and the theoretical generalisibility of the findings (Olivier 2017). In this study, multiple cases were selected as a representative sample of councils, operating in either metropolitan or regional areas but all within the legislative framework of the NSW Local Government Act. These councils or CPs may be representative of other councils/CPs certainly in NSW, and perhaps in Australia or internationally. Pettigrew (1990, p.275) argues, selecting cases of "polar types" provides opportunities to study contrasts in the cases and improve theoretical contributions particularly when linking new findings to previously published theory, as in the case of this current research. In this study, case councils were selected based partly on the development phase of their CP: in planning, developed or under review. These differences or polar types allowed more dynamic exploration of the research phenomena (Pettigrew 1990). Given the context (local government) of this research and the "everyday" phenomenon under the research microscope, five councils were selected for this research to also improve the practical and theoretical generalisability of the study (Stokes 2011). See Section 3.3.6.9 for a detailed discussion on the challenges specific to action research.

3.3.1.3. Theory utilisation in case study design

The case study design incorporates and refines the HoQ, utilising the theory of TQM at the broadest level and specifically QFD. This current study employs the QFD aim of achieving quality (Mizuno 1994) in a public administration function: CP operations for the purpose of developing and selecting relevant PIs. The QFD and resultant HoQ rely on the theory of quality and the deployment of quality elements such as physical, mechanics, atmospheric, time, economic, internal factors and market attributes (Mizuno 1994). However, QFD was borne out of the engineering discipline and much of the early theory focused on product design and improvement (Mizuno 1994). As a result, some attributes of quality from this discipline are less relevant in a service-based industry as is the nature of cultural precincts (mechanics, for example). Therefore, other attributes of quality are required, and these are found in quality theory for service-based industries. Aspects such as compassion, courtesy and cooperation are key drivers in this industry as it relates to quality (Stebbing 1990) and were considered in the design of the case study and the development of the PIHoQ. Sections 3.3.5 and 3.3.6 provides a detailed description of the PIHoQ methodology.

Action research is also utilised in this study with two case councils and is defined as "a spectrum of activities that focus on research, planning, theorizing, learning, and development" (Cunningham 1993, p.4). Lewin (1946), a seminal author in the field of action research, argued that action research had the potential to empower minority groups. Over time, this theory of action research has evolved to contend that the reduction in unilateral power of key decision makers in an organisation and the more equal distribution of power, including all those impacted by change, positively influences organisational change and learning (Cunningham 1993). Action research was used in this current study as an approach to test and refine the PIHoQ. As this research was situated in local government with multiple stakeholders with different levels of power and empowerment, the design of the methodology enabled the multifarious voices of stakeholders an equal playing field in the action research cycles. Section 3.3.6 examines the PAR undertaken in this current study.

3.3.2. Phase 1: Literature review and document search

The first phase of research involved a literature review and document search. The literature review sought to understand theory pertaining to public administration, specifically the local government context, performance measurement theory and PIs, quality function deployment and its application in service industries and CP development and operation. The document search interrogated current practice and involved the collection of data from the case councils related to their current CPs, or their planning process, and performance measurement practices, to date. This included, where available, master plans, community strategic plans (CSPs), business plans, plans of management and annual reports. The document search also collected past customer survey results and performance measurement practices related to facilities contained within CPs, as shown in Figure 3-5. The literature review and document search supported the case study approach by providing a theoretical and practice-based backdrop that sharpened the development of themes, cogent arguments and issues; thereby supporting the theoretical generalisability of the study (Eisenhardt 1989).

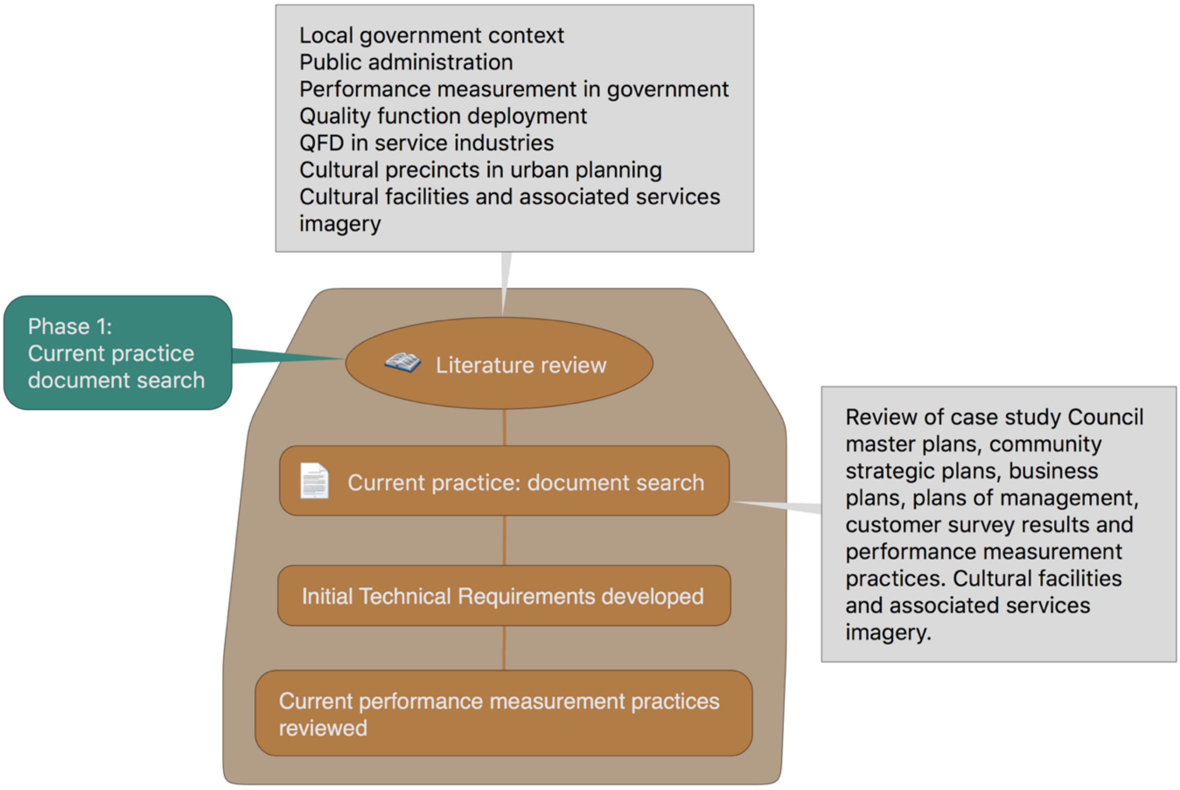

Local government context
Public administration
Performance measurement in government
Quality function deployment
QFD in service industries
Cultural precincts in urban planning
Cultural facilities and associated services imagery
Phase 1: Current practice document search
Literature review
Current practice: document search
Initial Technical Requirements developed
Current performance measurement practices reviewed
Review of case study Council master plans, community strategic plans, business plans, plans of management, customer survey results and performance measurement practices. Cultural facilities and associated services imagery.

Figure 3-5: Phase 1 literature review and document search workflow

It is noted that the available texts on the traditional HoQ fail to indicate how TRs should be established (For example, see Evans and Lindsay 2011, p.591). Consequently, this current study sourced and constructed a list of potential TRs from the literature review and document search. Technical documents and standards from

CP-related facilities were explored in the development of the potential TRs. These initial TRs were compared with data from the literature review and were confirmed by interviewees in phase 2 of the research and later included in the development of the PIHoQ in phase 4. Also, during the document search, a study of current performance measures used in the case councils was conducted. This was required to understand the current practices involved in the case councils and to assess their potential suitability for use with CPs. The development of PIs in this study incorporates outcomes of the literature activities and the document searches conducted within the councils. The overall approach to the development of the PIs was modelled on the work of Elbanna et. al. (2015) who advocated for four steps to ensure the validity of the PIs: (step 1) review of available frameworks such as the BSC derived from previous research; (step 2) broad review of available literature; (step 3) obtain views of academic and professional experts in relevant fields; (step 4) assemble data from respondents. This same approach was used to confirm the initial TRs. Steps 1-3 were completed in phase 1 and step 4 was undertaken in later phases of the research, as will be shown below.

3.3.3. Phase 2: Voice of the customer & technical requirements with internal stakeholders – semi-structured interviews

Phase 2 of this study is depicted in Figure 3-6. This phase consisted of semi-structured interviews with Council officials or other internal stakeholders across four case councils. This phase was designed to elicit the VoC attributes and, review and confirm a set of TRs and PIs derived through phase 1 activities.

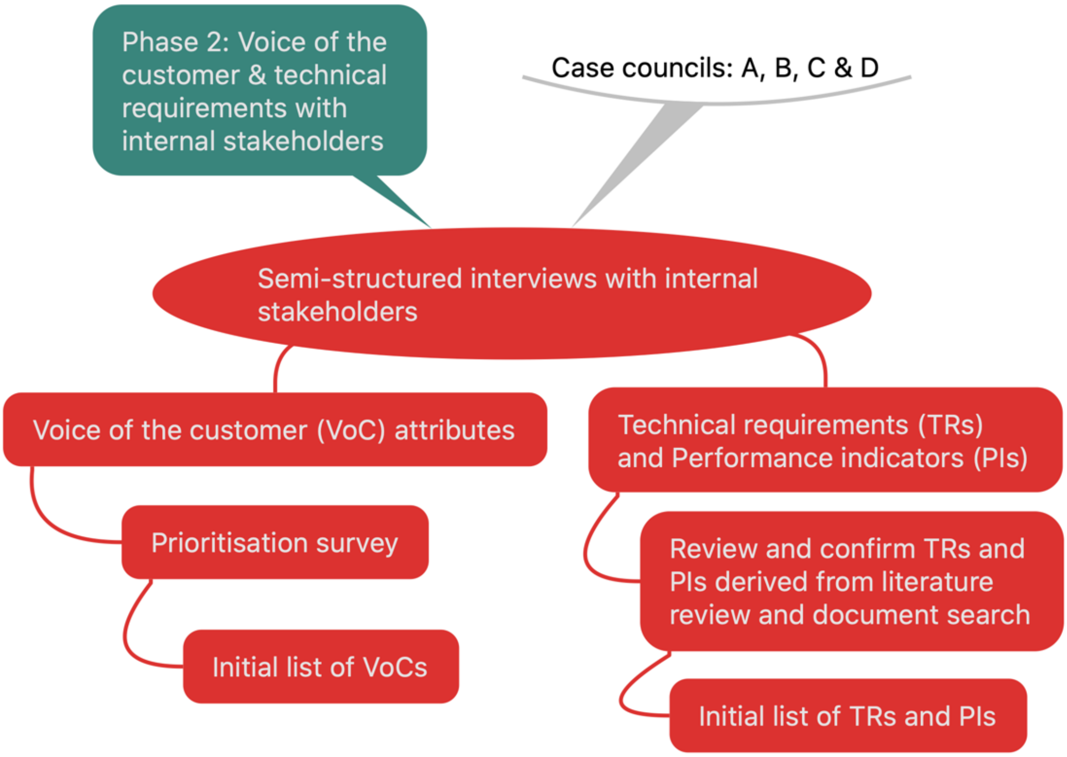

Phase 2: Voice of the customer & technical requirements with internal stakeholders
Case councils: A, B, C & D
Semi-structured interviews with internal stakeholders
Voice of the customer (VoC) attributes
Prioritisation survey
Initial list of VoCs
Technical requirements (TRs) and Performance indicators (PIs)
Review and confirm TRs and PIs derived from literature review and document search
Initial list of TRs and PIs

Figure 3-6: Phase 2 Voice of the customer and technical requirements - semi-structured interviews workflow

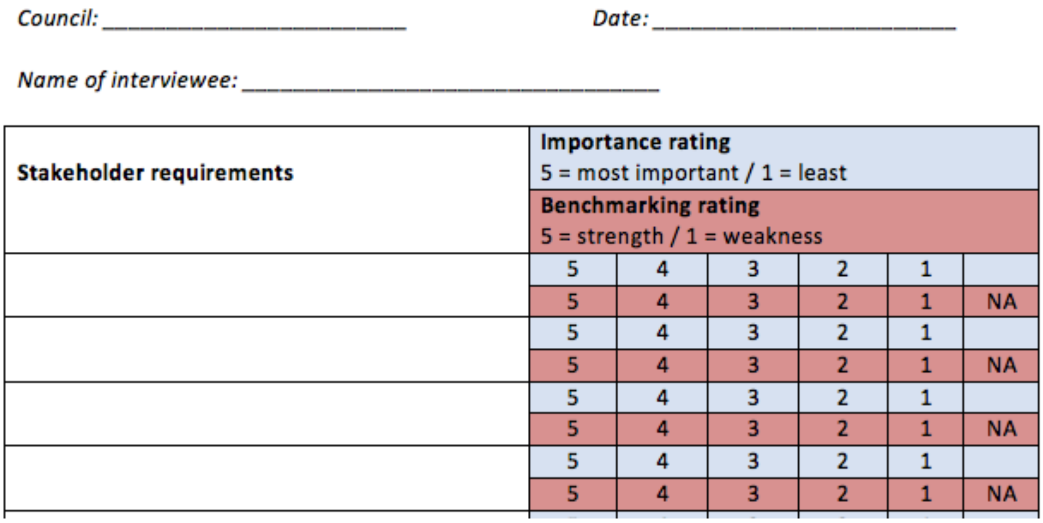
In keeping with the concept of socially constructed meaning (Berger and Luckmann 1979; Crotty 1998), the voice of the customer was sought from, firstly, internal stakeholders with the understanding that internal stakeholders will assign their own meaning to CP developments and their operation. Semi-structured interviews were the preferred major data collection method for key internal stakeholders so as to obtain their CP requirements in their own words or voice and, because semi-structured interviews provided sufficient flexibility to approach diverse respondents differently (Noor 2008) and thereby elicit the richest data. The interview process provided the majority of the primary data for this phase of the research project. To ensure the interviews were effective in collecting appropriate data, the interviews were designed based on Cavana et. al. (2001, pp.138-147) recommendations including: the pattern of the interview, the ability to effectively listen, the development of well-designed questions, the ability to paraphrase and demonstrate an understanding of the interviewees' responses, and selective probing techniques. Pettigrew (1997, p.344) advocated the use of an interview pro-forma "with questions being tailored around individual study aims and the contextual nuances of particular cases". The developed pro-forma for these interviews was pre-tested with five interviewees and then further refined prior to its implementation within the cases. The test-case interviewees were additional and not key internal stakeholders selected for interviews from within the case study councils. Interview questions were structured but open-ended. A summary of the interview questions are available in Appendix 2. All interviewees were asked the same questions which allowed the researcher to clarify with the interviewee if the response was vague (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009) to ensure the richest, in depth data from the interview process.

3.3.3.1. Interviewees

Interviews were sought with at least six stakeholders (practitioners) per case; resulting in 26 in-depth interviews from which to draw empirical data. Having these practitioner interviewees within the field of local government participate in the research sought to also improve the practical usefulness of the final research outcomes (Molina-Azorin et al. 2017). Further, previously reviewed research (See Section 2.3.3.3) indicated that staff participation in the ultimate development of performance measurement systems and indicators was critical to its success and the realisation of improvement programs (Phillips and Louvieris 2005). As such, it was imperative in this study to have internal stakeholder participation in phase 2 of the data collection. Interviewees were selected from within the diversity of internal stakeholders (involving political, executive and managerial levels) and could include the Mayor and councillors of council, General Manager of council, Directors of council, subject specialists within the cultural departments of council, Strategic Planners of council, Business or 'Place' Manager within council. These stakeholders played a role, had influence or an interest in the development or use of CPs and associated facilities.

This study did not seek to interview every stakeholder fitting the above categories. Rather, interviewees were selected as representative of these categories and clearly sought to obtain both management and political perspectives. As Kendrik (2011) pointed out policy makers, executive managers and operational managers have a different focus within the organisation. The stakeholders represent "multiple perspectives" within the decision makers of council to ensure detailed knowledge (Meyer 2001, p.337). When dealing with "elite interviews", such as elected officials, Yin recommended preparing to ask the most important questions upfront if the interviewee might end the interview prematurely (Yin 2012). Accordingly, the most important questions were presented first on the pro-forma interview sheet in this study.

Each interview resulted in a list of attributes that constituted the VoC, listed on a spreadsheet in the words of the interviewee. This list was created during the interview with each interviewee. See Figure 3-7 below for the *voice of the stakeholder attribute template.* At the interview, the interviewee was then given the opportunity to rate or rank the level of importance and benchmark the Councils' performance in relation to this attribute by providing a ranking from 5 to 1 (5 being the highest score). Where the Council did not have a particular listed attribute, the interviewee could select "not applicable".



Council: ________________________ *Date:* ________________________

Name of interviewee: _________________________________

Stakeholder requirements	**Importance rating** 5 = most important / 1 = least **Benchmarking rating** 5 = strength / 1 = weakness					
	5	4	3	2	1	
	5	4	3	2	1	NA
	5	4	3	2	1	
	5	4	3	2	1	NA
	5	4	3	2	1	
	5	4	3	2	1	NA
	5	4	3	2	1	
	5	4	3	2	1	NA

Figure 3-7: Voice of the stakeholder attribute template

3.3.3.2. Review of technical requirements (TRs)

As part of the semi-structured interview process, the interviewees reviewed a list of derived TRs from phase 1. The list of TRs (22 in total) was provided to each interviewee and the interviewee was asked to comment on the TRs. Initially, this request was left open-ended to encourage the interviewee to provide any insight on this functional list. The question was then re-focused to ask for any additions to the list: "What gaps (if any) exist in the following technical requirements?" These additions were progressively added to the list of TRs, resulting in an additional 16 technical requirements for use in phase 4 of this research. Hence, TRs included in the HoQ and used from phase 4 onwards were an amalgamation of theoretical literature, technical standards from the document search and inputs from the internal stakeholder semi-structured interviews.

3.3.3.3. Performance measurement and performance indicators (PIs)

As indicated previously, the approach to the development of PIs was modelled on the work of Elbanna et. al. (2015) with the first 3 steps undertaken in this phase 1 of the research including a review of available frameworks, available literature and the obtainment of academic and professional expert views in relevant fields. While step 4 required the assembling of data from respondents which occurred later in this research.

The activity concerning the first two steps was adequately outlined above however, it is appropriate to explain how professional expert views were sought during the interviews. To that end, interviewees were asked a number of questions:

- What information would you like to know about your current facilities and services but currently can't obtain?
- What do you currently measure?
- Are these measures useful?

This data amongst other sourced data in phase 1, informed the development of a series of PIs that were related to the initial TRs. These derived PIs were subsequently included in the development of the initial PIHoQ in phase 4.

3.3.3.4. Prioritisation survey of internal stakeholders

As somewhat anticipated during the interviews, internal stakeholders tended to rate the majority of their VoC attributes listed during their interview with high importance (a ranking of 4 or 5). Therefore, to remove or reduce the prejudices built up during interviews it became apparent that a separation in time was necessary between the interview and any ranking process undertaken by participants. This separation in time was coupled to the use of a formalised ranking process that forced participants to make relative prioritisation choices and which incorporated inputs from other interviewees. In this study a survey tool was developed to formally drive that prioritisation process and was completed by participants one to two weeks following their initial interviews. The survey tool was placed in an online system inviting all previous interviewees by email to complete the survey. Hardcopies were made available to participants, but all participants chose to complete the online version. The prioritisation was a critical part of the HoQ development as there needed to be some rationalisation of the large volume of attributes identified (370 initial attributes were identified through these internal stakeholder interviews). As such, a prioritisation survey tool formed the next step in the data collection following interviews (and was later also replicated with external community focus group participants in phase 3).

Figure 3-8 demonstrates the process undertaken by the researcher to develop a more definitive list of attributes.

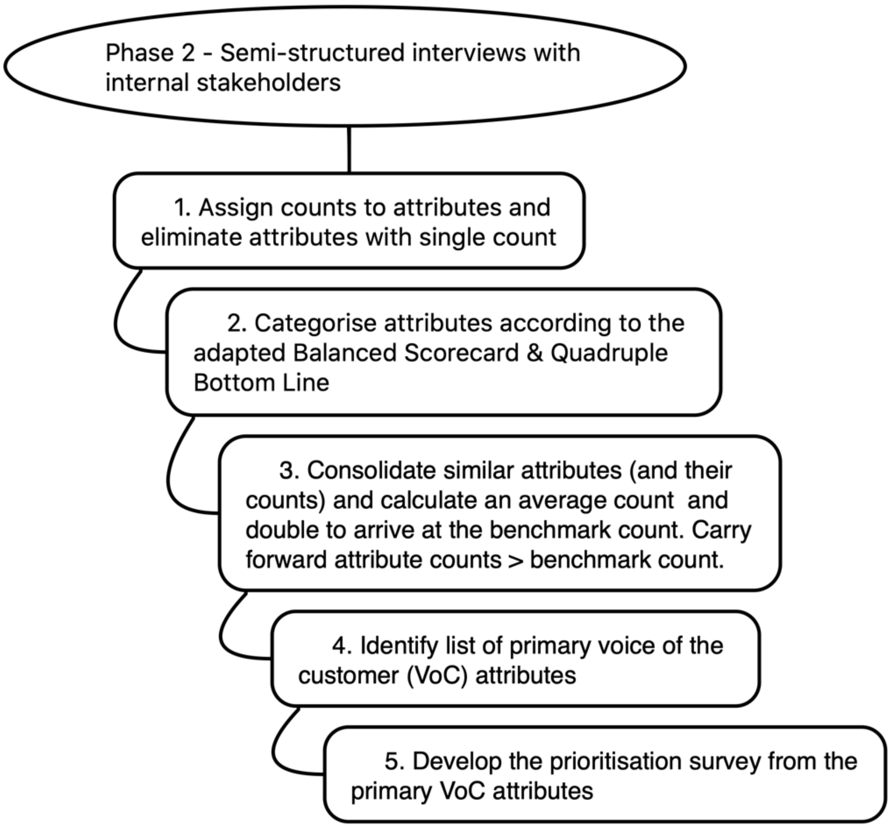

Phase 2 - Semi-structured interviews with internal stakeholders
1. Assign counts to attributes and eliminate attributes with single count
2. Categorise attributes according to the adapted Balanced Scorecard & Quadruple Bottom Line
3. Consolidate similar attributes (and their counts) and calculate an average count and double to arrive at the benchmark count. Carry forward attribute counts > benchmark count.
4. Identify list of primary voice of the customer (VoC) attributes
5. Develop the prioritisation survey from the primary VoC attributes

Figure 3-8: Internal stakeholder prioritisation survey content development process

After the semi-structured interviews and initial ranking process, as outlined in the section above, the following process was followed to develop the prioritisation survey tool:

1. A list of initial attributes was established following the semi-structured interviews, together with their counts (each mention of an attribute by an interviewee received a count of 1 by the researcher). The attributes were listed in the words of the interviewees. From the 26 interviews, 370 attributes were initially ascertained. A high count is reflective of a highly important attribute while attributes with a count of one were removed as the result was too limited.

2. It was established in Section 2.3.3 that a holistic approach to performance measurement was optimal so as to measure and manage all aspects of the business across economic, social, environmental and corporate governance areas. To facilitate further analysis and understanding, and to move towards achieving those balanced measurement goals, the interviewees attributes were thematically assessed and categorised by the researcher using an adapted form of the BSC (Kaplan and Norton 2001) and the QBL (Woodward et al. 2004). Consequently, the attributes were placed under the following categories:

   a. Financial
   b. Customer
   c. Internal process
   d. Learning and growth
   e. Governance and leadership

However, it was noted that no attributes were identified by the interviewees in the governance and leadership category.

3. Whilst there is no researched-based prescription on how to delimit the number of attributes decided on at this stage, it is important to note that too many attributes may lead to an unnecessarily complex and unwieldy HoQ whilst too few may result in an unbalanced HoQ that does not fully reflect stakeholder requirements. Thus, to rationalise the total number of VoCs to those highly scored and to a practical and manageable level, two actions were undertaken. Firstly, within each category, any like VoC attributes and their counts were consolidated. This reduced the total number of attributes across all categories. Thereafter, the total number of counts were divided by the refined total number of attributes to provide an average count per attribute. This number was then multiplied by 2 and the calculated outcome serves as the benchmark to either include or exclude an attribute from the next steps in the process. This nominal multiplication factor of 2 was based on the specific experiences in the exemplar case and may be subject to refinement in other contexts in order to arrive at a count that ensures significant attributes were highlighted. For example, in this study, the average count per attribute was 5 and when multiplied by 2, the benchmark number was 10 – thus only attributes with a count greater than or equal to 10 were carried forward in the process. In a BSC/QBL category that did not have an attribute with at least the nominated benchmark count, the attribute with the highest count in that category was then carried forward into the survey tool. This ensured that the primacy of a balanced approach to the development of the PIs persisted through this process even if interview counts on some categories were relatively low.

4. A list of 11 primary "voice of the customer" (VoC) attributes were subsequently identified from the semi-structured interview process.

5. The next step was to create the online prioritisation survey from the list of VoC attributes and ask each interviewee to rank and sort the listed VoC attributes into levels of importance. This prioritisation survey

was essential because it had participants (not another party) reflectively considering and ranking the primary attributes needing measurement. Thereby, as a customer driven activity, they retained some ownership of the outcomes.

It was previously shown that ranking from highest to lowest and a three-point prioritisation approach has been used in past QFD research (Enríquez et al. 2004). On a practical level, the prioritisation approach is quick to administer, easy for participants to understand and (arguably) makes a meaningful contribution (Enríquez et al. 2004). In this current research the online survey required the interviewee to sort the VoC attributes into five levels of importance. With an intention to force a prioritisation choice, participants were directed not to add more than 3 attributes to each level of importance – as depicted in Table 3-3 below. Participant ranking results were then scored on a 5 to 1 scale by the researcher upon receipt of the completed surveys.

Importance rating	Score out of 5
Most important	5
Important	4
Somewhat important	3
Less important	2
Least important	1

Table 3-3: VoC attributes prioritisation scoring system

The ranking was then averaged and converted into the 1-5 score representing the final internal stakeholder VoCs for the PIHoQ in phase 4.

3.3.4. Phase 3: Voice of the customer requirements with external stakeholders - focus groups

Following the data collection in phase 2 of the research, the perspective of the community was sought in phase 3, as shown in Figure 3-9.

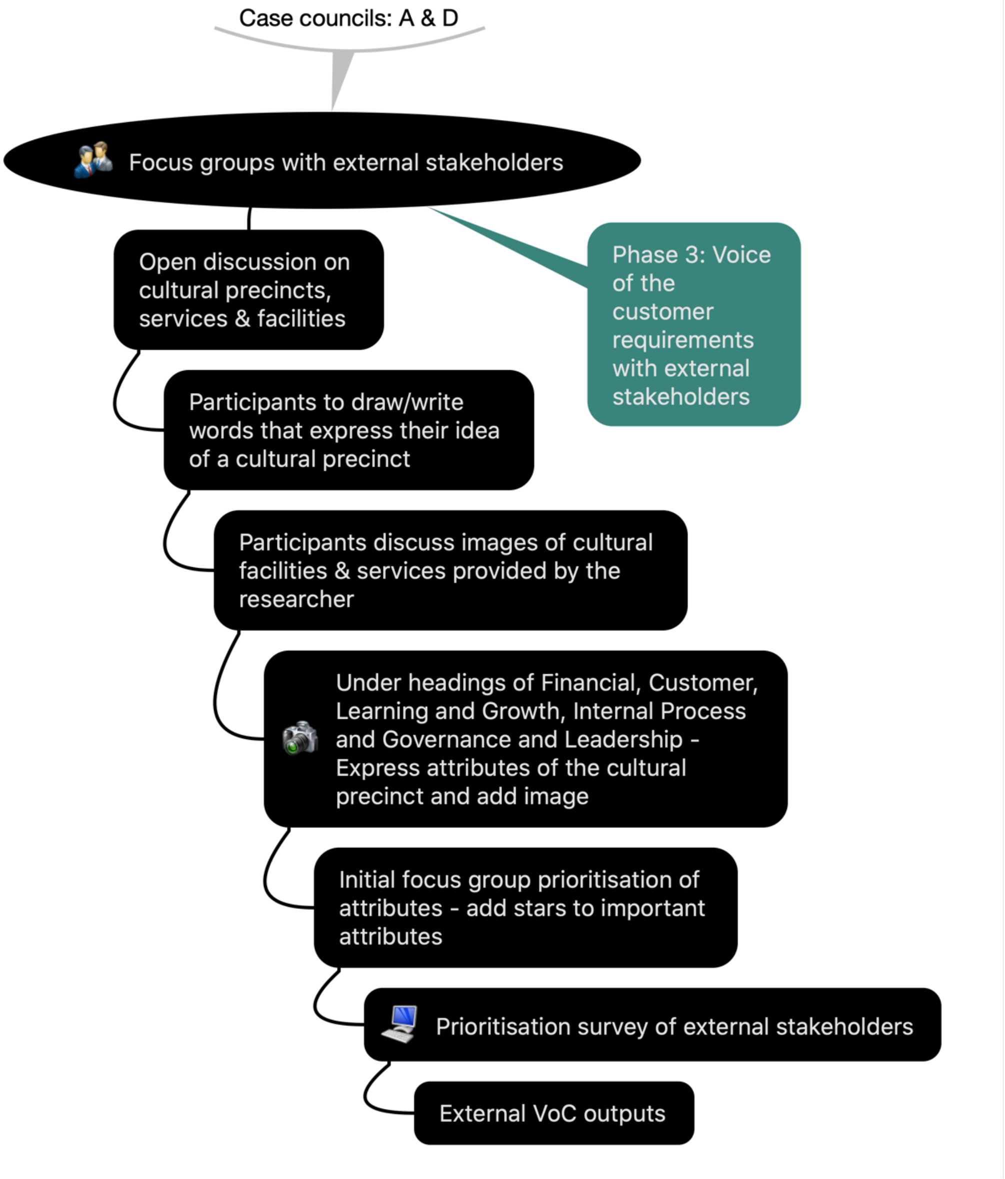

Case councils: A & D
Focus groups with external stakeholders
Phase 3: Voice of the customer requirements with external stakeholders
Open discussion on cultural precincts, services & facilities
Participants to draw/write words that express their idea of a cultural precinct
Participants discuss images of cultural facilities & services provided by the researcher
Under headings of Financial, Customer, Learning and Growth, Internal Process and Governance and Leadership - Express attributes of the cultural precinct and add image
Initial focus group prioritisation of attributes - add stars to important attributes
Prioritisation survey of external stakeholders
External VoC outputs

Figure 3-9: Phase 3 voice of the customer requirements - focus groups workflow

Focus groups were used in phase 3 as they, like interviews, captured rich and in-depth data (Stokes 2011). Focus groups offered an opportunity to gather alternate points of view in detail and understand the reasons behind participant's opinions (Krueger 1991). Focus group participants were able, during the workshop sessions, to ask questions of each other and the researcher, raise alternate viewpoints and find explicitly agreed consensus. These elements were noted by the researcher throughout each focus group.

Thus, focus groups were considered a highly appropriate method to capture the community perspective, as they allowed for a greater number of participants than would be possible through individual interviews and enabled engagement through the energy of the group dynamic. The focus group was a preferred method for data capture for external stakeholders as there was an opportunity to engage with participants directly and collectively, allowing for clarification and discussion, allowing respondents to meaningfully build on the multiple responses offered (Stewart and Shamdasani 1990). In order to obtain relevant VoC requirements, the attributes were again captured in the words of the stakeholders.

The focus group sessions and the questions (See Appendix 3) were planned in advanced and tested on a trial focus group to eliminate researcher bias. Bias could develop if a focus group participant dominates the discussion or the moderator "knowingly or unknowingly provides cues about what type of responses and answers are desirable" (Stewart and Shamdasani 1990, p.17). As the focus group sessions were pre-planned, the researcher had the tools to ensure all participants contributed to discussions and that the moderator did not prescribe participant responses.

The data captured in phase 3 focus groups resulted in the external VoC requirements and formed the basis of the prioritisation survey that external stakeholders undertook following the focus group.

3.3.4.1. Participants of focus group

Focus groups were undertaken in two councils with 1 focus group per council. This allowed comparison between two councils and the communities they represent. The two councils were selected based on the development stage of their CP, as determined in the selection of case councils for phase 2 (See 3.3.1.2); for example Council A did not have a CP at the time while Council D had an existing CP. As these Councils were both part of the phase 2 research process, it was possible to compare phase 2 and phase 3 data as part of the triangulation process. It also assisted in developing a HoQ for CP development and continuous improvement that reflected the councils and communities. Figure 3-10 graphically demonstrates the replication of the focus groups and prioritisation survey across the two case councils' A and D. The prioritisation survey is detailed below in 3.3.4.3.

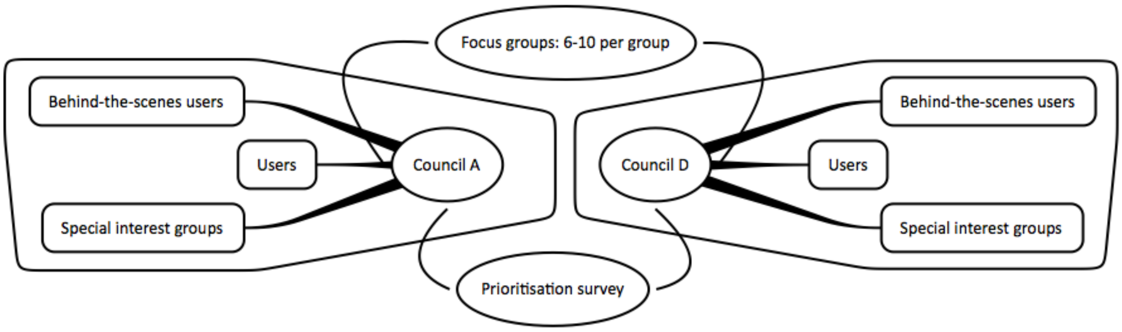


Figure 3-10: Focus group participants

Participants for focus groups were selected to ensure some homogeneity in each group. This was deemed appropriate, as each focus group needed to discuss attributes of CPs in some depth and "if in-depth discussion is needed on a particular issue, then the group will need to be homogenous" (Cavana et al. 2001, p.155) to ensure discussion was productive. The three areas from which participants were selected in each council, as shown in Figure 3-10, included: "users" or customers using cultural facilities such as audiences at performances or visitors to museums and libraries, "behind-the-scenes users" of cultural facilities, for example hirers of meeting rooms and performance spaces, and "special interest groups" such as Friends of Galleries and historical society members. These three groups would cover the range of users of artistic and intellectual facilities that made up CPs but allowed enough diversity to ensure "sufficient variation among participants to allow for contrasting opinion" (Cavana et al. 2001, p.155). Buchanan (1997) articulated the challenge faced by public administrations in the over-representation of special interest groups or vocal minorities in decision-making. In order to avoid over representation, the equal spilt between external stakeholder groups was carefully adhered to and the research facilitator ensured all voices were heard during the focus group sessions. Between six and ten participants per focus group was deemed appropriate to ensure the size of the group was not too large to allow all members an opportunity to voice an opinion.

3.3.4.2. Design of focus group sessions

This approach began, as shown in Figure 3-9, with an open discussion of CPs and the facilities and services that might exist in a CP. This approach appeared to work extremely well in the focus groups and allowed the researcher an opportunity to assess how knowledgeable participants were in relation to CPs and facilities. When deliberating on the fact that PIs need to be locally relevant and supported if they are to be effective, assessing and appreciating the knowledge held by participants about an entity and its operations in any context is a universally desirable goal. Participants in the exemplar case (Council D), for example, expressed a strong unanimous assertion that free public transport was a requirement within a CP facility whilst the other case (Council A) reflected that shopping and catering options were of intrinsic importance to such facilities. The discussion prepared participants to examine a wide range of services, facilities and attributes as they began the next steps in the process. This first step expanded participants thinking and encouraged open dialogue with each other.

Participants, in groups, were then asked to create a picture or words to represent their own agreed CP. Rich pictures are useful for groups to effectively comprehend complex issues or contexts (Bell et al. 2016). The researcher provided participants with large sheets of blank paper and coloured pens to develop their rich picture but stood back, allowed groups to develop their precinct without further commentary from the researcher. The researcher noted down any comments made by the groups as they developed their rich picture. The rich pictures created here would gauge participant understanding of CPs and allow participants to express their expectations of CP developments. Utilisation of a rich picture was valuable as it created a story or narrative of the participants' CP attributes while also encouraging discussion amongst participants, leading to final changes and overt consensus on the groups' rich picture. Consensus was preferred within the group to ensure the rich picture was "representative of the situation", that the rich picture had meaning and purpose within the study (Walker et al. 2014, p.356). Durrant et al. (2018) argues that rich pictures from multiple perspectives keeps dialogue open and avoids the possibility of closing down discussion and interpretation (Gaver 2011). The rich pictures developed by each group remained visible to the participants throughout the workshop, as a visual aide to subsequent steps in the focus group process. See Figure 3-11 for an example of a rich picture developed by a group in the exemplar case. The rich pictures developed during phase 3 represent another important layer in the development of meaningful VoC attributes for the ultimate PIHoQ and its development in phase 4.

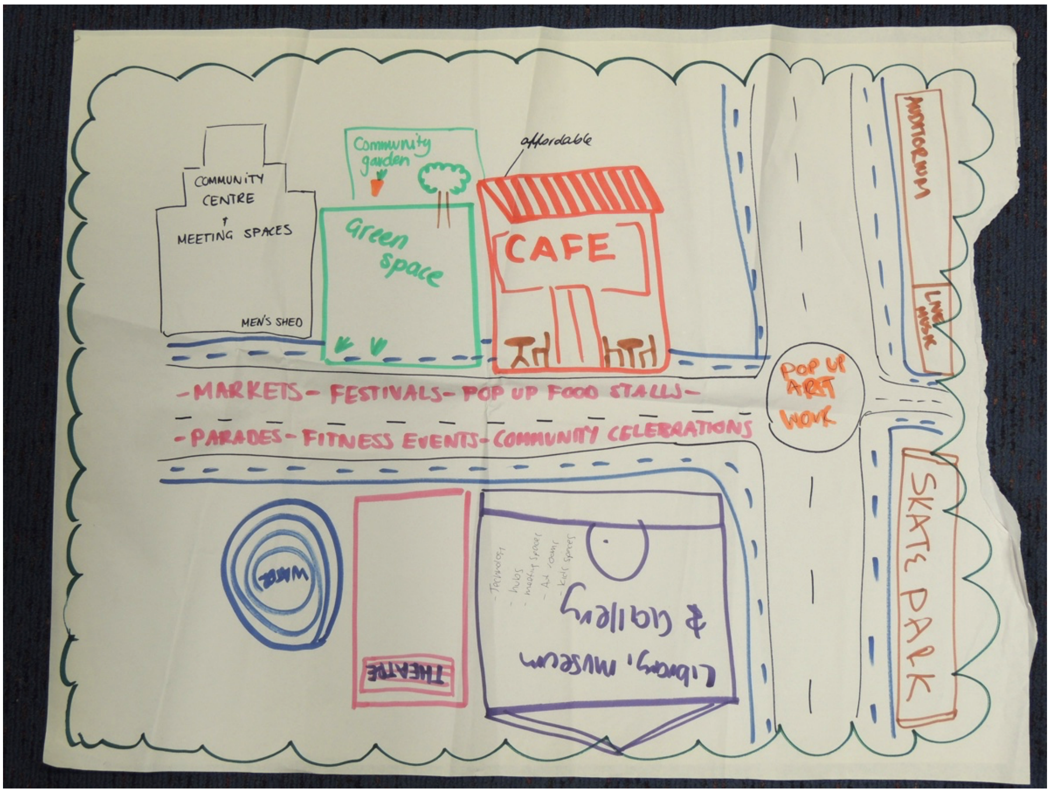
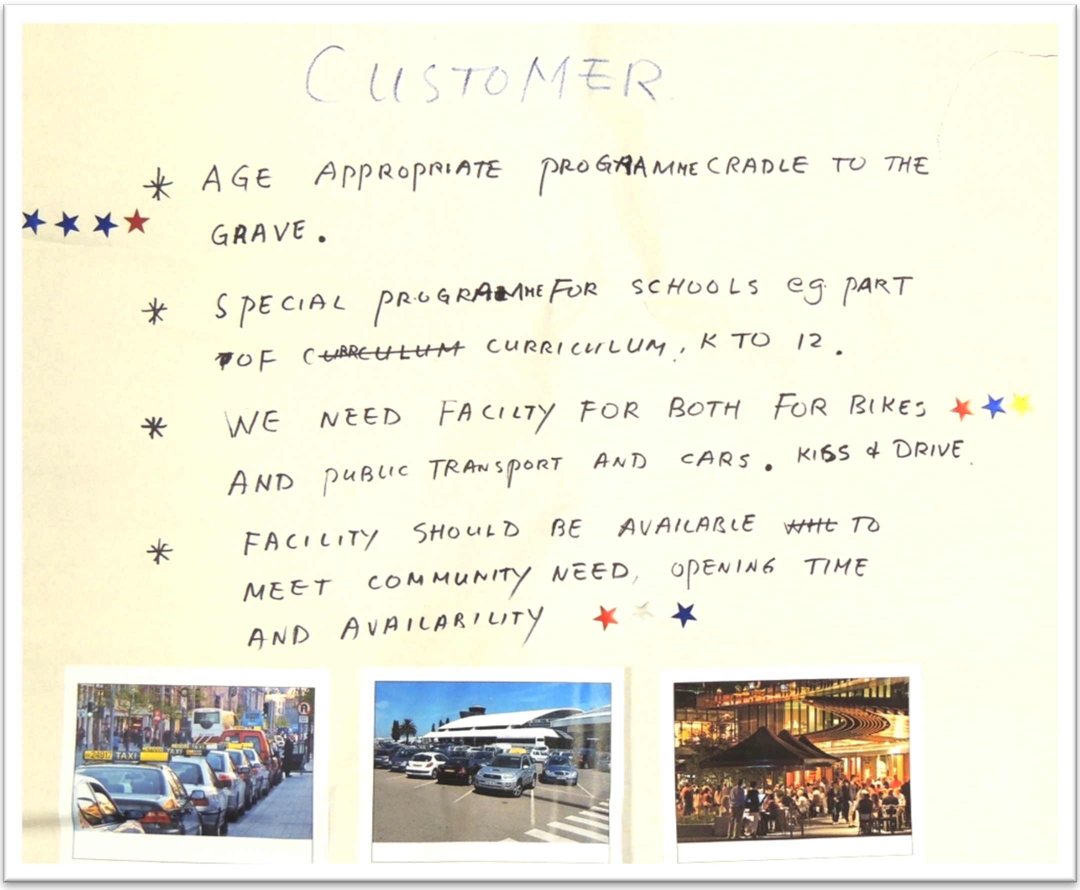

COMMUNITY CENTRE
+
MEETING SPACES
MEN'S SHED
Community garden
affordable
Green space
CAFE
AUDITORIUM
LIVE MUSIC
-MARKETS- FESTIVALS- POP UP FOOD STALLS-
-PARADES- FITNESS EVENTS- COMMUNITY CELEBRATIONS
POP UP ART WORK
SKATE PARK
WATER
THEATRE
Library, museum & gallery
- Technology
- hubs
- meeting spaces
- Art rooms
- kids spaces

Figure 3-11: Phase 2 rich picture development example from Council A

As shown in Figure 3-9 the researcher sourced, collated and provided all participants with an array of images of the facilities, services and operations. These images were sourced during the literature review and document search as a component of the overall research project (Schulz et al. 2018) and included images of cultural facilities but also images of outdoor spaces, shopping facilities and recreational areas. At this step, the images were used by the researcher to broaden participant conceptual ideas for the entity under ideation and to also provide further visual stimulation for the ideas discussed in the previous step. The current step in the process introduced the imagery, promoted discussion and comment from the participants that was captured by the researcher in the field notes but did not yet require any further action by the participants. These images were a powerful way to aid discussion and further stimulate the reflective conversation between participants about what they like about the particular facility or service.

The participants were provided with 5 large sheets of paper with the following headings on each: financial, customer, learning and growth, internal processes, governance and leadership, based on the adapted BSC/QBL. The participants were asked to express the attributes they require of their CP in words. They were asked to add images to each page if they found relevant/suitable images that reflected their expressed attributes, as depicted in Figure 3-12. Utilisation of photo-elicitation as a method to encourage dialogue in qualitative research is reasonably well-documented (For example, see Wagner 2011), though the context must be made clear by the researcher as photographs alone may not provide such context (Richard and Lahman 2015). The researcher collected those descriptions and comments as the groups undertook this step. The words used by the participants to describe the images and the words used in subsequent conversations were added to the researcher's field notes thereby creating rich, detailed commentary to support the previously developed visual rich picture and the subsequent VoC requirements in this step. All the worksheets were then displayed around the room and each group presented their work/perceptions to the other participants. Participants were encouraged to add additional words or images to the worksheets as new concepts emerged. Thereafter, each participant was then asked to place a star next to the attributes that they deemed most significant to the CP. Stars could be placed on any worksheets around the room and participants were limited to placing one star per attribute. The outputs of this step constituted the draft list of attributes understood as important by participants. This step was a highly participatory and generative process that necessarily required the researcher to be very active in facilitating the groups' activities and outputs.



CUSTOMER

✳ AGE APPROPRIATE PROGRAMME CRADLE TO THE
★★★★ GRAVE.

✳ SPECIAL PROGRAMME FOR SCHOOLS eg PART OF ~~CURRECULUM~~ CURRICULUM, K TO 12.

✳ WE NEED FACILTY FOR BOTH FOR BIKES ★★★ AND PUBLIC TRANSPORT AND CARS. KISS & DRIVE.

✳ FACILITY SHOULD BE AVAILABLE ~~WHE~~ TO MEET COMMUNITY NEED, OPENING TIME AND AVAILABILITY ★★★

Figure 3-12: Phase 2 focus group workshop VoC outputs

3.3.4.3. Prioritisation survey of external stakeholders

The same online survey tool was used as that in the internal stakeholder prioritisation survey, however, a slightly altered process was followed in preparation for the external stakeholder prioritisation survey due to the different methods used in collecting the data via the focus groups - see Figure 3-13 below.

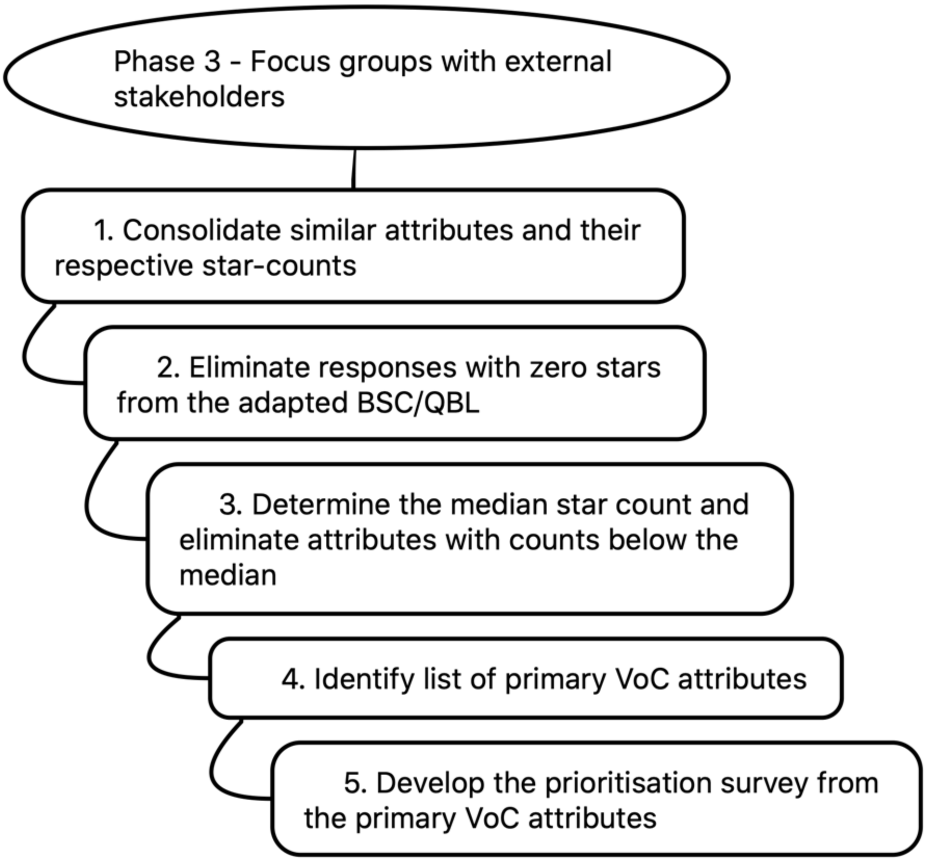

Phase 3 - Focus groups with external stakeholders
1. Consolidate similar attributes and their respective star-counts
2. Eliminate responses with zero stars from the adapted BSC/QBL
3. Determine the median star count and eliminate attributes with counts below the median
4. Identify list of primary VoC attributes
5. Develop the prioritisation survey from the primary VoC attributes

Figure 3-13: External stakeholder survey content development process

As indicated in Figure 3-13, the external stakeholder prioritisation survey preparation included:

1. The previously identified and star rated attributes from the focus groups activities were collated by the researcher and where appropriate, similar attributes and their respective star-counts were consolidated within each category. This consolidation process resulted in some attributes reflecting a higher star count than the total number of participants involved. For example, in the exemplar cases shown in Table 3-4, the following attributes were determined to be very similar:

Attribute	Number of stars	Council
Plenty of trees and gardens	4	A
Water features, trees and plants	1	A
More greenery around facilities	1	A
Greenery around facilities	0	A
Trees and gardens	1	D
Water features	1	D
Water features – ones where children can splash about	0	D
More plants and flowers	0	D

Table 3-4: External stakeholder VoC attribute consolidation sample

These attributes were combined into one, titled "The cultural precinct is surrounded by trees, gardens and water features that all customers can interact with and play in" and had a combined total of 8 stars.

2. All remaining attributes with no stars assigned were then eliminated from the adapted BSC/QBL categories.

3. Having consolidated the attribute list and to further rationalise it to determine which of those would be in the prioritisation survey tool, the following action was undertaken. Irrespective of category, the range of star counts across all attributes was identified. Once identified, the median of the range was calculated and any attributes with a star count above or equal to that midpoint were included in the survey tool. In this way, the highest star rated attributes were included. For example, in the current study, the number of stars assigned to attributes ranged from 1 to 11, with the mid-point of that range being 6. Therefore, those attributes across any category that had a star count of 6 or above that benchmark were included in the survey tool. In contrast to the internal stakeholder process whereby an average count was calculated and then multiplied by 2 to establish the benchmark count, in this process, calculating only the median of the range of star counts was necessary to establish the benchmark. This was considered appropriate since the focus group collaboratively formulated and assessed their identified attributes and applied those considerations in their star allocations. The attribute list and star counts thus represented more considered outputs than those seen in the internal stakeholder process and as such, this benchmark captured more of those considered outputs than would otherwise be the case if the previous approach were applied. This

rationalisation heuristic was based on the experiences in the cases involved and as such, is subject to further assessment in other contexts.

4. This step could result in more attributes in some categories than in others. For example, 12 attributes were classified as most important and included four ‘customer’ attributes and only two ‘internal process’ attributes. Also, as previously, to maintain a balanced approach, categories which had attributes with star counts below the benchmark count, would have their highest rated attribute included in the survey tool.

5. A list of 12 primary VoC attributes were identified from the external stakeholder cohort.

6. As in the previous internal stakeholder prioritisation survey process, the final step in this process was to incorporate these primary attributes into an online prioritisation survey and ask each participant from the focus groups to rank those attributes into 5 levels of importance. Similarly, here, participants were directed not to add more than 3 attributes to each level of importance. The rankings provided from all focus group participants were then averaged and these final external customer attributes and scores (combined with the internal customer outcomes) were then available to be used in subsequent phases of the study.

3.3.5. Phase 4: Development of the PI house of quality (PIHoQ)

Phase 4 of the research, summarised in Figure 3-14, depicts the development of a PIHoQ. The standard HoQ was refined and developed into the PIHoQ in preparation for phase 5 of the research.

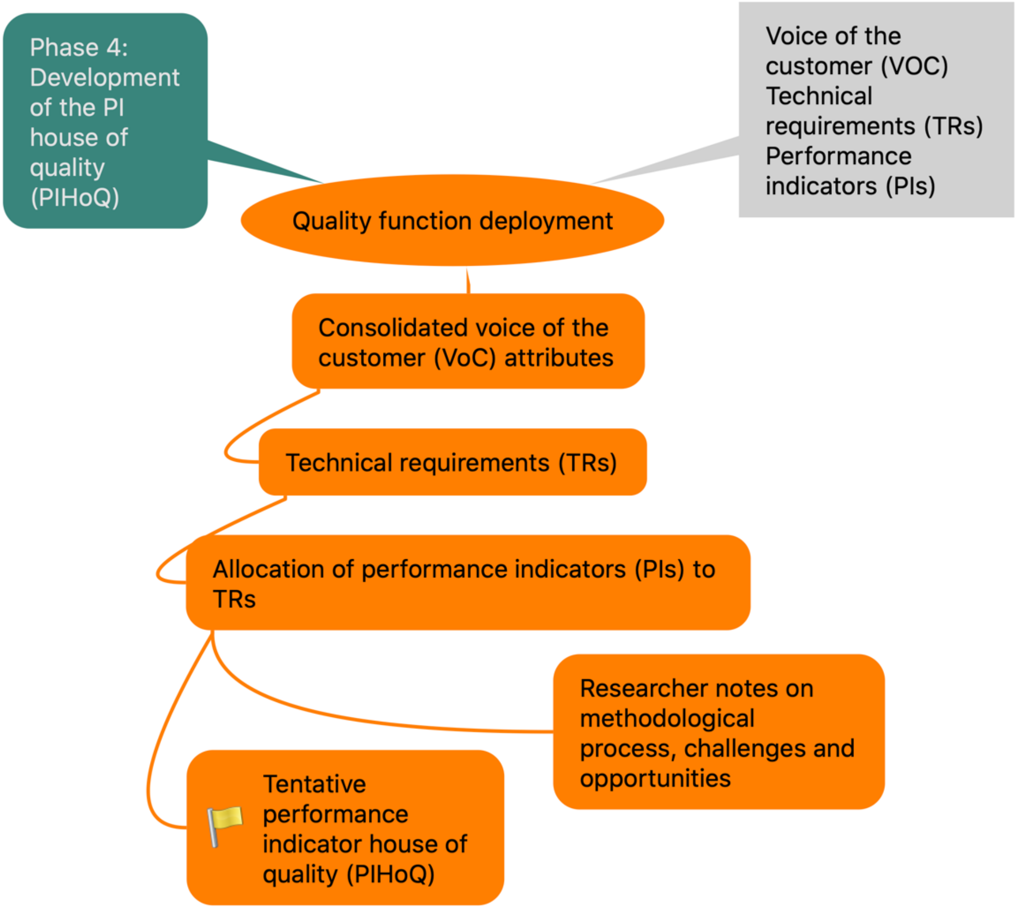

Phase 4: Development of the PI house of quality (PIHoQ)
Voice of the customer (VOC)
Technical requirements (TRs)
Performance indicators (PIs)
Quality function deployment
Consolidated voice of the customer (VoC) attributes
Technical requirements (TRs)
Allocation of performance indicators (PIs) to TRs
Researcher notes on methodological process, challenges and opportunities
Tentative performance indicator house of quality (PIHoQ)

Figure 3-14: Phase 4 PI house of quality (PIHoQ) development workflow

3.3.5.1. Phase 4 outputs

In phase 4, the data obtained from phases 1-3 was consolidated into a PIHoQ as part of the quality function deployment process. This involved including the initial voice of the customer attributes, technical requirements, and performance indicators associated with technical requirements being translated into an initial enhanced house of quality i.e. PIHoQ, laying the foundations for a decision-making framework. The enhancements to the standard house of quality which lead to the PIHoQ will be examined in detail in Chapter 4 later in this thesis. The remaining output within phase 4, as shown in Figure 3-14, was the creation and articulation of notes by the researcher whilst she developed this initial PIHoQ. These notes included commentary on the processes, challenges, and the opportunities that arose as a result of developing the PIHoQ up till this point in the study. These notes on process were used in the planning of the phase 5 participative action research cycles. The challenges and opportunities noted during phase 4 were also compared to those identified by participants in phase 5 and are explored in detail in Chapters 4 and 5 of this thesis.

3.3.5.2. Role of HoQ in the methodology

The complexity of CP developments and the performance measurement of them required a research design that allowed for systematic exploration. In order to develop relevant and meaningful PIs for CPs, an approach was needed that ably captured customer needs and aligned these with PIs. The step by step, systematic processes provided by a HoQ process was an approachable starting point for such as engagement process. This adaptation of the HoQ to this context and topic resulted in what I have termed an enhanced HoQ or PIHoQ. This PIHoQ is a major outcome of phase 4 and is later refined in the PAR cycles in phase 5. The use of the QFD (and associated HoQ approach) is gaining momentum in services industry literature (Hassani et al. 2018) and its utility in the systematic exploration of products (to a great extent) (Carnevalli and Miguel 2008) and public services (to a lesser extent) (Ocampo Jimenez and Baeza Serrato 2016) is documented.

It was determined in Chapter 2 that the available literature does not fully apprehend the stakeholder's perspective on CPs. The use of a traditional HoQ allows for in depth consideration of the customer perspective, a core component and benefit (González et al. 2011) of the approach. As identified in Section 2.3.2, a HoQ successfully aligns customer needs (VoC) with design requirements (TRs) (Evans 2008) and systematically explores the correlation between these attributes and the relative importance of them. The inclusion of the PIs in the PIHoQ allows for alignment between the VoC, TRs and PIs; again, highlighting the systematic approach taken in this study.

In constructionism "groups of people and communities develop and decide what is important and significant to them and attribute names to things and events as part of this process" (Stokes 2011, p.23). Similarly, the PIHoQ seeks the stakeholder requirements or the VoC on the basis that people allocate terms to describe their needs, rate their relative importance, and align these attributes with TRs and PIs, thus these requirements are subjective and personal. The PIHoQ framework enables the successful capture of the customer voice within a local context (LGA) and is flexibly applied to the CP under examination. This strength of the PIHoQ framework is critical in this study given that the CP PIs should, ideally, measure complex outcomes whilst being adaptive to the organisational priorities of the council, as was noted in Section 2.3.1.

The PIHoQ framework functions as both an analysis and communication tool and the developed PIHoQ is a key outcome examined in Chapter 5. As an analysis tool, the PIHoQ seeks to balance efficiency with quality services or product design (Westphal et al. 1997) (See Section 2.3.2). The practice of completing the PIHoQ takes participants through the data collection and analysis process. Stakeholder engagement in the analysis process has been shown to improve performance (Pimentel and Major 2016), communication and teamwork between internal and external stakeholders (Martins and Aspinwall 2001). As a form of communication, the tool conveniently visually shows the data, complex relationships and outcomes in a single HoQ (Adiano and Roth 1994).

3.3.5.3. Managing challenges using HoQ

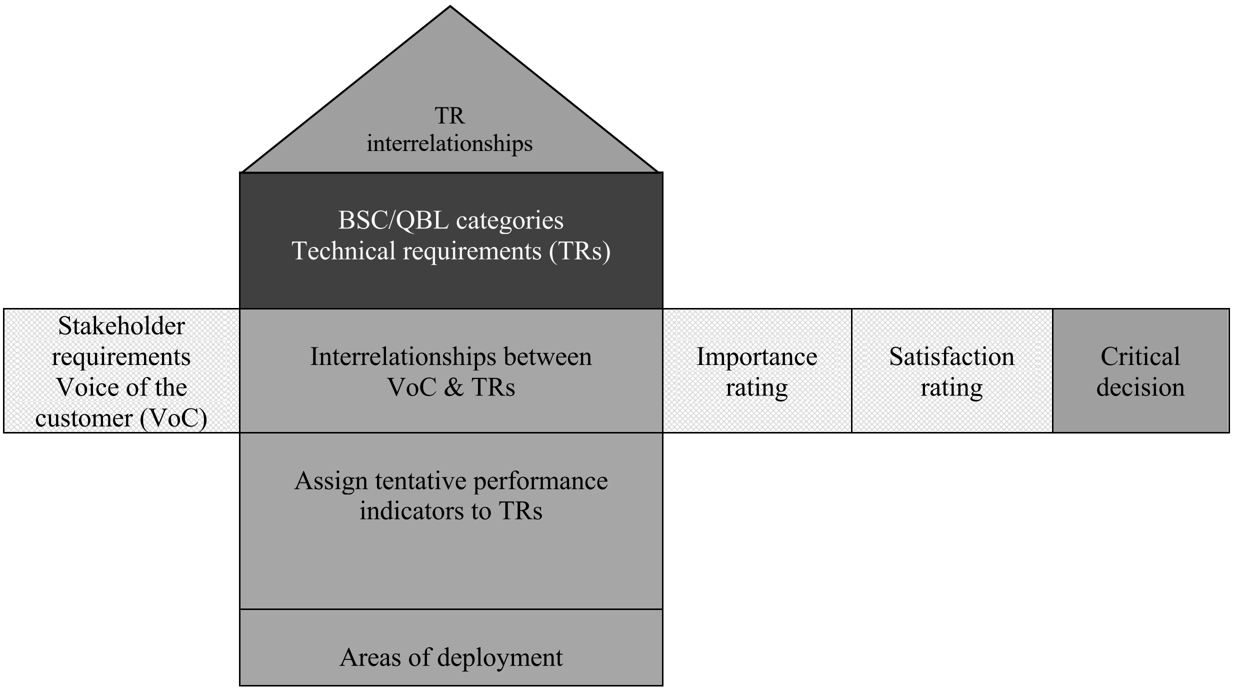
It has been argued that QFD can fail to clearly understand the needs of the customer (Goetsch and Davis 2013). To minimise the risk of this occurring, semi-structured interviews were conducted in phase 2 which provided the internal VoC and this was then compared with focus group research from phase 3 which provided the external VoC. In capturing both external and internal voices the study sought to directly embrace multiple stakeholders needs thus, ensuring a clarity of needs with key stakeholder groups. Also, the overall research process consisting of 5 phases assisted in analysing and re-interpreting or confirming stakeholder views and needs at multiple points during the research cycle and consequently, these activities aided in the deep understanding of those needs.

Other methodological difficulties articulated within the extant literature (Carnevalli and Miguel 2008) include the challenge of creating the detailed matrices (Cristiano et al. 2000) within the HoQ, the size of the framework (Shin and Kim 2000) and the product design issues (Miguel 2003) following HoQ development. Rather than seek to modify the PIHoQ in phase 4, these indicated methodological issues with the PIHoQ were explored with participants in the phase 5 research and will be explicated in Chapter 5 of this thesis.

Stakeholder participation in the development of a HoQ is found to be compromised by a lack of understanding of the QFD approach and the traditional HoQ development (Dikmen et al. 2005). With the knowledge that the success of the PIHoQ in this study rested largely on the content and process knowledge of the participants developing the framework, there was a critical need to develop participants' knowledge and understanding of the HoQ processes and to do so in a highly participative and productive way. However, guidance on any processes of developing a traditional HoQ are rarely discussed in detail within the available academic literature. Therefore, this study has also addressed this dilemma by advancing a process of PAR, to support the successful development of the PIHoQ framework in order to generate PIs for CPs. See Section 3.3.6 for the phase 5 research process.

3.3.5.4. Data collection methods within the HoQ

Figure 3-15 summarises the key elements of the PIHoQ and clearly shows three significant enhancements from the traditional HoQ found in Figure 1-1, namely the inclusion of the importance-performance ratings (rather than competitive evaluation), the BSC and QBL categories with the TRs and the assignation of tentative PIs with TRs. The critical decision and areas of deployment replace the wording of the traditional HoQs' priorities of customer and TRs but maintain the same functionality. These adaptations will be examined in detail in Chapter 5 when discussing the core components of the PIHoQ. In recognition of the dynamic nature of CPs, Figure 3-15 illustrates the multi-faceted approach taken to collecting data for inclusion in the resulting HoQ. The diagram demonstrates that mapping the stakeholder requirements (VoC) occurred over multiple phases, utilising semi-structured interviews, focus groups and surveys. The TRs and PIs, on the other hand, were developed initially by the researcher as part of the literature review and document search in phase 1. These were then reviewed and confirmed by participants in the semi-structured interviews in phase 2. The interrelationships between the TRs and the interrelationships between the TRs and the VoCs, importance rating, satisfaction rating, critical decision and areas of deployment were undertaken in phase 5 of the research, following the development of the initial PIHoQ model.


TR
interrelationships
BSC/QBL categories
Technical requirements (TRs)
Stakeholder requirements Voice of the customer (VoC)
Interrelationships between VoC & TRs
Importance rating
Satisfaction rating
Critical decision
Assign tentative performance indicators to TRs
Areas of deployment

Key:

Data obtained via semi-structured interviews (phase 2), focus groups (phase 3), surveys (phases 2-3) and participatory action research cycles (phase 5)
Data obtained via literature review (phase 1), document search (phase 1) and supplemented by semi-structured interviews (phase 2)
Developed in the participative action research cycles (phase 5)

Figure 3-15: House of quality data-capture process for cultural precincts

The processes followed to initially and incompletely populate the HoQ, utilising the data captured in the earlier phases (1-3), is outlined below and summarised in Figure 3-16. As indicated above, it should be noted that some data was not developed until the study undertook the phase 5 PAR sessions wherein the researcher and the participants jointly developed and critically assessed the complete PIHoQ. See Section 3.3.6 below for an understanding of the full process undertaken in phase 5. However, the initially populated but incomplete PIHoQ was prepared in advance by the researcher in phase 4 of this study, in preparation for the PAR sessions in phase 5. Figure 3-16 highlights the steps undertaken specifically in phase 4 of the study which focused primarily on the VoCs, TRs and PIs. The discussion immediately below focuses on steps 1, 2 and 5 of Figure 3-16 which were undertaken in this research phase while steps 3, 4, 6-8 are explored in detail in Section 3.3.6 as they were solely developed in research phase 5. The PIHoQ development steps are each discussed in more detail in the proceeding sub-sections. As noted in Figure 3-14, during the development of the PIHoQ, the researcher also took notes on the methodical process undertaken, the challenges faced in developing the PIHoQ and the potential opportunities associated with using this approach.

Step 1: Review and combine VoCs

- **Phase 4: reviewed and combined**
- Phase 5: further refined

Step 2: Assign technical requirements (TRs)

- **Phase 4: assigned**
- Phase 5: further refined

Step 3: Map interrelationships between TRs

- Phase 5 only

Step 4: Map interrelationships between TRs with VoCs

- Phase 5 only

Step 5: Assign tentative performance indicators (PIs) to TRs

- **Phase 4: assigned**
- Phase 5: reviewed and made additions

Step 6: Rate VoC priorities - importance and satisfaction

- Phase 5 only

Step 7: Designate critical decisions

- Phase 5 only

Step 8: Select deployable TRs

- Phase 5 only

Figure 3-16: Phases 4-5 PIHoQ development and refinement steps

3.3.5.5. Step 1: Review and combine Voice of the customer (VoC) requirements

As mentioned earlier, Evans (2008), for example, recommends using the customers own words, so that their requirements are not misinterpreted during any analysis. The customers may have different priorities and in this study there might also be differences between the internal and external VoCs. For example, some customers may focus on safety and a reduction in crime within facilities while others may focus on interesting and changing art exhibitions in an art gallery space. As the VoCs in this study were brought together, attention was thus paid to using the customer's own words to ensure meaning was not lost or misinterpreted during analysis.

The process of synthesising and combining the initial VoC requirements from both internal and external stakeholders involved undertaking a comparative analysis of the attributes and bringing the words of the similar attributes together and averaging their importance ratings obtained through the prioritisation surveys. For example, internal stakeholders indicated that "The facilities and programming in the cultural precinct are of a high quality" with an average importance rating of 4.625. The external stakeholders provided the following attribute: "Programming and resources in the cultural precinct are age-appropriate and cover from the cradle to the grave" with an average importance rating of 3.167. The combined VoC was as follows: "Programming and resources are of a high-quality, age-appropriate and cover from the cradle to the grave" with an average importance rating of 3.896. Importantly, the words of the VoC were not lost in the synthesising of VoCs, thus avoiding misinterpretation of the data.

3.3.5.6. Step 2: Assign technical requirements (TRs)

As part of the PIHoQ process, a range of features were developed in order to address stakeholder requirements or VoCs. These features are referred to as the "technical requirements". They are traditionally expressed in the language of the stakeholders and "form the basis for subsequent design, manufacturing, and service process activities" (Evans 2008, p.296). They represent the "how" in the development and continuous improvement of CPs.

These TRs relate to aspects such as price, availability of parking or transport options, diversity of programming and catering options. These requirements need to be measurable and relate to objectives of the organisation for comparative purposes. For ease of reference these were categorised according to the BSC/QBL elements of financial, customer, internal processes and learning & growth and governance & leadership. The reasoning behind these categorisations were outlined in Section 3.3.3.4 and Section 2.3.3.

3.3.5.7. Step 5: Assign tentative performance indicators

Step five, the assignment of tentative PIs to TRs was another critical point of difference from traditional houses of quality (HoQ). Performance measurement practice and best practice PIs were collated in phase 1 and refined in phase 2. In phase 4, these PIs were aligned with and attached to the identified TRs by the researcher. These PIs included output-focused PIs, such as the number of visitors through the facility, and more complex, outcome-focused PIs, such as customer satisfaction ratings.

The remaining steps are detailed in Section 3.3.6.3 and beyond.

3.3.6. Phase 5: Assessment & refinement of PIHoQ process & identification of performance indicators - participative action research (PAR) activities

"We are capable of many voices" (Pettigrew 2005, p.977).

The final research phase involved PAR, and drawing on Pettigrew's concept of "many voices", this involved engaging both internal and external stakeholders in the research process. Firstly however, some introductory comments on action research (AR). AR involves a researcher conducting collaborative research within a particular context, place or with a group of people (Stokes 2011) and is characterised by the pursuit of iterative change or improvement (Hinchey 2008). In Lewin's (1946) seminal AR work he argued for contextual research that included planning, action and fact-finding. Over time, these cycles have been qualified and reflected as a cyclical graph that visually identifies four components of the action research cycle: plan, act, observe and reflect, as depicted in Figure 3-17 (Townsend 2013, pp.11-12).

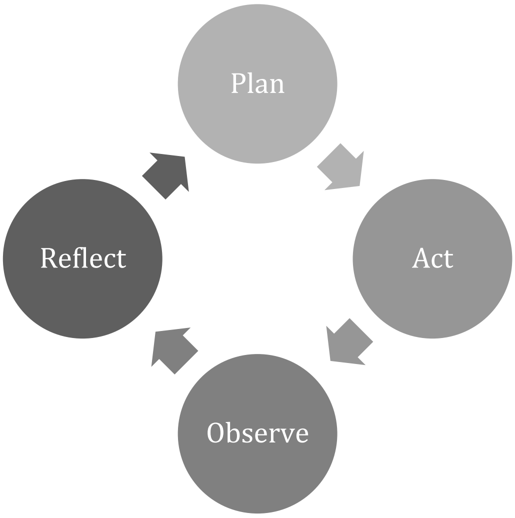


Figure 3-17: Action research cycle

This AR cycle is acknowledged as an appropriate approach to increase learning, improve problem solving and understanding, improve organisational practice and support co-production of knowledge (Zuber-Skerritt and Perry 2002). The utilisation of AR has, for example, encouraged participant ownership during the development of a clinical framework as well as encourage collaboration and transformational change within an organisation (Kelleher and McAuliffe 2012). Moreover, the application of AR (in any form) is not new to the field of TQM

(Beer 2003). Further, research also suggests that the use of AR has utility as a methodological approach for the development of performance measurement systems (Groen et al. 2012). Acknowledging the current study is situated in the context of public administrations, other research suggests that AR in this context has a positive impact on decision-making and contrasts the legislative approach of government; that is, to communicate rather than collaborate after a decision has already been reached (Brydon and Vining 2016). Carr and Kemmis (1986) argue that emancipatory AR with its collaborative relationship between the researcher and participants and its transformational role in organisational practice makes it a highly effective methodological approach.

PAR is an emancipatory form of action research where the group takes cooperative responsibility for the development of the practice and their context (McTaggart 1997a). The researcher is the moderator or "facilitator of research" (Wadsworth 2001, pp.430-431). Participants within the research setting are considered co-researchers with genuine participation and possession of the processes and outcomes; participants share knowledge, create meaning and own the outcomes (McTaggart 1997b). Furthermore, PAR is systematic in the collection of research evidence through thorough group reflection (McTaggart 1997a). PAR being the final research phase in this project, sought to mitigate the tensions between the various versions of truth or reality and the need in research to develop a framework within which to understand a theory or problem (Chevalier and Buckles 2013). PAR was also deemed synergistic with the social constructivist and quality-oriented approach of this thesis, where participants address a common issue and as a result, contrive knowledge (Park 2001). Streck (2006, p.93) argues that "learning of participation cannot be accomplished without participation" and this perspective is evident in this current study, where PAR impacts the PIHoQ creation and the formation of the PIHoQ influences the evolution of PAR. Thus, PAR acted as the learning vehicle through which knowledge sharing and development was achieved amongst and within stakeholders involved in the CPs. It was also considered an appropriately democratic and active way to bring those stakeholder voices together to challenge and refine the initial PIHoQ decision-making framework and produce a set of PIs relevant to the case study contexts.

This final research phase in this study involved two councils, each participating in 3 PAR cycles or interventions and 6 reflections which are summarised in Figure 3-18. Whilst AR in more than one case is not the standard approach, research shows that comparative analysis across multiple cases utilising PAR is valid and can lead to robust data collection and cross-case analysis (Fletcher et al. 2015). Broadly, the PAR approach utilised in this study had the researcher and participants review the problem of PIs for CPs and work together

(Bryman 2012), to learn in that process, to critically examine the PIHoQ, the decision-making framework development process, and develop the PIs; and make changes to the process to improve it. PAR actively supports such co-creation between stakeholders and experts or practitioners (Chen-Fu and Tung-Jung 2016). The PAR practice developed herein, has commonality with Pyrko et al's. (2017) reflections on "thinking together" within communities of practice; bringing stakeholders together to learn and reflect on themes or issues of mutual interest. There is recognition that the learning undertaken in PAR cycles is not done in isolation and is affected by a range of conditions or, as Sense and Badham (2008, p.436) theorise, social learning in communities of people is impacted by sociological elements including the tendencies of the participant cognitive styles, relationships between participants (learning relationships), assertion or otherwise of a participant's power (pyramid of authority), the process of handling knowledge (knowledge management) and the physical environment (situational context). With recognition of these impacts, the researcher took notes of such circumstances and wrote these in her reflective notes during and after each PAR cycle. The PAR cycles were initially undertaken in one case council and then, following the learnings from the first case council, the PAR cycles were refined and enacted in the second case council.

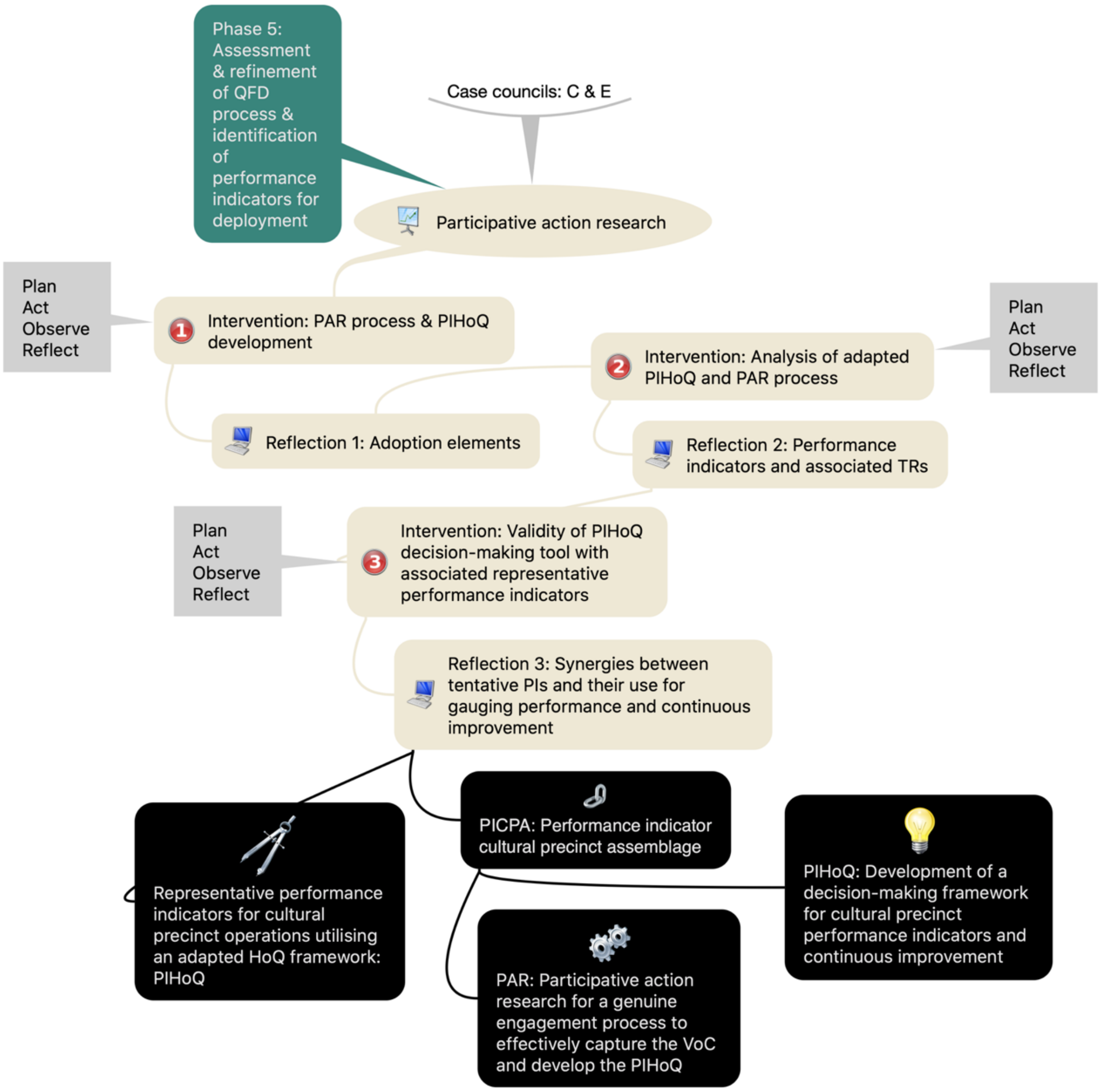

Phase 5: Assessment & refinement of QFD process & identification of performance indicators for deployment
Case councils: C & E
Participative action research
Plan
Act
Observe
Reflect
1 Intervention: PAR process & PIHoQ development
2 Intervention: Analysis of adapted PIHoQ and PAR process
Plan
Act
Observe
Reflect
Reflection 1: Adoption elements
Reflection 2: Performance indicators and associated TRs
Plan
Act
Observe
Reflect
3 Intervention: Validity of PIHoQ decision-making tool with associated representative performance indicators
Reflection 3: Synergies between tentative PIs and their use for gauging performance and continuous improvement
PICPA: Performance indicator cultural precinct assemblage
Representative performance indicators for cultural precinct operations utilising an adapted HoQ framework: PIHoQ
PIHoQ: Development of a decision-making framework for cultural precinct performance indicators and continuous improvement
PAR: Participative action research for a genuine engagement process to effectively capture the VoC and develop the PIHoQ

Figure 3-18: Phase 5 participative action research

Broadly, phase 5 interventions sought to:

1. Have internal and external cultural precinct stakeholders learn about and critically examine the PI development process and its elements and identify barriers and issues to the utilisation of the process and maintenance of it within the local government industry.
2. Have stakeholders intervene in the developed process in order to improve it by enhancing or making changes to the process and investigate and validate process improvements.
3. Have stakeholders propose and critically assess tentative PIs associated with TRs and strong relationship VoC attributes, and to reflect on their use, consistency and validity in respect to their context.

The processes undertaken in phase 5 “sensitised” stakeholders to the needs of their customers (Adiano and Roth 1994, p.36) and stimulated discussion on CP requirements, PAR process improvements and PI development. Adiano and Roth (1994) argued that such sensitisation leads to not only improvement but innovation. These PAR cycles are described in further detail below and summarised in Figure 3-19.

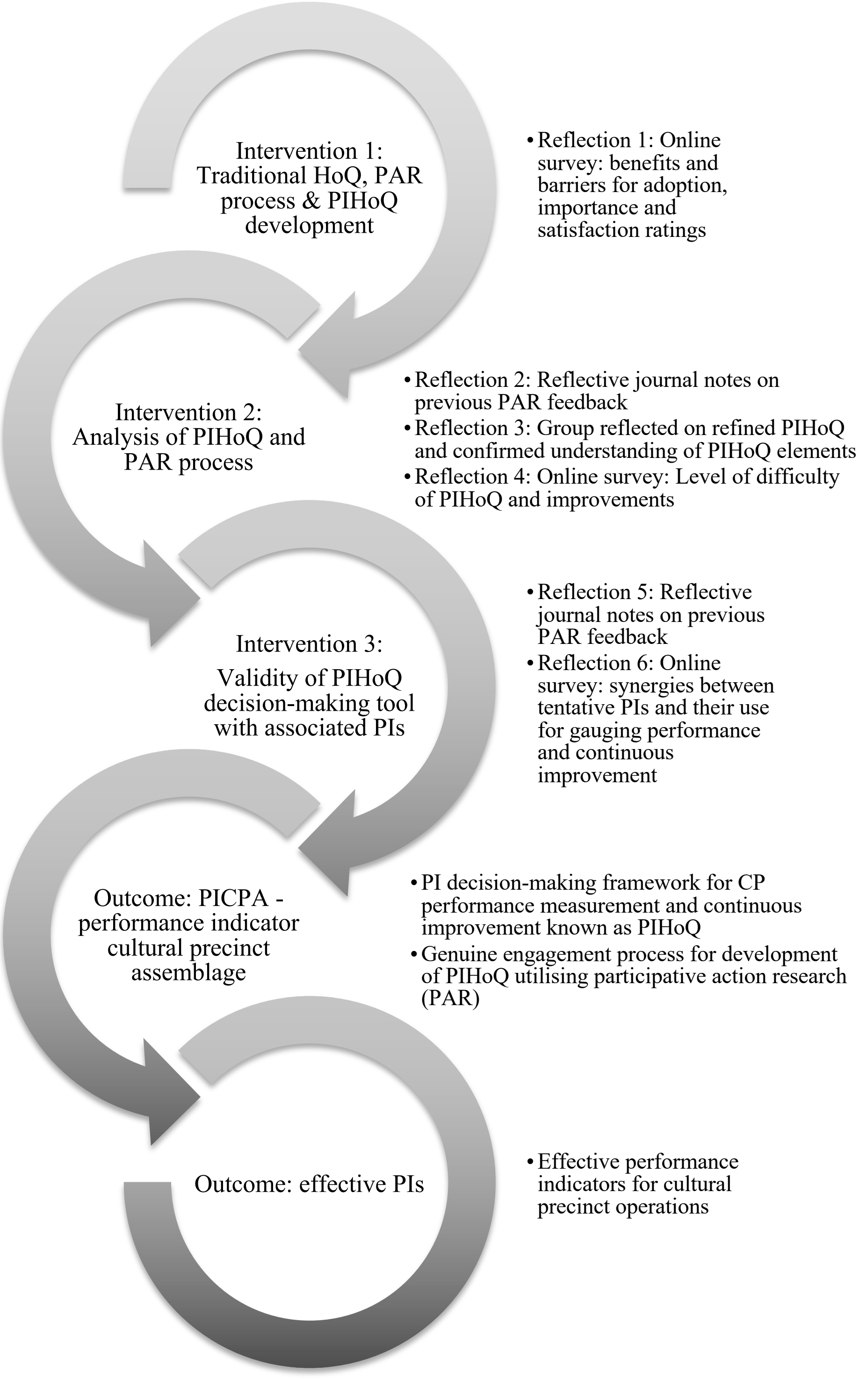

Intervention 1: Traditional HoQ, PAR process & PIHoQ development
• Reflection 1: Online survey: benefits and barriers for adoption, importance and satisfaction ratings
Intervention 2: Analysis of PIHoQ and PAR process
• Reflection 2: Reflective journal notes on previous PAR feedback
• Reflection 3: Group reflected on refined PIHoQ and confirmed understanding of PIHoQ elements
• Reflection 4: Online survey: Level of difficulty of PIHoQ and improvements
Intervention 3: Validity of PIHoQ decision-making tool with associated PIs
• Reflection 5: Reflective journal notes on previous PAR feedback
• Reflection 6: Online survey: synergies between tentative PIs and their use for gauging performance and continuous improvement
Outcome: PICPA - performance indicator cultural precinct assemblage
• PI decision-making framework for CP performance measurement and continuous improvement known as PIHoQ
• Genuine engagement process for development of PIHoQ utilising participative action research (PAR)
Outcome: effective PIs
• Effective performance indicators for cultural precinct operations

Figure 3-19: Phase 5 intervention and reflection cycles

Pursuing a PAR approach to the final phase 5 research was beneficial as it directly linked the research questions with the research outcomes and multiple stakeholder perspectives (Zhang et al. 2015). In order to effectively address the research questions (See Section 1.1), the form the PIHoQ framework took and the PAR process used for genuine engagement (or outcomes) needed to adapt to reduce the impact of identified barriers. The PAR cycles, therefore, examined the PIHoQ development process and utilisation or adoption barriers. As in Algeo's (2014) action research on an investigative framework for the acquisition and exchange of knowledge, this PAR sought "adoption" of the decision-making framework and tentative PIs by the participants through the "augmentation (modification and enhancement)" of the same. The PAR cycles ultimately sought to develop, adapt, refine and adopt an effective framework (PIHoQ) and engagement process (PAR); generating meaningful PIs for CPs.

3.3.6.1. PAR case study councils and participants

Two case studies, councils C and E were selected for this final research phase, both having CP developments at different stages of operation. Improvements and enhancements to the PIHoQ, PI development process and the PIs made in the first case study council were then applied in the second council as part of the cyclical PAR process. Applying PAR across two councils in this way meant that the learnings from the first council were transferred into the activities in the second council where further PAR cycles enabled further critiqued those prior outcomes.

It was felt that for continuity it would be advantageous to have both a previously and newly participating council involved in this final research phase i.e. Council C and Council E. Council E's independence from prior involvement was viewed as a positive in this study in that their fresh perspectives would likely challenge and query any previously derived outcomes. Contrastingly, Council C and its stakeholders had been heavily involved throughout the prior research activities associated with the development of the PIHoQ. Their prior involvement was also considered highly desirable in this study in that their critical reflections and commentary would embrace their continuity of engagement across the entire research project and incorporate those experiences.

With recognition that collaboration within the public sector benefits participants' knowledge development and problem-solving capacity (Agranoff 2006), and with due regard to the intentions of this current study it was deemed appropriate and beneficial to bring together internal and external stakeholders in this final research phase. Up until phase 5, the two stakeholder groups had not come together. Within each council, six internal and six external stakeholders were invited to participate in the PAR cycles. As with the phase 3 focus groups, the concern regarding over-representation of special interest groups (Buchanan 1997) was managed by ensuring numbers of external stakeholders in each category was appropriately managed and that all stakeholders were provided a voice during the PAR sessions. The PAR process required participants willing to join the process, contribute to learning and assist in the co-production of PICPA. To safeguard the participative nature of the PAR process and ensure the effectiveness of the research (Porschen-Hueck and Neumer 2015), participants were volunteers and sessions were not mandatory; after all, unwilling participants may compromise the validity of the research (Canterino et al. 2018). During the PAR cycles the participants were very deliberately termed "co-researchers" to highlight their participative role in the PAR process. This terminology was conveyed to the participants in the PAR sessions. The internal stakeholders were again selected based on the same criteria as was used in phase 2, Section 3.3.3.1 above. Similarly, the participants for the external stakeholders were selected on the same principles as in, phase 3, Section 3.3.4.1. It was preferable that participants had access to the internet in order for them to complete reflection surveys following each intervention sessions, however, it was not mandatory. Where participants were unable or did not have access to the internet, hard copy surveys were provided to them and the researcher entered the data into the online tool on their behalf.

In order to understand the impact or effect of the different stakeholder groups, a stakeholder analysis was also required in this phase. A stakeholder analysis rainbow was utilised by the researcher, shown in Figure 3-20, to demonstrate the level of influence different stakeholders would have on CPs and the level to which they were affected by changes to the precinct (Chevalier and Buckles 2008). This was important, considering the impact of asymmetric information, as outlined in Sections 2.2.6 and 2.2.7. Identification of stakeholder influence within the PAR sessions ensured that the researcher provided equal opportunities for all stakeholders to participate in the PAR sessions and ensured all participants understood the information presented in the sessions.

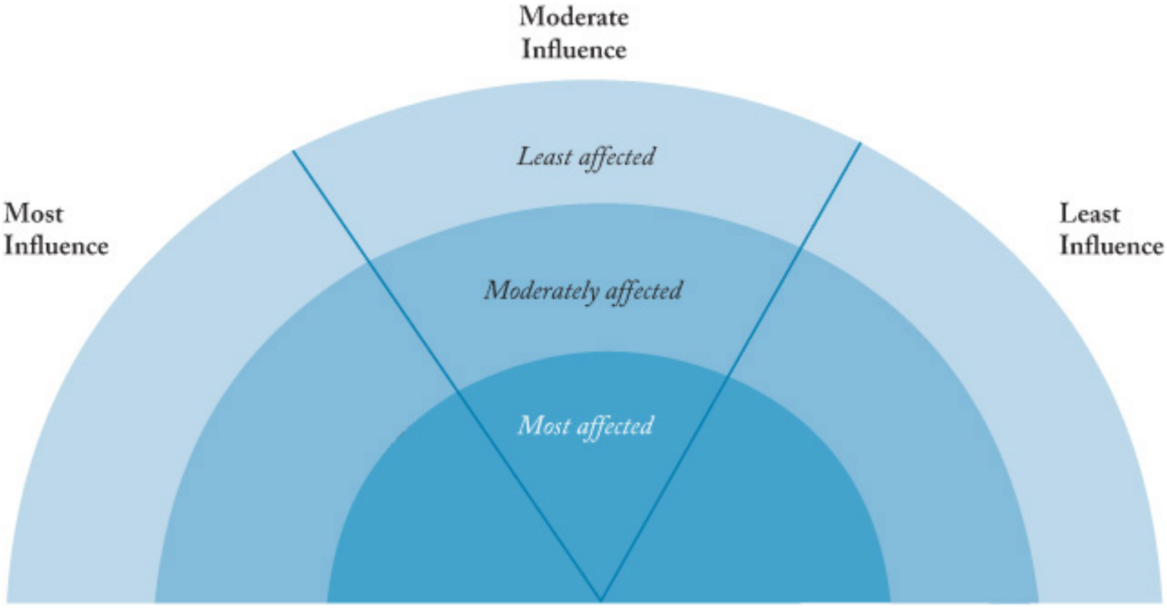


Figure 3-20: Stakeholder rainbow analysis - cultural precincts (Chevalier and Buckles 2008, p.167)

Within the PAR cycles, participants were provided opportunities throughout the sessions to clarify meaning, change wording and discuss language as it applied to the activities of the PAR.

3.3.6.2. PAR process and cycles

Council E undertook PARs 1 to 3 and Council C undertook PARs 4 to 6. PARs 4 to 6 were supported by the learnings of PARs 1 to 3. The PARs 1-3 matched the content of PARs 4-6, as shown in Tables 3-5 to 3-7. However, PARs 4-6 were supported by the learnings of PARs 1-3. Each PAR cycle incorporated the plan, act, observe and reflect manta of action research (Algeo 2014). Each PAR session was undertaken over 3-4 hours, dependent on the availability of the participants. There was between 1-3 weeks between each PAR session within a case council. Maintaining a focus on the development and enhancement of the PIHoQ with the participants was a concern of the researcher, and is indeed reflected in the literature on the challenges of conducting action research; see for example, Townsend (2013). To manage this concern, the researcher developed the timeframe for all PAR sessions in advance and worked with the participants to be flexible enough to ensure they were able to attend and could spare the 3-4 hours for each session. Where participants were observed to be possibly disengaged and unfocused on the PIHoQ, the researcher worked with them individually to reengage them and address their concerns/or issues with the processes.

The PAR cycles specifically included:

PAR Cycle 1/4	Role of researcher	Role of participants
Plan	Developed: - PIHoQ + explanations and discussions + history of - Stakeholder analysis - Short hardcopy survey on perceived ease of use and benefit - Importance/Satisfaction surveys - Adoption benefits and barriers survey	
Act (no.1)	Presented the PIHoQ decision-making framework and processes to participants	Asked questions and sought clarity on the processes and PIHoQ. During session participants individually completed a short survey on perceived ease of use and benefit.
Observe	Noted questions asked and reflective comments and concerns made by participants to understand the framework Noted the actions, responses and behaviours of participants in small groups whilst discussing the positives and negatives of the process and PIHoQ.	In small groups, participants discussed and wrote down initial thoughts on the PIHoQ, including their perceived positives and negatives of the processes. Participants noted any other participant's learnings or actions during this discussion.
Act (no.2)	Presented PIHoQ specifics: 1. VoC attribute development 2. TR review and refinement 3. VoC/TR matrix (A3 worksheet) 4. Importance rating 5. Satisfaction rating	Undertook: 1. VoC attribute development – See Section 3.3.5.5 2. TR review and refinement - See Section 3.3.5.6 3. VoC/TR matrix relationship in small groups - See Sections 3.3.6.3 Step 3: Map interrelationships between TRs and 3.3.6.4
Reflect	Noted behaviours and actions of participants in a reflective journal following session. Also noted researchers' concerns, thoughts and questions arising from the day's PAR cycle.	Participants reflected at the end of each presented PIHoQ element on their understanding of the concept, their ideas for improvements and their concerns for its usefulness in practice. Individually and privately completed an online survey as a reflection on the day's PAR cycle, scrutinizing: - Benefits and barriers for adoption of the HoQ tool – See Section 3.3.6.8 - Trade-off importance rating for VoCs - See Section 3.3.6.5 - Satisfaction ratings of VoCs - See Section 3.3.6.5

Table 3-5: PAR cycle 1: PIHoQ development and barriers to adoption

PAR Cycle 2/5	Role of researcher	Role of participants
Plan	Analysed and inserted VoC/TR matrix, importance and satisfaction data into PAR 2 PIHoQ. Designated critical decisions and mapped quadrant graph utilising an importance-performance analysis tool. Analysed barriers to adoption and adapted PIHoQ to address barriers.	Took into account current PIs for the council, prior to the session – See Section 3.3.5.7. Also reflected on and wrote down the value and relevance of the current PI practice.
Act	Provided feedback to the participants on the previous PAR session. Presented PAR 2 PIHoQ – highlighted changes to the improved PIHoQ.	In small groups: 1. Reviewed and refined VoCs, TRs, PIHoQ, interrelationships between TRs and TRs with VoCs. 2. Analysed the critical decision scores with TRs with strong VoC relationships – See Section 3.3.6.6. 3. On the worksheet provided, indicated the "deployable" TRs – See Section 3.3.6.7 - In new small groups, appraised and wrote down reasons for differences in deployable TRs. 4. Compared worksheets across small working groups for differences and similarities. 5. Interrogated barriers and adaption techniques and wrote down initial thoughts on if modifications reduce barrier. 6. Reviewed council's PIs and their usefulness. 7. Critically assessed and reviewed tentative PI list, refined and augmented the list – See Section 3.3.5.7.
Observe	Noted how participants came to their decisions on deployable TRs. Examined confusion or differences among small working groups and asked questions of participants to understand their discussion, noting down pertinent learnings.	In small groups, participants discussed and wrote down thoughts on the PIHoQ and compared deployable TRs across tables, noting their thoughts on the differences and similarities.
Reflect	Noted behaviours and actions of participants in a reflective journal following session. Also noted researchers' concerns, thoughts and questions arising from the day's PAR cycle.	Participants reflected on the feedback given from the previous PAR session and noted comments in their reflective journal during the session. Reflected, as a group, after each point of discussion, on the refined elements of the PIHoQ and confirmed understanding of each element and its correlation with other elements of the PIHoQ. Privately and individually, completed an online survey following the PAR session: • Level of difficulty in working through the PIHoQ process • Development phases and maturity pathway

Table 3-6: PAR cycle 2: Analysis of augmented PIHoQ and PI development

PAR Cycle 3/6	Role of researcher	Role of participants
Plan	Inserted performance indicators to PAR 3 PIHoQ.	Provided performance indicators of relevance for TRs.
Act	Provided feedback to the participants on the previous PAR session. Presented latest updated PIHoQ.	Critically assessed the changes to the PIHoQ and suggested further improvements. In the session worked through a "Focus" (Critical Decision) VoC to explore how it would be actioned within a council and the benefits of mapping its associated deployable TRs and PIs, to understand its practical application in a council. Determined the selection of PIs with the categories of the maturity pathway and development phases.
Observe	Noted reasons for changes to PIs or other elements of the PIHoQ having worked through the whole process.	Observed how participants were attempting to change the PIHoQ following completion of the "act" tasks and noted down, during the session, if they saw benefit in the changes being suggested. If they saw no benefit, they were asked to write why.
Reflect	Noted behaviours and actions of participants in a reflective journal following session. Also noted researchers' concerns, thoughts and questions arising from the day's PAR cycle.	Participants reflected on the feedback given from the previous PAR session and noted comments in their reflective journal during the session. Throughout session, participants reflected on the refinements made between the first and final PAR sessions and the changes to their understanding of PIHoQ and PI development. Completed a private online survey following the session reflecting on the overall adaption of the tool to reduce barriers to adoption.

Table 3-7: PAR cycle 3: HoQ decision-making tool and PM validation

While these PAR activities may appear well-organised prior to deployment in the field (See Tables 3-5 to 3-7), each cycle in this study still represented an ethically complex exercise in bricolage (Badham and Sense 2001) requiring a creative assemblage of activities/actions at the workface by the researcher as participants learnt, reflected on and proposed alternatives.

During PAR sessions, participants were asked to write responses and comments on the butchers' paper or handouts provided for each exercise. This practice mitigated the challenge of how to effectively record data from action research sessions (Townsend 2013) in the words of the participants. These were collected at the end of each session and the researcher would undertake the data entry. Following each PAR session, the researcher inputted all collected data into consolidated excel spreadsheets. Due to the high volume of data collected, each case council data had its own excel spreadsheet. Similarly, the reflection survey data and researcher journal notes were also included in the excel spreadsheets. Data from each PAR session was presented back to participants at the next PAR session via a PowerPoint presentation. Hardcopies of the presentations were provided to all participants to improve access to the data and as a reminder of early data sets.

Participants in phase 5 undertook the remaining steps earlier outlined in Figure 3-16. While steps 1, 2 and 5 were completed during phase 4 (discussion in Section 3.3.5), the remaining steps are outlined here as they were solely undertaken in phase 5.

3.3.6.3. Step 3: Map interrelationships between TRs

Step three in the development of the PIHoQ involved mapping the relationships between TRs. The roof of the HoQ reflected the relationship between pairs of TRs, such as, for example a very strong relationship between price (entry fee) and programming (scheduled activity). The benefit of studying these correlations highlighted how changing one TR influences another (Evans 2008); demonstrating causality between attributes. Each interrelationship was traditionally designated by:

1. Very strong relationship - **10** or ●
2. Strong relationship - **5** or ○
3. Weak relationship - 1 or ▽

This method of documenting the correlations between TRs allowed the researcher to understand the complexity of the attributes and how one might influence another. The TR interrelationship matrix highlights strong links between TRs. A participant may see only one strong relationship between a VoC and a TR. However, the TR matrix shows that the selected TR also has a strong relationship with another TR. As a consequence, the additional TR, and its accompanying PIs, might be positively or negatively impacted by decisions related to the original VoC and aligned TR. The correlation key, as outlined above, was prepared for the PIHoQ to allow ease of data entry at the point when the analysis was undertaken in phase 5. These TR interrelationships were not pre-mapped by the researcher in phase 4, and thus participants in the phase 5 PAR sessions undertook this process so that they could develop their collective understanding of the causal relationships between TRs when making decisions related to the relationships between VoCs and TRs.

3.3.6.4. Step 4: Map interrelationship matrix between the TRs with VoCs

The interrelationships between TRs with VoCs, as shown in step four in Figure 3-16*,* was also not pre-mapped in phase 4. Rather, the PIHoQ was prepared in anticipation of phase 5 data entry. The same correlation key as used for TR interrelationships was also employed here to determine if the TRs relate to the VOCs. One TR might have a relationship with multiple stakeholder requirements or no relationship at all. Having no relationship might indicate the TR is no longer required "or the designers may have missed an important customer attribute" (Evans 2008, p.296). In undertaking the phase 5 activities of this study with multiple participants across two councils, it was possible to further develop, critically review and validate relationships between VoCs and TRs.

3.3.6.5. Step 6: Rate VoC priorities – importance-performance

The list of VoC requirements obtained can be voluminous and some requirements might be more important than others. Correctly rating the satisfaction (Nahm et al. 2013) and importance of each attribute was critical in the PIHoQ development. In phase 5 the ranking of importance and satisfaction (also known as importance-performance analysis) was undertaken by participants. This was useful in rating how important each stakeholder requirement or VoC was on a scale of 1 to 5; a ranking of 5 indicating the "greatest interest and highest expectations' of stakeholders" (Evans 2008, p.296). The satisfaction (or performance) ranking was similarly rated on a 1 to 5 ranking scale of a customer's satisfaction with the particular stakeholder VOC.

3.3.6.6. Step 7: Designate critical decision

An evaluation of the importance and satisfaction ratings helps determine which VoC attributes should be focused on. In phase 4, the researcher created quadrant graphs to aid the decision-making process of participants in phase 5. Participants in phase 5, as will be shown in Section 5.2.4, had some difficulty understanding the critical decision designation. As such, the researcher took participants' rankings of importance and satisfaction and mapped them on these quadrant graphs, see Figure 3-21, and then shared those with phase 5 participants when making their critical decision. The importance-satisfaction interdependencies, when graphically demonstrated as the sample Figure 3-21 shows, provides participants with an easy to understand series of actions (Graf et al. 1992): maintain, review, promote and focus. More recently, this analysis has been coined as importance-performance analysis, though the approach has been modified with greater use of a derived importance-performance analysis tool (Ortigueira-Sánchez et al. 2017), and utilised in this research.

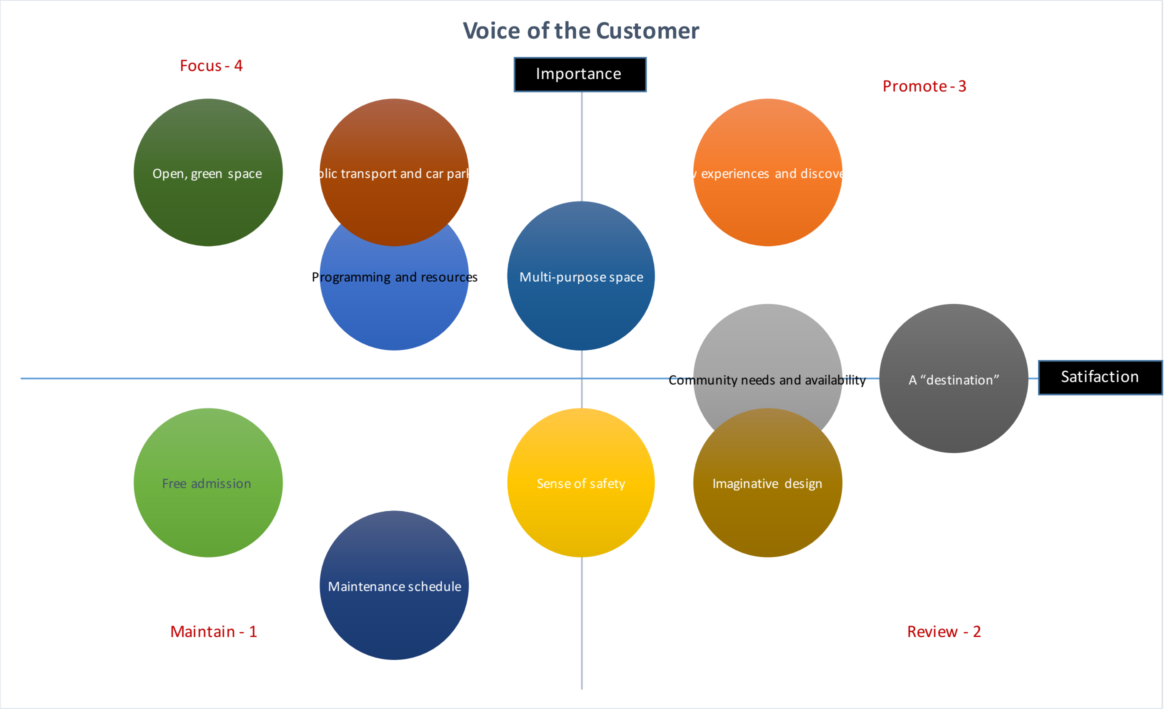


Figure 3-21: Quadrant graph sample - VoC importance and satisfaction ratings

The categorisation of a VoC to a quadrant was based on the following ratings as seen in Table 3-8.

Action	Critical decision rating (maximum score)	Importance	Satisfaction
Focus	3.5 - 4	High	Low
Promote	2.5 - 3	High	High
Review	1.5 - 2	Low	High
Maintain	0.5 - 1	Low	Low

Table 3-8: Critical decision ratings

Clearly, high importance and satisfaction rated VoCs require promotion. The "focus" VoCs were the critical decision points with a high importance score and a low satisfaction score. VoCs with a low rating for both importance and satisfaction needed no further action while VoCs with a low importance and high satisfaction required further review to determine if there should be less focus on these items in the organisation.

3.3.6.7. Step 8: Select deployable TRs

Step 8, the selection of deployable TRs, was undertaken in phase 5 by participants. The selection was conducted through a comparison of the TRs that addressed the critical decision VoCs; that is, in the case study organisations, "focus" VoCs. In selecting the "focus" TRs, a suite of PIs was now available to the participants to measure the performance of the TRs against the VoCs. An organisation, having previously targeted "focus"

VoCs for example, might wish to target a different critical decision. The organisation might wish to target "review" VoCs with recognition that stakeholders consider these VoCs of low importance whilst indicating high satisfaction. In the event that the organisation targets a different critical decision, the deployable TRs and the associated PIs will differ. This flexible approach gives an organisation a different line of inquiry.

3.3.6.8. Reflection surveys

Reflection surveys were undertaken on-line by participants following each PAR session. While hardcopy versions of the surveys were offered to those participants with a preference for hardcopy surveys, all participants opted to complete the online surveys. All surveys and questions allowed for additional comments by participants, as optional fields. The data obtained from each survey was then in-putted into the research excel worksheets by the researcher and presented back to the participants at the next PAR session. Participants had, typically, one week to individually complete the reflection survey. The researcher had one week to complete the data entry and prepare the materials for the next PAR session.

Benefits and barriers

The benefits and barriers survey was undertaken following the PAR 1 and PAR 3 sessions. The survey asked participants to consider the relevance of the statements listed below in Table 3-9 for the potential benefits and barriers to adopting the decision-making framework – and this survey process utilised the work of Paré et al. (2014) and Carnevalli and Miguel (2008). The Carnevalli and Miguel (2008) research provided a summary of the perceived benefits and barriers as reported in academic literature on QFD between 2002 and 2006 from a total of 79 journal articles. Paré et al.'s (2014) work identified a range of barriers to the implementation of electronic medical record (EMR) systems in medical practices in Canada, based on the research of Boonstra and Broekhuis (2010). Paré's identified barriers were similar to, but broader in scope, than those barriers found in QFD literature. The QFD-relevant barriers and benefits were coalesced with the barriers identified in Paré's study to test a broader range of barriers. For example, the barriers:

- "Time to select, purchase and implement an EMR system
- Time to learn the system
- Time to enter data into EMR system
- More time per patient
- Time to convert the records" (Paré et al. 2014, p.550)

were specific to the delivery and implementation of an EMR and needed adaptation to this study. Barriers related to time factors were instead summarised as “Time to learn the framework, process and data entry”, similar to Carnevalli and Miguel’s “lack of time for the project” (2008, p.739). An additional benefit, “improved relevancy of performance indicators”, was established by the researcher of this current study to test the usefulness of the PIHoQ. During the PAR sessions, it was useful to test these benefits and barriers with participants in an effort to establish the conditions where this framework and process could be readily implemented in other contexts. Participants assessed the barriers and benefits via the online survey. Where there was consensus in the survey instrument the researcher worked with participants to find solutions to barriers and understand benefits in richer detail. The survey was repeated following PAR 3/6 in order to understand if the perceived benefits and barriers changed following completion of the PIHoQ process.

BENEFITS	Based on the work of
Improved reliability	Carnevalli and Miguel (2008)
Decreased project changes	Carnevalli and Miguel (2008)
Decreased time	Carnevalli and Miguel (2008)
Decreased costs	Carnevalli and Miguel (2008)
Flexibility of the framework	Carnevalli and Miguel (2008)
Communication improvements	Carnevalli and Miguel (2008)
Help in data analysis and rational decision making	Carnevalli and Miguel (2008)
Improved team work	Carnevalli and Miguel (2008)
Improved relevancy of performance indicators	New benefit to test in relation to the PIHoQ
BARRIERS	**Based on the work of**
Financial	
High costs	Paré et al. (2014)
Lack of financial resources	Paré et al. (2014) Carnevalli and Miguel (2008)
Technical	
Lack of computer skills of staff	Paré et al. (2014)
Lack of technical training and support	Paré et al. (2014) Carnevalli and Miguel (2008)
Complexity of the framework	Paré et al. (2014)
Limitations of the framework (lack of customisability, of reliability)	Paré et al. (2014)
Lack of computers/hardware	Paré et al. (2014)
Time	
Time to learn the framework, process and data entry	Paré et al. (2014) Carnevalli and Miguel (2008)
Psychological	
Lack of belief in the framework	Paré et al. (2014) Carnevalli and Miguel (2008)
Need for control	Paré et al. (2014)
Social	
Uncertainty about the framework and process	Paré et al. (2014) Carnevalli and Miguel (2008)
Lack of support from external parties	Paré et al. (2014)
Lack of support from other colleagues	Paré et al. (2014)
Lack of support from the management team	Paré et al. (2014) Carnevalli and Miguel (2008)
Legal	
Privacy or security concerns	Paré et al. (2014)
Change process	
Lack of support from organisational culture	Paré et al. (2014) Carnevalli and Miguel (2008)
Lack of incentives	Paré et al. (2014)
Lack of participation	Paré et al. (2014) Carnevalli and Miguel (2008)
Lack of leadership	Paré et al. (2014) Carnevalli and Miguel (2008)

Table 3-9: Benefits and barriers to develop and implement systems such as QFD

VoC priorities – importance-performance rankings

The ranking of VoC priorities according to their relative importance and satisfaction (importance-performance analysis), as discussed in Section 3.3.5.3, was adapted from the traditional HoQ process for the priorities of the customer and the competitive evaluation. The importance rankings were initially undertaken in phase 2 with internal stakeholders (See Section 3.3.3.4) and phase 3 with external stakeholders (See Section 3.3.4.1). However, the full importance-performance rankings were completed for the first time in phase 5. These rankings were undertaken in the first reflection survey, following the PAR 1/4 session/s. Following the PAR 1/4 session, the researcher entered the VoC attributes, as created by the participants in the PAR 1/4 sessions, into the online survey tool. The participants were asked in the online survey: "How important are the following Voice of the Customer (VoC) attributes in the development and operation of a cultural precinct in your local government area? Note: Please select no more than 4 attributes for each level of importance. For example: choose 4 attributes that are very important, 4 attributes that are important etc." Similarly, the participant's satisfaction with the VoCs was also ranked via the online reflection survey. See Section 3.3.6.5 for details of the ranking scores.

The results of the importance-performance rankings were presented to the participants at the next PAR session (PAR 2/5). Participants were asked if the ratings reflected their own feelings on the ratings or felt they were abnormal in any way. These questions gave participants an opportunity to critically assess the data, the process undertaken to obtain the data and the meaning of the data. The researcher noted comments in the reflective journal notes.

Performance indicators – current practice

Following the PAR 1/4 session, participants received the following statement via the PAR 1/4 reflection online survey: "Your Council currently uses a range of performance indicators. Some examples of your Council's performance indicators include: [case council indicators were inserted into the survey by the researcher]". They received two multiple choice questions, asking the participants to select the statement they most agreed with:

> *"My Council's performance indicators are*
>
> *Used to inform strategy and improve performance*
> *Used for reporting purposes only*
> *Not used for any purpose*

My Council's performance indicators

Provide me with very useful information about Council's services and facilities

Provide me with limited information about Council's services and facilities

Are not useful".

These reflection survey questions in relation to PIs were designed to get a baseline measure for current local government performance measurement practice and have participants think critically about how they used current PIs within their organisation. The questions were worded in the language used by the participants, as recommended by Chevalier and Buckles (2013), with recognition that many participants, particularly a number of external stakeholders, had limited knowledge or practice with PIs and were not comfortable with sector jargon and acronyms. The questions tested key issues raised in the literature review, that being the propensity in local government to measure outputs rather than outcomes and not link PIs to strategic direction (Marr 2008a). See Section 2.3.1 for further details on the PIs in the government context.

Difficulty with the PIHoQ process

The PAR 2/5 reflection survey, undertaken in the week following the PAR 2/5 session, sought participant consideration of the process they had completed in PAR sessions 1/4 and 2/5. They were asked to rate the difficulty they experienced in developing each of components of the PIHoQ on a five-point Likert measurement scale, five (5) being the least difficult to one (1) being the most difficult. The participants examined the VoC development, TR refinement, interrelationship mapping, importance-performance, critical decision assignation, deployable TRs and PIs. Participants were asked, for any scores of 1-2, why the process was difficult and how it could be improved. This data was analysed by the researcher and included in the discussion material for the PAR 3/6 session.

Representative performance indicators

The representative PIs were a list of PIs developed and refined over the course of the three PAR sessions in each council. The final online reflection survey, undertaken following the PAR 3/6 session, asked participants to reflect on the statement "I believe the representative performance indicators could:" and select from a multiple-choice list:

"Inform strategy and improve performance

Provide reports to the community

Provide me with useful information about Council services and facilities

Have very little useful purpose".

Participants could choose one or more of the above options.

Finally, the participants were asked "What improvements would you make to increase the probability that these representative performance indicators lead to informed strategy and improved performance?".

3.3.6.9. Limitations of action research

Action research on its own has been criticised for limiting the theoretical contribution of the research undertaken as the focus is on solving real problems within organisations (Stokes 2011). There is debate in the literature as to the limited (some would say) level of generalisable knowledge that is attributable to the action research approach (Cherns 1969). Action research is similarly criticised for producing limited practical contributions (Dickens and Watkins 1999) and has challenges in meeting its dual purpose of contributing to both knowledge and practice (Badham and Sense 2001). In the PAR literature there is some concerns regarding the equality of participants in research (Gravesteijn and Wilderom 2018). There is also concern about the level of control one has in undertaking action research and its likely rigour (Argyris and Schön 1989). It is argued in this current study that, the five-phase methodology utilising mixed methods, the participation of diverse stakeholders throughout those phases and the systematic structures adapted and applied to the processes helps ameliorate such debated concerns and combined, ensured both theoretical and practical contributions to knowledge. For a more detailed discussion of how the limitations of action research are effectively managed in this thesis, please see Appendix 4. While the criticisms of action research are acknowledged, it is argued here that such challenges can be effectively managed with vigilant planning, responsive adherence to the plan – act – observe – reflect cycle and analysis of the local contexts within which the research takes place.

3.4. SUMMARY

This chapter detailed the methodology employed in this study. The methodological approach taken in this research used qualitative and quantitative mixed methods including multiple case studies, literature review and document search, semi-structured interviews, focus groups, and PAR.

In Section 3.2 it was explained that the epistemological framework for this research is social constructionism with the acknowledgement that meaning is constructed, contextual and even contentious, but is not pre-determined or inherent. The mixed method approach sits comfortably in the social constructionist frame, with the qualitative and quantitative methods used to construct meaning with diverse stakeholders from internal key decision-makers such as elected members, executive and managers to external stakeholders including CP users, hirers and special interest groups. The overarching methodology offered numerous opportunities for data gathering from multiple sources and a variety of occasions to explore, learn, confirm and iteratively refine the outcomes of the research: the PIs for CPs, the PIHoQ framework and the PAR process which together formulate the PICPA. The current study builds on the constructivist epistemological framework in relation to the measurement of performance and the development of PIs. Mixed methods were employed in this research to allow for deep and rich data capture, for example in semi-structured interviews and focus groups, while importance-performance analysis was undertaken through survey tools. As QFD was engaged as the formative framework for the development of the PIHoQ, methods were required to reduce the identified limitation of solely using qualitative methods to develop the traditional HoQ tool.

Section 3.3.1 examined the use of a multiple case study design. Multiple cases (five) were engaged to improve confidence and rigour in the findings of the study. These cases were every-day or typical exemplars of CP developments within a local government context, at different stages of development, variable locations with LGAs of different geographical sizes and populations to provide alternate milieus and representative environments. The five cases were variably involved in different phases of the research to ensure continuity in the research and allowed participants to contribute in different phases for their own knowledge and learning, this being particularly important by phase 5 when the PAR process and PIHoQ framework were refined and confirmed by participants using the PAR approach.

Management research, particularly in social constructionism, has the potential to harbour research bias, or inadvertently shape meaning. Further, the different and potentially inequitable power relations in an organisation could impact data collection and analysis. A similar limitation is examined in Section 3.3.6.4 in reference to action research. However, it is contended here that with understanding of the underpinning theory, appropriate planning and adequate flexibility, such challenges can be mitigated, or effects reduced so as to ensure the viability of the research.

The literature review and document search were outlined in Section 3.3.2 and represent the first research phase. These components of the research supported the contributions to both theory (extant literature review) and practice (document search within case councils and industry-wide). They were the basis of initial theme development, supported the establishment of cogent arguments and identified issues within the literature and practitioner documentation. Two significant streams of material were mined in the document search: currently utilised PIs and TRs. Critically, the available literature provides no advice on how to establish TRs within the traditional HoQ, only what the TRs entail. This current methodology, therefore, contributes to current knowledge and HoQ practice by suggesting that TRs are initially established in the document search and further elucidated using the model of Elbanna et al. (2015). These initial TRs were further refined and confirmed in later research phases. The same methodological approach was taken with the determination of PIs.

Section 3.3.3 was concerned with the semi-structured interviews with internal stakeholders while Section 3.3.4 was concerned with focus groups with external stakeholders. Semi-structured interviews allowed for in depth inquiry into the phenomenon and while questions were pre-prepared, there was flexibility to ask follow-up questions when answers were brief, vague or were not understood. Similarly, focus groups allowed for direct engagement with participants, follow-up and clarification. These research phases worked with two different stakeholder groups which constituted the VoC and were representative of multiple perspectives. The VoCs were carefully developed over the research phases. This “voice” was represented by the actual words of the stakeholders participating in the interviews and focus groups, an important element of the standard HoQ development process. These words or VoCs travelled through phase 4 in the development of the PIHoQ and were refined and confirmed by participants in the final phase 5 PAR sessions. The various research phases enabled the collection of diverse voices that at times would be contested by participants in the internal or external stakeholder cohorts. These discussions and contestations provided rich evidence for both the VoCs and the processes undertaken to develop and progressively refine them.

Phase 4, detailed in Section 3.3.5 included the development of the HoQ into the PIHoQ framework. HoQ is a suitable starting point as it has demonstrable utility in documenting the needs of communities, it assists in mapping complex relationships between customer needs and TRs and is an effective analysis and communication tool. Given the lack of academic consideration and understanding of the expectations of communities in relation to CPs, it was somewhat fitting that the HoQ tool was deployed in this current study. There is also growing literature on the application of HoQ within the service-related industries. This phase involved the researcher drawing together the outcomes of the previous three but separate research phases to partially complete the framework ready for phase 5. This PIHoQ framework builds on the traditional HoQ with the inclusion of new elements to create an adaptive house that supports the development and selection of PIs for CPs. These enhancements include the BSC/QBL categorisation, PIs, and the importance-performance analysis process. These adaptations were further refined and confirmed in the final research phase.

The key challenges of HoQ include potential failure to effectively capture the VoC, detailed matrices and size of the overall framework, and products not meeting customer needs at the end of the HoQ development process. The VoC development, being key to the success of the PIHoQ is a major part of this present study and to ensure the effective capture and prioritisation of those voices the study employed multiple points of data capture, refinement and confirmation through the research: in phases 2, 3 and 5. The two remaining HoQ challenges indicated, were addressed in the final research phase 5. This was achieved through garnering adaptations and opinions put forward by PAR participants in an effort to identify modifications that may help moderate those identified challenges. Of significant note, currently available academic literature fails to detail the processes undertaken to fully develop a HoQ nor does the literature explore the utility of any HoQ development process. This current study reports on the PIHoQ and thereby establishes a detailed process for its development, thus addressing a knowledge gap in the QFD literature.

Section 3.3.6 examined the use of PAR to support the assessment and refinement of the PIHoQ framework, development of CP PIs and use of a PAR process as a potential engagement model. This was a highly germane approach, synergistic with social constructionism, and collaborative between researcher and participants, and was responsive to contextual differences while providing multiple opportunities to learn and promote change or improvement. Participative action research's core strength is in its cooperative responsibility for problem resolving and co-production, and consequently it was utilised as the process in the development of a genuine engagement process for the enactment and development of the PIHoQ

It is time now to move onto chapters 4 and 5 to present and discuss the findings emanating from this study, including cultural precincts and their associated performance indicators, the participative action research process, PIHoQ framework and resultant PICPA.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION – CULTURAL PRECINCTS AND REPRESENTATIVE PERFORMANCE INDICATORS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter analyses and answers three of the main research questions:

1. What benefits do stakeholders expect from cultural precincts?
2. By what criteria do stakeholders gauge the success or otherwise of cultural precinct performance?
3. What relevant and effective performance indicators can be developed for cultural precincts in a local government context to gauge performance and to support continuous improvement?

The chapter analyses the data results gathered in phases 1 to 5 and includes discussion with the aim to improve the understanding of stakeholders' expectations of cultural precinct developments in the local government context, the services and facilities contained within them and how they understand the performance of cultural precincts. The chapter also provides a discussion and commentary on the challenges in measuring the performance of cultural precincts and identifies indicators for measuring the performance of cultural precinct operations. The chapter begins, as depicted in Figure 4-1, with, at the broadest level, examination of the context within which council cultural precincts exist and provides details on the cultural precinct developments within each case council (Section 4.2.1), followed by interrogation of the operational or technical requirements of such facilities (Section 4.2.2).

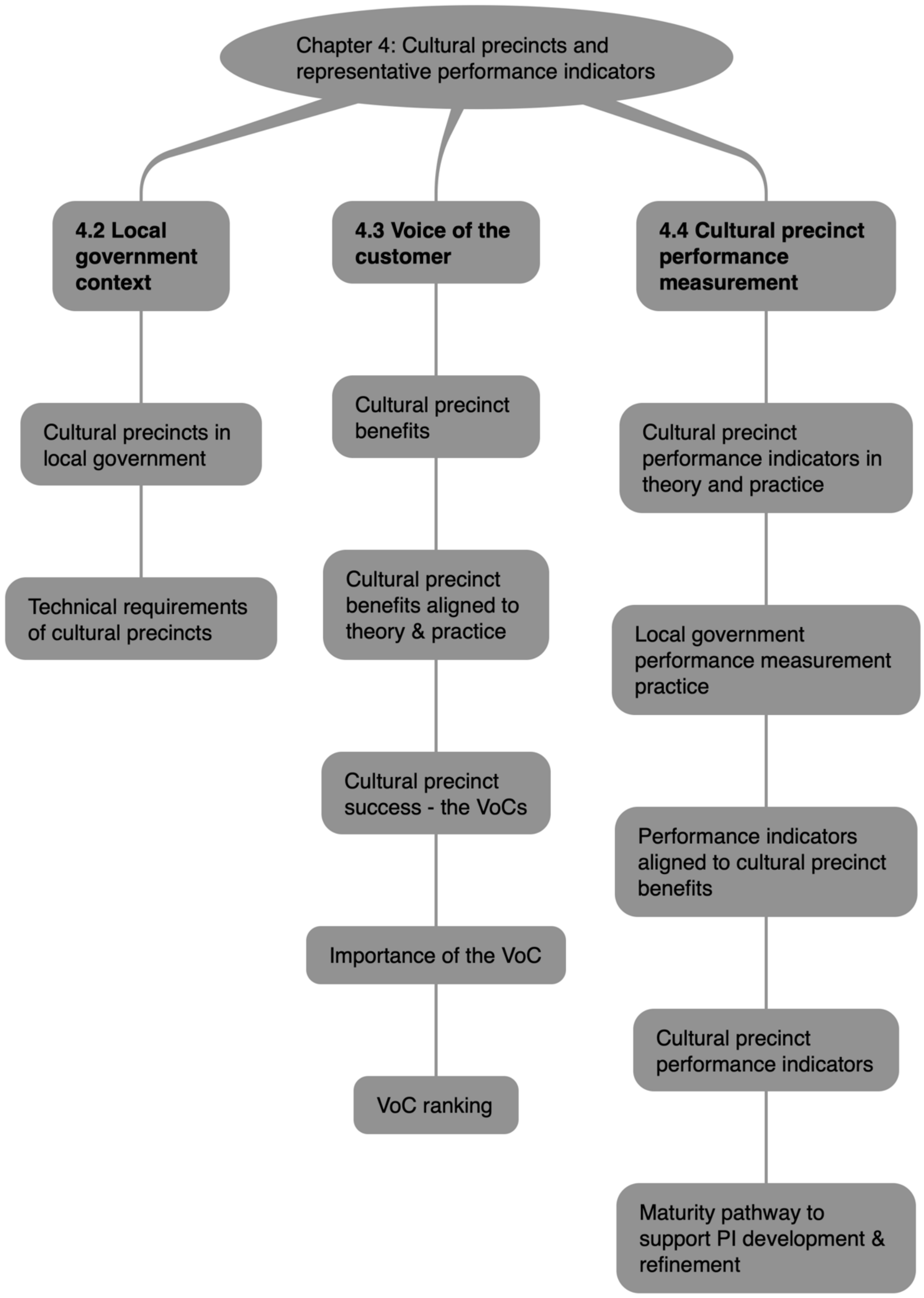

Chapter 4: Cultural precincts and representative performance indicators
4.2 Local government context
Cultural precincts in local government
Technical requirements of cultural precincts
4.3 Voice of the customer
Cultural precinct benefits
Cultural precinct benefits aligned to theory & practice
Cultural precinct success - the VoCs
Importance of the VoC
VoC ranking
4.4 Cultural precinct performance measurement
Cultural precinct performance indicators in theory and practice
Local government performance measurement practice
Performance indicators aligned to cultural precinct benefits
Cultural precinct performance indicators
Maturity pathway to support PI development & refinement

Figure 4-1: Cultural precincts in context

This is followed by analysis of the perceived benefits and their alignment with theory and industry practice (Section 4.3.1 and 4.3.2) of cultural precincts followed by an examination of how stakeholders' define the success of cultural precinct developments (Section 4.3.3); that being the results and findings related to the internal and external stakeholders' views and expectations of cultural precinct developments and their benefits to the wider community. This section appraises the importance of the voice of the customer in Section 4.3.4. Finally, in Section 4.3.5 the ranking of the voice of the customer is examined. Deliberation is then turned to the performance of cultural precincts and the challenges faced in both theory and practice in understanding performance of such facilities and services and applying approaches to performance measurement (Section 4.4.1). This is followed by an exploration of the current performance measurement practice in local government cultural precincts (Section 4.4.2). Drawing on PIs from related sectors such as the Third Sector and services industries and from local government, analysis is then devoted to PI use in theory and practice. Section 4.4.3 aligns the cultural precinct benefits with PIs. Addressing the third main research question, the chapter then provides PIs based on the research data and commentary on this development of PIs for cultural precincts (Section 4.4.4). Finally, in Section 4.4.5, the chapter offers a maturity pathway to support the development and refinement of PIs for the performance measurement of cultural precincts.

4.2. LOCAL COUNCILS INVOLVEMENT IN CULTURAL PRECINCTS

"Councils are the most significant contributors to cultural practice in Australia. Not the State Government and not the Federal Government. Councils are. And that's why I think it is incredibly important that councils…employ professional staff. We all tried to lasso a state conference…and put a number of motions up on the floor about cultural planning being considered as part of the Planning Act. And of course we got shouted down, they didn't like it, oh boy did we piss 'em off!" (P5, Council D, interviewee transcript)

4.2.1. Cultural precinct footprint – how CPs are understood in the local government context

"One of the things that I will just throw in while I think of it, is that when you are doing research into cultural stuff, the very nature of the jargon or language or lack of it in everyday language is a challenge for the process because it's like they say if you ask a child what's their favourite colour and they've never seen the colour blue then they are not gonna say blue or they have never had it pointed out to them and identified. You know what I mean?" (M2, Council A, interview transcript)

In initial interviews with internal stakeholders or key decision-makers within local government, the issue of the language, jargon and definition for "cultural precincts" was raised. The manager (M2) from Council A commented initially, as shown in the quote above, that "culture" is going to mean different things to different people, or nothing at all. This was played out in other interviews where interviewees understood a "cultural precinct" to be a place for multicultural or culturally and linguistically diverse communities to come together, to the exclusion of other communities. For example, when asked what the term "cultural precinct" means interviewee P1, from Council A responded: "most people think of multiculturalism as only foreigners". The confusion over terminology is further supported in the literature, where the term CP was not understood by community members (Clement 2006) and is a poignant and timely reminder that such terminology is not concretely nor equally understood by all stakeholders. On the other hand, internal stakeholders who were well-aware of the terminology sought to further define the precinct concept in terms of geographic location so that the community "know where their [cultural precinct] limits are. Then they know where their cultural footprint ends" (P6, Council D, interviewee transcript). This aspect of cultural precincts (CPs) is missing from Montgomery's (2003) characteristics of cultural quarters but lends support to the definition developed by Santagata (2002) where the limits of the precinct are defined geographically and the definition posited in Section 2.4.1 that a CP refers to a clearly defined geographical area that contains facilities and services related to artistic and intellectual activity. This proposed definition was provided to all participants in the PAR sessions and was supported by these participants. They indicated that the definition reflected their understanding of a CP and resulted in a more nuanced conversation about *how* CPs developed, which is covered below.

The literature pointed attention to the development of CPs as either consciously or unconsciously developed creations (Mould and Comunian 2015); just as internal stakeholders pointed out: "It tends to be that land is part of a larger holding that you've already got, that the council's already using for some purpose. I'm sure the decision here was that it was relatively a matter of convenience. And there's certainly not an agreed public, community and council corporate vision that says there will be a precinct that will evolve" (E2, Council B, interviewee transcript). Another view, from interviewees in phase 2 of the research pointed to another approach: "think about other countries, other cultures and other times. It is interesting that here we…have to define a CP. To me, its reclaiming what there used to be" (M2, Council A). This manager understood that a CP was a meeting place and that, in Australia, such meeting places were lost and are now being consciously rediscovered and redeveloped.

In order to understand the range of facilities incorporated into current CPs or plans for CPs, a review, as a component of the document search, was undertaken of the master plans from the 5 case councils (Council A 2004; Council B 2011; Council C 2010; Council D 2009; Council E 2012a). The master plans are useful to demonstrate the end product for each CP. This assumes that the council successfully builds the precinct in accordance with their approved master plan. In a circumstance where the master plans did not reach fruition, the Plan would, at the least, give one the priorities of the organisation at the time of planning. However, in the case councils, all those with developed precincts conformed with their master plan. Figure 4-2 shows a word-cloud representation of the facility types within the actual or planned CPs. The word-cloud highlights words used with higher frequency in the master plans. Figure 4-2 also shows the diversity of facilities included in local government CPs. The diagram demonstrates that the most common facilities within the planned precincts are entertainment centres, parks, galleries, community spaces, artwork and churches. Also included, though mentioned to a lesser extent within the master plans, are museums, civic spaces, gardens and sculptures. These facility types are in keeping with the "metropolitan cultural precinct" as defined by Santagata (2002) and discussed in Chapter 2. The diversity of facilities and services incorporated in the CP confirms Santagata's (2002) view that these are dependent on the choices made by the administrator of the precinct. Certainly, the high-priority facilities conform with Santagata's key services: entertainment facilities including concert halls and theatres, galleries and museums and libraries. They also conform to the earlier asserted definition of CPs containing artistic (for example, concert halls and galleries) and intellectual (libraries) activities. However, the majority of the key services provided within the case council CPs were generally deemed as being outside the core services identified by PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC) (2006) in the national study on local government financial sustainability. The core or "narrow" services of local government included libraries and parks whilst community spaces were a "broader" provision of service. Churches and galleries were not mentioned in the PwC study whilst museums and theatres were identified in the broadest context of the local government social context. This shows a clear disconnect between what councils currently provide and the traditional view of local government core services. Councils providing access to CPs and related facilities are generally developing services that are not deemed "core" to local government. This initial textual analysis demonstrates that CPs, whilst developed or in various stages of planning in all 5 case councils, include many services regarded as outside the traditional mandate of local government. Just as the PwC (2006) suggests, local government must continually reassess the priorities of its community in order to ensure expectations are met and, from Moore's (1995) perspective, public value is maintained.

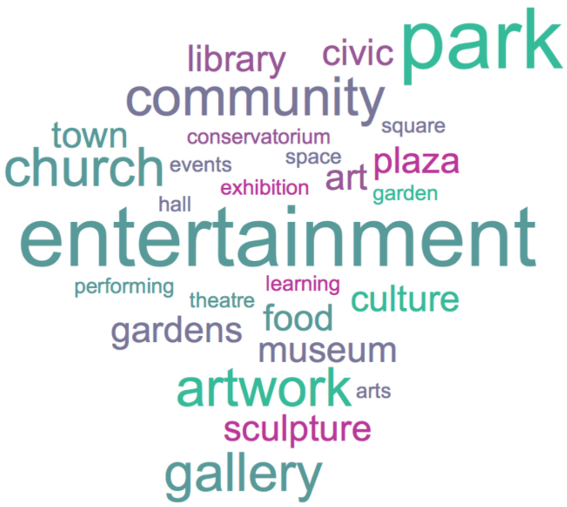


Figure 4-2: Cultural precinct facilities within Councils A-E

Popular ancillary facilities within CPs, as evidenced in the master planning documents, included commercial space, pedestrian access and public transport, as shown in Figure 4-3. Interestingly, much of the ancillary facilities associated with the case councils' CPs were outside the traditional scope of local government but would be impacted by local government "core" services such as local roads, footpaths, building, development and planning (PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC) 2006). For example, pedestrian access, one of the high-frequency provisions of the case councils, as shown in Figure 4-3, would require adequate local roads and footpaths whilst commercial services would be impacted by local development and planning requirements such as zoning. This finding concurs with a study by Bahar Durmaz (2015, p.118) where the "walkability" of the precinct is vital to its performance as creative hubs. The above results are played out in current industry practice where CPs are typically reported to include footpaths for improved walkability, programming and eating options (McIlwain 2013). The sheer diversity of CP facilities as seen in Figure 4-2 are not as evident in the ancillary facilities depicted in Figure 4-3. This implies that the ancillary facilities of CPs are generally more standardised across LGAs, whereas cultural facilities are more specific to a particular area. The inclusion of a mix of cultural activities and ancillary services is important to the performance of the CP (Hitters and Richards 2002). The results in this current study show the strong mix of cultural facilities and ancillary services.

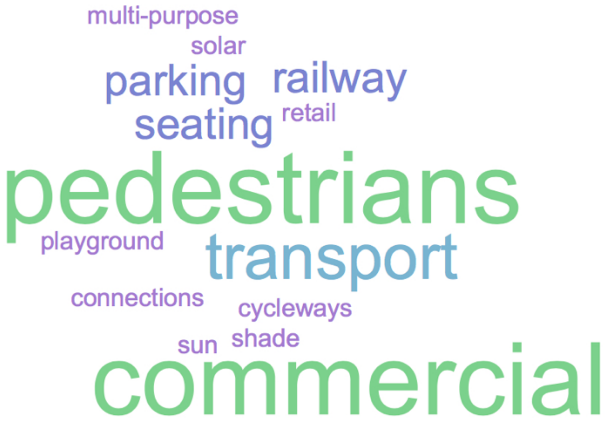


Figure 4-3: Ancillary facilities within cultural precinct facilities within Councils A-E

The atmosphere of the CP was a key feature of all master plans reviewed. As shown in Figure 4-4, safety, heritage, place-based planning, quality and night-activation were frequently mentioned atmospheric components of the CP. Such services and atmospheric elements, according to this preliminary document study, are deemed important by practitioners planning and developing CPs. In the Australian State of NSW, a 2006 report on the financial sustainability of local government highlighted the growing concern within the industry of poor asset management, maintenance and renewal, leading to a State Government push to improve the safety, quality and reliability of assets (Independent Inquiry into Local Government Inquiry 2006). These concerns are clearly represented in the CP requirements within their master plans and were raised by research participants, for example: "ongoing management of assets and infrastructure, which is every council's dilemma" (E2, Council B, interviewee transcript). The academic literature, however, does not discuss the importance or benefits of ancillary services and atmospheric conditions to the CP. There are clear links between cultural facilities, ancillary services and atmospheric elements. For example, in Figure 4-4 safety is an important atmospheric element mentioned often within master planning documents. Safety will be impacted by the ancillary services shown in Figure 4-3 such as transport options, connections between facilities and services, and pedestrian access. Appropriate attention has not been paid to the impact of ancillary facilities and atmospheric elements on CP delivery. As a result, the performance measurement of CP facilities in areas such as ancillary facilities or atmospheric elements has not been studied. Measuring the performance of CPs without recognition of ancillary services and atmospheric elements could, arguably, lead to an imbalance in performance data. In this current study, the ancillary services are seen as a vital component of CPs rather than an unimportant optional set of facilities.

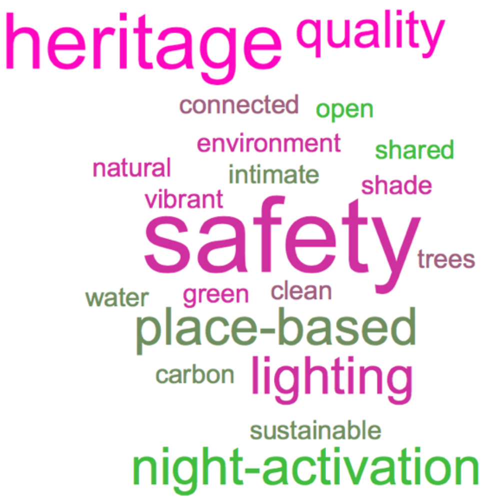


Figure 4-4: Atmospheric elements within cultural precinct facilities within Councils A-E

The 26 interviewees within phase 2 of the research, rated a series of statements around the importance of different facilities within a CP development. The average ratings for each attribute are shown in Table 4-1. The attributes are ranked from highest attribute to lowest. The table demonstrates that internal stakeholders within the case councils judged activation, location, proximity to ancillary services such as food and beverage providers and access to public transport of greater importance overall than the range and types of cultural facilities within the CP. This view assumes that the performance of the CP will be detrimentally impacted if activation, location, catering provisions and transport are lacking or missing entirely. It also assumes that visitors to CPs are likely to attend the precinct, regardless of the service offerings (such as performance space, gallery, open space, library etc.), as long as the more important attributes are adequately addressed. Alternatively, the internal stakeholder may have regarded the service offerings as pre-existing, as many CPs have been developed around already existing performance spaces, libraries or art galleries. Therefore, the areas open to councils for improvement or embellishment are those set at the highest priority, ranked 1-4 in Table 4-1. Considering Figures 4-2 to 4-4 above, the vibrant activation of the precinct with cafes and shared spaces, the location and public access (mentioned above as "walkability") are shown to be key elements of a precinct's success, thus supporting previous research (Bahar Durmaz 2015).

Facility attributes	Label	Rating	Ranking
The cultural precinct is vibrant, busy and well-used	Activation	4.58	1
The cultural precinct is in a central location	Location	3.96	2
There is convenient and close access to food, restaurants and cafes	Food and beverage	3.92	3
The cultural precinct has easy access to public transport	Transport	3.75	4
Performance space is included in the cultural precinct	Performance space	3.46	5
Gallery services are included in the cultural precinct	Gallery	3.38	6
Open and green space are included in the cultural precinct	Open space	3.29	7
The cultural precinct is a multipurpose, flexible space in one facility	Multipurpose	3.17	8
Public, pop-up and street art are included in the cultural precinct	Public art	2.96	9
Library services are included in the cultural precinct	Libraries	2.75	10
Community centre and meeting space are included in the cultural precinct	Community space	2.71	11
Museum services are included in the cultural precinct	Museum	2.54	12
The cultural precinct is accessible from parking preferably underground or roof parking	Parking	2.38	13
The building design is environmentally sustainable and includes “green” features	Environmental	2.17	14
The cultural precinct building is iconic and award-winning to provoke debate and thought	Iconic	1.83	15

Table 4-1: Interviewee ranking of cultural precinct facilities

These results are further understood when a comparison is undertaken between rankings from managers, executives and politicians. Politicians, for example, in Figure 4-5 below, deemed food and beverage provision as being of greater importance than did the managers or executive. The executives felt that the inclusion of galleries, open space and museums were relatively more important whilst managers rated multipurpose spaces of higher importance. Clearly there are differences between the perspectives of managers, executive staff and politicians and how they approach CP service provision given their different agendas, as was argued in Chapter 2 when investigating public administration theory (Caiden 1998). For example, politicians may not prioritise site activation as highly because it is more intangible when compared to the provision of food and beverage options and parking. Whilst executive members might see gallery and open space as key drivers of customer satisfaction. Further, and continuing with the same example, politicians may not prioritise facility attributes that have less meaning to them. This may be the result of asymmetric information, covered in Chapter 2, where managers and council staff hold disproportionate knowledge and, as a result, may prioritise different attributes (Byrnes and Dollery 2002).

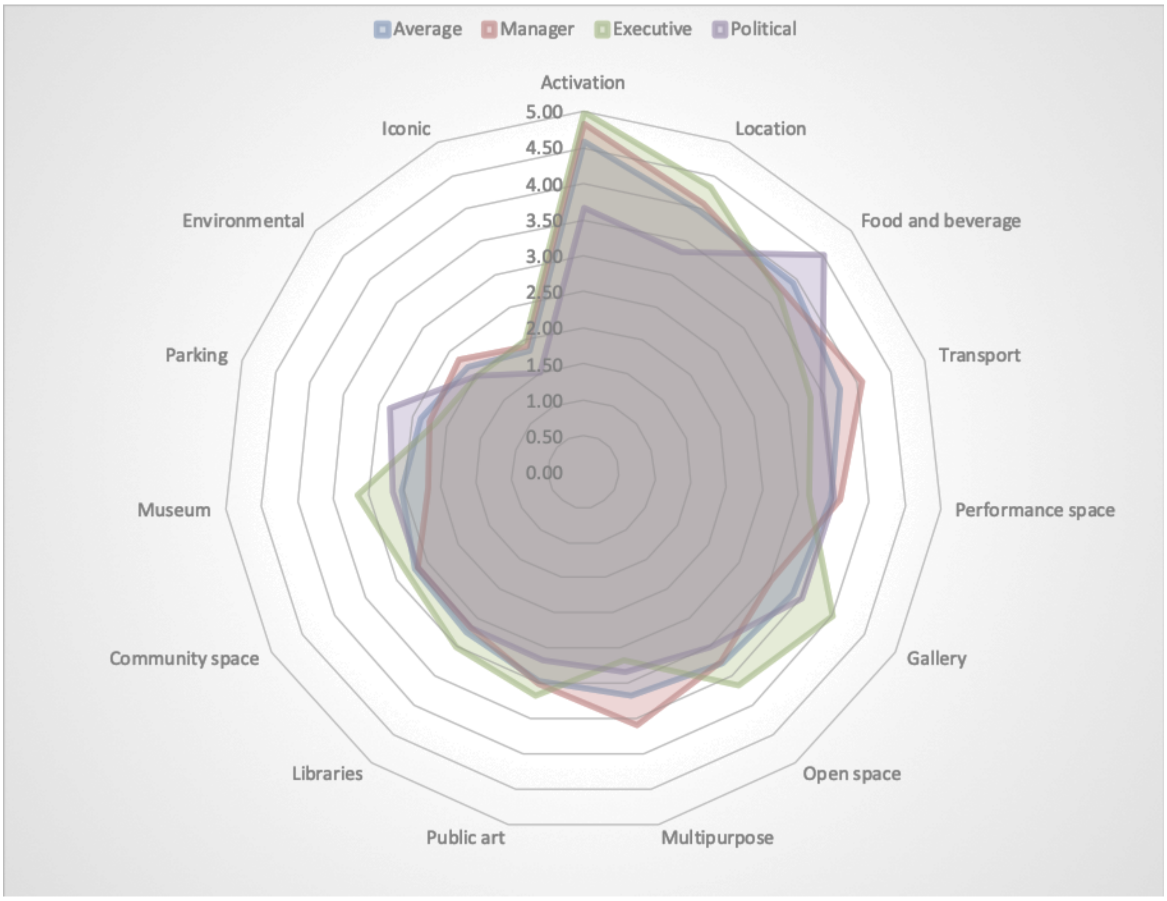


Figure 4-5: Facility attributes - radar graph of interviewee rankings split by stakeholder type

In phase 3 of the research, external stakeholders developed a broad range of facilities and services for inclusion in CP developments as represented by the summaries in Table 4-2 below. Fourteen external stakeholders participated in 2 focus group sessions. The predominant CP inclusions mentioned by participants were galleries (Frequency (F)=7) and museums (F=7), followed by the inclusion of music (F=6), libraries, dining options and parks (F=6). The external stakeholders, during this discussion within the focus group, were more concerned by the inclusions in the CPs, whilst the internal stakeholders were more concerned with the elements around the CP such as its activation, location and transport options. Both the internal and external stakeholders agreed that dining options (food and beverage) was an important inclusion in the CP. The views of politicians interviewed in phase 2 more closely align to the external focus group participant views elicited in phase 3: politicians rated transport, performance space and galleries higher than managers and the council executive. Given that politicians are elected by the community which they [reportedly] represent, it may be understandable that their priorities are similar. Further, in Chapter 2, it was shown that asymmetric information was a challenge faced by both elected members and community members (Brydon and Vining 2016). It is possible that internal stakeholders, with greater knowledge about CP developments may understand the need for a broader range of elements in order for the CP to succeed. This supports the research of Brydon and Vining (2016) where the specialised knowledge of staff must take into account the expectations of uninformed citizens who demand opportunities to participate in government decision-making. The results also demonstrate the effects of asymmetric information, where specialised staff need to provide additional information to supplement the knowledge of elected officials and communities for the purposes of improved decision-making (Byrnes and Dollery 2002).

Attribute	Frequency	Attribute	Frequency
Gallery	7	**Community spaces**	3
Museum	7	**Theatres**	3
Music	6	**Parking**	2
Library	6	**Tourism**	1
Dining options	6	**Technology**	1
Park	6	**Studios**	1
Spaces	4	**Shuttle**	1
Art	4	**Shops**	1
Open space	4	**Men’s Shed**	1
Public amenities	3	**Multifunctional**	1
Meeting spaces	3	**Multicultural**	1
Markets	3	**Festivals**	1
Live performance	3	**Cinemas**	1

Table 4-2: Focus group participant frequency of cultural precinct facilities

All the data above is understood to have limitations to its use. Firstly, the document search from the case councils’ master plans assay only the frequency of mentions of the CP elements and does not represent an importance ranking of the elements. Whilst the phase 2 interview data began with collecting and collating the frequency of the CP elements, the elements were then rated and ranked into levels of importance by the internal stakeholders. The phase 3 data collection with the focus groups included both frequency and importance rankings but these external participants were more likely to rank multiple elements at the same level of importance, resulting in many elements having the same importance ranking. For example, in Table 4-2, the community focus group participants ranked both gallery and museums as the most important inclusions in the cultural precinct (in Table 4-3 these rankings are shown in the final column) and food and beverage, library, music and parks as equally important in 3rd rank. With these limitations in mind, a summary of the above data is provided in Table 4-3 below. This table demonstrates that the most frequently mentioned inclusions in the government documents do not match the most frequently mentioned and important inclusions by internal and external stakeholders. This is a significant concern for public administration practitioners as there is a real risk that CP planning does not understand and capture the VoC. As a result, it is possible that CPs will fail to meet stakeholder expectations. The two elements with the most agreement are food and beverage/dining options and the inclusion of a gallery within the CP.

	Government documents	**Manager**	**Executive**	**Political**	**Community**
Activation		1	1	2	
Community	4				
Entertainment	1				
Food and beverage Dining options		4	4	1	3
Gallery	3		3	3	1
Library					3
Location		2	2	6	
Multipurpose		6			
Museum					1
Music					3
Open space			5		
Park	2				3
Pedestrian access	5				
Performance space		5		5	
Commercial space	6				
Transport		3	6	4	

Table 4-3: Summary of top 6 cultural precinct inclusions in order of frequency and importance

4.2.2. Key decision-makers understanding of the technical requirements of cultural precincts

Chapter 3 detailed the process undertaken in the development of the TRs for this study. The TRs were initially developed using findings from the literature review (For example, Evans and Lindsay (2011)), case councils' document study (Including, for example Council B (2009); (2017); Council C (2017)), additional local government documents (Georges River Council 2018) and industry documents (For example, Arts Tasmania et al. (2013); Department for Culture Media and Sport (2008)). These initial TRs are listed in Table 4-4 below and provides a representative sample of the literature used to source the TRs. These initial TRs were shown to each interviewee in phase 2 who were asked to nominate potential changes or additions to the list. Table 4-4 also provides sample commentary from the interviewees in relation to those TRs. The majority of the TRs were accepted by the interviewees. The interviewees made a number of suggestions for the list such as: environmental sustainability. The interviewee indicated that "I can't see anything that's gonna support my park...you'd need...technical information on what a sensitive urban design [is]" (M8, Council A). Interviewees supplemented the above range of TRs with the list outlined in Table 4-5. Some of the TRs are an expansion of attributes in Table 4-4 (For example, collections to include storage and toy collections or staff to include volunteers) while others were new (contractor management). With each interview, the volume of TRs grew exponentially having started with 22 and almost doubling to a total of 38 through the interviews process. Consequently, it became clear that the sheer number of the TRs would create a challenge in their utilisation within the traditional house of quality (HoQ) framework and in the creation of the matrices, as identified by Carnevalli and Miguel (2008) and discussed in Chapter 2.

Initial technical requirements	Phase 1 - Literature reference and Council documents	Phase 2 - Interviewee quotes
	Programs & service	
Offerings (exhibitions, programs and workshops)	Arts Tasmania et al. (2013, p.44) Evans and Lindsay (2011, p.591) Zorich et al. (2009, p.19) Council A (2017); Council C (2017); Council D (2017)	“It's not just about the physical space, it's how things are programmed there! That is, that’s, that’s more important than the bricks and mortar” (M2, Council A) It’s unique, and it’s interesting, it gets, you know, interesting acts along that perform there, it has monthly markets, it has a botanic gardens festival ... can be used as a hall for hire, but it’s also the most fantastic spooky performance space, ’cause it’s round, there’s unreal sort of acoustics” (E6, Council D)
Times	Evans and Lindsay (2011, p.591) Department for Culture Media and Sport (2008, p.3) Council A (2017)	“When you have one thing isolated, then it’s harder to bring people and encourage people to come, but if you have a multitude of offers, you know that you can come and maybe go to the Art Gallery, and then maybe go do something else at the same time, so it’s that real offer” (M12, Council D)
	Facility management	
Maintenance schedule	Arts Tasmania et al. (2013, p.37) Evans and Lindsay (2011, p.591) Council A (2017); Council B (2017); Council C (2017); Council D (2017)	“Ongoing maintenance...engineering would need to be involved in terms of the...building the, um impermeable surfaces and the rain gardens and all that kind of thing” (M8, Council A)
Offerings (café & catering, meeting rooms and toilets)	Evans and Lindsay (2011, p.591) Department for Culture Media and Sport (2008, p.3) Council A (2004)	“I find that cultural activity with cafés is almost a natural hub that we can’t resist” (P2, Council B)
Size	Evans and Lindsay (2011, p.591)	
Hours of operation	Evans and Lindsay (2011, p.591) Library Council of New South Wales (2013, p.5)	“There’s no point just trying longer hours or different hours and saying 'oh, that didn’t work'. It has to be, you know, with an – an overall strategy for enlivening the city after 5 or, you know, and it can’t just be those – those facilities on their own” (M12, Council D)
Fee structure	Evans and Lindsay (2011, p.591)	“Pay a fee and operate from there and get the benefit of that facility bringing people in” (M12, Council D)
Access	Evans and Lindsay (2011, p.591) Georges River Council (2018)	“They’ve done a number of different events where they did 24-hour access to facilities which is pretty amazing” (M12, Council D)
Security	Arts Tasmania et al. (2013, p.38) Council D (2007)	“[Make the operation] as many hours of the day as you can make it. So that that increases safety and perceptions of safety” (M13, Council D)
Lighting	Evans and Lindsay (2011, p.591) Council D (2007)	“Good lighting! The same as anywhere, you have got to have good lighting!” (M3, Council A)
	Promotions & marketing	
Social media	Arts Tasmania et al. (2013, p.52) Library Council of New South Wales (2013, p.69) Zorich et al. (2009, p.15)	“I just came from a conference in Hobart and we’re talking in terms of social media these days...but that could come into advertising, I guess” (P3, Council C)

Initial technical requirements	Phase 1 - Literature reference and Council documents	Phase 2 - Interviewee quotes
Website	Arts Tasmania et al. (2013, p.52) Department for Culture Media and Sport (2008, p.8) Zorich et al. (2009, p.13) Council C (2011)	"We've got someone that specialises in Web within our service" (M7, Council B)
E-news	Arts Tasmania et al. (2013, p.52)	"I think we do it quite well...in that we, we are a converged cultural services structure, therefore all our promotions, all our marketing is, is done in a packaged way" (M9, Council C)
Hardcopy	Arts Tasmania et al. (2013, p.52)	
Collections		
Size	Department for Culture Media and Sport (2008, pp.6, 10) Zorich et al. (2009, p.8)	
Offerings	Department for Culture Media and Sport (2008, pp.6, 10) Zorich et al. (2009, p.8) Council A (2017); Council B (2017); Council C (2017); Council D (2017)	"Make it really accessible. Like it's a building that happens to have an amazing collection of art, so through association let people have access to that in a non-threatening, you know, just in a comfortable...way" (M12, Council D)
Staffing		
Processes	Arts Tasmania et al. (2013, p.34) Zorich et al. (2009, p.10)	"Quality of your...team is important with your facility management" (P5, Council D)
Training	Arts Tasmania et al. (2013, p.35) Evans and Lindsay (2011, p.591) Zorich et al. (2009, p.10) Council E (2014)	"Staff and knowledge – important – I think there is a lot of knowledge here it just doesn't get appreciated" (M3, Council A)
Schedule	Arts Tasmania et al. (2013, p.53) Evans and Lindsay (2011, p.591) Council E (2014)	"Staff numbers, resources, budgets to deal with, those things, and having, I guess, the resources is the key thing to be able to do some of these things" (M4, Council A)
Technology		
Internet access	Evans and Lindsay (2011, p.591) Council B (2009)	"So let's say you've got an exhibition of a certain theme, then the library might feature its, uh, its materials, its information, its books, its Internet access" (E3, Council B)
PC access	Department for Culture Media and Sport (2008, p.6) Council B (2009)	"You know [what] people will be doing, they will be attending University sitting in the library over there, they will be just in front of a PC and the lecture will be webcast to them and they will be sitting there doing it" (E1, Council A)
Printing & copying	Library Council of New South Wales (2013, p.16) Council B (2009)	

Table 4-4: Initial technical requirements of cultural precincts

At this stage following the phase 2 interviews, and based on the TRs developed and with an understanding of the challenges of a large volume of TRs, and as used in previous studies (Chen 2011; Lee and Sai On Ko 2000) the BSC and QBL were then applied by the researcher to categorise [and reduce the number of] the TRs. Drawing on the works of Kaplan and Norton (1992); (2001; 2005) and Woodward et al. (2004), the categories of both systems were explored in detail and the researcher applied the TRs across the selected categories. The application process required the researcher to select the most fitting category for each TR. For example, all staffing related TRs were allocated by the researcher to the BSC category of "learning and growth". Duplication was rationalised from the TR list by the researcher. For example, "funding", "budget and funding" and "fee structure" were rationalised into "fee and funding structure". The categorisation of the TRs and the TR's utility/relevance was later reviewed and confirmed by the PAR participants in phase 5. However, prior to allocating the TRs across the categories a review of the BSC and QBL was undertaken in phase 1 of the research - the results of which were outlined in Section 2.3.3. Further detail of this review are provided herein as it relates to the categorisation of the TRs. It was found that the QBL covers economic, environmental, social (Elkington 1999) and corporate governance (Woodward et al. 2004).

Technical requirement	Phase 2 - Interviewee additions
Collections	Including storage (M2, Council A) Including toys and other types of collections (E1, Council A)
Commercial	Including retail (M9, Council C) (M5, Council B) (E3, Council B)
Contractor management	Interviewee said, "Contractors would be involved in the design, as well as probably the construction of that park" (M8, Council A) Including cleaning (M7, Council B)
Cultural and community development	Including developing and enabling communities (M3, Council A) Including community engagement (M13, Council D)
Customer service	Internal corporate support, relationship management (P5, Council D)
Environmental sustainability	Environmental (P3, Council C) Including flow restrictors, motion lights, water efficient amenities, LED lights (M6, Council B)
Event management	Including ticketing (M7, Council B)
Financial	Including funding (P3, Council C) Including budget and grant writing (M11, Council C) Including budget and funding for operations and capital (M6, Council B) Including sponsorship and fee structure (E3, Council B)
Marking and promotion	Including branding (M11, Council C)
Policies and planning	Interviewee: "Your evacuation plans, uh, you need to have… all your policies in relation to occupational health and safety, particularly here, what do you do in an emergency if your museum catches fire?" (P3, Council C) Including procedures, plans, policies, disaster preparation (P3, Council C) Including strategic planning (M11, Council C)
Project Management	Interviewee: "they do have people who have like that development and economic project management background" (M12, Council D)
Publications	(M9, Council C)
Research	Including audience development reporting (M11, Council C) Including formal reporting (M6, Council B)
Staffing	Including volunteers, work experience, youth programs, internships (P5, Council D) Including interns (M2, Council A)
Technology	Interviewee: "Includes other things like PA systems, lighting…" (P5, Council D)
Transport	Including parking (M2, Council A) Including public transport (E5, Council C) (E1, Council A)

Table 4-5: Additional cultural precinct technical requirements and comments from interviewees

In practice within NSW local government, a document search of the council annual reports demonstrates the use of the term "civic leadership" rather than "corporate governance" with reference to the QBL in case study councils (Council A 2014; Council A 2015a; Council C 2014; Council C 2015) and in the broader NSW local government sector (Central Coast Council 2017; Port Macquarie-Hastings Council 2017a). However, there are equally many councils referencing the QBL and governance rather than civic leadership (Blue Mountains City Council 2017; Goondiwindi Regional Council 2017). In a review of the reporting requirements for local government as mandated by State Government in Australia, only NSW (Division of Local Government NSW 2013), Western Australia (WA) (Department of Local Government Western Australia 2016) and Victoria (VIC) (Local Government Victoria 2018) take an integrated planning and reporting framework for strategic planning and reporting. While the NSW Government requires local government to report in relation to the QBL (Division of Local Government NSW 2013), reference to the QBL (and civic leadership) was evident in an earlier WA Government's guideline (Department of Local Government Western Australia 2010) but was removed in the later version (Department of Local Government Western Australia 2016). The Victorian Government does not require, nor does it reference the QBL in its mandatory local government reporting requirements (Local Government Victoria 2018). The use of the QBL is sporadic in the Australian local government sector and is primarily utilised in NSW. Reference to civic leadership and corporate governance is also varied and interchangeable.

Balanced scorecard (BSC)	Reference	Quadruple bottom line (QBL)	Reference
Financial	Kaplan and Norton (2001)	Economic	Elkington (1999)
Customer	Kaplan and Norton (2001)	Social	Elkington (1999)
Internal process	Kaplan and Norton (2001)	Environmental	Elkington (1999)
Learning and growth	Kaplan and Norton (2001)	*No link to BSC*	
No link to QBL		Corporate governance	Woodward et al. (2004)

Table 4-6: Synergies between BSC and QBL

In the assimilation of the similarities and differences between the BSC and the QBL it was determined that the BSC "financial" element had similar features to the "economic" dimension in the QBL, for example. These synergies are outlined in Table 4-6 above. No similarities were evident between the BSC's "learning and growth" and the QBL, though the QBL's "social" dimension does reference the impact of human resources on the community it services (Hubbard 2009). However, this more intangible factor (Niven 2006) may be allocated to the BSC element of customer whilst staffing can be categorised under the BSC element of "learning and growth". The QBL's "corporate governance" dimension is not referenced in the BSC and given its import, as addressed in the paragraph above, in the local government sector, it was felt important to incorporate this category into the refined BSC/QBL for the categorisation of TRs. However, the terminology in the local government sector utilises the terms "governance" and "civic leadership" interchangeably. As a result, the refined BSC/QBL categories used in this current study included: financial, customer, internal processes, learning and growth, and governance and civic leadership, as shown in Table 4-7. It should be noted that initially, participants had not identified TRs in the governance and civic leadership category. Rather, upon seeing the TRs within the BSC/QBL categories, the TRs of project management and policies and procedures were identified. This indicates that the categorisation process by BSC/QBL assisted stakeholders with the TR development process.

After the BSC/QBL were applied the TRs were, thus, categorised and rationalised, resulting in the following:

Refined BSC/QBL Category	Financial	Customer	Internal process	Learning and growth	Governance and civic leadership
Technical requirements	Fee/funding structure	Transport offerings including parking	Parks and garden maintenance	Research and community development	Project management
		Technology offerings	Environmentally sustainable practices	Volunteer program	Policies and procedures
		Collection size and offerings	Procurement	Workforce management	
		Café and catering options	Contractor management		
		Program offerings	Promotion and marketing		
		Hours of operation	Facility security and access		
		Customer service	Facility maintenance		
		Internet access			

Table 4-7: Categorised and rationalised technical requirements following phase 2 interviews

These TRs were further refined in phase 5 of the research through the PAR activities.

4.3. THE VOICE OF THE CUSTOMER: PRIORITIES OF INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL STAKEHOLDERS

With an understanding of CPs within the local government context, along with a comprehension of the TRs of such facilities, this section of Chapter 4 now analyses the outputs of the VoC with two critical components of relevance to the research questions: the benefits of CPs and the attributes that define success. A short digression is required at this point. The research question, "*What processes can be utilised to enable genuine stakeholder engagement in developing PIs within local government?"* is explored in depth in Chapter 5. Prior to addressing this question in Chapter 5, Chapter 4 must first assay stakeholder expectations. In this study the VoC represents stakeholder or customer expectations. The structure of this section is depicted in Figure 4-6 with four key outputs. Initially, this section is concerned with framing the benefits of CP developments as defined by the stakeholders in phases 2 and 3 of the research. These findings are then compared to the evidence available from local government practice and the available relevant literature or theory. Thirdly, the VoC attributes defined by the stakeholders from phases 2-3 and 5 of the research are examined in detail, followed by an analysis of the importance of the VoC in understanding CPs both in the initial creation of a HoQ, as well as, the VoCs' role in defining CPs and understanding their potential benefits to the community.

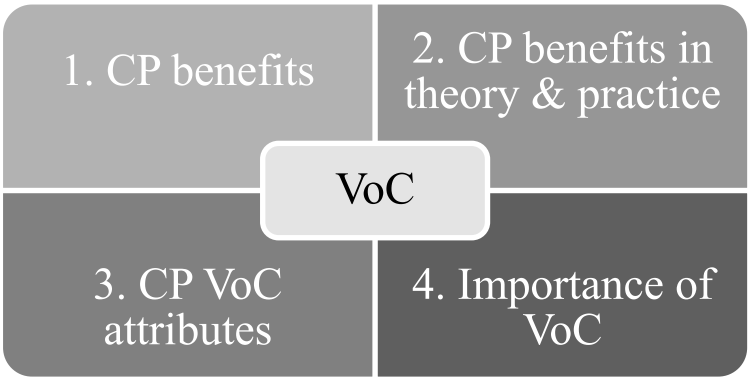


Figure 4-6: Roadmap for understanding the outputs of the VoC

4.3.1. Framing cultural precinct benefits – convergence of literature and practitioners

The discussion in academic literature around the concept of CP convergence and its benefits is comprehended in terms of the rationalisation of services, reducing duplication and, hence, minimising cost (Lorenzen and Frederiksen 2008; Robinson 2011). Further, there is discussion in the literature of the benefits of CPs in the tourism sector and community quality of life (Santagata 2002), as well as economic development (Cooke 2008) and the so-called cultural economy (Freestone and Gibson 2006). However, the case councils within their planning instruments, do not reference efficiencies, cost minimisation, economic development or tourism. Rather, they focus on improvements to social inclusion (Council A 2004; Council E 2012a), connectivity (Council A 2004; Council B 2011; Council D 2009; Council E 2012a), cultural opportunities (Council A 2004; Council B 2011; Council C 2010; Council D 2009; Council E 2012a), and community identity and liveability (Council C 2010). Whilst theory primarily focuses on efficiencies in converging of services, councils promote more intangible benefits of bringing facilities together within a CP.

Internal stakeholders during phase 2 of the research, were asked what they perceived as the benefits of CP developments. External stakeholders in phase 3 tended to list facilities within the precinct rather than indicate intangible benefits. For example, focus group attendees listed access to music, the arts, theatres and dining options as benefits of CPs. An analysis of these interviews and focus groups highlighted 6 key themes: social cohesion, place-making and cultural development; activation, accessibility and collaboration; building social capital and liveability; economic development and cultural tourism; economies of scale; and political motivation. It is noted that the external stakeholders acknowledged the first two themes: social cohesion, place-making and cultural development; activation, accessibility and collaboration but had no further commentary on the remaining themes elicited from the internal stakeholders. These themes are discussed in detail below.

4.3.1.1. Social cohesion, place-making and cultural development

Internal stakeholders deemed social cohesion and place-making as key benefits of CP developments, as the sample quotes from interviewees below demonstrate:

> "…like-minded people. Probably a more supportive community with people of similar understanding." (M8 A)

"If you don't have it, you don't have a community and your people don't belong and you end up with all sorts of social issues coming out of this sort of thing. This country is still coming together and still mixing and there are still people with vastly different experiences and cultural backgrounds and then they have all these pressures that come up against each other when people don't understand." (E1 A)

"…it creates a focus, and attention that there are things in this space. The clientele, for want of a better word, the target market, generally have an interest in most of those things." (E6 D)

"It is where creative people go to feel comfortable, have a sense of ownership, and one of the key issues is to try and decrease the amount of sterility you get in the public space." (E6 D)

"The benefits of it mainly – and it depends how well it's perceived by the community, are as a place-maker. You engage and empower your community to use the space, not you constantly having to develop programs to get the community engaged." (M11 C)

"To me, its reclaiming what there used to be. And going back to the basics it was around the communal fireplace. You know the community got around the big fire at night cause that's where the light and the warmth was and that's where they sang and told stories. And in doing so they are actually living and communicating with each other and supporting each other and developing their own community identity. That's why it's so important that you don't see a cultural precinct as a place to merely consume cultural stuff." (M2 A)

"Ah well the benefits of having a culture precinct is that it's a place where people can hear their stories…They can be entertained or in some way get validation about their culture, strong cultural group." (M3 A)

"Social cohesion, I think there's quite a, a lack of gathering place in the town, for the town centre or the city centre now." (M4 A)

> "So, it's a bit like the whole placemaking concept, that if you have a lot of people ... a lot of things that draw people together, that it can then result in you get more people in the one place." (M5 B)

> "When you gather, when you gather people of like-mind – we've done it forever. You know, citadels have done it, Macquarie St is an example of a different kind of cultural centre – it's a cultural street." (P2 B)

> "It makes a more harmonious society. So there's the immediate cultural group – that, that cultural precinct – and if that cultural precinct can connect with the one butting up to it, or two or three steps removed, then you've got a much healthier society. Healthier in what way? One, that they communicate with each other, they recognise each other, and they're happy – they're – they're – they're sitting alongside each other." (P6 D)

External stakeholders, during the focus groups, were focused on:
"I want to be inspired / learn whilst relaxing + socialising." (Council A, focus group)
"Safety, monitoring and lighting." (Council D, focus group)
"Ability to access arts, music, dance & cultural activities." (Council A, focus groups)
"Culturally represent the local community e.g. Some should speak and relate national background." (Council A, focus group)

What is clear from the 11 (internal) responses and 4 (external) responses above is that they see social cohesion and place-making as beneficial and admirable goals in the development and ongoing operation of CPs. While external stakeholders do not use this terminology, they do see the benefit of social gathering spaces, providing safe places to access cultural development opportunities. The responses confirm parallels with the academic literature and the dimensions of social cohesion, as outlined by Kearns and Forrest (2000) and covered in Chapter 2. Table 4-8 below summarises the links between Kearns and Forrest (2000) social cohesion dimensions and the internal stakeholders discussions on social cohesion. In comparing the interviewee's comments in relation to Kearns and Forrest's 5 dimensions, it is clear that whilst many of the internal stakeholders utilise terms such as social cohesion and placemaking, they are perhaps referring to different aspects of the terminology which could result in confusion between stakeholders. Most commonly, interviewees saw the sharing of common values and a sense of belonging to a place as key benefits of CPs.

Further, the concept of social solidarity or equality of access to financial, social and environmental opportunities, was not foremost on the mind of key decision-makers in local government. However, a local government practitioner article reflects that "social equity" was a key contribution made by cultural services across Australia (Dunphy 2012, p.13). This current research also confirms the findings of previous studies (Lewis and Craig 2014) that found an absence of discourse on multiculturalism and reflects the sense that race, ethnicity and differences are not part of the current place-making paradigm in the Australian local government sector.

Interviewee	Common values/Civic culture	Social order and control	Social solidarity and reduction wealth disparity	Social networks and capital	Place attachment and identity
M8 A	✓				
E1 A	✓	✓			
E6 D	✓				
E6 D	✓				
M11 C					✓
M2 A				✓	✓
M3 A				✓	
M4 A					✓
M5 B					✓
P2 B	✓				
P6 D		✓		✓	

Table 4-8: Concepts of social cohesion from internal stakeholders

Mould and Comunian (2015), on the other hand, posited that place-making in relation to CP developments was a tool used for marketing purposes to support increased tourism. The interview results above do not support this assertion, rather, they highlight commonality between communities and a sense of belonging that sustain social cohesion (Kearns and Forrest 2000).

Perhaps surprisingly, only two interviewees mentioned cultural development as a key benefit in the development and operation of CPs.

> "to me it's a celebration of culture, the creativity of the community." (E6 D)

> "it should be a place of energy and it should be a place of excitement, of ideas, of thoughts and, you know, opportunities to learn and to be enriched and to share." (E6 D)

External stakeholders focused more on the specific elements of cultural development, such as "Children program: Creative writing + be an author for a day" (Council A, focus group) or multicultural programming, "Considered programming for cultural groups / demographic [of the local area]" (Council A, focus group).

Examination of the extant literature demonstrates that cultural development is not a key aspect of exploration in CP literature, though it is briefly addressed in governmental reports such as those addressing local government collaboration (NSW Department of Local Government 2007) and cultural districts in the USA (National Assembly of State Arts Agencies 2015), as addressed in Chapter 2. The USA National Assembly of State Arts Agencies certainly reflects cultural development and place-making as linked themes. The concept of cultural development is plainly linked to economic development (Jones 2017) and seen as a driver for urban regeneration (McManus and Carruthers 2014). Indeed, the literature intrinsically links cultural and economic development (Montgomery 2003). One could assume that cultural development is not regarded as important in and of itself; rather cultural development, at least within the academic literature, is seen as a driver of the more beneficial (and perhaps perceived as more important) economic development. Certainly, the lack of discussion by key decision makers in local government, as highlighted above, supports the notion that the success of the production and consumption of culture is in the economic wealth it potentially creates (Mould and Comunian 2015).

4.3.1.2. Activation, accessibility and collaboration

Activation and accessibility were likewise important benefits raised by internal stakeholders. The quotes below from internal stakeholders highlight the importance of these benefits to CP developments:

> "Creating the precinct focuses, creates a focus for the community, for those sort of activities, and brings, and drives its own energy that feed off each other." (E5C)

> "it provides a central location for all those integrated facilities which again, because it is a central location, it makes it easier for people to get to, it creates an identity too." (M1 A)

> "Activation of space be it reuse or redesign, but that the space is active. That it provides opportunity for participation and enjoyment. " (M13 D)

“Juxtaposition of different cultural facilities next to each other actually supports each. It’s like the gathered mass is worth many more times than just, if you have a cinema and library and the theatre and a dance studio and visual arts, gallery together, say you have got 4 or 5 things that you could identify as different facilities, I think if you had one of each of those on their own separated they would be less known and used by the community.” (M2 A)

“Let's make a day of it and we will have lunch as well” because there’s somewhere to eat that’s pleasant and so it’s got a park and you know somewhere for kids to hang out. Yeah the parents can, its where cultural stuff overlaps into recreation and intellectual, you know pursuit if you cross over, you know, the library facilities with the park and the leisure and recreation and play equipment with the gallery and the theatre and the market place.” (M2 A)

“I think one of the important things is that they leverage off each other, that you’re – you’re not relying as one, like just not the Art Gallery trying to fend for itself. You’re actually trying to encourage more people to come and actually have access to a range of services or facilities or experiences. When you have one thing isolated, then it’s harder to bring people and encourage people to come, but if you have a multitude of offers, you know that you can come and maybe go to the Art Gallery, and then maybe go do something else at the same time, so it’s that real offer.” (M2 D)

“I guess it draws people in.” (M5 B)

“Well, you’d just have everything that you’d need on tap.” (M8 A)

“Positions our cultural facilities. Makes them more accessible to the community, more obvious to the community that, that we have them.” (M9 C)

“we knew that visitation to this facility would increase. We didn’t know it would increase as much as it did. I think we had like 50% increase in visitation. And certainly the museum area, we had like 300% increase.” (M9 C)

> "people who come in here who are library users don't even realise they're walking into a museum, but go and have a look at the museum and partake in a program. But also, they're on our mailing list for art gallery exhibitions or cultural development activities." (M9 C)

> "Energy. Life. Buzz. Vibrancy!" (P2 B)

> "co-location as a way of thinking is important. So co-location is a way of selling things." (P2 B)

> "co-location provides for an opportunity for them to work synergistically...so that people can be encouraged to visit one or two [facilities within the cultural precinct]." (P4 C)

> "You get that local activity. But that there are also the opportunities to basically get your critical mass. And then you'd get your secondary outcomes which are our visitation, um, hopefully you may have people coming in to look at buying some artwork and then they might get interested in a bookshop." (P5 D)

External stakeholders felt that the regular access to the precinct was a benefit: "Services + activities should be happening outside of peak times too" (Council A, focus group), and "24hr activation of the facility. Not every venue open 24hrs" (Council A, focus group).

The examples above highlight the importance placed by internal stakeholders on the benefit of having cultural facilities in a single location to increase and improve accessibility of services. Accessibility is a core component of service delivery quality in the development of public value (Faulkner and Kaufman 2018), as outlined previously in Chapter 2. It is also considered by Alemán et al. (2018) key to determining customer satisfaction. Understanding the level of quality to be obtained was understood by some phase 5 PAR participants as critical to customer satisfaction, "I think things like keep it simple stupid. Because it's also about what can they afford? And I think some of these little quirky venues around, they're fabulous. You don't need Rolls Royce." (P5, Council D, interviewee transcript). The previous benefit of social cohesion is linked to accessibility, according to Kearns and Forrest (2000), in that equality of access leads to social cohesion. Within facility management literature it was found that successful service delivery incorporates both access and utilisation (Brackertz and Kenley 2002). Long opening hours were a benefit of the precinct from the external stakeholder perspective. Activation of the precinct, according to the internal stakeholders, is made possible through the co-location of facilities and services. However, this view ignores the local context that may impact this activation. For example, as shown in Chapter 2, the utilisation of public space is impacted by the perception of or actualised crime in a neighbourhood (Roman and Chalfin 2008). In other words, activation of the CP is not guaranteed as a result of co-location of similar services and facilities. Whilst the precinct provides improved accessibility to services, it does not provide the surety of activation if other local contexts, such as crime-related activity, are not addressed.

Collaboration between CP entities was mentioned by two interviewees as a benefit of CP developments, though not always possible:

> “Interrelationships. They should have fantastic collaborations, but most often they don’t.” (P2, Council B)

> “encouraging crossovers between art form areas. Artists working together, being able to get a critical mass of activity that also crosses over into audience development.” (P5, Council D)

Collaboration was one of seven attributes assigned within the Tyagi and Gupta (2013) scorecard. They argued for the measurement of the quality of such collaborations such as partner satisfaction or measurement of trust (Tyagi and Gupta 2013), however they did not provide a tangible indicator for the measurement of trust. In Greiner’s (1997) model for organisational growth, collaboration was seen as a final phase in an organisation’s development. This phase requires, Greiner would argue, a slackening of formal controls and increased flexibility (Greiner 1997). Collaboration, according to Zorich et al. (2009) should be seen on a spectrum that initially begins with contact, cooperation and coordination. Zorich (2009) argued that collaboration leads to convergence: a core component of CP development. Whilst collaboration is seen by interviewees in this study as a benefit of CP development, according to the academic literature, there is evidence to suggest that collaboration is not a guaranteed outcome of CP developments. Rather, collaboration is a stage in the development of the CP. The interviewees in the current study did not seem to appreciate the broader implications of collaboration that are evident within the available literature.

4.3.1.3. Building social capital and liveability

A study undertaken on behalf of regional NSW councils found that the most important factors impacting a decision to relocate included: access to healthcare followed by improved lifestyle (Evocities 2012) or the chosen "mode of life" (Macquarie Dictionary 2016).

> "The social element, for me, is about community integration and engagement with each other. Not council, but with each other. And building community health and wellbeing. Maybe that's the salt ... building social capital." (E4 C)

A number of interviewees referred to the growth of social capital as a direct benefit of CP development, as reflected in interviewee E4's (Council C) quote above. The quote reflects the importance of CP users connecting with others, of building a community and sense of belonging. Further demonstrations of this theme include:

> "it gives people ownership, that they can come because it's a free space." (M10 C)

> "gonna give them a, a variety of entertainment outlets. We want to give something for the youth to do, because our youth don't have anything to do and they need to, we need to get 'em off the streets. We need to embrace our cultural roots and have an understanding of what Australia means and be able to communicate that effectively in the new century." (M7 B)

> "we knew that people would like this, I don't think we knew how much the community would embrace it." (M9 C)

> "there's a very interesting kind of social benefit that they give back out to community." (P2 B)

The term social capital can be defined as "the investment in the form of institutions, relationships, voluntary activity, and communications that shape the quality and quantity of social interaction within a community" (Macquarie Dictionary 2016). Elkington (1999) identified the importance of social accountability in the 3BL, to ensure the overall sustainability of an organisation. This social capital, in the context of CPs, may include education of the public, skill development and the building of trust (Elkington 1999). In public management theory, the presence or otherwise of social capital was believed to be an important environmental context to be highlighted in any study of public organisations (O'Toole Jr and Meier 2015). The development of a common understanding or purpose, as espoused above by interviewee M7 from Council B, relates to the cognitive dimension of social capital (Tsai and Ghoshal 1998).

The “liveability” or quality of life of a city is impacted by CP development, according to three interviewees when discussing the benefits of CPs:

> “So it’s about: 'this is for you', the community, look at the additional services we’re providing and it’s about saying to the community, this makes [the city] a desirable place to live, because we are aiming to have improved facilities.” (M9 C)

> “I believe it should be important that there is consideration for the arts and culture. As part of that social fabric of any city. And certainly if you want to be a, a growing city. It is integral to the quality of life and the future growth of the city.” (E5C)

> “having a vibrant cultural precinct is absolutely fundamental to the growth of the city.” (M11 C)

Santagata (2002) contended that, dependent on the organisational objectives, CPs may impact tourism and a community’s quality of life; an external or internal impact, respectively. Quality of life research, with its origins in measuring and understanding poverty and the distribution of wealth, explored the consumption of culture and recreation as core elements in the measurement of living conditions (Johansson 2002). Cultural consumption, therefore, would act as an indicator in the measurement of quality of life.

4.3.1.4. Place-based economic development and cultural tourism

As outlined above, Santagata (2002) saw tourism and quality of life as key benefits of CPs. Certainly, economic development was a factor investigated in the academic literature (Branzanti 2015) but its significance to the local government industry was not fully appreciated within the literature when compared to the evidence from this current study. Interviewees, for example, identified tourism and economic development as key drivers in favour of CP development:

“They seem to attract creative industries and individuals, and because of telecommunications and so forth, a regional centre for example can attract, all sorts of consultants and creatives, and diverse types of people. To become an attractive place to be. And that can actually drive economic development.” (E3 B)

“a big part of the agenda is that when people come to visit your place, you want them to stay another day or another two days.” (E2 B)

“an iconic building in the city, is an attractor in terms of encouraging people to spend more time in the CBD and look around. The other thing I would say about it is that cultural precincts, because they’re a major component of a CBD, if you do it really well, it goes a way to reinforcing the positive investment environment.” (E4 C)

“It’s not just about culture. It’s about your city’s economic development, your self-identity. If you want people to invest and engage and live in your city - They want, and they expect, and so they should, the same services, or equivalent, that you would get in a larger urban centre.” (M11 C)

“There can be commercial aspect to it as well, cultural precincts can be, can be cultural precincts by night and Convention Centres by day for example so it’s a different, there the cultural aspect and there’s the economic aspect as well, its contribution to economic diversity of the local economy.” (M3 A)

“I think from a commercial point of view, you know, there is a notion of healthy competition.” (M6 B)

“In terms of economic development, I mean, I know that’s just part of the cultural precinct – by developing this library and museum, I think it has a real economic development impact on [the city], and certainly this part of [town].” (M9 C)

“I think they’re pushing for the cultural tourism and, I guess, then, economic development.” (M9 C)

> "If it's a desirable place to live, then the spinoff, it is about encouraging tourists to the region. It's a cultural tourism driver." (M9 C)

Participant E3 from Council B comments above, reflects commentary within academia, specifically in regard to the active role creative industries now play in the CPs, moving well beyond the notion of passive economic development (Lazzeretti and Cinti 2012). The comments above from interviewees are reminiscent of the work of Cooke (2008, p.43) on cultural cities and the so-called "cultural economy". Cooke explored the impact of cultural consumption and the resultant happiness attained from such consumption as separate to a cultural city's role in tourism and economic development. The economic development opportunities were seen as a major factor for CP development in the 1980s, according to one interviewee from Council D, stating that, "the development of cultural facilities was pursued as an element of an economic development strategy to revitalise the city after the loss of jobs in the steel industry, and to assist and diversify the regional economy. These facilities, a major library, regional art gallery and performing arts centre were placed in one precinct". As shown above, internal stakeholders rated a range of factors as important including tourism, economic development, social cohesion, social capital and liveability all core to the development of CPs. The quotes also express the correlation between tourism and economic development – or place-based economic development (National Assembly of State Arts Agencies 2015) through cultural consumption. Cultural industries within urban environments have been shown to engender a diffused economic benefit (Propris 2013). Having seen in Section 2.4.4 that the positive economic development does not equally benefit all workers within a CP (Martin et al. 2015), academics and practitioners require a more nuanced understanding of the economic impact of CPs. Participant M8 touched on the competitive nature of cultural and creative tourism, an aspect not considered in Chapter 2. For tourism and economic development to be successful, the precinct must be competitive, some arguing that innovative tourism enhances this competitive edge (Booyens and Rogerson 2015). This innovation might include active participation and learning within the CP to ensure genuine engagement (Booyens and Rogerson 2015).

To maximise these benefits long-term strategising is required which seems incompatible with the "short term political world" (M3, Council A, interviewee transcript) of local government. Indeed, a CP was regarded by an internal stakeholder as a long-term project: "I would want to ensure that the council doesn't just tick the box because the community says they want a cultural precinct. That they are actually committed to a cultural precinct for the long-term" (M10, Council C, interviewee transcript). Indeed, as explored in Chapter 2, Mould and Comunian (2015) argued that in order to avoid the dangers of short-termism and ensure uniqueness to place, CP developments require a range of cultural production and consumption, and commercial and community uses. Interviewees, as key decision makers in local government, based on their responses, take a similar view as to the benefits of CPs and their ultimate performance.

4.3.1.5. Economies of scale

A number of the interviewed key decision makers indicated that economies of scale or improving the financial viability of services and facilities by sharing functions was an important benefit for the introduction of CPs. Examples of these include:

> "For the sharing resources, be that human or mechanical or other resources that are required for events, shows. Can all be shared." (E5 C)

> "It's an exposure for what the city promotes, as in culture" (M10 C)

> "Probably they'd wanna say that it is fiscally beneficial. I think in the current environment they would see synergies between the different components and they might have some opportunities to save [money]." (M13 D)

> "there's a number and it shouldn't all come back always to dollars, but, yeah, dollars are one intent – common management structures, systems, processes, other things that can happen is that we can plan together. Co-ordinate our calendars, do things that complement our programs and activities." (M6 B)

> "Well it has gotta be some sort of economy of scale, efficiencies in management." (P1 A)

> "Being able to co-market. And if appropriate co-brand but also being able to, um, even down to sharing secretariat resources and those sorts of things. So, you know, you don't have five or six organisations all trying to set up the same secretariat functions. That maybe there is a way you can all share office facilities, admin support, those sorts of things. So really it's about efficiency. But it's

> also about positioning, marketing, again, audience development, and what I would call accidental meeting ground." (P5 D)

It was observed in Section 2.4.4 that the local government sector assumed economies of scale or savings would be achieved through CP development and the coming together of cultural facilities and services (Clement 2006; Robinson 2011). A similar assumption is documented in the Chinese context (See Hee et al. 2008) and in Lorenzen and Frederiken's "localization" theory (2008). However limited academic literature has studied the phenomenon of economies of scale (Nuccio and Ponzini 2017) in any detail and in these few studies scale economies are inconclusive (Kortt et al. 2012). Dollery et al. (2006), for example, argued that economies of scale were not possible in staff resource-intensive services but were possible in capital-intensive services. Dollery et al. (2006) also examined a suite of studies on scale economies in amalgamated local governments across Australia and found that the scarcity of evidence made it impossible to draw conclusions from the available data. Given CPs were found to be characteristically places of activity, built form and meaning (Montgomery 2003), the utility of measuring economies of scale remains somewhat unclear.

4.3.1.6. Political motivation

Local government is a political environment and this is acknowledged by interviewees, sometimes with a degree of cynicism: "I often say this to people about Councils – the things that seem to work in Councils is SPQC – Simple, Popular, Quick and Cheap!" (M3, Council A, interviewee transcript). Nuccio and Ponzini (2017, p.419) asserted, as discussed in Chapter 2, politicians, at times, are more motivated by the politics of creating a CP rather than the benefits outlined above. One interviewee commented:

> "So some [politicians] are very much motivated by the arts. And others, uh, perhaps aren't so. But they could be convinced by the practical outcomes that could be achieved. So, um, given that this is an honest answer you know, some of them just love to cut ribbon." (E3 B)

This member of the executive team understood that some politicians enjoyed the coverage of an opening event more than they understood the intended benefits of the CP development. Internal stakeholders at a management level were also concerned by the political motivations of the elected members, commenting: "It is something that I took away from the conference, that you don't let the politicians or the bureaucrats design these things" (M3, Council A, interviewee transcript). It was found in Section 2.2.3.1. that the political environment might also impede reform and adaptability (Measham et al. 2011). Hedley (1998) suggested that political control limited a public administration's ability to apply business practices to the organisation.

However, that political environment and the motivation of elected members might also be aspirational, as one executive team member comprehended: “It was interesting watching the debate amongst the councillors. One of our councillors was the original sponsor of the precinct and he was the mayor at the time… He passionately argued that our community, having grown in size, was more sophisticated. Any decent aspirational community deserve to have a new precinct. You can see that for him it’s a sign that we have arrived” (E2, Council B, interviewee transcript). The statement signals that such precincts are sometimes construed as an aspirational model for an increasingly sophisticated community.

4.3.2. Cultural precinct benefits and their alignment to local government theory and practice

A comparative analysis was undertaken of the participant indications of the benefits, as outlined in 4.3.1 above, together with the benefits elicited from a study of the master planning documents from the case councils, also covered in Section 4.3.1 and from the limited CP/cultural quarter extant academic literature available. See Table 4-9 below for a summary of these comparisons.

Interviewee and Focus Group Data (Section 4.3.1 above)	Master Planning Documents (Section 4.3.1 above)	Cultural Precinct Academic Literature
Social cohesion, place-making and cultural development	Social inclusion (Council A 2004; Council E 2012a) Cultural opportunities (Council A 2004; Council B 2011; Council C 2010; Council D 2009; Council E 2012a)	Place-making as marketing tool (Mould and Comunian 2015) Cultural development linked to economic development (Jones 2017) and urban regeneration (McManus and Carruthers 2014; Montgomery 2003)
Activation, accessibility and collaboration	Connectivity (Council A 2004; Council B 2011; Council D 2009; Council E 2012a)	Activation (Alemán et al. 2018; Faulkner and Kaufman 2018)
Building social capital and liveability	Community identity and liveability (Council C 2010)	Quality of life (Santagata 2002)
Economic development and cultural tourism	No mention	Cultural economy (Cooke 2008, p.43) Tourism sector (Santagata 2002) Cultural economy (Cooke 2008, p.43)
Economies of scale	No mention	Localisation, rationalisation of services, reducing duplication and minimising cost (Lorenzen and Frederiksen 2008; Robinson 2011)
Political motivation	No mention	Impulse of political agencies (Nuccio and Ponzini 2017)

Table 4-9: Cultural precinct benefits - a comparative analysis

Table 4-9 demonstrates some anomalies between the views of key decision makers within local government and external stakeholders with the high-level planning documents from their councils. For example, whilst building social capital was an important benefit to the key decision makers, this was not a benefit documented within the planning documents and is not addressed in the existing academic literature on CPs. The same is true for collaboration. Further research is required on building social capital and collaboration as key benefits of CP developments. Economic development and cultural tourism are interwoven within the fabric of CP academic discourse; whilst cultural development is seen as a benefit by both interviewees and documented in council planning reports. However, this benefit is not examined in the CP literature available to date. Rather, cultural development is seen in the literature as a driver for economic development and urban regeneration. Economies of scale, on the other hand, was important to interviewees as a clear benefit of CP development and operations and is touched upon in the academic literature. However, councils fail to address this in the master planning documents. Unsurprisingly, the political motivation of elected members is not considered in council planning documents.

4.3.3. How stakeholders define cultural precinct success – VoC attributes

Both stakeholder groupings, otherwise known as the internal (decision makers) and external (community members and users of facilities) customers, were asked to designate preferred key attributes for a CP development – these attributes became the VoC. In phase 2 of the research, internal stakeholders developed and ranked their top CP attributes, see Table 4-10.

Internal voice of the customer attributes	Rating
Visitors to the cultural precinct are provided with new experiences and discoveries	4.30
Staff are highly knowledgeable with skills across a range of professions	3.87
Users of the cultural precinct feel a sense of safety	3.92
The facilities and programming in the cultural precinct are of a high quality	4.63
Entrance to spaces and entertainment within the cultural precinct is free	3.04
The cultural precinct is a multipurpose, flexible space in one facility	3.17
The cultural precinct has easy access to public transport	3.75
The cultural precinct is a “destination” encouraging longer stays (all day or overnight)	3.52
A preventative and ongoing maintenance schedule is in place to effectively manage infrastructure and assets	3.21
Open and green space are included in the cultural precinct	3.29
Staff are efficiently utilised across service areas (staff sharing)	3.09
The cultural precinct does not recover full costs from users (subsidised use of facilities and services)	2.92
The cultural precinct is activated 24/7 (day and night economy)	3.54
Funding to operate the cultural precinct is mixed with Local, State and Federal funding	2.61

Table 4-10: Cultural precinct key attributes from internal voice of the customer – phase 2

Similarly, in phase 3, external focus group participants developed and ranked their key attributes for a CP development as shown below in Table 4-11.

External voice of the customer attributes	Rating
I want to find sufficient, friendly, helpful and knowledgeable staff easily who can direct me to the right place or refer me to a specialist	4.25
Facility, services and activities should be available to meet community needs, opening times and availability	4.00
Programming and resources in the cultural precinct are age-appropriate and cover from the cradle to the grave	3.17
Basic services such as community spaces, museum, library and gallery should be free admission	4.42
Flexible, multi-purpose spaces that could potentially become a large conference room, and turn into smaller rooms or reading rooms	3.67
We need facility for bikes, public transport and cars with covered, ample, validated car parking and quick drop off zones i.e. Kiss and drive	3.58
I value open space, high ceilings, greenery and imaginative design	3.33
A maintenance schedule must consider the needs of each space i.e.: moderns meetings room not heavily used will need less maintenance than a very busy, heritage-listed museum	3.33
The cultural precinct is surrounded by trees, gardens and water features that all customers can interact with and play around in	3.25
Subsidised use of some services such as computer classes, specialised programs, and "prestige or high-profile" events	2.83
I want the cultural precinct activated 24 hours a day but not every venue needs to be open 24 hours	2.17
IT assets should be leased, not purchased therefore maintenance will be on leasing company + new technology available to customers	2.42

Table 4-11: Cultural precinct key attributes from external voice of the customer – phase 3

The VoC attributes are summarised below in Table 4-12. In a comparison of the phase 2 and phase 3 VoCs some clear synergies are immediately obvious. For example, both cohorts articulated a need for free utilisation of facilities and/or services. This acknowledgement of free use is supported by current practice in NSW local government where free or subsidised use is evident and reported (Port Macquarie-Hastings Council 2017b). However, the table demonstrates some key differences between the aggregated rankings of the internal versus the external VoC. Firstly, and perhaps unsurprisingly, the external stakeholders valued free admission as the highest priority attribute of the CP. The internal stakeholder ranked this down at 9th place. From the internal stakeholder perspective, the quality of the facilities and programming was the most important attribute whilst the external stakeholder reflected this attribute as 9th on their ranked list of importance. The knowledge and availability of staff ranked relatively high for both internal (3rd and 8th most important) and external (2nd most important) stakeholders. A number of attributes did not factor on the list of important attributes from the internal (meet community needs, multipurpose spaces, transport mix, open and green space nor IT assets) or external (provision of new experiences, sense of safety, destination stay nor a mixed funding model) stakeholders. This is despite local governments plans to build “green” precincts and creative spaces incorporating green technology (Anonymous 2015; Scicluna 2009). The internal stakeholder attributes appear to focus across the customer experience, financial, internal business processes, of the BSC (Kaplan and Norton 2001) and the economic, environmental and social aspects of the QBL (Elkington 1998) but lacks attributes relevant to the QBL element: corporate governance (Woodward et al. 2004). Interestingly, external stakeholders failed to prioritise attributes such as safety and tourism: both important attributes addressed by the internal stakeholders and studied in the academic literature.

Internal voice of the customer attributes	**External voice of the customer attributes**	**Average importance ranking**
Visitors to the cultural precinct are provided with **new experiences and discoveries**		4.30
Staff are highly knowledgeable with skills across a range of professions	I want to find sufficient, friendly, helpful and **knowledgeable staff** easily who can direct me to the right place or refer me to a specialist	4.06
	Facility, services and activities should be available to meet **community needs, opening times and availability**	4.00
Users of the cultural precinct feel a **sense of safety**		3.92
The **facilities and programming** in the cultural precinct are of a **high quality**	**Programming and resources** in the cultural precinct are age-appropriate and cover from the cradle to the grave	3.90
Entrance to spaces and entertainment within the cultural precinct is **free**	Basic services such as community spaces, museum, library and gallery should be **free** admission	3.73
The cultural precinct is a **multi-purpose**, flexible space in one facility	Flexible, **multi-purpose spaces** that could potentially become a large conference room, and turn into smaller rooms or reading rooms	3.42
The cultural precinct has easy access to **public transport**	We need facility for **bikes, public transport and cars** with covered, ample, validated car parking and quick drop off zones i.e. Kiss and drive	3.67
The cultural precinct is a **"destination"** encouraging longer stays (all day or overnight)		3.52
	I value **open space**, high ceilings, greenery and imaginative design	3.33
A preventative and ongoing **maintenance schedule** is in place to effectively manage infrastructure and assets	A **maintenance schedule** must consider the needs of each space i.e. moderns meetings room not heavily used will need less maintenance than a very busy, heritage-listed museum	3.27
Open and green space are included in the cultural precinct	The cultural precinct is surrounded by **trees, gardens and water features** that all customers can interact with and play around in	3.27
Staff are efficiently utilised across service areas (**staff sharing**)		3.09
The cultural precinct does not recover full costs from users (**subsidised** use of facilities and services)	**Subsidised use** of some services such as computer classes, specialised programs, and "prestige or high-profile" events	2.88
The cultural precinct is **activated 24/7** (day and night economy)	I want the cultural precinct **activated 24 hours** a day but not every venue needs to be open 24 hours	2.85
Funding to operate the cultural precinct is mixed with Local, State and Federal funding		2.61
	IT assets should be leased, not purchased therefore maintenance will be on leasing company + new technology available to customers	2.42

Table 4-12: Cultural precinct VoCs with importance rankings – Phase 2-3

During phase 4 of the research, these VoCs from both the internal and external stakeholders were compared and combined by the researcher. The aggregated VoCs for use in the HoQ utilised the words of the stakeholders and are articulated in Table 4-13 below.

Voice of the customer attributes	Stakeholder group
Visitors to the cultural precinct are provided with new experiences and discoveries	Internal
There are sufficient, friendly, helpful and highly knowledgeable staff easily who can direct me to the right place or refer me to a specialist	Internal/External
Facility, services and activities should be available to meet community needs, opening times and availability	External
Users of the cultural precinct feel a sense of safety	Internal
Programming and resources are of a high-quality, age-appropriate and cover from the cradle to the grave	Internal/External
Basic services such as community spaces, museum, library and gallery should be free admission	Internal/External
A single, flexible, multi-purpose space that could potentially become a large conference room, and turn into smaller rooms or reading rooms	Internal/External
There is facility for bikes and easy access to public transport and cars with covered, ample, validated car parking and quick drop off zones i.e. Kiss and drive	Internal/External
The cultural precinct is a "destination" encouraging longer stays (all day or overnight)	Internal
I value open space, high ceilings, greenery and imaginative design	External
A preventative and ongoing maintenance schedule is in place to effectively manage infrastructure and assets	Internal/External
The cultural precinct is surrounded by open, green space with trees, gardens and water features that all customers can interact with and play around in	Internal/External

Table 4-13: Cultural precinct voice of the customer – Phase 4

This initial list of combined VoCs was later taken into the phase 5 PAR activities of this study. Therein, PAR 1 participants (in the first PAR cycle in the first council) were provided these VoCs and asked to assess and refine them, added to them and had the opportunity to remove them as they so determined. Later, PAR 4 participants (in the first PAR cycles in the second council) were asked to further assess and refine the already refined VoCs from PAR 1 participants. As mentioned in Chapter 3, this staged action was deliberately undertaken in an attempt to execute another critical learning loop in the development of these VoCs. The outcomes of this refinement process are shown below in Table 4-14. This table demonstrates small amendments made between PAR 1 and PAR 4 VoCs. Most notably, the majority of VoCs remained unchanged. The changes that were made related particularly to identified gaps in the phase 4 combined VoCs:

food and beverage options, volunteer groups, marketing and promotion, collaboration and partnerships and organisational leadership. It was noted during PAR 1 that a lengthy discussion occurred over the importance of a volunteer work force. PAR 4's internal stakeholders then sought to remove the volunteer attribute from the VoC but the external stakeholders passionately defended it. Whilst participants in PAR 4 developed the VoC for marketing and promotion, they removed it when they undertook the next step in the HoQ process, that being the development of the TRs as they saw an overlap between the two elements of the HoQ. PAR 1 participants simplified the IT assets VoC and re-worded the funding-mix VoC to articulate a need for the precinct to be financially sustainable. PAR 1 participants removed the "cultural precinct is surrounded by open, green space…" as they felt that this item was repeating "I value open space, high ceilings, greenery and imaginative design". PAR 4 participants refined the VoC on collaboration and partnerships to focus on the natural or "organic" development of such collaborations. An additional VoC was added in PAR 4 in relation to marketing and branding.

The process of bringing internal and external stakeholders together to refine, add or remove VoCs led to discussion, questions of one another and decisions being made through consensus. The process led to four new VoCs, removal of one and refinement of 11 attributes. The addition of collaborations and partnerships and organisational leadership led to the development of VoCs in the civic leadership category, which had not occurred prior to Phase 5. In comparison with a research report undertaken in 2012 for the City of Sydney, similarities are visible between the stated VoCs above and the author's criteria for CPs: access, built form, venues, innovation and integration (Sweet Reason Pty Ltd 2011). These results support a notion that the variety of stakeholder groups, whilst having their own agendas and needs, which may well be oppositional or competitive with one another (Phillips 2003), will ultimately work collaboratively and by consensus in the development of their VoCs, provided there are appropriate supporting structures to facilitate such collaboration.

KEY WORDS	PHASE 4 INTERNAL/EXTERNAL STAKEHOLDER COMBINED VoCS	PHASE 5 PAR 1 VoC ATTRIBUTES	PHASE 5 PAR 4 VoC ATTRIBUTES
	CUSTOMER VoC ATTRIBUTES		
Accessibility - Community needs, storage requirements, opening times	Facility, services and activities should be available to meet community needs, opening times and availability	Facility, services and activities should be available to meet community needs, storage requirements, opening times and availability	Accessible facility, services and activities, available to meet community needs, storage requirements, opening times and availability
Destination	The cultural precinct is a “destination” encouraging longer stays (all day or overnight)	The cultural precinct is an enjoyable “destination” that encourages longer stays (all day or overnight)	The cultural precinct is an enjoyable, fun “destination” that encourages longer stays (all day or overnight)
Catering - Food and beverage outlets		Food and beverage outlets such as a coffee shop are accessible	Food and beverage outlets such as a coffee shop are accessible
Modern technology	IT assets should be leased, not purchased therefore maintenance will be on leasing company + new technology available to customers	Modern technology including the internet is available	Modern technology including the internet is available
Multi-purpose space	A single, flexible, multi-purpose space that could potentially become a large conference room, and turn into smaller rooms or reading rooms	A flexible, multi-purpose space that can be adapted for a variety of uses	A flexible, multi-purpose space that can be adapted for a variety of uses and mix of businesses
New experiences and discoveries	Visitors to the cultural precinct are provided with new experiences and discoveries	Visitors participate in new experiences and discoveries such as public and provoking art	Visitors participate in new experiences and discoveries such as public, provoking art and diverse and interesting programming
Programming and resources	Programming and resources are of a high-quality, age-appropriate and cover from the cradle to the grave	Programming and resources are of a high-quality, age-appropriate and meet the needs of a diverse demographic	Programming and resources are of a high-quality, age-appropriate and meet the needs of a diverse demographic
Sense of safety	Users of the cultural precinct feel a sense of safety	Users of the cultural precinct feel a sense of safety	Users of the cultural precinct feel a sense of safety
Transport	There is facility for bikes and easy access to public transport and cars with covered, ample, validated car parking and quick drop off zones i.e. Kiss and drive	There is facility for bikes and easy access to public transport and ample, free car parking and quick drop off zones i.e. Kiss and drive	The precinct is located in the CBD and accessible from a range of transport options
	FINANCIAL VoC ATTRIBUTES		
Financially sustainable	Funding to operate the cultural precinct is mixed with Local, State and Federal funding	The cultural precinct is financially sustainable	The cultural precinct is financially sustainable

Free	Basic services such as community spaces, museum, library and gallery should be free admission	Basic services such as community spaces, museum, library and gallery should be free admission	Basic services such as community spaces, museum, library and gallery should be free admission
	LEARNING AND GROWTH VoC ATTRIBUTES		
Knowledgeable staff and volunteers	There are sufficient, friendly, helpful and highly knowledgeable staff who can direct me to the right place or refer me to a specialist	There are sufficient, friendly, helpful and knowledgeable staff and volunteers providing a warm and welcoming service	There are sufficient, friendly, helpful and knowledgeable staff and volunteers providing a warm and welcoming service
Volunteers - Council support		Council supports volunteer groups in the provision of services	Council supports volunteer groups in the provision of services
	INTERNAL BUSINESS PROCESS VoC ATTRIBUTES		
Open space and imaginative design	I value open space, high ceilings, greenery and imaginative design	There is open space, gardens, water features and imaginative design	There is open space that is connected to the environment with an imaginative and inspiring design that encourages exploration
Sustainable maintenance schedule	A preventative and ongoing maintenance schedule is in place to effectively manage infrastructure and assets	A preventative, sustainable and ongoing maintenance schedule is in place to effectively manage infrastructure and assets	A preventative, sustainable and ongoing maintenance schedule is in place to effectively manage infrastructure and assets
Green space	The cultural precinct is surrounded by open, green space with trees, gardens and water features that all customers can interact with and play around in		
Branding/ marketing			Cohesive marketing, branding and promotion
	CIVIC LEADERSHIP VoC ATTRIBUTES		
Collaboration - Collaborative and partnerships		Collaborative and partnership opportunities are made available for groups to interact with one another	Organically developed collaborative and partnership opportunities are made available for groups to interact with one another
Leadership with a clear vision		The organisation shows leadership in the development and operation of the cultural precinct with strong community participation and involvement and a clear vision and common purpose for the precinct	The organisation shows leadership in the development and operation of the cultural precinct with strong community participation and involvement and a clear vision and common purpose for the precinct

Table 4-14: VoC attributes - Phases 2-5 comparison

4.3.4. The importance of the VoC and the reduction of asymmetric information

Capturing the VoCs is important to (a) ensure community expectations are understood so as to meet their needs (b) acknowledge the external stakeholder's right to be heard and engaged (c) recognise that internal stakeholder views could be different to external stakeholders and (d) be cognisant of the relevance and utility of this multiplicity of voices. There was recognition by both internal and external stakeholders during phases 2, 3 and 5 of this study that understanding community's expectations was paramount to the performance of CPs. As one internal stakeholder commented: "If you're going to develop a facility, you need to do your homework first." (P5, Council D, interviewee transcript). Based on the importance of the VoC in this study, further analysis is provided below to understand the divergent views of these stakeholder groups, and how these views are used in the prioritisation of VoC attributes for CP developments.

During phase 2 of the research the voice of the internal stakeholder was captured. Many of the management-level participants commented on the importance of engaging with the community: "a belief in their engagement with the community [is required]. In many ways, local government and, I think sometimes in the cultural field, it's forgotten a little bit that you work for the community, not for yourself" (M11, Council C, interviewee transcript). This view, expressed multiple times by interviewees, gives the sense that the internal stakeholders acknowledge the external stakeholder's *right* to be heard and engaged. One might loosely postulate that the voice of the internal stakeholder will be similar to the external voice, given that internal key decision-makers are supposedly representing the external stakeholder as an elected member or employed executive or manager. However, the data sourced and discussed in Section 4.3.3, demonstrates that the voice of the internal and external stakeholders are different. These points of commonality and differences are summarised and outlined below in Table 4-15.

BSC/QBL Category	Commonalities	Internal stakeholders only	External stakeholders only
Customer	Multipurpose spaces	New experiences and discoveries	Meet community needs, opening times and availability
	Public transport	Sense of safety	Diversity of programming and resources
	24/7 activation (day/night economy)	Destination venue	Facilities for bikes and cars
Financial	Free admission	Mixed funding	
	Subsidised activities		
Learning and growth	Knowledgeable staff	Staff sharing across services	
Internal processes	Maintenance schedule	High quality facilities	IT assets
	Open and green space		Open architecture, high ceilings and imaginative design
Civic leadership			

Table 4-15: Phase 2-3 VoC commonalities and differences in BSC/QBL categories

It is unsurprising that the majority of the VoC attributes fall into the “customer” category of the BSC/QBL, as shown in Table 4-15. Also, of note, the external stakeholders nominated a VoC of “meet community needs, opening times and availability”. However, when queried as to their meaning or detail behind “community needs” the external stakeholders did not articulate any other needs apart from opening times and availability of the cultural services. They were adamant that this VoC remain unchanged. Within the customer category, the internal and external stakeholders only shared a view on three of the 10 VoC attributes: multipurpose spaces, public transport and 24/7 activation. Returning once more to the work of Taylor and Taylor (2014), it is clear that such a diversity of stakeholder views does provide multiplicity in the range of VoC responses. The findings presented in this study demonstrate the relevance and utility of all “voices” in their assessment of important CP attributes.

Importantly also, one should not consider all internal stakeholders as a single, homogenous group as slight variations in levels of importance attributed to each VoC can been seen between sub-groups within the internal stakeholder cohort. Figure 4-7 visually demonstrates the different importance rankings for VoC attributes assigned by different internal stakeholders: managers, executives and politicians.

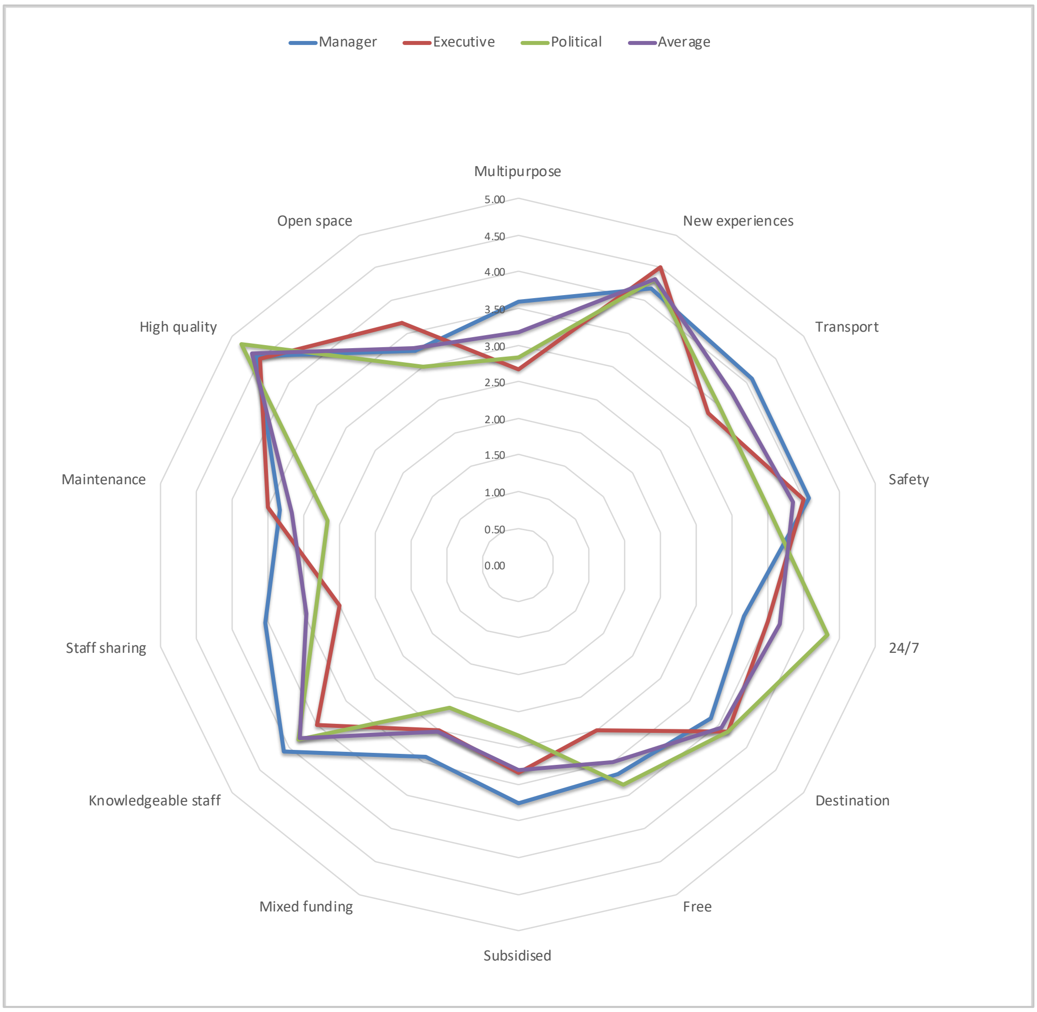


Figure 4-7: VoC attributes - radar graph of internal interviewee rankings split by stakeholder type

The politician's prioritised the 24/7 activation of the precinct and significantly, did not score the maintenance schedule highly when compared to managers and executive. One could argue that the maintenance schedule, whilst important to ensure assets and infrastructure are functioning and of a particular standard, was not rated as such by politicians as it did not support an elected official's need to meet more obvious and immediate community needs as part of the democratic process. This result goes some way to support the heuristic described by Aulich (1999) as the tension between bureaucratic efficiency (i.e. the need for a maintenance schedule) and the democratic process (i.e. higher profile priorities such as 24/7 activation). It has been shown that in media releases related to precinct developments, the politicians focused on the activation of the space and economic benefits (Egerton 2010), similar to the 24/7 activation articulated in the VoC. The higher ranking of a maintenance schedule, on the other hand, by executive- and management-level staff indicates they are cognisant of the infrastructure crisis (Dollery et al. 2007; Independent Inquiry into Local Government Inquiry 2006), and seek to maintain services at high quality (also ranked highly by all internal stakeholders) and, thereby, a need to undertake this maintenance proactively and efficiently. These divergent views coupled with our understanding of the bureaucratic efficiency versus democratic process heuristic highlights the need for the multiplicity of voices across internal and external stakeholder cohorts. Tentatively, it might be argued that the deliberative PAR process with internal and external stakeholders, to be discussed in Chapter 5, might reduce the tension between efficiency and democracy.

4.3.5. Ranking the voice of the customer attributes

Discussion now turns to the development and utilisation of the importance and satisfaction rankings for each VoC. The PAR participants in phase 5 provided importance and satisfaction rankings for each attribute. These phase 5 rankings are shown below in Figure 4-8. The most important VoC in Council E was the availability of modern technology whilst Council C was high quality programming and resources. It is noted that in both cases, the VoC of greatest importance was also rated highest for satisfaction. The average satisfaction rating (Council E=3.512, Council C=3.628) for both councils is lower than the average importance rating (Council E=3.843, Council C=3.792).

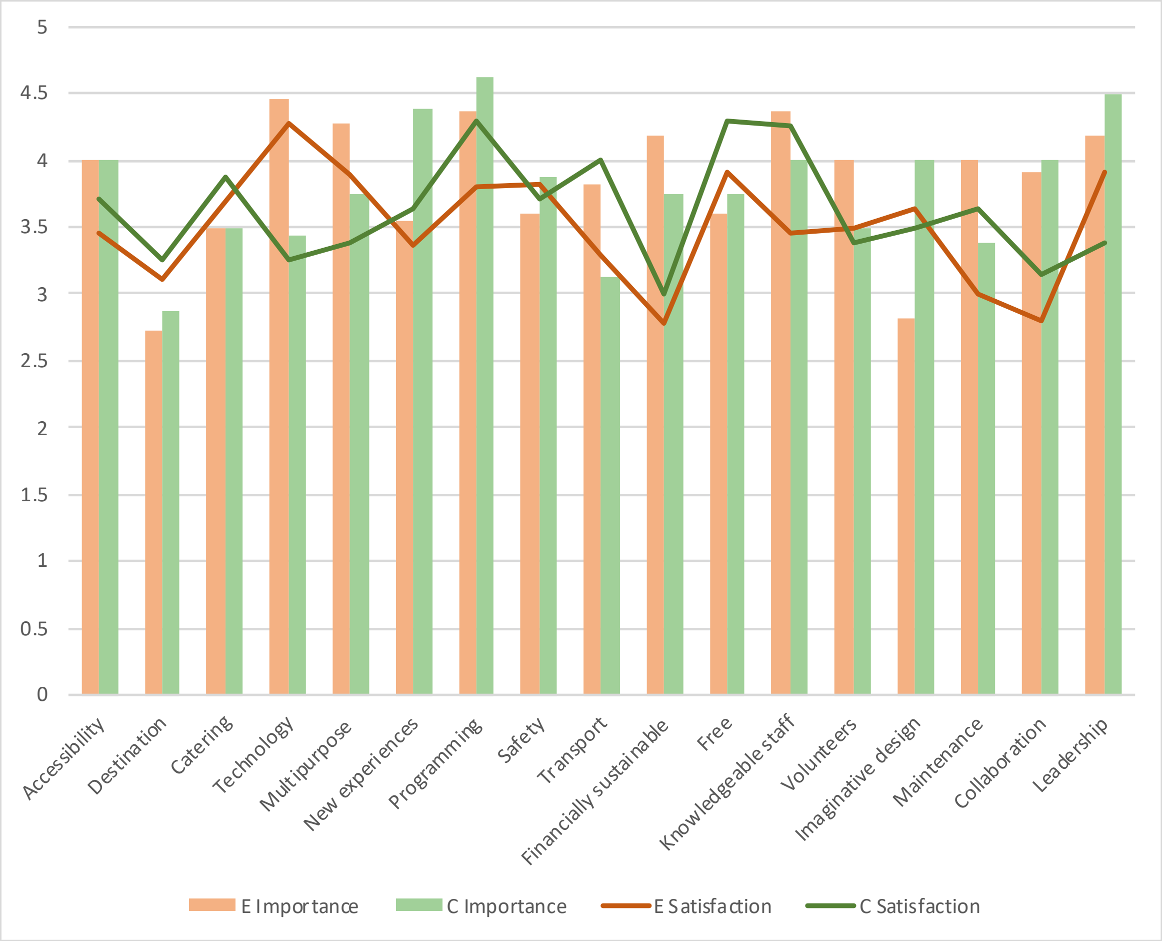


Figure 4-8: Cultural precinct VoCs importance and satisfaction - Councils E and C

The comparison of important VoCs between councils demonstrates that each council has different attributes that are more important to their LGA. The top 3 VoCs for Council E were technology, high quality programming and knowledgeable staff. Whilst Council C's were programming, organisational leadership and community participation in new experiences and discoveries. The least important for Council E: imaginative design, destination precinct and catering options and Council C: destination precinct, transport options and the maintenance schedule. These differences clearly highlight the individuality of the council areas and their different requirements and, in turn, a need to develop PIs which are responsive to local conditions. Whilst both councils were comfortable with the list of VoC attributes, the level of importance placed on each attribute was quite different. This difference was highlighted by one interviewee in an anonymous survey following the interviews in Phase 2: "a successful…cultural precinct needs also to reflect the place, the culture of the community". As demonstrated in Chapter 2, there is a strong tie to "place" in local government, as demonstrated in local government strategic planning documents and annual reports (For example, see Council E 2013; Perth and Kinross Council 2013a; Port Macquarie-Hastings Council 2014a; Adelaide Hills Council 2016; City of Darwin 2016; City of Swan 2017) and government reporting (Lyons 2007; BOP Consulting 2013). Consistent with the council area individuality comment made above, the data in Figure 4-8 suggests that this sense of place, or the aspects to establish a community's identity and what is important to a community, is also variable across LGAs.

The outcomes above are in keeping with research on cultural and place-based brand (Scaramanga 2012). In the case of this current study, the authenticity of the place-based attributes was vital to participants and, according to Scaramanga (2012), such authenticity is critical to the success of a place. These outcomes are also supported by findings in Lean theory, where Lean implementation in public administrations was found to be more successful when delivered with consideration to the context in which it currently exists (Radnor and Osborne 2013). The literature recognises the richness and diversity of the local government context where one must define the key stakeholders and their interpretation of public value (Price et al. 2018). This view is similarly explored in continuous improvement literature where change, it is argued, can only occur if the context of the organisation is recognised (Bolton and Heap 2002). The importance of contextualisation is evident when one understands that the level of complexity (referred to by O'Toole Jr and Meier (2015, p.15) as the "degree of homogeneity/heterogeneity" of the public administration) impacts negatively on performance (Andrews 2009). According to the *Gallup Study: Soul of the Community* report (John S. and James L. Knight

Foundation 2018), attachment to place is attributed to the social offerings and aesthetics of a place or community. Based on this assertion, the VoCs in this current study, particularly high-quality programming and providing communities with new experiences and discoveries, might provide the appropriate social offerings that would drive attachment to place. This is important because it was previously determined that a contextual sense of place is critical to community wellbeing and is important to a cultural precinct's overall performance.

Figure 4-9 provides a visual indication of the difference between each council's satisfaction and importance rankings. For instance, Council E had an importance ranking of 4 for accessibility and a satisfaction of 3.45, representing -0.55 difference between the two. In other words, the respondents were slightly dissatisfied with the performance of the accessibility of their cultural facilities in comparison to the importance they placed on that VoC attribute. Council E's greatest areas of negative difference (satisfaction being less than the level of importance) were in financial sustainability (-1.4) and collaborations and partnerships (-1.11). Council E's greatest areas of positive difference (satisfaction being higher than the importance) were in imaginative design (+0.82) and destination (+0.38). Figures 4-8 and 4-9 were highly regarded by the PAR participants. They indicated that the information displayed in them was easier to comprehend than the table of figures found in Table 4-12, for example.

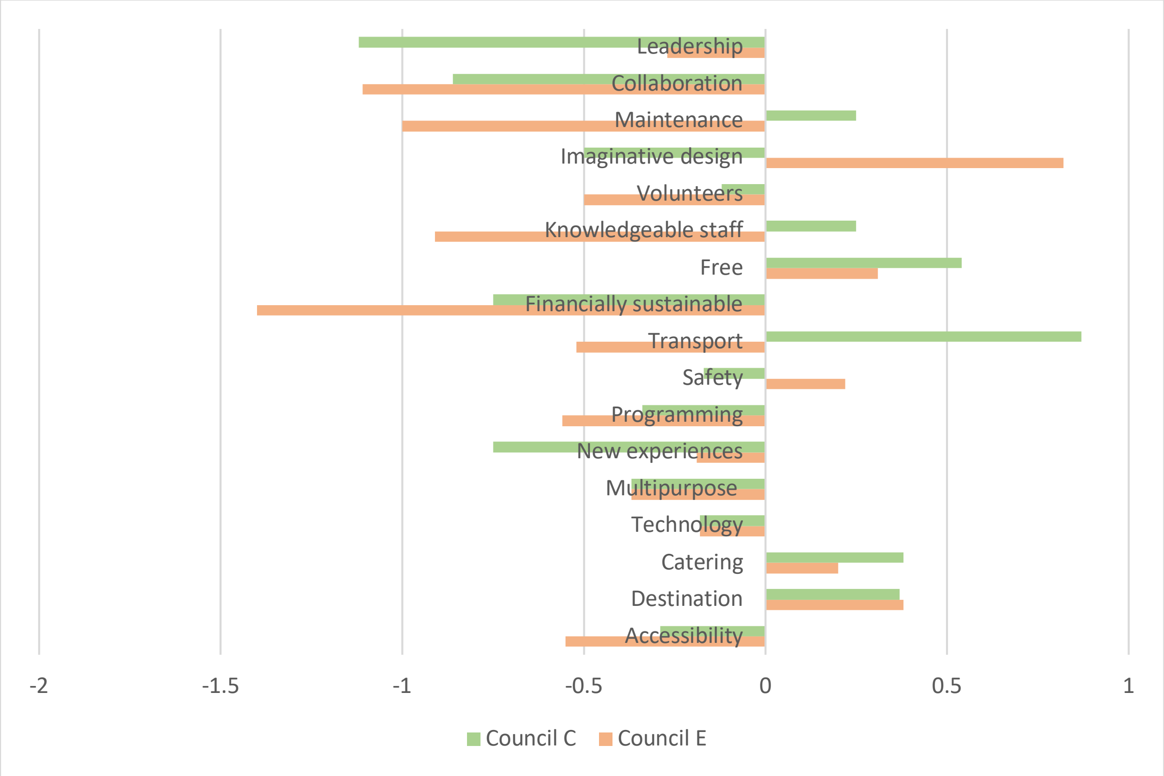


Figure 4-9: Cultural precinct VoCs difference between the satisfaction and performance rankings

In the case of Council C the top negative differences were in organisational leadership (-1.12) and collaborations and partnerships (-0.86) whilst positive differences were most marked in transport options (+0.87) and access to free services (+0.54). The provision of this data, ultimately to be included in the PIHoQ, would act as a visual representation of the performance on the organisation, providing the community with easy access to accessible information on the performance of their council's CP. This supports an assertion by Gerst (2004) that the HoQ table (with representative data from the council) would provide clear communication to the community on what they want (VoC), how important that VoC is and how satisfied they are with the VoC.

In tying the VoCs to the BSC/QBL categories a clearer picture emerges of the categories in which stakeholders, on average, state the highest importance (Council E: learning and growth, Council C: civic leadership) and highest satisfaction (Council E: customer, Council C: learning and growth). This information is shown in Table 4-16. It demonstrates that Council E needs to prioritise learning and growth-related VoCs where importance was high (4.18) and somewhat lower satisfaction (3.48). Council C had a very clear delineation between the importance (4.25) and satisfaction (3.26) for the category of civic leadership. Thus, utilising the data at the category-level (for instance, "customer", "financial" or "learning and growth"), provides an organisation useful information to make strategic decisions, as argued by Ocampo Jimenez and Baeza Serrato (2016) in their study of QFD deployment in a local government context. However, in the case of this present study on CPs, it is evident that the complexity of the VoCs makes the analysis of the data more challenging.

	Importance		Satisfaction	
BSC/QBL Category	Council E	Council C	Council E	Council C
Customer	3.81	3.73	3.63	3.68
Financial	3.89	3.75	3.35	3.50
Learning and growth	4.18	3.75	3.48	3.82
Internal processes	3.41	3.69	3.32	3.57
Civic leadership	4.05	4.25	3.36	3.26

Table 4-16: Average ranking by BSC/QBL categorisation

4.4. MEASURING THE PERFORMANCE OF CULTURAL PRECINCTS

> *"I haven't given [cultural precinct performance indicators] any thought because I actually think they're being run pretty well here."*
>
> (P5, Council D, interviewee transcript)

Chapter 4, thus far, has explored the role of local government in CP development and operations, studying the TRs of said facilities and the VoC and benefits derived from CPs. This section now draws together the data derived from the five phases of research and addresses the research question: *What relevant and effective performance indicators can be developed for cultural precincts in a local government context to gauge performance and support continuous improvement?* This question is answered over five sub-sections, as depicted in Figure 4-10.

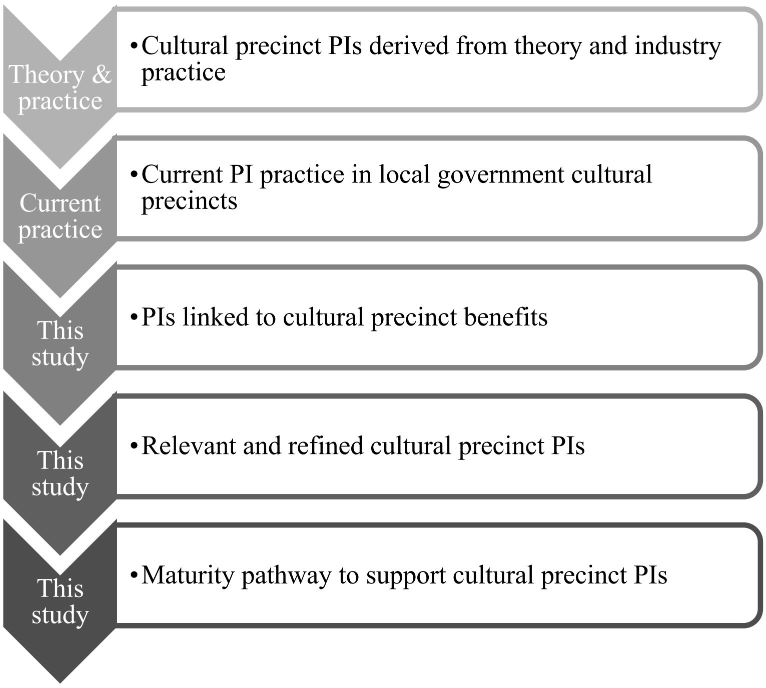

Theory & practice
• Cultural precinct PIs derived from theory and industry practice
Current practice
• Current PI practice in local government cultural precincts
This study
• PIs linked to cultural precinct benefits
This study
• Relevant and refined cultural precinct PIs
This study
• Maturity pathway to support cultural precinct PIs

Figure 4-10: Road map to relevant and effective CP performance indicators

4.4.1. Correlation between theory and industry practice in cultural precinct performance indicators

This section examines how the extant academic literature and industry practice informs our understanding of CP PIs. Key to this section is the idea that governments face many challenges including the difficulty of managing competing factors such as efficiency and effectiveness and financial and non-financial elements

(Taylor and Taylor 2014). As a result of these competing factors, many academic authors (Alemán et al. 2018; Elkington 1999; Faulkner and Kaufman 2018; Kaplan and Norton 1992; Woodward et al. 2004) have argued that strategic planning and performance measurement requires a very holistic approach to ensure success. This has been similarly advocated within public administrations (Department of Local Government Western Australia 2016; Division of Local Government NSW 2013; Gore 1993) and identified in Chapter 2. The discussion below adopts this concept of a holistic approach to CP PI development by bringing together the relevant literature (public administration and public value theory) and the knowledge built in this study (CP benefits and VoCs) for learnings on CP PIs.

Firstly, having regard to the literature on local government and public administration, a number of key issues impacting government were apparent including the reform of government within the frame of NPM where the focus returned to transparency and community need (Dziak 2016), and the dichotomy exposed in public value theory between the public administration practitioners' need for efficient service delivery and the customer's level of satisfaction with service delivery (Papi et al. 2018). Also of note was the difficulty faced by public administrations in attaining financial sustainability (Ashworth et al. 2013), the drive towards place-making or place-shaping to foster community well-being (Lyons 2007) and the government concern over the negative impact of poor performance data on citizens (Olsen 2015). The reasons for and effects of amalgamations both internationally (Tickell 2010) and in Australia (Dollery 1997), and the infrastructure renewal crisis (Dollery et al. 2007) were similarly noted in the analysis of the literature. These issues were considered in light of the CP benefits and the VoCs identified in Section 4.3 with commentary on their correlation with the academic literature and the data from the phases 2-5 of the study.

Sustainable service provision, which is relevant to public value theory, financial sustainability, amalgamation and the infrastructure renewal crisis, was a common theme in the interviews with internal stakeholders in phase 2 of the research. For example, an internal stakeholder in local government acknowledged: "you know in this climate where we're going to need financial sustainability discussions, is it reasonable for, you know, to have a look at these facilities and say, well, how can they actually bring money back?" (M12, Council D, interviewee transcript). The theory of public value first developed by Moore (1995), was scrutinized in some detail in Chapter 2. It is a useful lens through which to analyse CPs and their PIs given the environment in which local government works; one that, as shown in the literature review, is working leanly, endeavouring to maximise positive outcomes with no additional income (Radnor and Osborne 2013). This notion that positive outcomes outweigh the sacrifice given in order to achieve it, was assayed by Faulkner and Kaufman (2018, p.77) when they proposed four fundamental elements of public value, with the view to measure the organisation's performance against the elements: outcome achievement (social, economic, environmental and cultural), trust and legitimacy (trust, transparency and perception of legitimacy), service delivery quality (satisfaction, responsiveness, engagement, accessibility and convenience) and, finally, efficiency (value for money, minimal bureaucracy and benefits outweighing costs).

There are similarities between the Faulkner and Kaufman (2018) elements, the BSC (financial, customer, internal business process and learning and growth – employees) (Kaplan and Norton 2001, p.23) and the QBL (economic, environmental, social and corporate governance) (Elkington 1999). The three approaches suggest a holistic view of corporate reporting and performance measurement is desirable. Practices that ensure a range of relevant indicators that provide data to inform internal and external performance are vital to addressing challenges highlighted in prior studies (Boyer and Martin 2012) such as those in Section 2.3.1. Given the desirability for a holistic approach to performance measurement of CP operations, it is useful to see the clear synergies between the predominate themes identified within public administration theory, the components of the BSC and QBL, elements of public value theory, the identified benefits of CP developments and the refined VoC (samples), as shown in Table 4-17. The comparison shows the nexus between theory (public administration and public value) and practice (benefits and VoC attributes), as it relates to CPs. These interrelations between theory and practice highlight the complexity of CP performance measurement. For example, civic leadership (QBL category) relates closely to the theme of trust and legitimacy within public value theory, discussed in Section 2.2.1. where perception of legitimacy and a need for trust and transparency are critical to public value (Faulkner and Kaufman 2018). Table 4-17 links these elements to public administration theory, particularly concerning the impact of the negativity bias on stakeholders due poor performance data (Olsen 2015). This bias, it was argued in Section 2.2.1., reduced the likelihood of performance data being released to stakeholders, thus decreasing the level of stakeholder trust in the public administration. These issues are important in this study of CP performance measurement, as research participants clearly articulated the benefits of CPs, those being the activation, accessibility and collaboration of the site and the political motivation of its elected members. All of which impact, or are impacted by, trust and legitimacy and the negativity bias. In bringing these themes together, there is guidance to be gathered from these convergent themes, as regard is given to the final aspect of Table 4-17, the VoC sample: "The organisation shows leadership in the development and operation of the CP with strong community participation and involvement and a clear vision and common purpose for the precinct". The leadership, community participation and vision/purpose of the VoC, take on a multi-dimensional meaning when viewed in light of these relevant literature streams. Therefore, as PIs are created to measure this VoC, due deliberation should be given to the QBL literature on civic leadership, academic theory related to the negativity bias and poor performance data and relevant literature related to activation, accessibility, collaboration and political motivation. Table 4-17 shows clear synergies between stakeholder expectations of CPs in the benefits and VoC attributes with the challenges faced by government agencies as identified in the academic literature. The development of PIs measuring components of the CP VoCs would, one could extrapolate from Table 4-17, allow government to measure performance related to key issues identified in the extant literature.

BSC/ QBL	PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION KEY THEMES	PUBLIC VALUE	Cultural precinct HoQ BENEFITS	Cultural precinct HoQ VoC (SAMPLE)
Customer	Place-making	Outcome achievement – social and cultural	Social cohesion, place-making and cultural development Building social capital and liveability	Visitors participate in new experiences and discoveries such as public, provoking art and diverse and interesting programming
	New public management	Service delivery quality – satisfaction, responsiveness, accessibility and convenience	Activation, accessibility and collaboration	Accessible facility, services and activities, available to meet community needs, storage requirements, opening times and availability
Financial	Financial sustainability of public administrations	Outcome achievement - economic	Economic development and cultural tourism	The cultural precinct is an enjoyable, fun “destination” that encourages longer stays (all day or overnight)
	Amalgamations	Efficiency – value for money, minimal bureaucracy and benefits outweigh costs	Economies of scale	The cultural precinct is financially sustainable
Learning growth	Public value theory		Building social capital and liveability	There are sufficient, friendly, helpful and knowledgeable staff and volunteers providing a warm and welcoming service
Internal process	Infrastructure renewal crisis	Outcome achievement – environmental	Economies of scale	A preventative, sustainable and ongoing maintenance schedule is in place to effectively manage infrastructure and assets
Civic leadership	Impact of poor performance data on citizens (negativity bias)	Trust and legitimacy – trust in organisation, transparency and perception of legitimacy	Activation, accessibility and collaboration Political motivation	The organisation shows leadership in the development and operation of the cultural precinct with strong community participation and involvement and a clear vision and common purpose for the precinct

Table 4-17: BSC/QBL, public value and cultural precinct benefits and VoCs

Prior to considering CP indicators that reflect the benefits of CPs, VoCs, and TRs in Section 4.4.4, further consideration of the existing PIs from the case councils was required. In Section 2.3.6, it was reported that councils tended towards measuring cultural facilities significantly on cultural or customer-related PIs (Examples included Blacktown City Council 2009; City of Newcastle 2011; Penrith City Council 2011). A study of the case council documentation demonstrated that the majority of PIs directly related to cultural facilities and services within strategic planning and master planning documents were focused on the customer category within the BSC, as summarised in Table 4-18 below (full details in Appendix 5). This analysis identified 20 different PIs under the customer category within the case council documentation. Whilst only six were found relevant to the financial category. In Chapter 2 it was determined that within CPs and their facilities the silo-mentality remains active through professional silos (Robinson 2018) but in this current study we find that silos are also maintained in local government through PIs. This might be tentatively termed "silo-measurement" referring to the government predilection to measure what is "comfortable" for a particular disciplinary area such as CPs.

It was noted above that Council C rated VoCs in the civic leadership category as highly important (See Table 4-16) whilst they scored satisfaction ratings significantly lower. On the other hand, Council C had only one PI in the category of civic leadership: "Percentage of community satisfied with opportunities to be heard" (Council C 2011). Both councils scored well on the customer related VoCs, as shown in Table 4-16. Therefore, the high number of PIs for the customer related VoCs would, one presumes, give a positive message to the community on the performance of the cultural facilities. PAR participants agreed that measuring aspects of the business that could show poor performance was difficult, in the event that the data was used for political point-scoring, as attested by M17, Council E: "transparency is a challenge for local government as a political organisation." This could be, as the literature has shown, as a result of media's partiality for negative news (Dixon et al. 2013), and as such drives public administrations to report only on positive news (Plant 2006). In regard to the ancillary services that support CPs such as commercial space, pedestrian access and public transport and atmospheric elements such as safety, heritage and place-based planning (discussed in Section 4.2.1) it is clear that the available indicators are paltry. Useful indicators include reported incidents of violent crime as a percentage of population (Council B 2011), percentage of people who feel safe (Council D 2012) and level of public transport utilisation (Council D 2012). It is evident from these results that local government must expand its repertoire of PIs to reflect the benefits of CPs, the important VoCs and the full suite of services in order to better understand the performance of CPs and utilise the data to strategise improvements.

BSC/ QBL	Sample performance indicator	Document study reference
Customer	Feedback from communities, satisfaction rates	(Council A 2011; Council A 2015c; Council B 2013a; Council C 2011; Council D 2012; Council E 2016; Council E 2017)
	Overall community health and well bring	(Council B 2013a)
	Number of participants, participation rates, percentage of people participating in the arts/cultural activities	(Council A 2011; Council A 2015c; Council B 2013a; Council C 2011; Council D 2012; Council E 2016; Council E 2017)
	Opportunities to engage in arts and related cultural activities	(Council D 2012)
	Number and response times for calls etc. Customer service satisfaction	(Council A 2011; Council A 2015c) (Council D 2012)
	Reported incidents of violent crime as a % of population	(Council B 2011; Council B 2013a)
	Percentage of people who feel safe	(Council D 2012)
	Level of public transport utilisation	(Council D 2012)
	% of commuter modal share from walking and cycling	(Council B 2011)
	Level of satisfaction with accessibility of spaces	(Council D 2012)
Financial	Community belief that council is financially sustainable	(Council B 2013a)
	Number and dollar value of grants received/awarded	(Council B 2013a) (Council E 2016; Council E 2017)
	Economic impacts of tourism and events	(Council C 2011)
	% of people employed in the creative sector	(Council D 2012)
	% of creative business contributing to the city’s economy	(Council D 2012)
Learning	% population participating in volunteer work, hours contributed	(Council B 2011; Council B 2013b; Council D 2012)
	Volunteer engagement – increasing volunteer placement	(Council C 2011)
Internal process	Number of website hits	(Council B 2011)
	Number of good news stories	(Council B 2013a)
	Number of incidences of information distribution	(Council A 2011; Council A 2015c)
	% of community satisfied with opportunities to be informed	(Council C 2011)
	Progress towards renewable technology	(Council B 2011)
	Level of satisfaction with appearance of public space	(Council D 2012)
Civic leadership	Community belief that council is accountable	(Council B 2013a)
	Percentage of community satisfied with opportunities to be heard	(Council C 2011)

Table 4-18: Case council performance indicators in BSC/QBL categorisation

In sum, in the examination of the nexus between PI theory and industry practice, this current study concurs with Roodhouse (2010) in that PIs for CPs were found to be limited and one dimensional (customer-focused). It is further understood that the case councils were, as literature had previously stated (Plant 2006), reporting on PIs primarily associated with areas of typically high performance levels such as customer-focus indicators. In so doing, local government risks measuring, and therefore understanding, only a small section of CP operations, primarily those aspects already well-known to CPs: the customer-focused PIs. One might view this as "silo-measurement", where organisational silos are perpetuated through performance measurement and performance data provides a marginalised view of the CP. Further, PIs for CPs fail to measure the performance of ancillary services regardless of the fact that previous research indicates that such services are critical to the success of CPs. Of final note, public administration and public value theory demonstrate that a holistic view of CPs, their benefits and VoC attributes are critical to performance measurement of said facilities and services.

4.4.2. Performance measurement as practiced in local government cultural facilities

Initially, in phase 1 of the research, a document search was undertaken to understand the current performance measurement practice of the case councils. A summary of the data is provided below in Table 4-19 (Note the full table is provided in Appendix 6). The table is based on a review of relevant corporate documents from the 5 case councils (Council A 2004; 2011; 2014; 2015a; 2015c; 2015b; Council B 2010; 2011; 2012; 2013b; 2013a; 2014; 2015; Council C 2010; 2011; 2012; 2014; 2015; Council D 2007; 2009; 2012; 2015; 2014b; 2014a; Council E 2012a; 2012b; 2013; 2014; 2016; 2017). This data was compared to publicly available data from local government facilities internationally. This international data is represented in Table 4-20 and was obtained from the City of Vancouver, Canada (City of Vancouver 2008a; 2008b; 2013; 2014; 2016), Perth and Kinross Council, Scotland (Perth and Kinross Council 2013b; 2013a; 2013c; 2015a; 2015b) and City of Los Angeles, USA (City of Los Angeles 2014; 2015).

The review of council documents demonstrated that the terms "performance indicator" and "performance measure" are used interchangeably in the industry. Stakeholders agreed in the PAR sessions that indicators and measures were used interchangeably but should be more clearly understood by participants undertaking the PIHoQ development. They confirmed what was determined via the literature review: that a PI may have multiple performance measures since a PI is the broader generic assessment criteria or gauge and a PM is a subset of an indicator. In PARs 2 and 5, participants determined that councils had great choice in their selection of specific PMs that would suit their particular contexts, whilst still engaging with appropriate PIs that suitably related to customers and TRs. For example, the "transport options" TR is aligned to a PI "access to transport options" and this PI would be adapted to the context of the LGA to consider the relevant modes of transport. The council may then elect PMs relevant to that context including, for example "number of kilometres from train station" and "number of free parking spaces within 1km radius of cultural precinct". Thus, as this current research was focused on the development of relevant and effective PIs for CPs, which in turn spawn supporting PMs, any further investigation or analysis on PMs was determined to be an extension of and outside the scope of this present study. Table 4-19 shows that while most councils articulated clear PIs in their major strategic documents such as the community strategic plan (CSP) and annual report, master planning documents for developments such as CPs, generally, do not have PIs aligned to CP objectives. For example, only Council B expressed PIs for the CP master planning document. All other council's master plans were devoid of PIs. It is therefore very difficult to determine if the council has met objectives when they failed to align PIs with the objectives.

Internal stakeholders commented on their current PIs, one stating, "Really the only thing we measure now is numbers. So we measure who comes in, we measure how many programs we have, we measure how much money we spend on programs" (M13, Council D, interviewee transcript), whilst another commented, "Well they're pretty rudimentary I guess, it's just sort of …the usual things about 'did you enjoy the event, you know, would you like to see something like this again?'" (M1, Council A, interviewee transcript). Interviewee comments matched the results of the document search, confirming that the majority of PIs were output-focused and quantitative. The use of qualitative measures was not high, "how people feel about things. I would say we don't do it very well. I don't think local government does it very well. And I don't think the cultural sector does it very well", (M13, Council D, interviewee transcript), demonstrating that they do not make significant use of performance indicators or the data captured. Council C indicated that they were looking at future indicators that measure intangible assets:

> *"we are moving towards developing more qualitative KPI's including: Creativity stimulated, Aesthetic enrichment experienced, New knowledge, ideas and insights gained, Connection to shared*

heritage experienced, KPIs that focus on offering creative, stimulating arts experiences to and with residents (rather than to cultural tourism visitors)" (Council C, PAR 2 survey).

Further indicators were offered by participants in the PAR 5 survey (Council E):

- *"Engagement measures - new participants - returning participants*
- *Outcomes based visitor experience measures e.g.: imagination stimulated, new skills gained, exposure to new ideas, met new people, developed relationships within my community. Would need to be part of regular surveys/program evaluation.*
- *Number of people participating (door counters), projects (programs) completed, collection development statistics, satisfaction rankings*
- *Media targets and values achieved*
- *Social Media statistics*
- *Occupancy statistics and values*
- *Perceptions of safety (self-reported survey)*
- *Access to transport options*
- *Access to public toilets*
- *Quality of amenity (self-reported survey)*
- *Reach of media - depending on the size of the project could set targets for number of people viewing pre-publicity. This can then be analysed against attendance figures".*

These indicators demonstrate that stakeholders recognise a need for diverse PIs to adequately measure the performance of CPs. Tables 4-19 and 4-20 summarise the PIs listed in council documents such as annual reports, master plans and strategic plans. The diversity of suggested PIs from participants (listed immediately above) contrast the uniformity of PIs provided within the council documents. Clearly, CP stakeholders recognise the need for heterogeneity in PIs to adequately performance measure CPs.

Council	A	B	C	D	E
Annual report	Cash surplus/deficit Income raised Visitor numbers per facility Number of wireless logins Volunteer hours worked Satisfaction rates for facilities	Income raised Expenses from budget Number of attendances at Arts Centre and School of Arts Community facilities usage - hours per quarter booked	Hits to website Number of enquiries, walk-ins and service requests related to various services i.e. tourism centre	Rates levied (income) Operating performance ratio Asset maintenance ratio Number of employee (FTE) Population per employee	Total number of projects Total completed/ongoing Programming: $ value of grants awarded Volunteer hours contributed
Master plan/ Planning documents	No performance measures	Percentage of population who participate in voluntary activities Reported incidents violent crime % population	No performance measures	No performance measures	No master planning documents available
Community Strategic Plan	Access to buildings by community groups Feedback from community through surveys Number of participants attending events, such as 'Seniors Week' Participation rates at Indigenous events	Community satisfaction with Council's overall performance and progress in working towards achieving the objectives of the CSP Overall community health and wellbeing A Council that is accountable and financially sustainable	Increase the economic impact of Domestic Overnight Visitors by 2% from $119.4million (2009) to $121.8million Over 70% of community surveyed are satisfied with opportunities to be informed and heard	↑ Tourism sentiment – as a place to promote and a place to visit ↑ Overall satisfaction with Council ↑ Customer service satisfaction with Council ↑ Percentage of people with internet access at home	No performance measures

Table 4-19: Performance indicators – sample of current practice in case councils

Council	International 1 Vancouver British Columbia, Canada	International 2 Perth and Kinross, Scotland	International 3 Broadway Los Angeles, California, USA
Annual report	Consolidated financial results of operation	Tourism generated expenditure Participants in cultural, sporting and active recreation sessions Attendances at sport and active recreation activities Income due from Council Tax received by end of year	Project budget outlook deficits Improve Our Fiscal Standing Reduce the Deficit Use Performance and Outcomes to Guide the Budget Process Negotiate new MOUs that promote long-term sustainability, partnership and stability
Master plan/ Planning documents	No performance measures	No performance measures	No performance measures
Strategic Planning documents	Percentage of calls answered in 60 seconds or less Percentage of residents very/somewhat satisfied with City services Number of website visits Number of website page views Number of people engaged through outreach, online surveys and consultation programs Percentage of total capital funding provided by external partners Percentage of total operating funding provided by external partners	% of children meeting expected developmental milestones when entering primary school Number of people involved in family learning, adult learning and parenting programs Number of new business start-ups as a % of the business stock Tourism generated revenues (£) Number of participants in cultural, sporting and active recreation sessions Number of new community initiatives to support older people	No publicly available documents

Table 4-20: Performance indicators – sample of current practice internationally

The council PIs outlined above in Table 4-19 (with detail in Appendix 6) and Table 4-20 (note the full table is provided in Appendix 7) show that the majority of the councils set PIs without targets or benchmarks, relying instead on trend data, such as "number of programs" (Council A 2014) or "% of children meeting expected developmental milestones when entering primary school" (Perth and Kinross Council 2013a, p.6). This data supports the assertion by Van De Walle (2016) that government agencies tend not to set meaningful and relevant PIs and associated targets. Indeed, of the five case council's studied, only Council C set targets in their CSP, such as "Increase the economic impact of Domestic Overnight Visitors by 2% from $119.4 million (2009) to $121.8 million" (Council C 2011, p.3). Council D relied on continually increasing performance against previous years, for example "↑ Tourism sentiment – as a place to promote and a place to visit" (Council D 2012, p.23). Target-setting, as shown in Chapter 2, can be counter-productive and result in the threshold effect whereby the staff do not seek to achieve results over and above the target (Hood 2012). Council D did not publish performance results or indicate if they performed above the previous years' results. The 3 international examples, in Table 4-20, also did not set targets for any PIs. The PI data from the case councils also validates Marr's (2008a) argument that government tends to measure outputs rather than outcomes, with the majority of the indicators measuring easy to gather data such as hits to website, visitor numbers, volunteer hours work and so on.

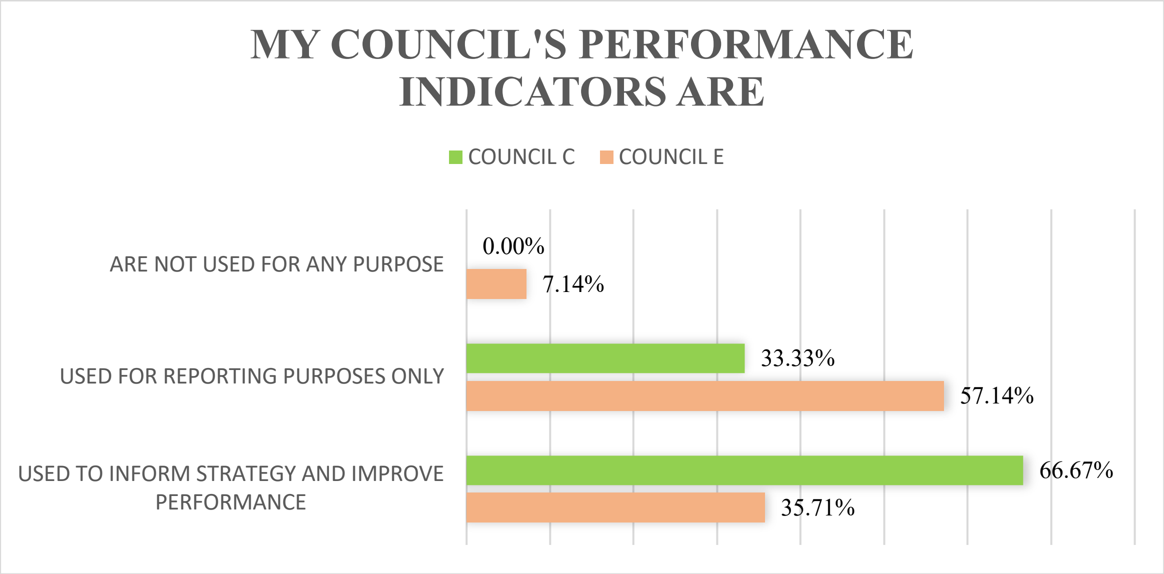


Figure 4-11: Performance indicator current usage trends - PAR 1 & 4

PAR participants were asked to reflect on their council's current PI data usage. See Figure 4-11 for the results. In Council E, performance data was used primarily to reporting purposes (57%) while Council C was more inclined to use data to inform strategy and improve performance (67%). An external stakeholder commented that “Data from community groups is collected and given to council but we don't know what they do with it” (Council E, PAR 3 group discussion). A Manager, M15 from Council E, who believed the council did use the data to inform strategy and improve performance made the following caveat:

> *“However, I think better KPIs that really inform the organisation need to be implemented. These measures are good but Council is looking to move towards KPIs that measure the benefit (quite intangible) as opposed to a simple numerical outcome. Because of the challenges in measuring this, the current KPIs are more quantitative rather than qualitative measures.”*

Firstly, there appears to be a discontent between the views of internal and external stakeholders: external stakeholders were generally more likely to indicate PIs were used to inform strategy. Secondly, the internal stakeholders’ view that PI data was currently used to inform strategy contradicts current practice as there are very few PIs that relate to the multifarious components of CPs. Without the suite of PIs, internal stakeholder are unable to collect and analyse data to inform strategy. Thirdly, the statement above by M15 further sustains the previous discussion in Chapter 2 around the propensity of government to measure tangible outputs rather than intangible outcome-based PIs which are a key component of the BSC approach (Niven 2006), for example. The measures of Faulkner and Kaufman (2018) for public value, particularly outcome achievements are relevant to M15’s comment above, where the authors argued for indicators to measure performance across a range of elements. Papi et al. (2018) suggested measures for their study failed to provide the sample indicators used to measure these intangibles. As a result, the challenge to measure intangible assets remains unmet (Schulz et al. 2018), requiring further exploration in the suite of PIs for CPs.

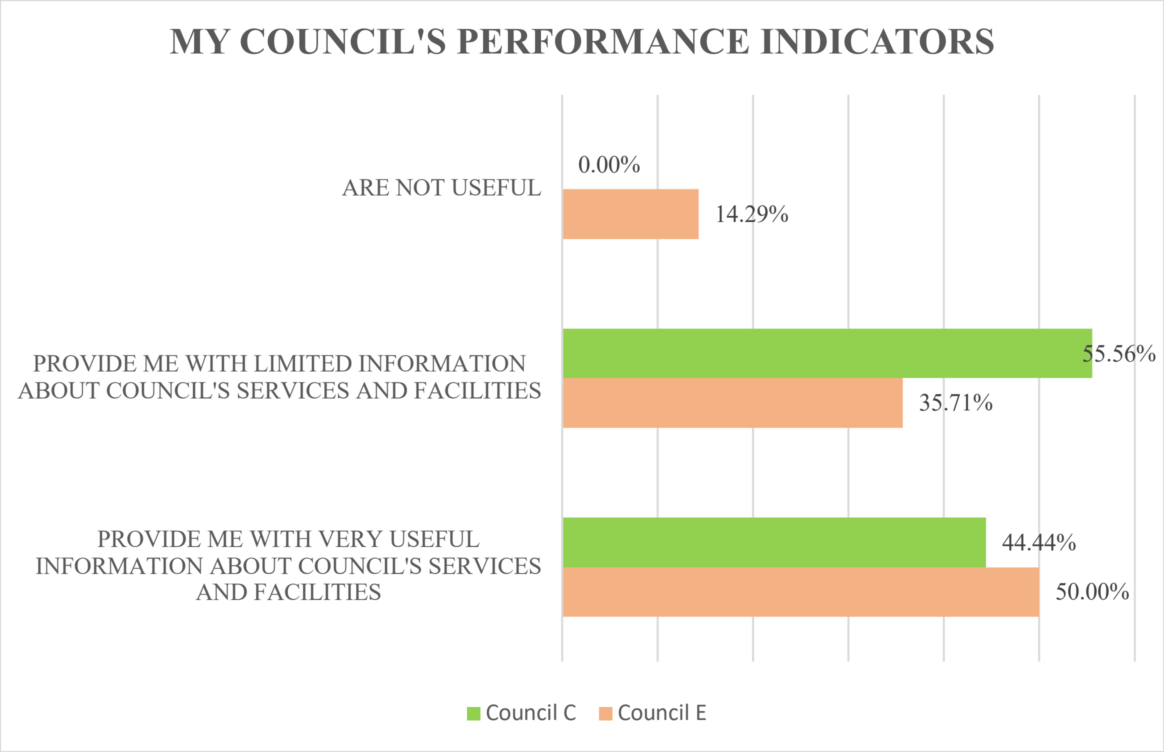


Figure 4-12: Performance indicator perceived usefulness – Council E (PAR 1) and Council C (PAR 4)

As shown in Figure 4-12, Council C PAR participants thought their current performance data provided only limited information about the services and facilities of council (56%) compared to Council E where 50% of PAR participants felt the data provided very useful information. A comment from one Manager: “more correctly ‘very limited information’” (M24, Council C) demonstrated some frustration with the performance data available within the council. Another Manager focused on the usefulness of the data to educate the community:

> *“It's good for the community to understand the links between money spent and what was delivered, but this may be only 1 aspect that should be measured as Council wants to progress to measure what those outcomes actually deliver in terms of benefit to the community.”* (M16, Council E)

These participants recognised a need for outcome-based indicators that might provide more useful data about facilities and services. As shown, not all participants were aware of how the performance data was used or if it was used at all to support strategy and improve performance.

4.4.3. Performance indicators related to identified cultural precinct benefits

This section now turns to the exploration of PIs that could measure performance against the key benefits of CP developments. This section examines the alignment between current practice PIs discussed in Section 4.4.2

with the identified CP benefits. Scrutinization is also given to relevant academic literature associated with the CP benefits that consider performance measures or indicators, where available.

4.4.3.1. Social cohesion, place-making and cultural development

Social cohesion, if one were to measure it, could be understood in terms of Kearns and Forrest (2000) social cohesion dimensions: common values, social order, social solidarity, social networks and place attachment. As seen in Section 2.2.3.4, the first dimension, common values and civic culture, refers to communities sharing values, objectives and purpose (Kearns and Forrest 2000). As Greatbanks et al. (2010) pointed out, it is often challenging to measure the performance of outcome-based intangibles. Unsurprisingly then, the case councils did not have clear or useful indicators to measure the common values dimension of social cohesion. The most fitting, from the case councils, comes from Council B: "percentage of population who participate in voluntary activities" and "percentage of city residents who believe the city has progressive values" (Council B 2011).

Social order relates to social conflict within communities (Kearns and Forrest 2000). Measures such as "reported incidents of violent crime as a percentage of population" and "level of fear of crime amongst the population" (Council B 2011), "feeling safe at home and in the community"(Council B 2013a), "↑ percentage of people who feel safe or very safe walking alone in local area during day/night" (Council D 2012) would provide some data for social order, as a component of social cohesion. Social solidarity and reductions in wealth disparity reflect the belief that cohesion is also borne from equal access to opportunities (Kearns and Forrest 2000). Again, Council B provides measures that would assist in the measurement of performance of social solidarity with: "percentage of population who are unemployed" and "percentage of population in the top 10% and bottom 10% income distribution" (Council B 2011).

The social networks and place dimension argues for connections between family members and wider community relationships (Kearns and Forrest 2000). Given that communities develop a sense of place, according to Laing et al. (2014), through their interrelated experiences of the landscape, it is fitting that measuring social cohesion and place-making should occur through indicators that ally with connectedness or social networks. Hambleton and Howard (2013) argue that community empowerment supports the development of a place or sense of place. Based on this, it is fitting to select indicators such as "event participation rates" (Council A 2014; Council A 2015a), "number of cultural activities which encourage public engagement and number of attendees" (Council B 2011), "community participation in consultation programs"

(Council B 2013a), "↑ opportunities to engage in arts and related cultural activities", "↑ percentage of people who participate in arts and related cultural activities", (Council C 2011) and "Number of people engaged through outreach, online surveys and consultation programs" (City of Vancouver 2016). Finally, place attachment and identity relations are linked to the notion of belonging in a particular spatial setting (Kearns and Forrest 2000). The only indicator that remotely measures this aspect of social cohesion and place-making comes from "Percentage of tourists who nominate the food culture as a reason to visit the region" (Council B 2011). Within the academic literature, Nanzer (2004, p.367) utilised a survey with a Likert scale to gauge a community's sense of place against three sub-sets: place attachment (with statements such as "I am happy living in…"), identity ("I feel connected to…") and dependence ([town name] "provides many opportunities to engage in my favourite activities". These place-based indicators may provide improved metrics on a community's sense of place within the cultural precinct and, hence, are included in Table 4-22.

4.4.3.2. Activation, accessibility and collaboration

It was shown in Section 2.4.2 that CP activation is physically and psychologically affected by the landscape within which it exists, as are all public spaces (Abbott 2011; Brown and Corry 2011). Ease of access from or to a cultural precinct (particularly in reference to co-located cultural facilities) was a core benefit clearly articulated by the research participants and this was demonstrated above in Section 4.3.1.2. Within the current practice of councils, it was found that the majority of cases used PIs to measure access. For example: "access to buildings by community groups" (Council A 2015c, p.20), "access to information and services" (Council B 2013a, p.15), and "↑ Opportunities to engage in arts and related cultural activities" and "↑ Percentage of people who participate in arts and related cultural activities" (Council D 2012, p.27). Some of these examples, such as access to buildings, do not clearly articulate the indicator and could arguably value to measure ease of access. Other examples are primarily output-based measures and do not speak to the ease of access to/from facilities and services.

Demographic data from CP users is required in order to measure the equality of access to precincts, noting that such access may also support social cohesion (Kearns and Forrest 2000) discussed above. Given that both access and utilisation are required for successful service delivery (Brackertz and Kenley 2002), measuring numbers of participants engaging in cultural facilities would be required in tandem with access measures. Participant numbers are a core council PI. For example, "number of website hits by service type e.g. library, development applications, etc." (Council A 2015c), "number of attendances at the Entertainment Centre"

(Council B 2014; Council B 2015), “number of attendees to events” (Council C 2014; Council C 2015), “visitation per facility” (Council D 2014a; Council D 2015) and “Number of participants participating in particular programs” (Council E 2015; Council E 2016; Council E 2017). Case councils do not provide performance measures to track the length of stay or day-long activities of participants. Measures related to perceived safety are also not prevalent within the case councils, with only Council D utilising “Public order, safety + health expenditure per capita” (Council C 2014; Council C 2015) as an indicator.

In Section 4.3.1.2 it was found that collaboration could be reflected in the satisfaction of CP partners, levels of trust and convergence of management practices. However, a review of the council documents reveals that these elements are not typically measured by councils. While research participants acknowledge and appreciate the benefits of collaboration in CPs, they do not currently publish PIs that would measure this element of their business.

4.4.3.3. Social capital and liveability

Social capital (the investment used to shape social interaction) and liveability (quality of life) are intangible elements and, therefore, more difficult to measure (Fitzgerald 1988). Balsas (2004) notes that the term liveability related to an area’s vitality and viability (investment in an area). Though the intent of “vitality” remains unclear as Balsas simply refers to vitality as a city’s ability to “remain alive” (Balsas 2004, p.101). Council documents from the case councils and international examples do not utilise terms such as social capital and do not provide PIs for these elements, with the exception of Council D (2014b) and Perth and Kinross Council (2013a) where social capital is mentioned but not measured. Likewise, liveability is not a normal part of the parlance of local government documents. Exceptions for references pertaining to “liveability” came from councils other than the case councils (See Blue Mountains City Council 2017; Moree Plains Shire Council 2017; Whitehorse City Council 2017). Again, PIs to measure the liveability of residents are not included within the council documents. This intangibility and subsequent difficulty in measuring such intangibles might explain the dearth of PIs within current practice. On the other hand, the recently published *Greater Sydney Region Plan* (Greater Sydney Commission 2018, p.46) contains eight objectives to increase liveability with three directions and corresponding indicators: the direction: “a city for people” with the indicator “increased walkable access to local centres”; “housing the city” with “increased housing completions” and “number of councils that implement Affordable Rental Housing Target Schemes”; and finally “a city of great places” with “increased access to open space”. These directions are the mechanisms to achieve a vision for the greater Sydney basin and are focused on the use of land and transport to improve "liveability, productivity and sustainability" (Greater Sydney Commission 2018, p.6). Relevant to this study are the directions and indicators related to culture and the precinct, including the indicator for a people city centred around increasing walkability and great places having open space access. There is benefit in examining these planning-based indicators for CP developments.

Norouzian-Maleki et al. (2015) argue that objective PIs might be useful in situations where community engagement is inadequately developed. Objective indicators might include average distance between home and open space or open space per capita (Norouzian-Maleki et al. 2015). Balsas (2004) similarly identified a high use of specific output-based measures in a United Kingdom study, including usage of car parks, footfall traffic, and instances of theft. These quantitative indicators have some similarity to these prescribed and described above in the *Greater Sydney Region Plan.* Alternatively, qualitative measures such as "neighbourliness" might be seen as more subjective and could be feasible indicators in situations where community engagement is well-established (Norouzian-Maleki et al. 2015). The study by Norouzian-Maleki et al. (2015) found that it was possible to establish a common set of criteria to determine liveability whilst the relative importance of each indicator would change from city to city – implying a necessary flexibility in the application of PIs to individual contexts.

4.4.3.4. Place-based economic development and cultural tourism

Only Council C documented three indicators which are useful to measure economic development and tourism performance (Council C 2011). These include:

- Increase the economic impact of Domestic Overnight Visitors by 2% from $119.4million (2009) to $121.8million
- Increase the economic impact of International Overnight Visitors by 2% from $11.3million (2009) to $11.5million
- Increase the economic impact of Domestic Daytrip Visitors by 2% per year from 509,000 (2009) to 519,180 in 2012

These few demonstrate a clear outcome focused approach to measuring performance and the data captured would provide useful information to determine the CP's success in attracting tourists and developing the local economy. Another indicator that provide some understanding of tourism but not the financial impact is: "percentage of tourists who nominate the food culture as a reason to visit the region" (Council B 2011). Whilst internationally, tourism performance is measured with "tourism generated expenditure" (Perth and Kinross Council 2015a, p.19). It is most clear that there are extremely limited PIs associated with place-based economic development or cultural tourism. Local government fails to use or apply PIs to this benefit of CPs.

4.4.3.5. Economies of scale

Indicators to measure the performance of cultural facilities against economies of scale, or economies of agglomeration as titled by Nuccio and Ponzini (2017), are not evident in the data above from the case councils and international examples. As indicated in Chapter 2, that whilst such economies have been identified in the extant academic literature, the corresponding PIs have not been developed or discussed. Measuring the economies of scale for local government is difficult with the lack of performance data currently available for such an assessment. In the event that data was available on the number of visitors utilising cultural facilities per annum, one could calculate the cost per participant to begin to understand economies of scale, in a similar fashion to a study by Worthington and Higgs (2011). As such figures or data was unavailable, a short assessment was undertaken based purely on the population of the LGA and the total expenditure on cultural services and activities in each case council of this study. The following graph provides a snapshot of this performance data in 2014-2015 (Office of Local Government NSW 2015) and 2016-2017 (Office of Local Government NSW 2017) – see Figure 4-13. Note that 2015-2016 data was unavailable through the NSW OLG at the time of data collection and analysis. Further, Council A data was unavailable for the cultural expenditure in 2016-2017. In comparison the graph shows a steady population and cultural expenditure between financial years within each case council. Only Council C demonstrated a slight reduction in cultural expenditure from 2014-2015 to 2016-2017 (See Figure 4-14 for a comparison per capita). Interestingly, it was shown in Chapter 3 that Council's E (27%), D (21%) and C (19%) expended the greatest amount, proportionately, on culture. With the exception of Council A, the expenditure on culture tends to increase with the population density. Council C, shown in Figure 4-14, expended the greatest amount per capita on culture. What is clear from this data is that it lacks meaning or utility without comparative data from a pre- or post-CP. In other words, data for economies of scale requires the right PIs to be in place and in use *before* and *after* a CP is developed.

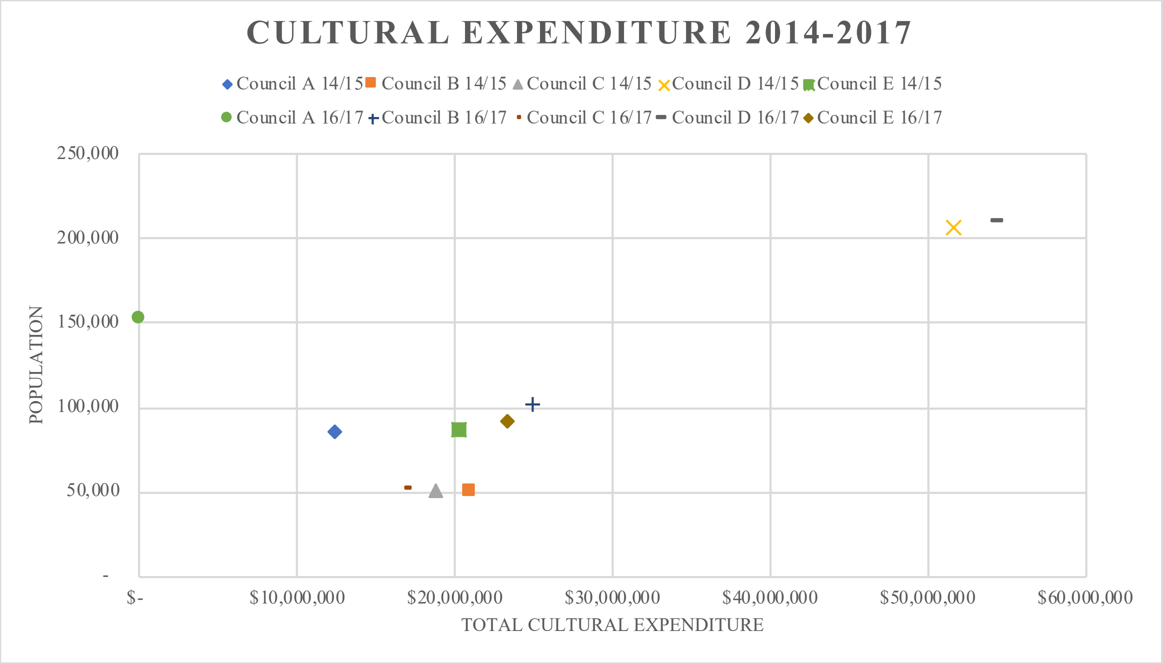


Figure 4-13: Cultural expenditure in case councils 2014-2015 and 2016-2017

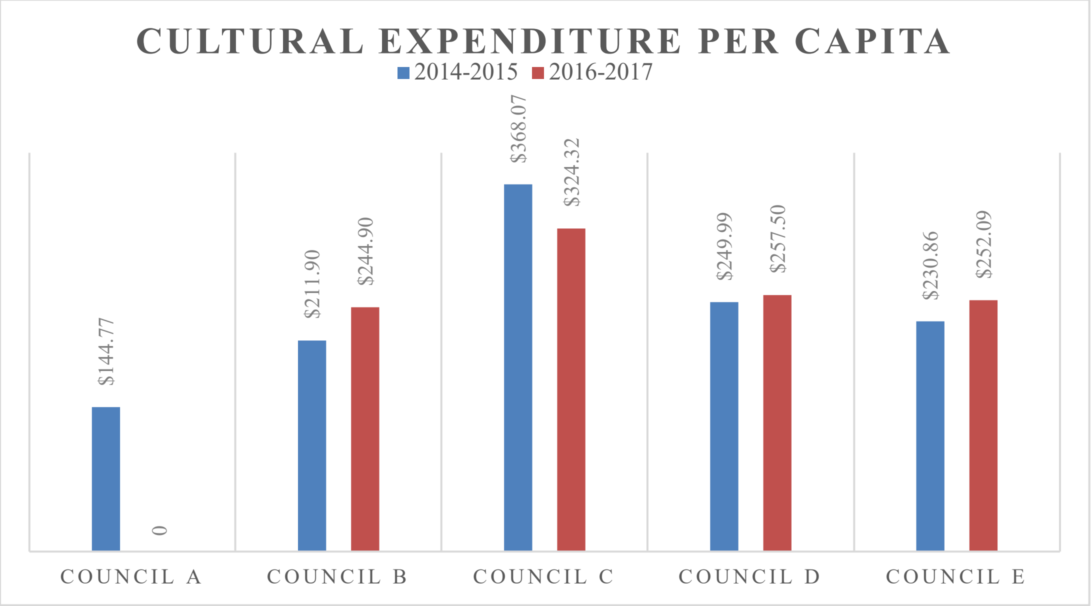


Figure 4-14: Cultural expenditure per capita in case councils 2014-2015 and 2016-2017

Hanes (2015) proposed the use of comparative fiscal data of amalgamated versus non-amalgamated councils to test economies of scale. A similar approach might be possible for CPs and their expenditure per visitor when compared to councils of a similar size elsewhere. Utilising available data, it was found in 2014-2015, Council A saw 541,040 visitors through their cultural facilities (Council A 2015a). Council B had 399,366 (Council B 2015). Council C reported 314,000 participants in their cultural facilities (Council C 2015). Council D highlighted 1,214,799 visitors to libraries, art gallery and programming (Council D 2015). Council

E did not report visitor numbers in the Annual Report (Council E 2015). The difficulty with this data is that the information may not be measured in the same way within each council. For instance, it is unknown from the annual reports what visitors they count in the "number of visitors attending cultural programming". One may ask, does this include libraries, parks or community centres? Further, the overall budget for cultural expenditure may likewise include certain elements of council services but no consistency in approach was visible when reviewing the annual report data. As a result the cultural expenditure per visitor figures for each council in the following graph, see Figure 4-15, should be considered with some degree of skepticism. Indeed, it was not possible to graph future years' cultural expenditure per visitor as many of the case councils failed to publish visitor number statistics. Until such data is accurately collected in a consistent manner across all councils, it is not possible to accurately measure the economies of scale. This graph, however, does tend to indicate that the larger councils such as Council D achieved a greater economy of scale within current budget allocations for cultural expenditure. Local government currently lacks the appropriate PIs to effectively begin to measure economies of scale. Such indicators require long-term use to ensure their viability and utility.

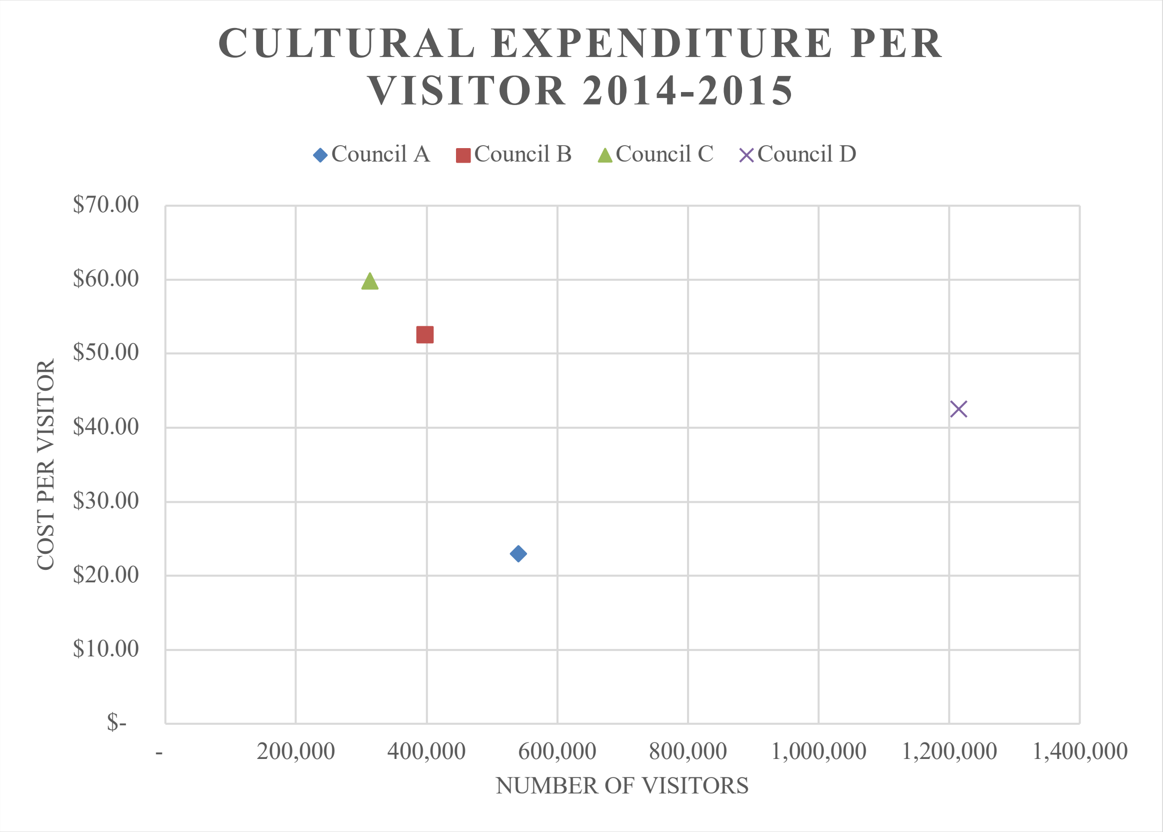


Figure 4-15: Measuring economies of scale in case councils

4.4.3.6. Political motivation

Unsurprisingly, the councils provided no PIs to measure the political motivation of politicians to build and maintain CPs and associated facilities. It is important and highly useful to understand that elected members are politically motivated, as Dollery and Grant (2011) point out, local government must grapple with the tension between efficient service provision and the sector's role as a political institution. However, measuring political motivation, even in the event that one could measure it, is more likely to lead to the negative effects of performance measurement practice such as demotivation and decreased innovation (Yasin and Gomes 2010) and not provide useful data to improve services. Given the tension between democracy and the needs of the customer and bureaucracy and the need for efficiency of service it might be feasible to consider indicators that measure public value as outlined in detail above. Public value indicators would arguably demonstrate customer satisfaction whilst also highlighting levels of efficiency.

4.4.4. Cultural precinct performance indicators

Broader academic literature and industry manuals also provided useful PIs, beyond those sourced from the literature related to the CP benefits detailed above. A range of PIs from these sources were initially brought together, under the categories of the BSC and QBL in the HoQ and aligned to the TRs in phase 1 of the research. This information is summarised in Table 4-21 and provided comprehensively in Appendix 8. Key decision-makers reflected on, in phase 2 of the research, the performance measurement data that would be useful to them. Their comments on these are also summarised and aligned to the PIs in Table 4-21. Customer service, for example, was seen as a key TR. Interviewees were particularly interested in the customer satisfaction as a measure of customer service offerings, as evidenced by "Satisfaction! From the community. What can I do today to make it better for them tomorrow?" (E1, Council A). The broader extant literature also provides a range of indicators pertinent to this TR that accounts for the satisfaction of stakeholders including the quality of service, specifically the gap between expected service quality and the customer's perception of that service (Donnelly et al. 1995). Customer-related indicators are also found in various industry manuals such as for example, the NSW Library Council where a Likert scale using very good, good, adequate, poor or very poor is recommended to measure satisfaction with library services (Library Council of New South Wales 2013).

BSC/ QBL	TRs	*Interviewee quotes from phase 2*	Associated representative performance indicators	Literature reference
Financial	**Fee/funding structure**	*"we've always had a philosophy of price is an accessibility factor. So we've done what we could to not include a fee." (M11, Council C)*	No. refunds given Expenses per customer Expenditure per capita Median wages of creative v non-creative workers Return on investment	Adams (2010, p.46); Parmenter (2010, pp.272-273); Stouthuysen et al. (2014) Martin et al. (2015, p.490) Matthews (2011, p.11)
Customer	**Customer service**	*"Satisfaction! From the community. What can I do today to make it better for them tomorrow?" (E1, Council A)*	Service quality Community/customer satisfaction Abandon rate at call centre No. of customer complaints escalated to senior management	Donnelly et al. (1995); Parasuraman et al. (1988); Pimentel and Major (2016, p.1005); Spitzer (2007, pp.222-223); Parmenter (2010, pp.271-274, 276)
Internal process	**Facility maintenance schedule**	*"I'll want to know all about ...how long the building's going to last .... And the willingness to actually evolve the buildings themselves and the operations" (M12, Council D)*	Unplanned versus planned maintenance Maintenance efficiency index	Parmenter (2010, p.286) Lavy et al. (2014a, pp.263-264); Lavy et al. (2014b, pp.282-284); Lavy et al. (2010)
Learning and growth	**Staffing – workforce management**	*"Should have a good mix of staff that matches the demographic of the community." (M8, Council A)*	Minimum no. staff members per 3,000 population % local residents in total workforce Empowerment index – no. staff and managers who say they are empowered in staff survey	Library Council of New South Wales (2013, p.9) Parmenter (2010, pp.276-278, 285, 287, 291) Library Council of New South Wales (2013, p.9)
Governance & civic leadership	**Project management**	*"There's a strict policy on any project that you're gonna do that involves community money, that there's community consultation. and a process, how you go through it, and that, different sections of people" (M10, Council C)*	% projects on time Post-project wrap-ups outstanding Late projects by manager Innovation climate	Parmenter (2010, pp.272-274) Spitzer (2007); Stewart-Weeks and Kastelle (2015)

Table 4-21: Sample of performance indicators aligned to technical requirements

4.4.5. Maturity pathway to categorise cultural precinct performance indicators

Thus far, this thesis has considered seven key components of performance indicators:

1. Measurement of public value based on the work of Faulkner and Kaufman (2018) – Table 2-2
2. BSC critical success factors based on Phillips and Louvieris (2005) – Table 2-4
3. Development of effective performance indicators – Section 2.3.4.
4. Case council performance indicators in BSC/QBL categorisation – Table 4-18 and Appendix 5
5. Performance indicators - current practice in case councils – Table 4-19 and Appendix 6
6. Performance indicators - current practice internationally – Table 4-20 and Appendix 7
7. Performance indicators related to TRs from extant literature and practitioner's manuals – Table 4-21 and Appendix 8

With this knowledge, this section now considers a maturity pathway to assist local government in the effective selection of PIs for CP performance measurement relative to their assessment of its maturity.

It has been demonstrated that selecting meaningful and relevant PIs is challenging for public administrations, local government and CPs. Given the number and complexity of PIs within each TR for CPs, as detailed above, a method of breaking down the PIs into sub-categories was considered with PAR participants. Also, it is clear that CPs (and the council in which it resides) are in different stages of development and/or maturity. In this study, two models were presented to the PAR participants to assist with this categorisation: a development phase model and maturity pathway model. The participants indicated that the development phases, outlined in Section 2.4.3, had utility for understanding CP development but the model was not indicative of the level of maturity of an organisation nor its CP. For example, the participants argued that a council might be in phase 6: strategic development to ensure continuous improvement. However, the council may not have converged services. Rather, the council may have a CP made up of siloed, discipline-based and separate services. As a result, the CP is not yet mature. Whilst the maturity pathway, also discussed in Section 2.4.3, does in fact demonstrate a maturity level and could be useful in assessing a council's CP's maturity. PAR participants recognised the need to move from financial, output-based, tangible PIs (TPIs) to non-financial, outcome-based, intangible PIs (IPIs). PAR participants, therefore, decided on an approach to split the PIs into two-tiers: TPIs for less mature CPs and IPIs for more mature CPs. PAR participants determined that a visual image of the maturity pathway together with the development phases could be shown to participants and they could indicate where they felt their council was on the pathway. While this process was not yet considered as an academically proven method for determining maturity, it was however practically appropriate and led to consensus between PAR participants as to the current level of maturity of each of the two case councils. Thereby, they could effectively apply a maturity assessment in their choice of PIs to use with their CPs.

The next few paragraphs explore the concept of the maturity matrix in greater depth and consider:

1. The maturity of Australian CPs and their need for different PIs at different stages of maturity
2. Recognition of the need for output- and outcome-based PIs and their categorisation into TPIs and IPIs
3. The terminology of the maturity pathway
4. The utility of aligning development phases with PIs for CPs
5. The criteria for cultural precinct maturity
6. Cultural precinct maturity pathway as developed by the PAR participants
7. The maturity pathway’s utility and importance

Performance indicators selected and applied to CPs should be responsive to different stages of CP development or maturity (Schulz et al. 2018). This is based on the notion that more mature organisations often perform better than less mature ones (Obradovic et al. 2016) and as such, a more mature organisation may wish to measure and understand more complex, intangible and outcome-based aspects of their business or CP. This is further supported by internal stakeholders who discussed how their PIs needed to develop as their organisation matured: “we certainly did set some key performance indicators which were about, you know, increased visitation, increased number of exhibitions, increased number of people to the exhibitions. And as I said we kind of over-achieved in those areas. We made sure we ran a survey a few months after opening to give that…qualitative data” (M9, Council C, interviewee transcript). Indeed, Norouzian-Maleki et al. (2015) demonstrated that objective/quantitative measures might be useful for organisations with ill-defined community engagement strategies whilst a more mature organisation might utilise subjective/qualitative indicators. In short, different PIs might prove useful at different stages of maturity.

The type and range of PIs were a discussion point raised by PAR participants in the reflection on development phases and maturity levels. PAR participants considered the range of PIs currently in use and identified output-based, tangible indicators (TPIs) and outcome-based, intangible indicators (IPIs). It was acknowledged by PAR participants that IPIs were preferable, as indicated by participant E8 (Council E): “Outcome-based performance measures that are not onerous to collect would be more useful to measure success and identify areas for improvement.” It was established in Section 2.3.1 that government agencies tend towards measuring TPIs, particularly those that are easy to measure (Marr 2008a) whilst it is recognised that both TPIs and IPIs have meaning in different performance contexts (Quinlivan et al. 2014). An organisation must be selective in its choice of PIs due to the sheer number available and the complexity of the phenomenon under examination. PAR participants chose to categorise PIs into the two categories; categories they felt were easy to understand, simple to categorise and practically useful.

The concepts of development phases and maturity pathways (as discussed in Section 2.4.3) were developed further with PAR participants. The participants concurred that the maturity pathway was a useful concept, easy to understand and “isn’t too rigid. I don’t want my GM telling me that our maturity level isn’t ‘high’ enough. But I’m ok with a pathway. This sounds like a journey.” (Council C, PAR 5, reflection survey). Given that pathways are complex and difficult to anticipate (Nieminen et al. 2016), setting a pathway for maturity implies that the pathway is not exhaustive but can act as a guide in the alignment between maturity and performance. One recent study surveyed 1,560 cultural heritage institutions, including libraries, museums and galleries (Estermann 2018); the institutions that often form part of a CP. The Estermann (2018) study found that rather than a linear approach to maturity, an organisation may take inter-connected paths towards, for example, e-Government maturity. This current study supports the concept of a “maturity pathway” advanced in Section 2.4.3 and the concept that a pathway provides signals to support the growing maturity of the CP. Hence the terminology of a maturity pathway is preferential over more concrete terms such as maturity level or maturity model.

Prior to determining that PAR participants were in greater favour of the maturity pathway, they were asked to indicate which developmental phase their current CP was in, based on the phases developed by Greiner (1997) and complemented in Section 2.4.3:

Phase 1: Creativity
Phase 2: Direction
Phase 3: Community engagement and adoption
Phase 4: Development

Phase 5: Collaboration and review

Phase 6: Strategic improvement

The results of this PAR reflection survey are shown below in Figure 4-16. Council E's results were less divergent with the majority (85%) of participants indicating that their CP was in phase 5: collaboration and review. Council C, on the other hand, had equal numbers (36% each) of participants indicating their current developmental phase was phase 5 or phase 6: strategy and improvement. The results were quite varied and were also problematic for participants who made a number of comments in their reflections.

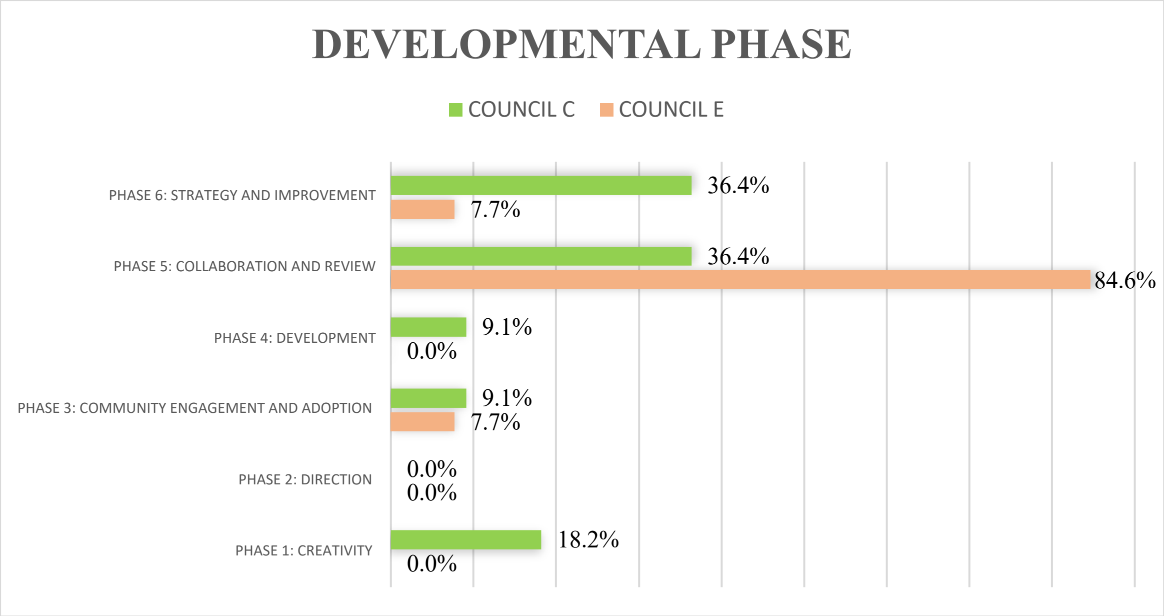


Figure 4-16: Current cultural precinct developmental phase in Councils C & E

PAR participants were also asked to explore the concept of CP maturity and how they would define or provide criteria to assess maturity. 35% of responses indicated that "partnership" was a sign of maturity in a CP. A further 23% indicated "collaboration". 19% of results indicated "strategy" and a further 8% mention "strategic direction". 15% indicate "improvement" as a sign of maturity. These maturity terms used by the participants are similar to the developmental phases 5 and phase 6 as outlined above in Figure 4-17. However, participants remained unconfident that the developmental phases alone demonstrated a level of CP maturity. Returning to the work of Greiner (1997) and the Greater Sydney Commission (2018) from Section 2.4.3, the results above suggest that there are synergies between the Greiner and Greater Sydney Commission models that reflect the ideas and views of the industry whilst maintaining the academic rigour of Greiner's work. When reflecting on the above results it became clear that PAR participants viewed collaboration, partnerships and strategy as quite similar to the terms agglomeration and diversification (as signs of CP maturity). Whilst the term “agglomerate” suggests indiscriminate gathering (Macquarie Dictionary 2016), for a CP this term was seen by participants as purposeful to meet a strategic direction. PAR participants preferred the term “convergence” over “agglomeration”. In Section 2.4.5 the term “convergence” was used within the frame of CPs as “a state in which collaboration around a specific function or idea has become so extensive, engrained and assumed that it is no longer recognised by others as a collaborative undertaking” (Zorich et al. 2009, p.12). PAR participants better understood the meaning of “convergence” over “agglomeration” and felt that it ably reflected “agglomeration”. In general, the participants preferred the criteria reflected in the maturity pathway (with minor amendments) but still saw the utility in having both models reflected side-by-side.

Figure 4-17 was developed in consultation with the PAR participants as the maturity pathway for CPs. Initially, they were provided Figure 2-6 (See Section 2.4.3) as a starting point for the maturity pathway. The newly refined pathway begins with the top level (tier 1) which maintains all elements of Greiner’s developmental phases, with the addition of “strategic improvement”. The next level (tier 2) was moderated to reflect the terminology developed in Section 2.4.5 around the organic or unconscious (McManus and Carruthers 2014) development of the cultural entity as opposed to the conscious (Nuccio and Ponzini 2017) creation of such facilities. At least one interviewee noted the development of CPs via this organic route: “it was relatively a matter of convenience. And there’s certainly not an agreed public, community and council corporate vision that says there will be precinct that will evolve” (E2, Council B, interviewee transcript). However, it is noted that a consciously constructed precinct does not, in and of itself, denote maturity. Rather, other maturity pathway elements are required to signal maturity. Tier 3 of the pathway reflects the definitional and structural elements of CPs, as discussed in Section 2.4.3. and further extrapolated in Section 2.4.5. This tier signifies that a “clustering”, taking the industry view (Greater Sydney Commission 2018), is most likely to occur unconsciously and organically but also recognises that the same is true for a precinct. On the other hand, the converged (or agglomerated) facilities, as the last evolutionary stage on Zorich’s (2009) collaboration continuum, have moved beyond partnerships and collaborations, hence signifying maturity. However, there is recognition in the extant literature that successful collaborations require capacity-building and adaptability, leading to improved performance (Agranoff 2004). “Diversity” was discussed heavily by PAR participants and was deemed more relevant than “ecosystem” as a criterion for CP maturity. “Diversification” is included in the maturity pathway as it refers to program and economic diversification which are significant drivers of creative and cultural industries (Normantiene and Snieska 2014), much referred to within the industry (For example, see Council A 2017; Council D 2017) but not guaranteed within CPs (Stanziola 2011). Diversification of the collaborative model is also viewed as a sign of organisational maturity (Hodgson et al. 2005). It was also shown to increase community engagement and improve policy integration and decision-making (See Section 2.2.5). Finally, participants considered a CP mature if the following aspects held true for a particular CP: in a collaboration and review phase, strategic improvement phase, consciously developed, converged and diverse. These were highlighted on Figure 4-17 and termed "higher level of maturity". On this path, the organisation may choose to utilise the IPIs (rather than the TPIs).

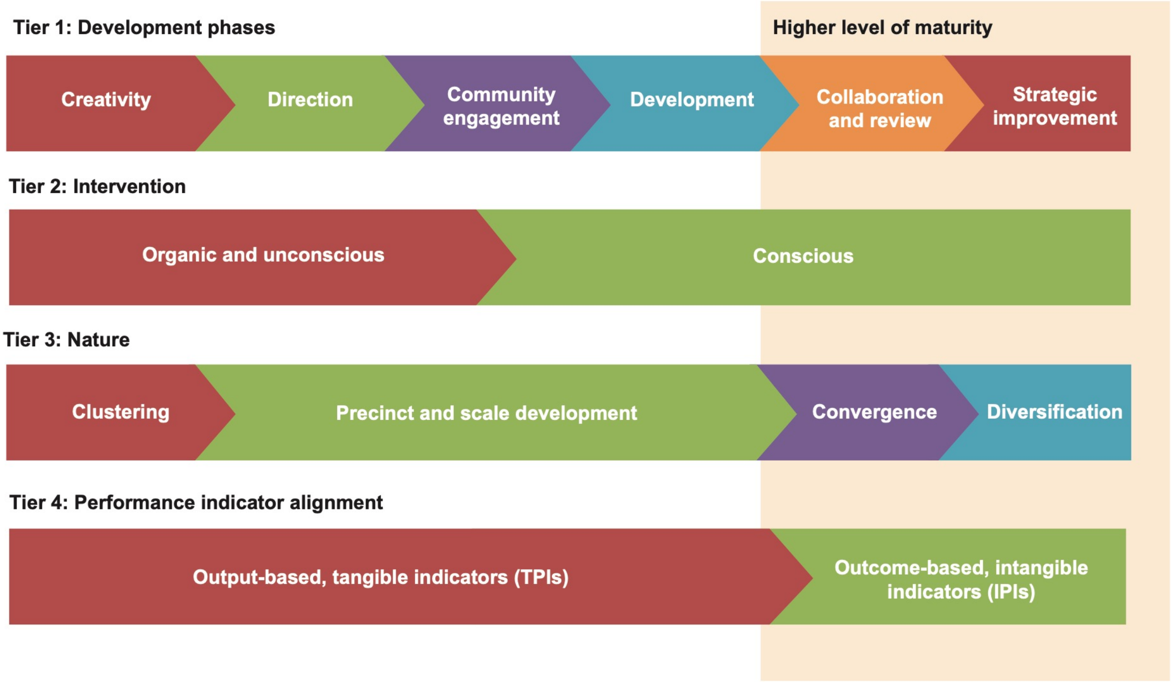

Tier 1: Development phases
Higher level of maturity
Creativity
Direction
Community engagement
Development
Collaboration and review
Strategic improvement
Tier 2: Intervention
Organic and unconscious
Conscious
Tier 3: Nature
Clustering
Precinct and scale development
Convergence
Diversification
Tier 4: Performance indicator alignment
Output-based, tangible indicators (TPIs)
Outcome-based, intangible indicators (IPIs)

Figure 4-17: Cultural precinct maturity pathway

Finally, each TR has allocated to it a range of PIs. Through the development of the maturity pathway, practitioners using the PIHoQ and PAR could not only select PIs related to a TR (which supports particular VoCs), but also select PIs that are reflective of the CP's maturity – see Figure 4-18 below as a demonstration of how that is applied in the PIHoQ. This is significant as it provides a framework that does not diminish the context of the precinct or organisation through oversimplification of its complexity. It would be possible to further categorise these PIs into more nuanced categories, aligned to the maturity pathway but there was not time during this research to do so as it was not a key research aim. Also, as this was the first research of its kind on the development of any CP maturity pathway, it would require further long-term study to develop the concept.

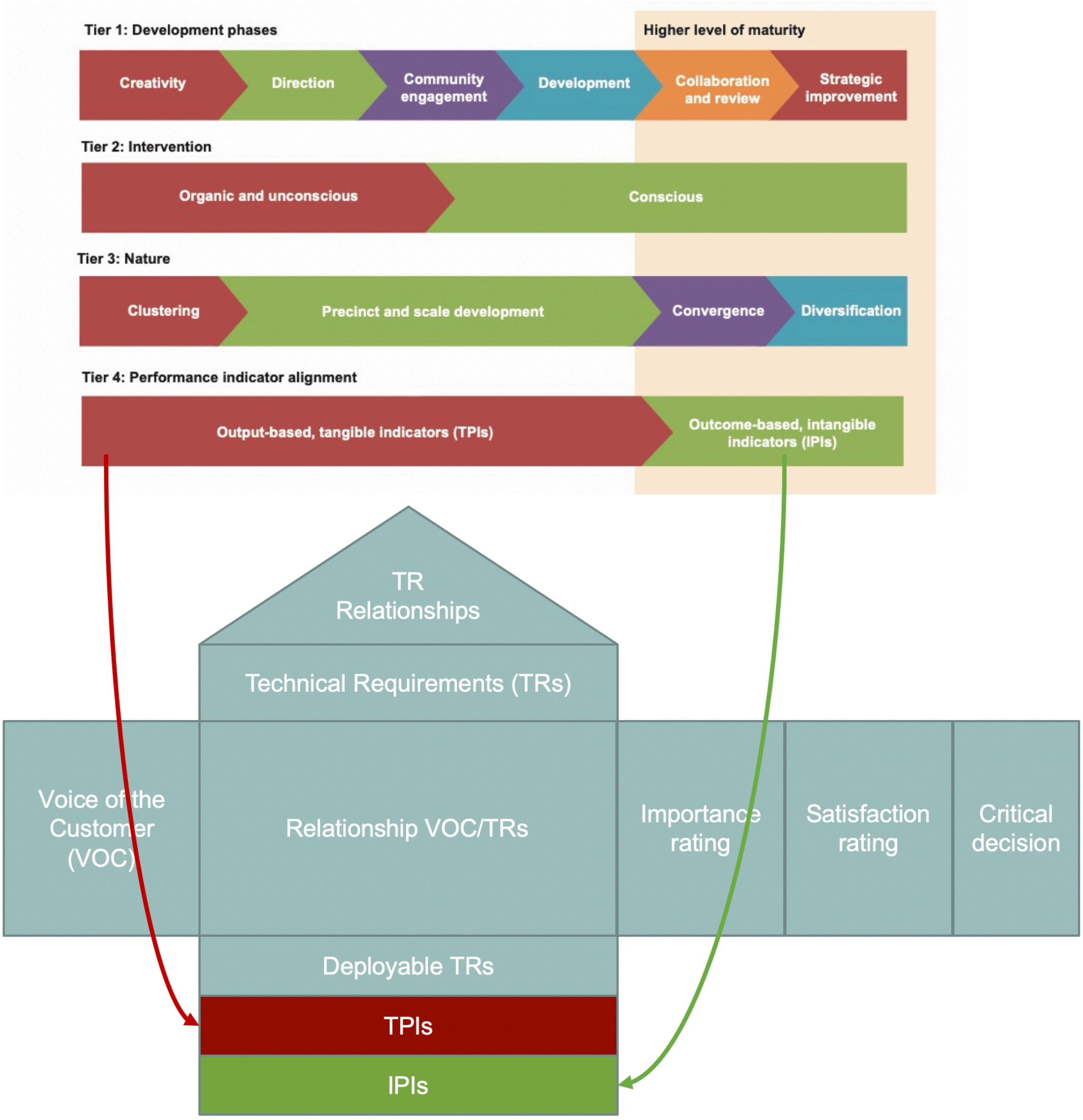

Tier 1: Development phases
Higher level of maturity
Creativity
Direction
Community engagement
Development
Collaboration and review
Strategic improvement
Tier 2: Intervention
Organic and unconscious
Conscious
Tier 3: Nature
Clustering
Precinct and scale development
Convergence
Diversification
Tier 4: Performance indicator alignment
Output-based, tangible indicators (TPIs)
Outcome-based, intangible indicators (IPIs)
TR Relationships
Technical Requirements (TRs)
Voice of the Customer (VOC)
Relationship VOC/TRs
Importance rating
Satisfaction rating
Critical decision
Deployable TRs
TPIs
IPIs

Figure 4-18: Maturity pathway to PI selection

A full account of the PIs, as defined and refined by the end of the final PAR session (PAR 6) is provided below from Table 4-22 to 4-26. Each table represents a category of the BSC/QBL such as customer or financial, for example. The headings on each table are the TRs and the PIs are aligned to specific TRs. For example, “number of visits by time of day” is allocated to the “hours of operation” TR. The PI sets are split between simpler output-based indicators with a focus on tangible elements (TPIs) and outcome-based indicators with a focus on the intangible elements (IPIs). PAR participants assisted in categorising the PIs into the two sub-sets. The tables below represent all the learnings detailed throughout the chapter.

Transport options	Café and catering options	Hours of operation	Engagement	Customer service & service delivery	Collection, Program & Technology offerings
Output-based, tangible performance indicators (TPIs)					
Modal split (ratio of chosen mode of transport) Travel time	Utilise KPIs within "Fee structure" and "Customer service"	Number of visits by time of day Occupancy statistics	Participation in cultural life: Number new participants Number returning participants Visits to facility per capita % facilities operating at capacity	Abandon rate at call centre Number of customer complaints	Number offerings, % condition rating Booking frequency Bookings cancelled Number participants attending programs Number returning participants
Outcome-based, intangible performance indicators (IPIs)					
Access to transport options	Satisfaction rating with food and customer service Percentage of tourists who nominate the food culture as a reason to visit the region	Aggregated scheduled opening hours	Cross-utilisation – % of visitors visiting multiple sites within the precinct Outcomes based visitor experience measures e.g.: imagination simulated, new skills gained, exposure to new ideas, met new people, developed relationships within my community. Identity Likert scale: "I feel connected to…")	Satisfaction rating Value to community (cultural enrichment) Quality rating Level of responsiveness Dependence Likert scale: "…provides many opportunities to engage in my favourite activities")	Turnover of stock Participant demographics Measure around if the program is making a difference or Results/Outcome-based accountability (how much did we do, how well did we do it, is anyone better off) Satisfaction with public art

Table 4-22: Refined performance indicators - customer category

Financial management (Efficiency, funding structure, revenue and expenses)
Output-based, tangible performance indicators (TPIs)
Financial – revenue, expenses and budget Ratio of Government funding to ‘other sources’ Support grants and in-kind to communities Value of in-kind contributions (partnerships, volunteer support, in-kind sponsorship, community service) $ value of alternate funds (philanthropy, crowd sourcing, grants etc.)
Outcome-based, intangible performance indicators (IPIs)
Expenses per customer/capita Time-driven activity-based costing Spending efficiency Investment in new programs Increase economic impact of Domestic overnight visitors by %/daytrip visitors by % Tourism generated expenditure Agreement with the statement “My local agency avoids unnecessary bureaucracy” (Meynhardt and Bartholomes 2011, p.297) Median wages of creative v non-creative workers Total employment and number of businesses in creative industries Return on investment Cultural spending per participant or resident

Table 4-23: Refined performance indicators - financial category

Research and community development	Staff professional development	Volunteer program
Output-based, tangible performance indicators (TPIs)		
Number new offerings Number of new ideas or future opportunities	Number staff undertaking continuing education Number staff undertaking training requalification Number of training opportunities provided - identified and attended Number of presentations by staff	Number volunteers recruited Number volunteers resigned Number volunteer hours worked Number volunteer training/orientation provided
Outcome-based, intangible performance indicators (IPIs)		
Customer satisfaction	Staff satisfaction with organisation Median wages of creative v non-creative workers	Value in $ of voluntary hours worked Volunteer satisfaction with volunteer program

Table 4-24: Refined performance indicators - learning and development category

Infrastructure maintenance	Sustainable practices (incl. environment)	Contractor management	Promotion and marketing	Access (Inc. Security)	Enhancement (Place-making, activation)	Purchasing	Workforce management
Output-based, tangible performance indicators (TPIs)							
Number incidents of unplanned versus planned maintenance Downtime due to equipment failure	Energy consumed (solar and mains) % environmentally responsive projects % renewable sources	% of contract due to expire within 3 months	Number of direct communications to customers in month Social media: Number of unique views Time spent on website	Number security-related incidents by type Number non-compliant issues (disabled access)	Number applications/events	Expenditure within budget Timeliness of delivery	Number staff members per 3,000 population % local residents in total workforce Number qualified staff members
Outcome-based, intangible performance indicators (IPIs)							
Maintenance efficiency index (cost vs condition) Maintenance achievements Level of quality of amenity	Ratio of waste recycled to waste sent to land fill Level of community knowledge of sustainable practices within the precinct	Contractor performance Staff satisfaction with contractor meeting deliverables	Brand recall (%) based on market research Organic reach % Method of reaching new participants % media releases converted to news stories	Perceived ease of access Percentage visitors who feel safe or very safe in precinct Percentage of police requests for CCTV camera footage that are satisfied	Customer perception of precinct as their own space Place attachment Likert scale: “I am happy living in…”)	Supplier performance Level of product quality	Empowerment index – number staff and managers who say they are empowered in staff survey

Table 4-25: Refined performance indicators - internal business process category

Policies and procedures	Project management	Partnership and collaboration - enabling community groups	Strategy, leadership and vision	Reporting and measurement	Risk Management (incl. insurance)
Output-based, tangible performance indicators (TPIs)					
Number policies and procedures updated Number incidents where policies are not followed	Total number of projects: completed, ongoing and deferred % projects on time % projects on budget Number post-project reviews outstanding Number and type of late projects by manager	Number active partnerships Number community projects (completed and ongoing)	Percentage of strategic actions delivered	Number of regular review % audits completed	Risk Management Plans in place Number of reported incidents Number of insurance claims
Outcome-based, intangible performance indicators (IPIs)					
Average time between policy updates Level of staff awareness of policies	Relevant staff trained in project management Project management framework in place Innovation climate	Partnerships have clear agreed outcomes – level to which outcomes were met Agreement with the statement, “I trust my council”	Strategic Plan in place	Customer satisfaction Partners’ satisfaction levels	% near misses with action taken

Table 4-26: Refined performance indicators - civic leadership category

In sum, Section 4.4.5 provides greater nuance to the selection of PIs for CP performance measurement through the development of an initial CP maturity pathway. This pathway provides a framework, represented in Figure 4-17, for academics and practitioners alike to assess a CP's level of maturity. Therein, a less mature CP may use more TPIs whilst more mature ones might deploy more IPIs. These PI sub-sets are important in the local government context as they support local government in addressing a key failing of the industry: a lack of understanding of PIs in general and the over-use of TPIs due to their simplicity and the increased likelihood of reporting on positive results.

4.5. SUMMARY

This chapter sought answers to three key research questions:

1. What benefits do stakeholders expect from cultural precincts?
2. By what criteria do stakeholders gauge the success or otherwise of cultural precinct development and delivery?
3. What relevant and effective performance indicators can be developed for cultural precincts in a local government context in order to gauge performance and to ensure continuous improvement?

The terminology and rhetoric surrounding cultural precincts, as discussed in this thesis, challenge discourse between academic literature, industry practice and grass-roots communities. Firstly, a significant gap was identified in the NSW local government sector between the industry's understanding of traditional "core services" and the role of cultural precincts and the associated cultural facilities. This gap between traditional core local governments services and current service provision has significant implications to policy development and future funding. A clear definition that is supported across academia, industry and community is an important step in a growing understanding of cultural precincts, their place in communities and local government's role in developing and operating cultural precincts. cultural precincts are developed via two paths: unconsciously- or consciously- developed, occur within a defined geographic footprint, and include a diverse range of cultural and creative facilities, ancillary services and atmospheric elements. This chapter has confirmed the validity of the cultural precinct definition postulated in Chapter 2; namely that a cultural precinct refers to a clearly defined geographical area that contains facilities and services related to artistic and intellectual activity, and extended academic and industry understanding of the terminology, complexity and make-up of cultural precincts.

There is clear delineation between what academics discuss, what governments advertise, and what bureaucrats provide in the creation and operation of cultural precincts. Within academic discourse, service rationalisation, duplication reduction, and cost minimisation are highlighted as intended benefits of cultural precinct developments. Evidence also exists within academia of tourism, community quality of life, urban regeneration and economic development as beneficial factors stemming from cultural precinct operations. In contradiction to this discourse, local government planning documents focus on (or advertise) social inclusion, connectivity, cultural opportunities, community identify and liveability as benefits of cultural precincts. Key decision makers in local government see the benefits of cultural precincts as being social cohesion, place-making and cultural development; activation, accessibility and collaboration; building social capital and liveability; place-based economic development and cultural tourism; and economies of scale. Further, key decision-makers identified the political and short-term motivation of elected members as a fundamental factor in the development and operation of cultural precincts. This chapter also articulated a suite of cultural precinct benefits, providing for the first time, a clear understanding of what stakeholders' view as the key benefits of such facilities. These benefits were correlated with academic discourse across a range of disciplines, demonstrating how cultural precinct benefits could be understood in relation to theories on public administration, cultural studies, urban planning and public value. This has further enhanced our understanding of cultural precincts in the local government context.

The success of cultural precincts was understood by different stakeholders in a variety of ways. Internal stakeholders prioritised an activated space, central location, food offerings and accessible public transport as critical success factors. Whilst the external stakeholders took a less-nuanced approach and prioritised museum and gallery offerings equally above food offerings, library, music and park options (which received an equal weighting). These variations may be due to what is important and relevant to a stakeholder's sense of place and belonging and/or as a result of asymmetric information where knowledge and information is not equally shared or understood. It was found that a tension exists, in accordance with Aulich's heuristic or reform theory, between a bureaucrat's focus on service efficiency and the political motivation as part of a democratic process. Understanding the impact of this tension; acknowledged in Aulich's heuristic in academic discourse and found in industry practice; is critical to this growing understanding of cultural precincts in the local government context.

The VoC in this study is a critical component in better understanding cultural precincts and stakeholder needs. Whilst commonalities were found between internal and external stakeholder views, the diversity of responses was noteworthy. Of import was the fact that by the participative action research in phase 5, case Councils were in agreement as to the key attributes for a cultural precinct, as outlined in Table 4-14. However, when participants reflected on the importance of each attribute and current performance of their Council in relation to those attributes, their responses within each Council were markedly different. This result is significant as it highlights the importance of creating a decision-making framework and attending performance indicators that are adaptive and flexible enough to meet these different stakeholder requirements.

Performance indicators in use in the local government case studies were found to have similar characteristics as those reported in the extant literature, where indicators were output-focused, quantitative, not articulated, nor aligned to strategic objectives. Similarly, the performance results were not communicated to the public which concurs with international literature reporting on performance measurement usage. It was also confirmed that the terms “performance indicator” and “performance measure” are used interchangeably in the local government context and require improved definitions within the academic literature. Within the setting of this study, the participative action research participants confirmed that each performance indicator might have multiple performance measures but the measures are specific to the context in which it is being used. This chapter provides a suite of meaningful and representative performance indicators that measure the performance of cultural precincts with the support of a new approach for local government that synthesises public administration theory, public value theory, the BSC and QBL, with quality function deployment and a resulting PIHoQ. This new approach to the development of performance indicators is significant and reflects current academic understanding of the local government environment, performance indicator best practice and a comprehensive knowledge of cultural precincts. The resulting refined performance indicators are not only representative of the range of cultural precinct benefits and tied to the technical requirements of the precinct but balance the efficiency versus politically expedient dichotomy, the range of tangible and intangible elements of performance reporting, and the quantitative/qualitative and output/outcome-focus to ensure the indicators are relevant, adaptive and meaningful in the local government environment.

QFD is known to align customer needs with technical requirements to ensure effective product design. As a further and unique contribution to the field of quality function deployment, this current study has focused on the development of performance indicators that also align to customer needs and technical requirements in a service-based industry (represented here in this thesis as PIHoQ). These technical requirements and performance indicators were categorised under the BSC and QBL to aid practitioners’ effective and efficient engagement with the PIHoQ. Further, the study determined that local government and cultural precincts are often at different stages of development and/or maturity. To support the participants’ identification of the different performance indicator needs of these organisations during these distinctive phases of development or maturity, a maturity pathway was developed. This pathway draws on the existing knowledge of development phases, maturity models and performance management approaches.

This study was focused primarily on the benefits, success factors and performance indicators for cultural precinct operations, and along the way a range of challenges and opportunities for further research arose. The research herein exhibits evidence of the political challenges faced within the government sector, particularly how politics and its inherent power-dynamics can influence decision-making. Whilst in depth deliberation of these issues were beyond the scope of this thesis, future research is required to consider how the decision-making framework and engagement process are influenced by power dynamics in the political environment. Future in-depth research is desirable on cultural precincts and their place-making role in a multicultural society, particularly in relation to race, ethnicity and differences. Additionally, the benefits of economies of scale were typically espoused within the media and during data collection with internal stakeholders. However, academic coverage of this concept, particularly in relation to cultural precinct developments together with convergence requires further study. Additional research into the application of the maturity pathway is also desirable together with a longitudinal study on the implementation of the refined PIs, to further test the efficacy of these new approaches or outcomes developed in this present study.

Chapter 5 coalesces the findings of this chapter; namely, the alignment between voice of the customer, technical requirements and performance indicators into an enhanced house of quality framework (PIHoQ) for decision-making on CP PIs. It provides a comprehensive view of the adaptions to the traditional house of quality tool and the challenges faced in the implementation of the framework. It was clearly demonstrated in Chapter 4 that the views or voices of the multitude of local government and cultural precinct stakeholders are critical to the usefulness of the PIHoQ framework. Equally important is the participation of those stakeholders in the PI development process. Thus, Chapter 5 also advances knowledge on a process that enables genuine participation of diverse stakeholder groups in actioning the PIHoQ framework. This combination of the framework and the engagement process I have termed the performance indicator cultural precinct assemblage (PICPA). Chapter 5 also elaborates on the broader opportunities and implications associated with the PIHoQ for the continuous development and improvement of cultural precincts.

5. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION: A SYSTEMATIC FRAMEWORK FOR CULTURAL PRECINCT PERFORMANCE INDICATOR DEVELOPMENT

5.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 is primarily concerned with understanding the formation of a decision-making framework for the development of PIs in order for public administrations to assess the operational performance of cultural precincts (CPs). The chapter also analyses the methodological approach undertaken in the framework's refinement. Having previously addressed the benefits of CPs, the criteria by which stakeholders gauge performance of CPs, PIs for CPs and the refinement of said PIs in Chapter 4, this chapter now considers two key research questions: 1. *What form might a decision-making framework take to assist local government in the development of performance indicators to measure the performance of cultural precincts* and 2. *what processes can be utilised to enable genuine stakeholder engagement in developing PIs within local government?*

In order to address these research questions, this chapter begins (depicted in Figure 5-1) with an introduction to the enhanced performance indicator house of quality (PIHoQ). The chapter also examines its key components and the importance of the changes from the standard house of quality (HoQ) based on the research undertaken in phases 1-5. Secondly, the chapter articulates and illustrates the challenges identified in building this PIHoQ, with analysis of the PIHoQ refinement and PAR process as the study progressed. Finally, the chapter assesses the synergies and opportunities raised in the development of the performance indicator cultural precinct assemblage (PICPA) as an approach for CP PIs in light of Chapter 4's results and findings.

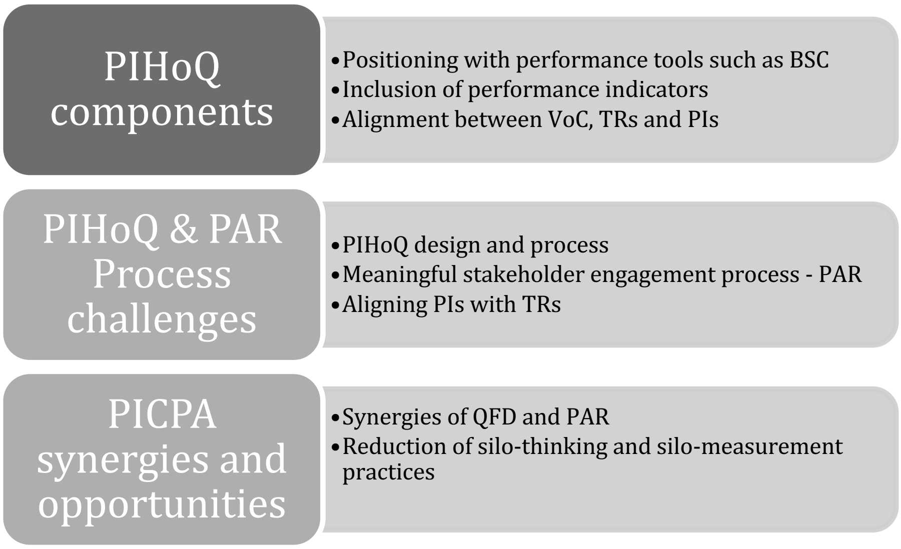

PIHoQ components
•Positioning with performance tools such as BSC
•Inclusion of performance indicators
•Alignment between VoC, TRs and PIs
PIHoQ & PAR Process challenges
•PIHoQ design and process
•Meaningful stakeholder engagement process - PAR
•Aligning PIs with TRs
PICPA synergies and opportunities
•Synergies of QFD and PAR
•Reduction of silo-thinking and silo-measurement practices

Figure 5-1: Roadmap to understand PICPA

5.2. PIHOQ: CORE COMPONENTS AND PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE

This section addresses the core alterations between a traditional HoQ and the PIHoQ, along with the perceived importance of these components. The enhanced components in the PIHoQ include: the alignment of the TRs with the BSC and QBL; the inclusion of PIs in the framework; the alignment of VoC/TR elements with the new PI component; and, the inclusion of a importance-performance analysis tool and an associated quadrant graph to improve communication and decision-making on the critical decisions within the PIHoQ. This section also examines the overall perception of the PIHoQ framework.

As a brief reminder, the development of the PIHoQ for CPs was undertaken over five phases of research, namely:

1. Phase 1: literature review and document search
2. Phase 2: voice of the customer and technical requirements with internal stakeholders through semi-structured interviews
3. Phase 3: voice of the customer requirements with external stakeholders through focus groups
4. Phase 4: development of the PIHoQ framework
5. Phase 5: refinement of the PIHoQ with internal and external participants through a series of participative action research cycles.

The PIHoQ framework is represented in Figure 5-2 below. The traditional HoQ was deemed an appropriate tool for the development of a decision-making framework for PIs in CPs, as it takes as it's foundation the VoC; a core component of TQM (Griffin and Hauser 1993). Understanding the priorities of stakeholders was similarly integral to this research, where the multiple and diverse voices of internal and external stakeholders impact said facilities. The PIHoQ, as detailed in Schulz et al. (2018), has similarities to the traditional HoQ with the creation of the VoC and TRs, labeled as steps 1 and 2 in Figure 5-2. Further, steps 3 and 4 are also components of the traditional HoQ, in which the relationships between VoCs with TRs, and TRs with TRs are defined (Schulz et al. 2018). Step 5, the assessment of the importance and satisfaction ratings on a scale of 1-5, is an enhancement of the traditional competitive analysis as is common in standard HoQs. Step 6 involves participants' selection of focal VoCs as the critical decision point in the PIHoQ (Schulz et al. 2018), just as in the traditional HoQ. Step 7, new to the PIHoQ, aligns PIs to VoCs and areas of focus and overlays a CP maturity assessment on the selection of the PIs to deploy. The traditional HoQ required refinement and enhancement to meet the needs and focus of this research. The following sections detail the enhancements to the traditional HoQ and includes commentary on the importance of these refinements to the process for public administrations seeking relevant PIs for CPs.

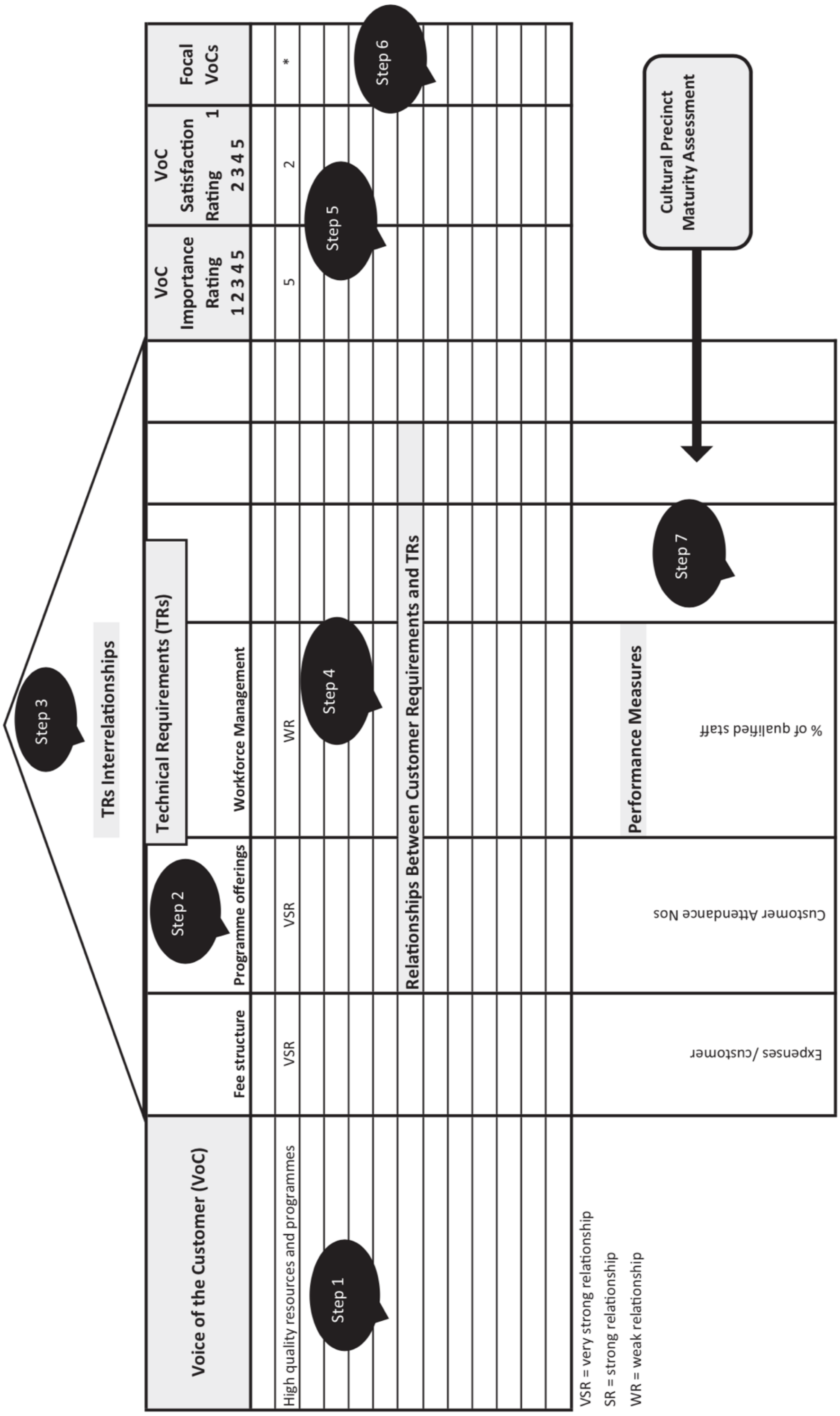

TRs Interrelationships
Step 3
Technical Requirements (TRs)
Step 2
Voice of the Customer (VoC)
Fee structure
Programme offerings
Workforce Management
VoC Importance Rating 1 2 3 4 5
VoC Satisfaction Rating 1 2 3 4 5
Focal VoCs
High quality resources and programmes
VSR
VSR
WR
5
2
*
Step 1
Step 4
Step 5
Step 6
Relationships Between Customer Requirements and TRs
Cultural Precinct Maturity Assessment
Step 7
Performance Measures
Expenses /customer
Customer Attendance Nos
% of qualified staff
VSR = very strong relationship
SR = strong relationship
WR = weak relationship

Figure 5-2: PIHoQ for performance measurement (Schulz et al. 2018, p.43)

5.2.1. Enhancing the HoQ with relevant performance measurement tools

Utilising the customer perspective, traditional HoQ requires VoCs and TRs to be determined and their relationships mapped as shown in steps 1-2 and 4 in Figure 5-2. However, and as validated in the current study, complex and extensive VoCs and TRs were identified as a challenge for QFD and HoQ implementation (Carnevalli and Miguel 2008) (For example, compare VoCs in Tables 4-10 and 4-11 and extensive TRs in Tables 4-4 and 4-5). In Chapter 2 it was concluded that short-term commercialism (Mould and Comunian 2015), stakeholder placation (Nuccio and Ponzini 2017), and diversity of administrative structures (Galligan 2008) add further complexity to the measurement of performance of CPs. In response to these various complexities, it was considered that PIs were required that measured a diversity of aspects such as social, economic and environmental attributes (Dunphy 2012). In noting these complexities and the need to measure performance across such a range of attributes, it was determined to introduce the BSC and the QBL into the development of the PIHoQ.

The BSC was utilised to help categorise the TRs, as was achieved in prior studies including the work of Chen (2011); and Lee and Sai On Ko (2000). The QBL element of civic leadership was incorporated into the categories, as summarised in Table 4-6. The TRs following the phase 2 interviews were earlier highlighted in Table 4-7. Through the PAR processes the TRs were refined, added to and categorised, by participants as shown in Table 5-1.

BSC/QBL	Technical requirement
Financial	Financial management (Funding structure, revenue and expenses)
	Grants (admin, writing, expending)
Customer	Transport options
	Café and catering options
	Hours of operation
	Engagement
	Customer service & relationship management
	Collection, Program & Technology offerings
Internal processes	Infrastructure maintenance
	Sustainable practices (incl. environment)
	Contractor management
	Promotion and marketing
	Access to buildings (incl. security)
	Enhancement (Place-making, activation)
	Purchasing
	Workforce management
Learning and Growth	Research and community development
	Staff professional development
	Volunteer program
Governance & Civic Leadership	Policies and procedures
	Project management
	Partnership and collaboration - enabling community groups
	Strategy, leadership and vision
	Reporting and measurement
	Risk Management (incl. insurance)

Table 5-1: Final BSC and QBL categorisation of TRs

Participants acknowledged that the listing of TRs was less daunting when categorised using the BSC/QBL. Internal stakeholders were already comfortable with the QBL as it was a tool regularly used within the NSW local government sector. While the BSC was less well-known, the majority of internal stakeholders indicated that they appreciated the alignment between BSC and QBL categories. External stakeholders, while either unaware or less aware of the BSC/QBL, indicated that the categories made "logical sense" (Researcher notes, PAR 3 discussion) and were useful in categorising the TRs. The PAR process, discussed in detail in Section 5.3.2, was used to explain the BSC/QBL to all stakeholders which increased their knowledge of the categories, allowing them to further refine and add to the TRs.

It was noted in Chapter 4 that stakeholders failed to highlight TRs reflective of the "governance and leadership" category until the category was highlighted to them. This is despite the fact that public administration theory and service industry literature (See Section 2.5), was increasingly focused on issues within the governance and leadership space. Key issues within this space includes transparency in decision-making and accountability within government. Similarly, while governance and leadership are core components of integrated planning and reporting in the NSW local government sector, identified TR attributes in this category were originally limited until the category was applied and specifically highlighted to PAR participants. This might be the result of silo-thinking, where stakeholders not working in the corporate governance section of government may not identify relevant TRs in this space. Therefore, the deliberate inclusion of the category provides opportunities for participants to reflect on relevant TRs, thereby reducing silo-thinking. After all, as PIs are linked to TRs, the ultimate success of the PIHoQ is determined by the relevancy of the TRs and their relationship with the VoCs. In sum, the BSC/QBL categorisation assists in the organisation's filtering and guidance of the TR development process.

5.2.2. Refined and relevant performance indicators through PAR

Section 4.4. ideated a range of PIs that were both relevant and effective for the performance measurement of CPs. That discussion examined current PIs in use within local government and the practical predilection for output-based and customer service-oriented indicators within the case councils. It was recognised that a diversity of performance indicators is required for CPs at different phases of development or maturity. As a result, a series of indicators were collated to provide a holistic understanding of the performance of a CP. These PIs were outlined in Tables 4-22 to 4-26. It is feasible to argue perhaps, that the creation of the PIs in isolation to the PIHoQ framework might be ample to effectively measure the performance of a CP. However, this research posits that the PI inclusion in the PIHoQ provides a direct visual demonstration of the PIs in alignment with TRs and, through the relationship matrix, the VoCs. The PIHoQ, like the traditional HoQ, acts as a stakeholder communication tool but goes further, providing greater clarity to stakeholders as to the alignment of *performance* with customer needs and organisational priorities.

The PIs for the PIHoQ were refined and made more relevant through the delivery of PAR. During phase 5, PAR participants in PARs 2 and 5 were provided with their council's current PIs and were provided a series of PI characteristics based on the work of Parmenter (2010). The participants analysed and documented answers to the following questions:

- What indicators don't you understand?
- What don't you like?
- What indicators appeal to you? And why?
- What is missing from these indicators?
- What indicators would you remove?
- What would you add?

Following the PAR sessions, the participants reflected on the actions undertaken and indicated via a reflection survey, the level of difficulty they faced in reviewing and developing the PIs. The results are shown in Figure 5-3 and Figure 5-4 below. The results from Council E were more diverse with the majority (50%) of all participants finding the development easy (very or somewhat). While in Council C, the majority (67%) found the development neither easy nor difficult. In the case of both Councils, more external participants found PI development harder that internal stakeholders. For example, external participants only make up 16% (Council E) and 0% (Council C) of stakeholders indicating the PI development was easy (very or somewhat) whilst 8% (Council E) and 33% (Council C) found the process difficult (somewhat or very). Many of the comments from participants reflected a desire to move towards outcome-based PIs such as "new skills gained, exposure to new ideas" (E8, Council E, PAR 2 reflection survey) and "Creativity stimulated, Aesthetic enrichment experienced, New knowledge, ideas and insights gained, Connection to shared heritage experienced" (M9, Council C, PAR 5 reflection survey). However, the external stakeholders were less likely to add comments to their reflection survey in relation to PI development. James (2011b) found that external stakeholders often lack experience with performance data. The results herein concur with this.

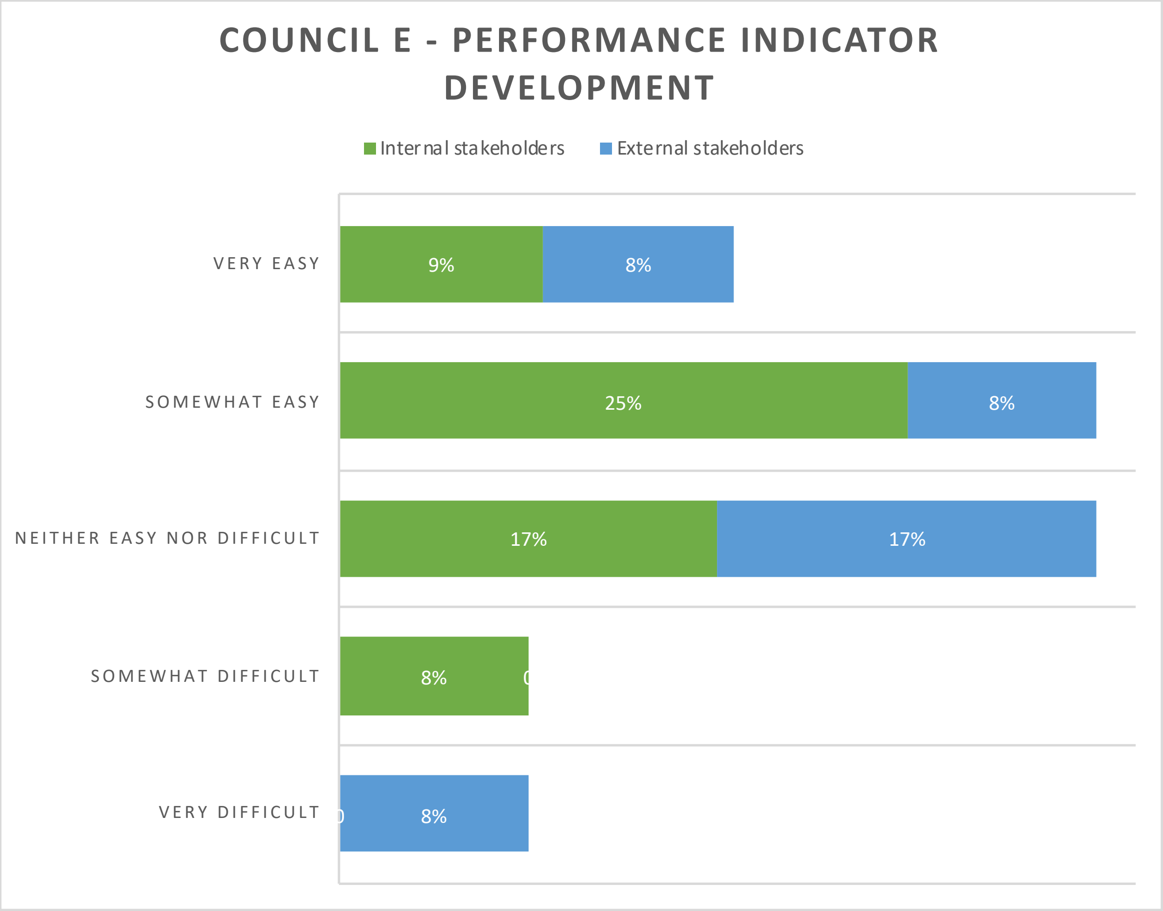


Figure 5-3: Difficulty in developing the PIs - Council E reflection (PAR 2)

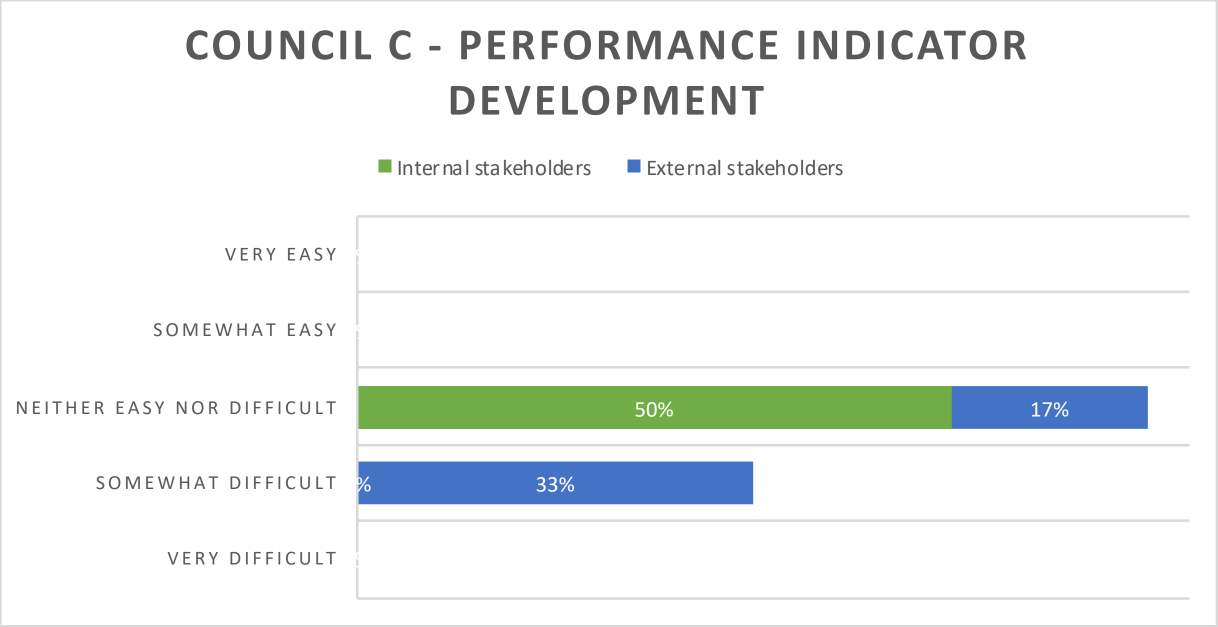


Figure 5-4: Difficulty in developing the PIs - Council C reflection (PAR 5)

External stakeholders were observed being far less engaged during the PI development process. To address this, the researcher encouraged their engagement by asking them direct questions and offering opportunities to provide their opinion or ask questions. The PAR processes acted as a learning opportunity for all participants, but particularly external stakeholders who were less comfortable with PI development. The inclusion of PIs, therefore, within the PIHoQ addresses a key challenge faced by local government: the engagement of external stakeholders in the selection and understanding of performance data. The well-defined PAR sessions, whilst supporting the development of the PIHoQ, were in themselves a series of highly complex bricolages (Badham and Sense 2001). The benefits of the PIHoQ framework and the PAR cycles working in unison are outlined below in Figure 5-5. Namely, the PIHoQ framed and guided the PAR activities and the PAR cycles served as the process structure through which the PIHoQ was developed, implemented and enriched. As a consequence, the participants gained an understanding of the PIHoQ process and the tool, whilst also ensuring that the customer requirements or the VoC were adequately developed, and the PIs were relevant. Key stakeholders' participation in the PAR process and PIHoQ framework development were effectively trained in the development of the process and the creation of the PIs. This is particularly important given that, as noted in Chapter 2, the implementation of a performance measurement system is likely to be more successful when stakeholders participate in the system's development (Cavalluzzo and Ittner 2004) and stakeholders understand the performance measures (Hildebrand and McDavid 2011). In the PAR/PIHoQ process, the participants effectively drove the development of the PIs, the PIs' relationship with TRs and the VoC.

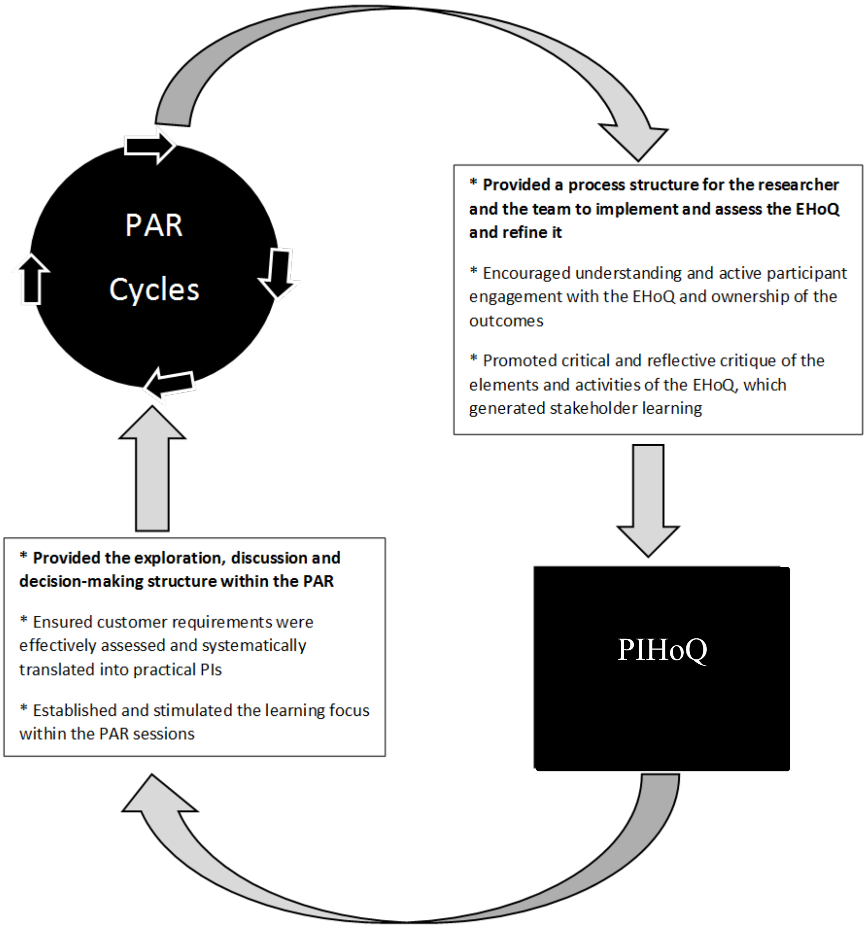

PAR
Cycles
* Provided a process structure for the researcher and the team to implement and assess the EHoQ and refine it
* Encouraged understanding and active participant engagement with the EHoQ and ownership of the outcomes
* Promoted critical and reflective critique of the elements and activities of the EHoQ, which generated stakeholder learning
PIHoQ
* Provided the exploration, discussion and decision-making structure within the PAR
* Ensured customer requirements were effectively assessed and systematically translated into practical PIs
* Established and stimulated the learning focus within the PAR sessions

Figure 5-5: Benefits of PIHoQ and PAR

It is noted that the long-term impact of developing and deploying PIs through the utilisation of the PIHoQ was outside the frame of this current research. A future longitudinal study on this topic would likely further contribute to HoQ theory development and academic understandings of performance management of CPs.

5.2.3. Three-way alignment between community needs, technical requirements (TRs) and performance indicators (PIs)

This chapter thus far, and Chapter 4, have considered the benefits of CPs, the VoC in relation to CPs, the TRs and the PIs for said precincts. Each piece of this PIHoQ puzzle has been appraised in relative isolation to the next, albeit with in-depth discussion of the available literature. However, this section of Chapter 5 explores the necessity to align stakeholder needs, TRs and, ultimately, performance indicators through the use of a PIHoQ as encapsulated in Figure 5-6. Ultimately, it is this alignment between the stakeholder needs/VoC, organisational requirements/TRs and the performance/PIs of the CP that improves the overall success of the PIHoQ framework, where the VoC remains the focal point (Evans and Lindsay 2011).

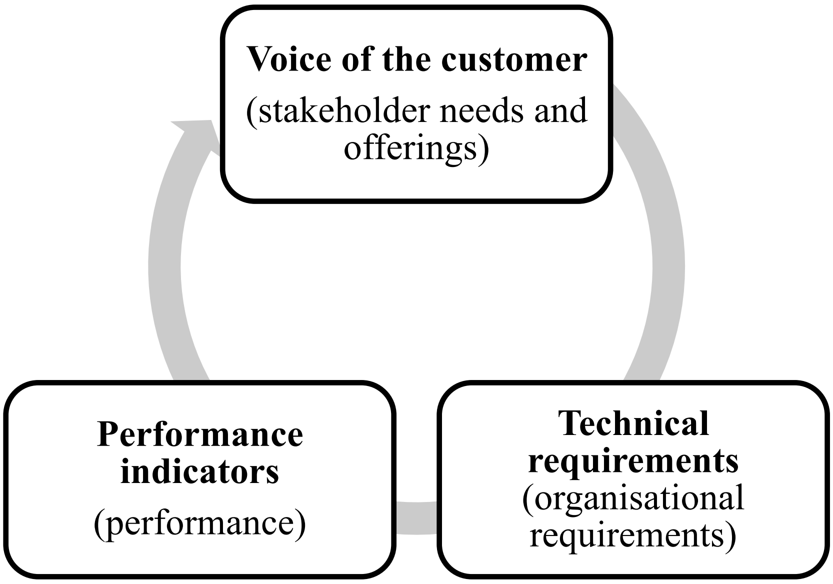

Voice of the customer
(stakeholder needs and offerings)
Performance indicators
(performance)
Technical requirements
(organisational requirements)

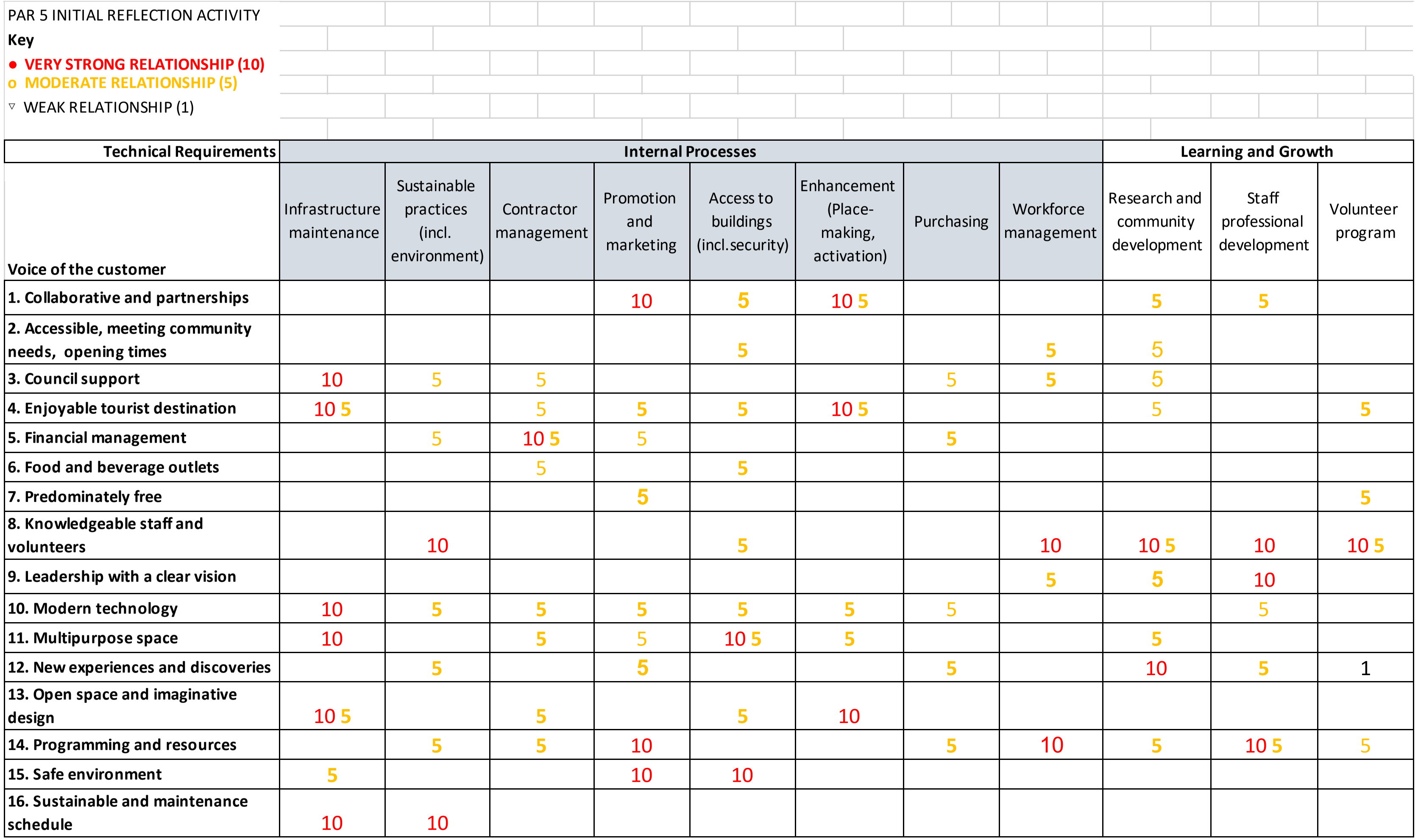
Figure 5-6: Alignment of PIHoQ elements

In the PIHoQ, a relationship matrix is used to map and communicate any alignment or relationships. In the two PAR groups in phase 5, in the two councils, participants mapped the strength of these relationships between the VOC and TRs and also between the TRs. It should be noted that in Figure 5-7, Council E chose to use the ●, o and ▿ symbols to represent the relationships – with a full red dot being a strong relationship, an open yellow dot being a moderate relationship and an open grey triangle being a weak relationship. In Figure 5-8, Council C chose to use the 10, 5 and 1 key – with 10 donating a strong relationship and at the other end of that scale, 1 being weak. Both these figures reflect the ratings assigned at the end of PAR 2 and 5 – early in the phase 5 process. Council C participants had difficulty in determining a number of the relationships between VoCs and TRs. For example, participants allocated both a 10 and 5 to Collaborative and partnerships/Enhancement (place-making, activation), as shown in Figure 5-8. In fact, 38 of the VoC/TR relationship alignments were allotted both a 10 and 5 by Council C. Participants discussed the difficulty they faced in assigning a strong or moderate relationship. It was not until they completed the PIHoQ process in full that participants understood the utility of the matrices. Having made critical decisions on prioritised VoCs, highlighting TRs with strong relationships to prioritised VoCs and, subsequently, aligning VoCs to PIs, participants suggested many of their allotted “strong relationships” were perhaps not strong but moderate relationships. It was clear from the PAR cycles, that completing a short sample PIHoQ process initially with participants would help inform their decision-making on the real PIHoQ process, particularly their understanding of the relationship matrices. The PAR process was required in order to learn, reflect and act on changes to the PIHoQ. Participants queried the need for three relationship ratings (strong, moderate and weak), feeling that the matrices process was time-consuming and difficult. Participants were concerned that there was little benefit to identification of the weak relationships. They suggested that only the strong relationships were required, or at most, two relationships: strong and moderate. Further study would be useful to understand the impact of simply applying one strong relationship rating or two ratings: strong and moderate relationships.

The development of the relationship matrix between VoCs and TRs led to discussions between participants as to the validity or usability of certain TRs. For example, the participants in Council E originally had “parks and garden maintenance” and “facility maintenance” as two separate TRs. As they developed the matrix they noted that very similar relationships were attributed to certain VoCs; such as both TRs having a moderate ○ relationship with “collaborative and partnerships”, “financial sustainability”, a strong ● or moderate ○ relationship with “sustainable and maintenance schedule”, and a moderate ○ or weak ▿ relationship with “food and beverage outlets” and “sense of safety”. As a result, Council E chose to combine the two TRs into “facility and garden maintenance”.

Voice of the customer	Financial			Customer							
	Fee/Funding structure	Different revenue schemes - government funding, capital funds, Developer	Budget, revenue and expense management	Transport options	Technology offerings	Collection offerings	Program offerings	Café and catering options	Hours of operation	Customer service & relationship management	Engagement
1. Collaborative and partnerships	○	○	▽	●	○		●	▽	●	○	○
2. Community needs, storage requirements, opening times and a	●	●	●	○		○	●	○	●	●	●
3. Council support	○	○	●		▽		○		●	●	
4. Enjoyable destination	○	○	○	○		●	●	○	●	○	●
5. Financially sustainable	●	●	●	○	●	●	●	○	●	●	○
6. Food and beverage outlets	●	▽	●	○	▽	▽	▽	●	●	○	●
7. Free	●	●	●			▽	●	▽	▽	○	▽
8. Knowledgeable staff and volunteers	○	○	○			●	●			●	○
9. Leadership with a clear vision	○	●	●	▽	○	●	●		▽	●	●
10. Modern technology	○	○	○		●	●	●		●	●	●
11. Multipurpose space	○	○	○		○		●			●	
12. New experiences and discoveries	○	○	○	▽	●	●	●	○	●	○	●
13. Open space and imaginative design					▽					▽	
14. Programming and resources	○	○	○		○	●	●		●	●	●
15. Sense of safety	▽	▽	▽	▽	▽			▽	●	○	
16. Sustainable and maintenance schedule	●	●	●		▽				▽		
17. Transport	○	○	○	●					○	●	

Figure 5-7: VoC and TR matrix (part sample) - Council E



PAR 5 INITIAL REFLECTION ACTIVITY

Key

● VERY STRONG RELATIONSHIP (10)

o MODERATE RELATIONSHIP (5)

▿ WEAK RELATIONSHIP (1)

Technical Requirements	Internal Processes								Learning and Growth		
Voice of the customer	Infrastructure maintenance	Sustainable practices (incl. environment)	Contractor management	Promotion and marketing	Access to buildings (incl.security)	Enhancement (Place-making, activation)	Purchasing	Workforce management	Research and community development	Staff professional development	Volunteer program
1. Collaborative and partnerships				10	5	10 5			5	5	
2. Accessible, meeting community needs, opening times					5			5	5		
3. Council support	10	5	5				5	5	5		
4. Enjoyable tourist destination	10 5		5	5	5	10 5			5		5
5. Financial management		5	10 5	5			5				
6. Food and beverage outlets			5		5						
7. Predominately free				5							5
8. Knowledgeable staff and volunteers		10			5			10	10 5	10	10 5
9. Leadership with a clear vision								5	5	10	
10. Modern technology	10	5	5	5	5	5	5			5	
11. Multipurpose space	10		5	5	10 5	5			5		
12. New experiences and discoveries		5		5			5		10	5	1
13. Open space and imaginative design	10 5		5		5	10					
14. Programming and resources		5	5	10			5	10	5	10 5	5
15. Safe environment	5			10	10						
16. Sustainable and maintenance schedule	10	10									

Figure 5-8: VoC and TR matrix (part sample) - Council C

Council E created a large number of relationships between the VoCs and the more customer-related TRs. It was postulated that this could be the result of the customer-related TRs being listed near the beginning of the TR list (just behind financial) and, as a result, received priority consideration and preference over other TRs. Or it could simply be the result of the fact that customer-related TRs were more likely to align with the VoCs. To test these theories, Council C was supplied the PIHoQ with the TRs in a different order, with customer-related TRs moved to the end of the PIHoQ and internal processes moved to the first section of the TRs (or left-hand side of the PIHoQ). The relocation of TRs demonstrated a minor difference to the frequency of relationships with VoCs. Figure 5-9 shows that Council E mapped significantly more relationships for the first three TR categories: financial (15%), customer (30%) and internal process (29%). Whilst Council C mapped more relationships to the first TR category listed: internal process (32%), then the last TR category: customer (24%), demonstrated in Figure 5-9. These results may demonstrate the implications of participant exhaustion and loss of interest in mapping relationships across the VoCs and TRs due to the large number of relationship options in a large and complex PIHoQ. Breaking up the matrices mapping into smaller workshop sessions may assist in improving the quality of discussion between and with participants and the accuracy and veracity of the results to support the later stages on the PIHoQ development.

As mentioned previously and shown in Figure 5-10, is that Council C participants were, at times, unable to select only one relationship classification; often selecting both very strong and moderate relationships for a VoC/TR relationship. These are shown in Figure 5-10 as both 10 and 5 in one relationship. Overall, Figure 5-10, demonstrates a significant decrease in the number of mapped relationships between Council E and Council C. This was, in part, due to the adapted PAR process between PAR 2 at Council E followed by PAR 5 at Council C. In PAR 5 the participants were presented with a longer workshop to develop the matrices and provided a short example of how the relationships relate to the VoC/TR/PI interrelationship. This improved the efficacy of the Council C relationship mapping process and, hence, later avoided the selection of a vast number of deployable TRs and associated PIs.

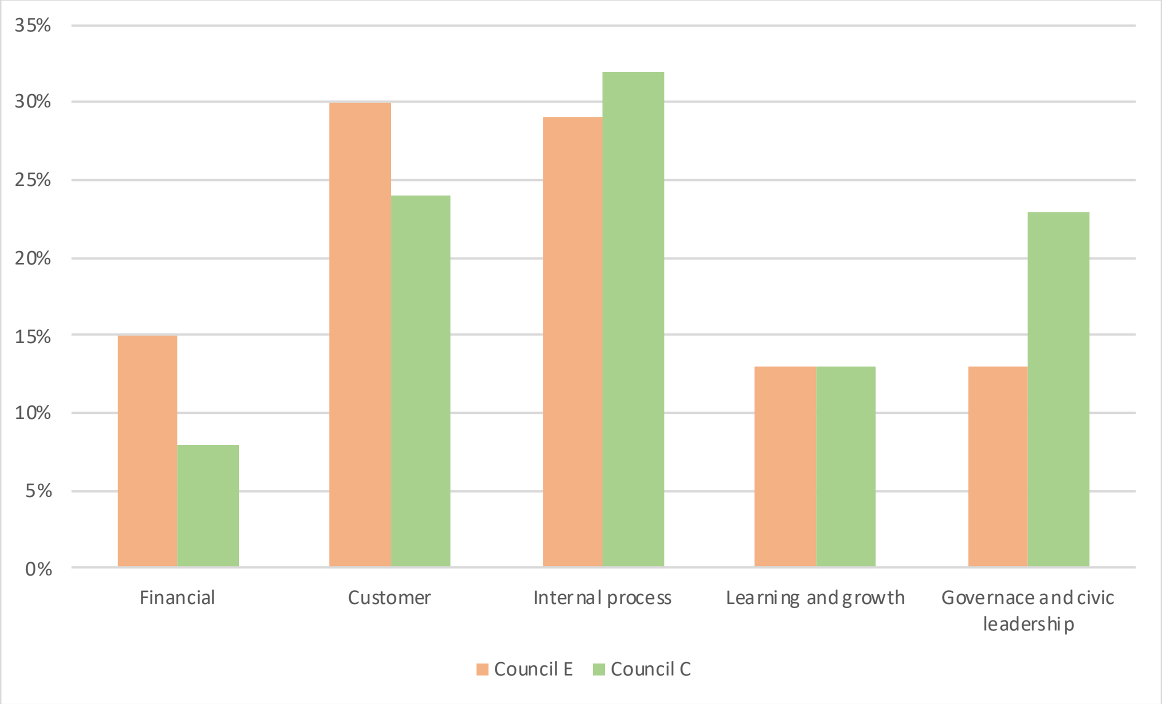


Figure 5-9: Percentage of VoC/TR relationships in Council E (PAR 2) & Council C (PAR 5)

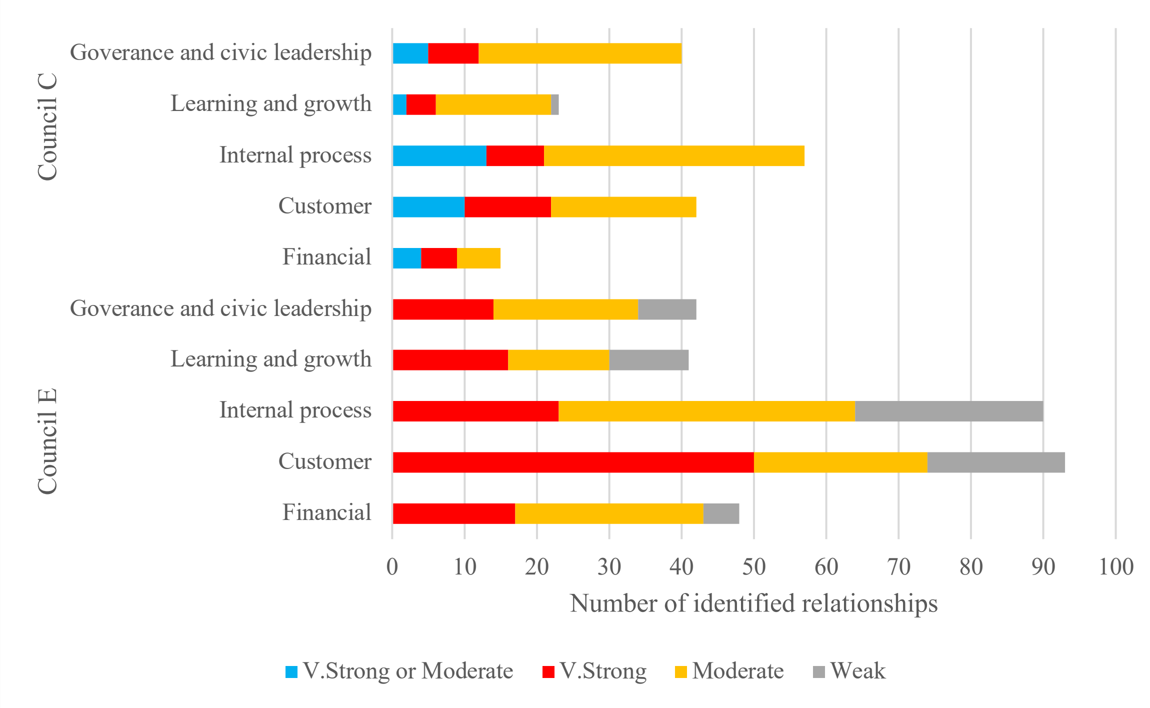


Figure 5-10: Frequency of VoC/TR relationships in Council E (PAR 2) & Council C (PAR 5)

Following the development of the matrices, the importance and satisfaction rating (as shown in Figure 5-2, step 5) and the focal VoC or critical decision (step 6) were undertaken. The PIs, discussed in Section 4.4.4, were aligned to TRs and included in the base of the PIHoQ, as shown in Figure 5-2, step 7. The PAR participants were exposed to the PIHoQ, showing the alignment between the VoCs and TRs and PIs by way of the matrices. It was evident in Council E that the heavy number of allocated relationships, outlined above and shown in Figure 5-10, impacted the number of PIs deployed. For example, one of Council E's focal VoCs, due to its high importance and low satisfaction rating, was "knowledgeable staff and volunteers". Council E allocated 8 very strong relationships between this VoC and a series of TRs, including: collection, program and technology offerings, customer service and service delivery, sustainable practices, staff professional development, workforce and volunteer management, and project management. As PIs were allocated to each TR, the result was the selection of over 44 PIs. Clearly, analysing this volume of PIs would not be conducive to effectively and efficiently understand the performance of the CP in relation to the VoC: "there are sufficient, friendly, helpful and knowledgeable staff and volunteers providing a warm and welcoming service" (VoC developed in PAR 1). Once the participants saw this VoC in relation to the PIs, they reflected that only customer service and service delivery, staff professional development, workforce and volunteer management were, after all, the "very strong" relationships. This would effectively cut the VoCs PIs by half. The participants confirmed that the remaining PIs were "useful", "relevant", and "revealing" (Researcher journal notes, PAR 3). It was observed that participants began to reflect on other VoC and TR relationships, recognising that a substantial reduction in the "very strong" relationship category was possible across all PIs.

The utilisation of performance measures and the resulting data, it was found in Chapter 2, is not universally effective within public administrations (Schulz et al. 2018). Data tends to be used internally and key stakeholders do not actively participate in the creation of performance measurement systems (Cepiku et al. 2017). Furthermore, PIs need to more closely align to strategic objectives (Mendes et al. 2014). Performance measurement practices need to lead to positive change (Plant 2006), cultural change or innovation (Caiden 1998) or service improvements (Melkers and Willoughby 2005). The resultant performance data could be used as a communication tool to key stakeholders (Hood 2012) and act as a learning opportunity for organisations communicating performance data to stakeholders (National Assembly of State Arts Agencies 2015), as discussed in Section 2.3.6. The visual and communicative impact of the PIHoQ is shown in Figure 5-14 and discussed in detail in Section 5.3.1.

5.2.4. Determination of the critical decision through importance-performance analysis and visualisation through a quadrant graph

The traditional HoQ utilises customer importance ratings and competitive analysis to determine important selling points (the areas of focus) of the product (Evans and Lindsay 2011). It was determined in the development of the PIHoQ that councils were not in competition and therefore required a different analysis technique to determine priorities. An importance-performance analysis tool was used. It was noted in Section 3.3.3 that interviewees were pre-disposed to attribute all VoCs as "highly important", being unable to prioritise the attributes. This challenge is further elucidated in Section 5.3.1.4. It was extremely difficult to prioritise VoCs when their relative importance was not understood. As a result, the participants were directed to prioritise the VoCs into 5 categories from "most important" to "least important" (See Section 3.3.3.4). The forced prioritisation process provided the relative importance ranking. Also, PAR participants demonstrated some difficulty in understanding the relationship between importance and performance at the stage where they were required to designate the critical decision (See Section 3.3.6.6). The researcher explained that a "high" importance rating and a "low" satisfaction rating would indicate a need to focus on that TR. The researcher followed up by saying that if a customer says "this VoC is important to me but I'm not satisfied with the VoC" then the council knows that this VOC is an area of focus. When it was clear that participants found this discussion challenging, the quadrant graph was introduced to effectively visualise the results from the importance-performance analysis process (See Figure 3-21). One respondent, having had difficulty with the importance-performance analysis tool said, "Much better now that I can see the results in the graph" (C26, Council C, PAR 5 survey results). The results demonstrate that participants in the PIHoQ development required a range of visual cues to support their learning and understanding and assist in decision-making. Further, the iterative process of PAR supported the evolution of the process to allow for the addition of the quadrant graph to support participant learning.

5.2.5. Overall perceptions of the PIHoQ framework

After PAR 1/4, participants were then asked by the researcher, "Having created the VoC, TRs and matrix, the use of the framework to align customer needs with operations is…" and were asked to select the level of benefit they perceived (very beneficial, somewhat beneficial, not beneficial or unsure). The majority indicated the alignment between customer needs and organisational requirements as very beneficial (Council E = 58%; Council C = 55%) or somewhat beneficial (Council E = 42%; Council C = 27%). Only 18% of PAR participants from Council C were unsure of the benefit of the alignment process following the exercise. See Figure 5-11 for a graphic of these outcomes. Participants comments included:

- *"Made us really aware of what we were talking about, i.e. added to my understanding of the points raised"* (C21, Council E)
- *'The customer is the reason for the process"* (C23, Council E)
- *"Would be useful with a precinct that is scoped"* (M15, Council E)
- *"Useful to reflect/unpack the relationship between each VoC and TR"* (M14, Council E)
- *"Some repetition – such as attributes like greenery and design. The matrix was time consuming. Good, clear language would speed this up. Clarity is helpful."* (M17, Council E)
- *"Exhausted"* (C26, Council C)
- *"An interesting thought process"* (M21, Council C)
- *"A new way to analyse and understand the way we operate and why"* (M9, Council C)
- *"Need more information - seems to start being relevant but would like to see the big picture"* (M23, Council C)
- *"Not comfortable with the method. Prefer more discussion"* (C28, Council C)

These comments from participants point to the benefits they saw in the alignment of the VoC and TRs: focus on the customer (C23), practical application with a scoped CP (M15), level of detail possible in the matrix or relationship between the VoC and TRs and a useful framework through which to re-think CPs (M21, M9). C21's comment reflects the commentary of a number of community members who participated in the research; that is, the discussion around VoCs, TRs and their relationship assisted community members understanding of the terminology and the meaning behind different aspects of the CP concept. However, it should also be noted that at least one community participant (C28) found the development of the PIHoQ challenging and was unclear on the alignment between the PIHoQ elements. Reflecting on the issue of asymmetric information (Dollery and Wallis 2001), opportunities such as these PAR cycles gave stakeholders an opportunity to participate in a decision-making capacity whilst also developing the much-needed knowledge (Brydon and Vining 2016) to meaningfully participate.

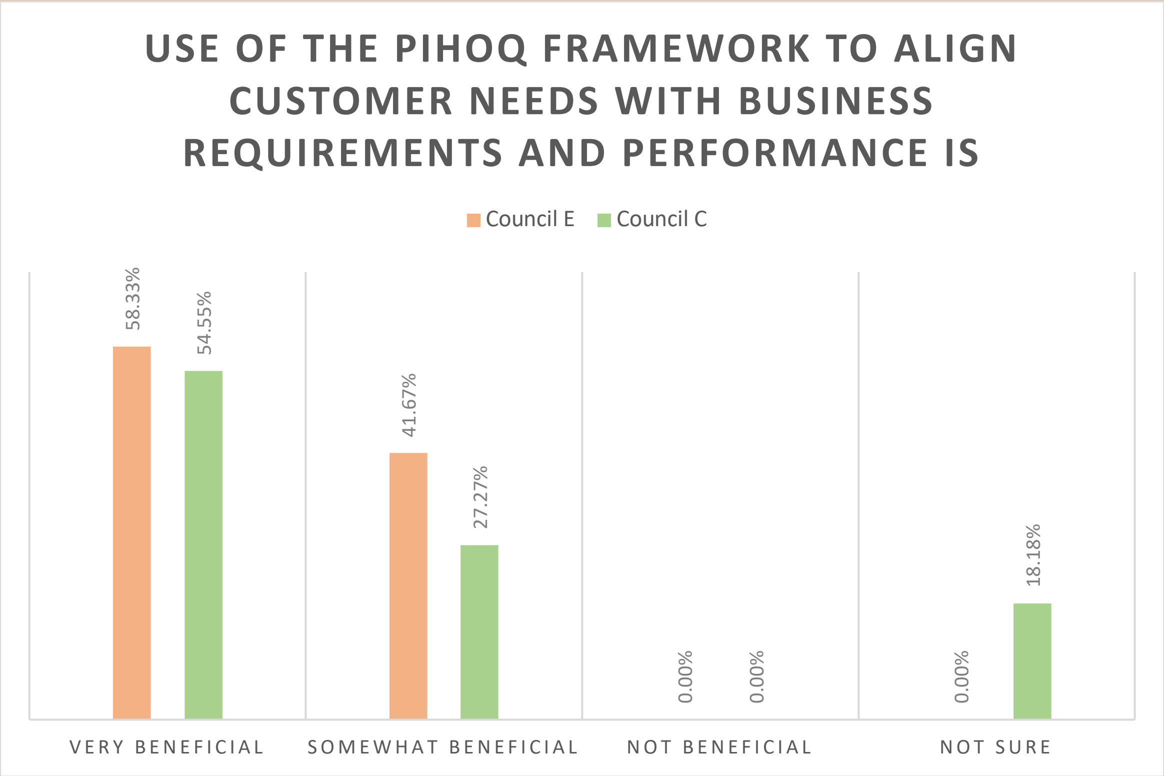


Figure 5-11: Reflection survey - alignment of PIHoQ elements

At the completion of the three PAR cycles in each council, participants were asked to again rate the level of benefit they saw in four aspects of the PIHoQ framework. These aspects included:

1. Measure performance in areas of critical importance (performance measurement)
2. Understand where council should focus attention (council focus)
3. Align customer needs with operational requirements (alignment customer/ops)
4. Understand its customer needs (customer needs)

They overwhelmingly saw an alignment between the customer needs and the operational requirements, as shown in Figure 5-12 and Figure 5-13 below with 100% agreement in both councils that the PIHoQ framework was either very beneficial or somewhat beneficial in aligning the customer needs with operational requirements. Participants, having undertaken the complete PIHoQ process, resoundingly saw the benefits of the framework in measuring factors that were identified as critically important. It was clear to the researcher that the full process needed to be completed before a full understanding of the PIHoQ benefits were understood and realised by participants. A few participants expressed concern in PARs 1/4 and 2/5 about where the PIHoQ process was going but their concerns were resolved by the end of PARs 3/6 when they saw the full PIHoQ framework and the results of their work. Further, the discussion between internal and external stakeholders throughout the PAR cycles was very constructive in improving participants' understanding of the PIHoQ and the end results of the process. Participants used each PAR session to ask questions of the researcher, seek clarification from other participants on decisions made in the framework and address concerns with the process. One participant commented that "Council is already good at communication with community - this process if implemented could be explained!" (Council C). This internal stakeholder felt that whilst Council C's communication with the community was good, the PIHoQ process could be communicated to the community and used as an effective tool to demonstrate clear links between community needs, operational requirements, strategic areas of focus and performance measurement. This view concurs with James (2011a) in that customer expectations improve with understanding of performance data. Similarly, in accordance with stakeholder theory (Phillips 2003), while the stakeholders involved in the PAR cycles were from diverse backgrounds and operated in different cultural environments (internally and externally focused), they were all united in the development of the PIHoQ. One participant felt that the PIs required further work and refinement, stating that "KPIs need more development and relationships between KPIs" (Council C). The participant was concerned that the relationship between PIs and their alignment with TRs needed further work. A better understanding of the PIs may have been achieved if additional time was devoted to PI development during the PAR process. This may have alleviated the participant's concerns. This flexibility is feasible within the PIHoQ/PAR processes. The success of the PIHoQ in this study is, at least in part, attributed to the flexibility of the framework and interaction between participants with a range of interests and abilities. This finding matches those of Smith (2016), discussed in Section 2.2.5.

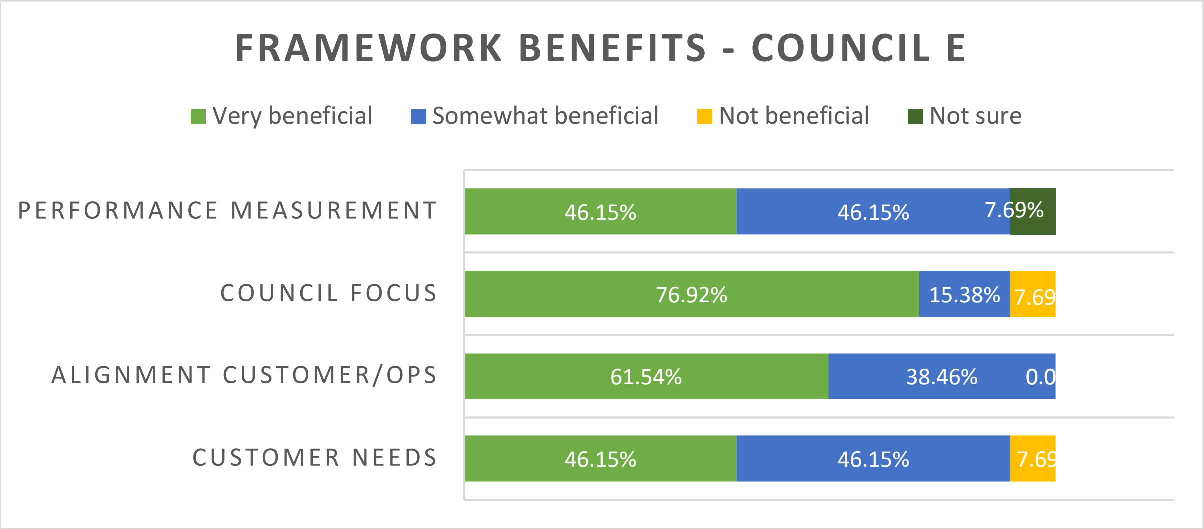


Figure 5-12: PIHoQ framework benefits - Council E

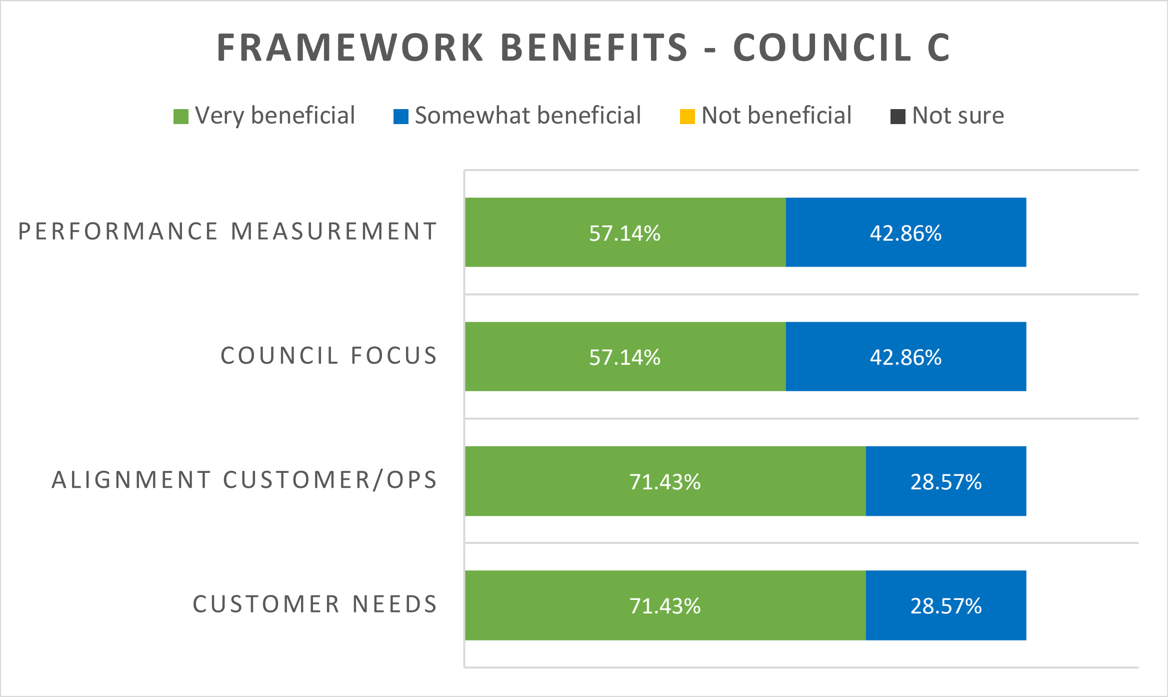


Figure 5-13: PIHoQ framework benefits - Council C

5.3. PIHOQ + PAR = PICPA AND THE ASSOCIATED CHALLENGES AND SYNERGIES

Section 5.2 considered the refinement of the traditional HoQ and the development of an enriched HoQ that included performance indicators (PIHoQ) to support the development of PIs that relate to customer expectations of CPs. This section turns attention to the challenges in the development of the PIHoQ, namely the process design challenges, the utilisation of PAR to address the challenge in defining and undertaking genuine and relevant stakeholder engagement and the barriers to the implementation of the overarching approach: PICPA. Finally, this section examines the synergies and opportunities of PICPA.

5.3.1. PIHoQ: Design challenges

This section of the chapter examines the process undertaken during the phase 4 development of the PIHoQ and phase 5 PAR cycles.

As the phase 4 PIHoQ was developed and it became apparent that as PIs were being aligned to TRs, a number of TRs developed in phase 2 during the interview process (See Chapter 4) with internal stakeholders were duplicated. For example, internal stakeholders included “technology offerings” and “internet access” under the “customer” category. Indicators for internet access comfortably sat under technology offerings. Based on this, the TR internet access was removed from the PIHoQ. It was deemed at this point, that, had the interviewees had a greater understanding of the PIHoQ development process, beyond the short overview provided at the beginning of each interview in phase 2, the interviewee may have reconsidered their TR additions and potentially incorporated some TRs together.

A sample PIHoQ was developed during the phase 5 PAR sessions, as is summarised and tabled in Figure 5-14, and shows the alignment between the VoCs, TRs and the selected PIs. This figure provides a sample of the PIHoQ and the alignment between VoCs, TRs and PIs through the relationship matrix of very strong ●, moderate ○ and weak ▽ relationships. The deployed TRs in the “focus” critical decision category (in this case transport options, café and catering options and hours of operation) are designated by the green tick ✅. Prior studies suggest that QFD and their resulting HoQs act as a communication tool (Adiano and Roth 1994). Despite the challenges of clearly communicating the complexities of CPs, this current research found advantage in visually presenting the alignment between VoCs, TRs and associated PIs in the PIHoQ.

PAR 5 HOQ RESULTS OF "FOCUS"

Key

- ● VERY STRONG RELATIONSHIP (10)
- o MODERATE RELATIONSHIP (5)
- ▿ WEAK RELATIONSHIP (1)

Technical Requirements	**Customer**								
Voice of the customer	Transport options	Café and catering options	Hours of operation	Engagement	Customer service & relationship management	Collection, Program & Technology offerings	**Importance**	**Satisfaction**	**Critical decision**
1. Collaborative and partnerships				O			4	3.14	Review
2. Accessible, meeting community needs, opening times	O	O	●		●	● O	4	3.71	Promote
3. Council support						●	3.5	3.38	Maintain
4. Enjoyable tourist destination	O	O	O	●	O	● O	2.88	3.25	Maintain
5. Financial management					O		3.75	3	Review
6. Food and beverage outlets		●	O		O		3.5	3.88	Focus
7. Predominately free					O		3.75	4.29	Promote
8. Knowledgeable staff and volunteers			O		O		4	4.25	Promote
9. Leadership with a clear vision							4.5	3.38	Review
10. Modern technology				O		●	3.43	3.25	Maintain
11. Multipurpose space		O	O	O		●	3.75	3.38	Review
12. New experiences and discoveries				●	O	●	4.38	3.63	Review
13. Open space and imaginative design			O	●	O		4	3.5	Review
14. Programming and resources			O	●	●	●	4.63	4.29	Promote
15. Safe environment				O	●		3.88	3.71	Promote
16. Sustainable and maintenance schedule							3.38	3.63	Maintain
17. Location and transport	●		●	O	O		3.13	4	Focus
Deployed Technical requirements - FOCUS	✓	✓	✓						
Performance indicators - output focused	Number of transport options available	Number of customers and sales	Total cost per hour of operation Time-driven activity-based costing						
Performance indicators - outcome focused	Time willing to travel for cultural activities	Customer satisfaction food options % expenses per customer	Customer satisfaction with hours of access						

Figure 5-14: PIHoQ - phase 5, Council C (PAR 6)

The sample shown above provides the alignment of the focus VoCs with the customer-related TRs. The visual cue of the TRs with PIs aligned, proved highly useful to participants. It gave a clear indication of what would be measured under each TR and how these elements aligned to the VoC. In practical terms, the PIHoQ was difficult to develop in Microsoft Excel without fairly advanced Excel skills. Whilst template HoQs are available, they usually do not allow for editing to include additional elements such as the PIs and the BSC/QBL categorisation and are limited in the number of VoCs and TRs allowed in the PIHoQ tool. Due to the size and complexity of the PIHoQ for CPs, the size of the framework was large and when the full framework was viewed at A4 size, it was difficult to read. This complexity was later acknowledged by PAR participants in the early PAR sessions: “Complex mainly in the breadth of data collection” (M23, Council C, PAR 4 reflection survey) and “A bit confusing at this stage but I'm sure all will be clear soon” (C26, Council C, PAR 4 reflection survey). Paré et al. (2014) deliberated on the complexity of a framework as a potential barrier to its implementation within an organisation, as outlined in Chapter 3. This current research supports the notion that the complexity of the framework does, upon initial inspection, have some bearing on the users (PAR participants). Further, as a means of addressing barriers to implementation, it indicates a value in having processes and a facilitator in place to actively support participants through the development of the PIHoQ.

The participants in the PAR activities were provided an overview of QFD, the creation of the PIHoQ and a short background to CP developments. They undertook the VoC and TR analysis, then completed the relationship matrices including VoCs with TRs and TRs with TRs. Following these activities in PARs 1 and 4, they were asked to examine the positives, negatives and possible improvements to the process of developing the PIHoQ. The results are shown in Table 5-2 and Table 5-3 below. The results show that the most useful components of PAR 1 and 4 were the opportunities to work as a group to obtain different perspectives and ideas, as visually represented in the word cloud provided in Figure 5-15. Many PAR participants, particularly the external stakeholders, expressed their preference for the group discussions: “More comfortable with group discussions. Thanks!” (C20, Council E, PAR 1 reflection survey). The positive experience of group discussion, expressed in both PAR 1 and 4, supports the previous discussion in relation to stakeholder theory, around the attainment of multiple, internal and external stakeholder perspectives. It was noted in that section that the views of the internal and external stakeholders were different and required all perspectives in order to achieve a holistic VoC. We saw in Section 4.3.3 that internal and external stakeholders worked together and, via a consensus, developed the VoC. The data below further supports the view that stakeholders, whilst coming with different agendas and having different needs (Phillips 2003), not only can come to a consensus view but also see the value in working together to obtain different perspectives. The PAR cycles, with the inclusion of both internal and external stakeholders, supported the “sensitisation” of PAR participants to the needs of all stakeholders as argued by Adiano and Roth (1994).

Positive	Negatives	Improvements
Sharing helps your own ideas	Long descriptions	Clarify the statements - better descriptors
Many perspectives	Complex charts	Cheese and biscuits please or fruit
Well executed	Lack of a shared definition or Vocabulary	Small team work best
Most things clear	Roof was complicated for the amount of time - would be valuable if previously assessed before workshop	Clarify what is in the scope of the precinct
Challenging	Time constraint	Some of the VoC could be synthesised and miss out a few areas
Good handouts/worksheets	Jargon	Mix backgrounds further i.e. Not all the same group in one team
Like mixed groups		Condense and number VoCs
Makes you look at it from different viewpoints		Use/add to activity headings to help stay in context
Makes it more concrete having VoCs and TRs to work with		Mix up the groups
Having a different experience in the team		
Learning		
Group work		
Variety of opinions		
Reflecting/unpacking		
Meeting new people		
Nice environment		
Group mix		
Broadening of perspectives		

Table 5-2: PIHoQ assessment – Council E (PAR 1)

Positives	Negatives	Improvements
Started the conversation	Government technical language or terminology	More bite-sized activities
Thought provoking	Not sure of pathway	More description and explanation
Interactive	Long session	Introduce participants to start
See possibilities	Heavy content "mammoth"	Use a more open method to collect data
Good sized group and sub groups	Cognitive functions / load is heavy	Less structured so more "organic" and art-oriented
Opportunity to interact	Homework!	Make sessions shorter
Outside the box thinking	Matrix/grids hard to read - headache	Enlarge matrix - not sure how
Developing process that allowed quite complicated ideas to be understood	Session too long - 2 hours	Use larger documents and excel spreadsheets for the House of Quality
Community participation, a mix of staff and volunteer community, good team work	Terminology a bit obscure for the community members	More explanation and definition around the terminology particularly for people out of the workforce
Good leader	A lot to take in, in a short session	More food
Good way to discuss topics	Incy wincy writing on your documents	
Clear instructions and presentation gave a clear understanding of what we had to do	Fast pace - would have liked more time to reflect outside the matrix i.e. what was missing, rewording	
Collecting ideas		
A new way and opportunity to view and analyse what we do and how we do it		
Working in teams		
Interesting		
Interactive and participatory		
The conversations with my colleagues at the table		
Enjoyed reflecting on cultural precinct quality measurements and how to achieve them		
Enjoyed hearing other's perspectives and collaboration		

Table 5-3: PIHoQ assessment – Council C (PAR 4)

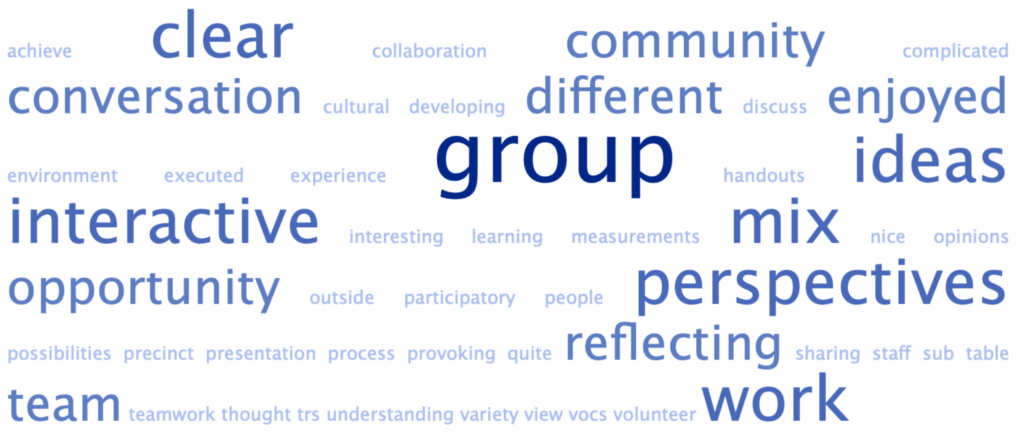


Figure 5-15: Positive assessment of PIHoQ development process

Learning through practice is not uncommon in the local government setting (Schulz and Allen 2013). Both PAR groups perceived the value of the sessions as a learning experience, the participative nature of the PAR sessions and the opportunity for "outside the box thinking" (Council C, PAR 4 participant assessment), expressed again by external stakeholders in reflection surveys, for example, "Learnt a little more about management" (C19, Council E, PAR 1 reflection survey). From an internal stakeholder perspective the sessions provided opportunities to review options that had not occurred to them before, "Creating clear meanings is a challenge. Liked the collaboration as it revealed items although important to me, I had not expressed" (M17, Council E, PAR 1 reflection survey). This view from the PAR participants supports the notion from Adiano and Roth (1994), that the sensitisation of PAR participants to the VoC, which was supported in this action research with the plan, act, observe and reflect cycles of the PAR, does in fact lead to innovation, as in this case where they recognised and reflected on this new way of thinking about CPs.

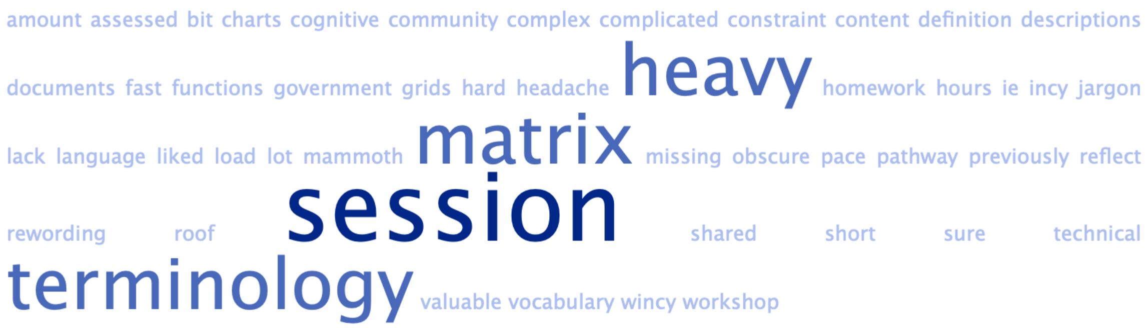


Figure 5-16: Negative assessment of PIHoQ development process

The primary areas of concern (See "negative" columns in Table 5-2 and Table 5-3, and Figure 5-16) for PAR participants was in the terminology or "government technical language" and the complexity of the PIHoQ framework, particularly the relationship matrices. The session (PARs 1 and 4) was "heavy" going for the PAR participants. When these results were presented to the PAR participants, they expressed "how overwhelming" the session felt, learning new concepts, finding the relationships between the PIHoQ and their own views on CPs. Though, these views were more prevalent in the external stakeholder demographic. The asymmetry of knowledge (Byrnes and Dollery 2002), explored in some detail in Chapter 2, was evident in the external stakeholder group. However, the fact that all PAR participants saw the value in multiple perspectives and acknowledged the PAR sessions are good learning experiences, demonstrates that the utilisation of PAR in the development of the PIHoQ was working to diminish the impact (Whitford 2008) of asymmetric information. This view is also supported by another study that found participants learnt and acted as a result of the PAR reflection (Fletcher et al. 2015).

The PAR participants determined the following key improvements (See Figure 5-17). Firstly, due to the complexity of the PIHoQ and the asymmetric knowledge of the group, they suggested a summarised VoC, numbered, with a simple heading and then a longer descriptor of the VoC was needed. For example, they created the following from a VoC: (VoC number) *2.* (VoC summary) *Knowledgeable staff –* (Full VoC) *There are sufficient, friendly, helpful and knowledgeable staff easily accessible who can direct me to the right place or refer me to a specialist.* This process, the PAR participants felt, would improve understanding of each VoC and make it easier to find each VoC in the dense PIHoQ tool. This adaption supported participants impacted by variable levels of pre-existing knowledge. Secondly, in PARs 1 and 4, they expressed a need for a "more open method to collect data" and "less structured so more organic and art-oriented" data collection methods. When this item was unpacked, at least one participant, was concerned about the utilisation of QFD to develop a framework for PI deployment in CPs. She was concerned that the data capture process was "highly quantitative" and lacked qualitative measures. The systematic approach taken in this study, utilising a range of qualitative and quantitative methods as detailed in Chapter 3, was not appreciated by participant C26. C26 strongly associated qualitative methods with research on cultural issues. However, the full methodology was described to the concerned person and she was satisfied that the full methodological approach, including the next two PAR sessions, would address her concerns. Other issues such as refining the VoCs, mixing up the groups and catering were resolved in preceding PAR sessions. For example, the PAR participants determined that for group work, no more than 3 people per group was optimal to allow for discussion and debate.

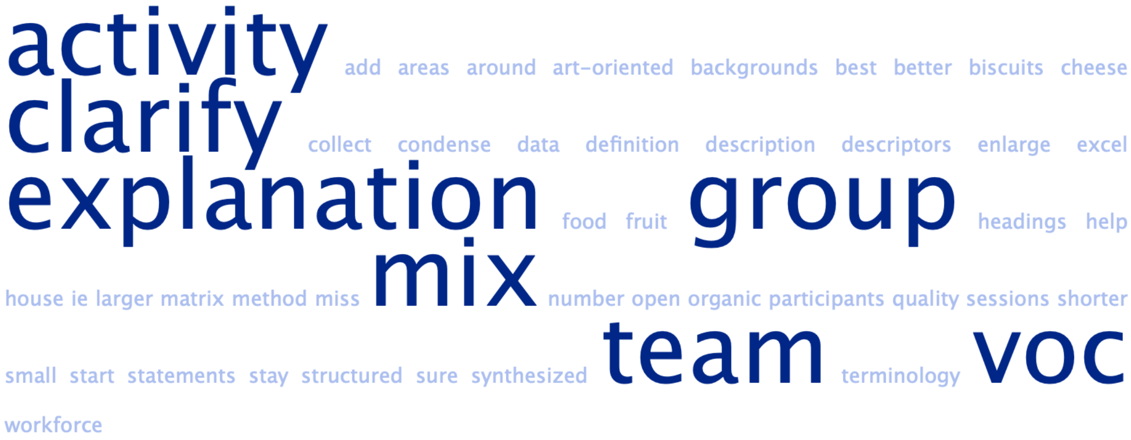


Figure 5-17: Improvements to PIHoQ development Council E (PAR 1) and Council C (PAR 4)

As participants in phase 5 continued to work with the data made available at each session to refine the PIHoQ, along the way they were asked to individually complete short surveys assessing their understanding of the QFD process and the capture of relevant CP data. They firstly undertook, in PARs 1 (Council E) and 4 (Council C), an overview of the QFD process. Following completion of this review they were asked to complete a short Likert scale reflection survey for the statement: “having heard about the research process, I feel the development of the framework and indicators sounds…”. The responses are represented in Figure 5-18 below, showing that the majority of PAR participants found the PIHoQ framework and indicator development “somewhat difficult” with 50% from Council E and 72.7% from Council C with supporting commentary, such as, “I anticipate I will need to really focus on the broad concept/approach and then translate into a practical sense” (M21, Council C, PAR 4 reflection survey). Comments from PAR participants, whilst expressing their concern about the perceived difficulty, also saw the value of the process, as evidenced in their comments: “But worth the effort” (C21, Council E, PAR 1 reflection survey), “Complex info for a simple solution” (C23, Council E, PAR 1 reflection survey), and “Easier to evaluate once we start - depends on the walk through” (M15, Council E, PAR 1 reflection survey). Though the underlying challenge to develop PIs that are relevant to CPs was acknowledged, “Relevant indicators are challenging to develop” (M17, Council E, PAR 1 reflection survey). The comments highlight the depth of data the PAR participants were being introduced to and suggested, in this early stage, that the concept of the PIHoQ was very new to all PAR participants and would take some time to fully comprehend.

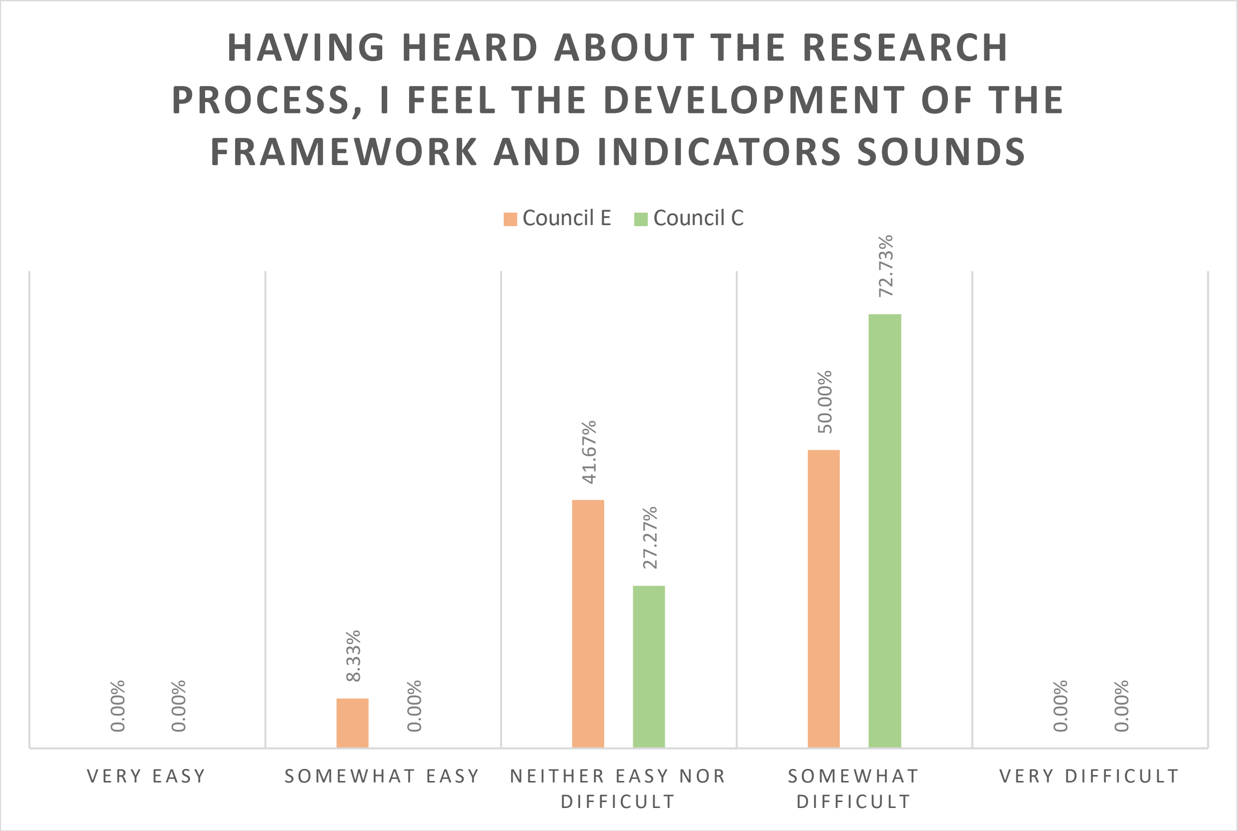


Figure 5-18: Post-QFD presentation survey – Council E (PAR 1) and Council C (PAR 4) reflection

Following the activities where the PAR participants workshopped the VoC and TRs, again, they completed a short Likert scale for the statement: "having created the VoC and TRs, I feel the development of the framework and indicators sounds…". Reflection from PAR participants pointed to a broadening understanding of CPs as a result of utilising the QFD approach, "Great to re-examine cultural precinct concept in this way, but difficult at times to reframe the way we view and think about cultural precincts" (M9, Council C, PAR 4 reflection survey). Indeed, participants in the research recognised the need for strong frameworks to support the business of culture, as explained by one interviewee:

> *"You've got, particularly at a senior level, someone who can think strategically but also act operationally. Someone who's not afraid to make decisions, someone who's a good communicator, can bring the team with them. You need a clear framework for planning, so that what you're trying to achieve is then documented either into an operations plan and business plan or implementation strategy that the staff. You know, communicate and share information effectively with staff. Sit down and do frequent reviews so you can establish where you're at, where the gaps are, where things are on track or off track"* (M6, Council B, interviewee transcript).

PAR participants were concerned with the complexity of the framework and how it supported the delivery of PIs, as exampled by “I think although it is possible to develop a framework for indicators there will be so many interrelated factors that rely on interpretation variances that it being a one-size-fits-all framework will be very difficult” (M24, Council C, PAR 4 reflection survey), “I think delivering the outcome of the framework that is both comprehensive and succinct will be a challenge” (M16, Council E, PAR 1 reflection survey), “the framework doesn't provide detail - a lot of topics could reflect any number of outcomes” (M25, Council C, PAR 4 reflection survey) and “the challenge will be to develop easy-to-input qualitative measures” (M16, Council E, PAR 1 reflection survey). Certainly, there was concern that the PIHoQ would not deliver on the aforementioned CP PIs, as evidenced by “Need to keep focused on the context in which PARs are being developed to stay on track” (M14, Council E, PAR 1 reflection survey) while others were worried about the validity of the data, particularly the VoC, “I'm not convinced that some vital ingredients of a cultural precinct are captured in the VoC, i.e. diversity of offerings and access/customers; and creative/experimental/innovative space” (M22, Council C, PAR 4 reflection survey). Other PAR participants saw the value of the VoC but external stakeholders were not as interested in the TRs, “Like VoC better as it relates to my experiences but can see the TRs are essential to the process of having a cultural precinct” (C26, Council C, PAR 4 reflection survey). When asked to reflect on this statement at the next session, the external stakeholders indicated that they found the discussion around the TRs useful while the internal stakeholders valued their input on the TRs and expressed that the external stakeholders questioned aspects that the internal stakeholders took for granted.

Learning of the PIHoQ process continued to come up in this survey with PAR participants reflecting on the step-by-step learning of the PIHoQ process throughout each PAR cycle, “Stepping through the process I appreciate/understand that it will be explained to me at every step and therefore I just need to surrender to the process rather than needing to understand from the beginning” (M21, Council C, PAR 4 reflection survey). The utilisation of local government terminology was an issue for external stakeholders, “Some of the terms weren't immediately apparent about their meaning or context” (C27, Council C, PAR 4 reflection survey) and “Too much local government speak!” (C26, Council C, PAR 4 reflection survey). From the internal stakeholder perspective there was concern that the terminology was not framed adequately to ensure comprehension and minimise duplication across VoCs or TRs, “Some items use terminology that is not clear. Too much room for crossover. Council language and terms difficult to understand at times” (M23, Council C, PAR 4 reflection survey). Terminology and confusion over terms was a source of frustration particularly for external stakeholders and suggests that the asymmetry of information between staff, elected members and community's discussion, is more broadly, an issue in local government.

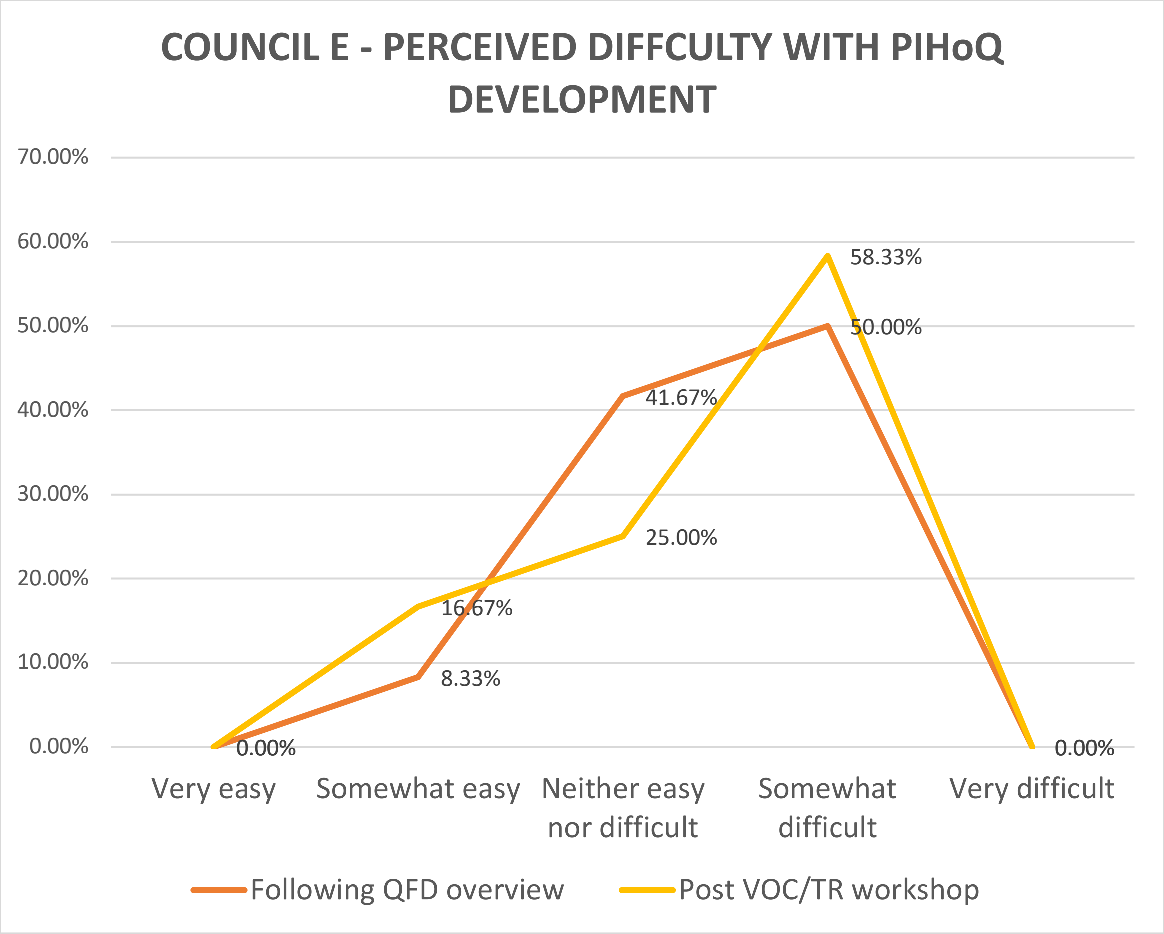


Figure 5-19: Perceived difficulty with PIHoQ development - Council E (PAR 1)

As a result of the workshop on the VoC and TRs there was very little change in the perceived difficulty of the PIHoQ and PI development in Council E, as shown in Figure 5-19. However, a more dramatic shift was visible at Council C, see Figure 5-20, where the number of PAR participants who found the development process difficult, reduced from 73% (somewhat difficult) to 36% (very difficult or somewhat difficult) following the workshop session on the VoC and TRs. This difference between Council E and C is, in part, due to the presenter spending a greater amount of time detailing the QFD process, the PIHoQ development and the PI creation throughout the PAR 4-6 cycles (in Council C), based on the action, observation and reflection undertaken previously during the PAR 1-3 cycles (in Council E). Similarly, greater time was spent in PAR 4-6 on participants undertaking their own action, observation and reflection on the PIHoQ development.

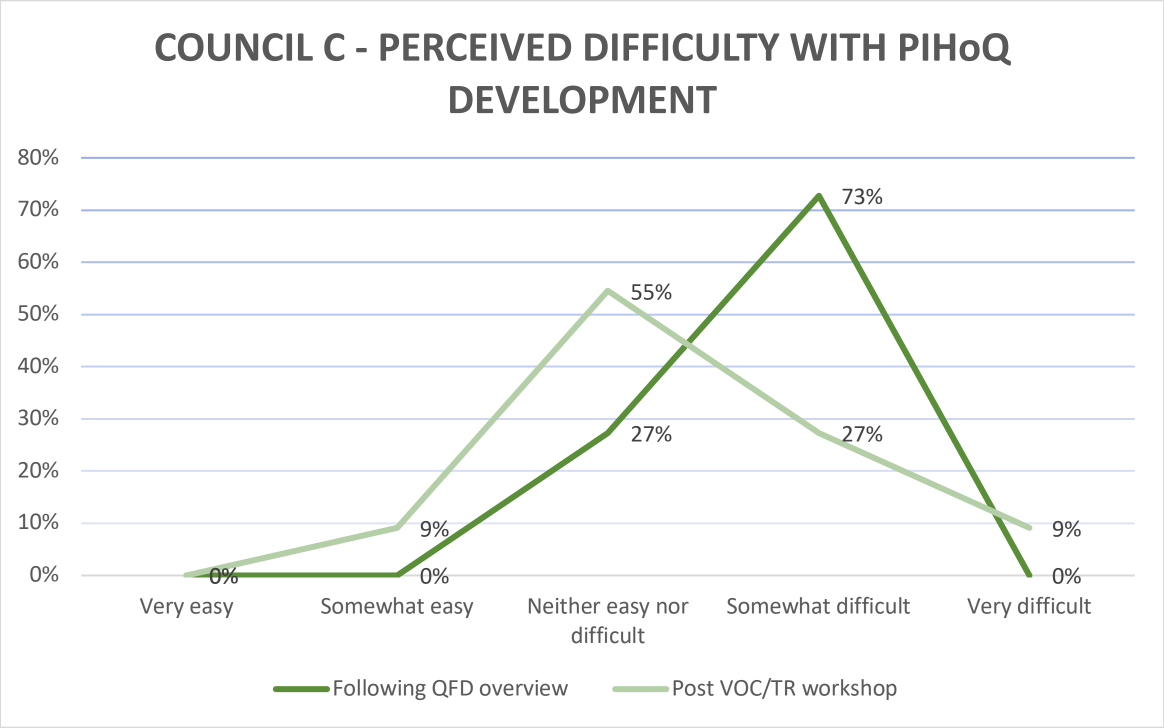
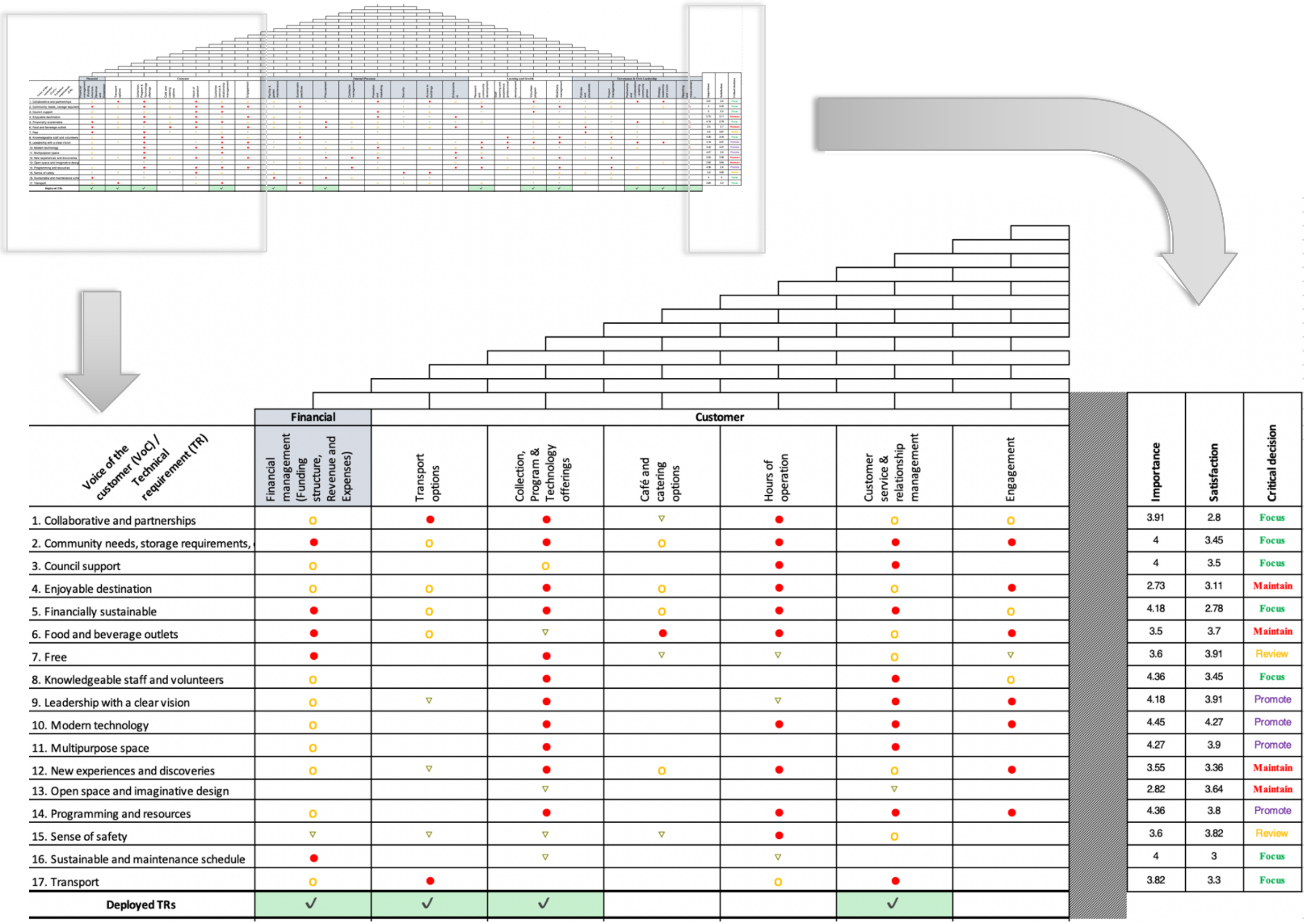


Figure 5-20: Perceived difficulty with PIHoQ development - Council C (PAR 4)

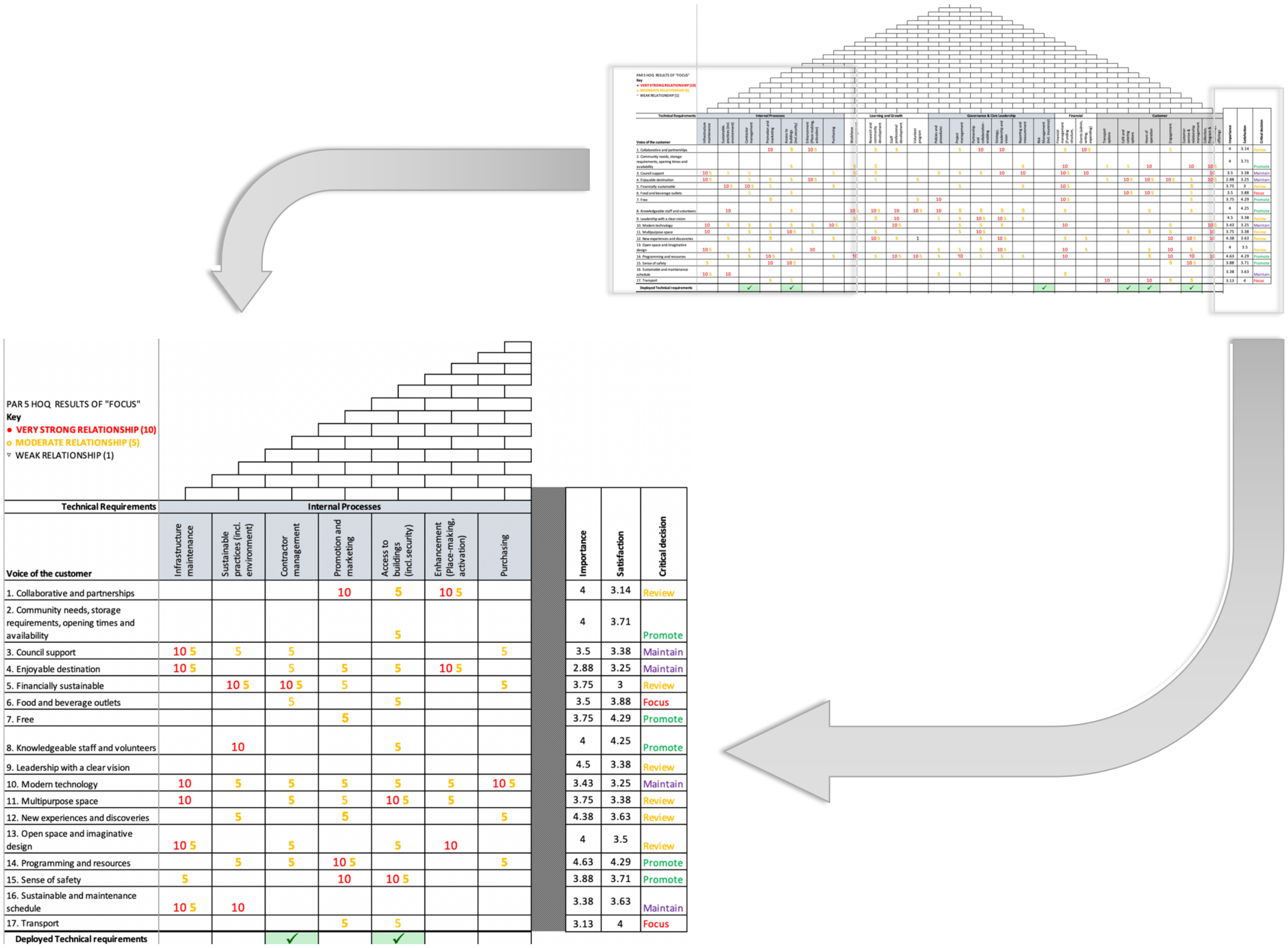
There were occasions where the external stakeholders had difficulty with some of the online tools. For example, during the importance and satisfaction rankings by the external focus group participants, there were 3 participants who abandoned the survey (started it and then quit the survey). When asked if there was any difficulty with the tool, one participant said it was "too time consuming" (C7, Council A, focus group survey results) whilst another said they found the use of the tool difficult and assented to using the hardcopy ranking form (C17, Council D, focus group survey results). The average completion time for the ranking was 5.02 minutes with a lowest observable time of 2.98 and the highest being 17.25.

In PARs 2 and 5, PAR participants reviewed the VoCs, TRs and relationship matrices. They also considered the results of the importance and satisfaction rankings, developed the critical decision ranking, deployable TRs and the related PIs. The PIHoQ for PARs 2 and 5 are shown below in Figures 5-21, 5-22 and 5-23. Both Council E and C chose to leave the PIs off the PIHoQ, at this stage. They felt that having the indicators on the house whilst selecting deployable TRs impacted their decision. They wished to add the indicators, following the selection of deployable TRs. Key elements of change between PAR 2 and PAR 5 were the slight renaming of the VoC titles and relocation of the financial and customer categories to the end of the PIHoQ, as detailed in Section 5.2.3. The PAR 5 participants chose to have a "glossary" table of VoC attributes, see Table 5-4, to be attached to the PIHoQ in order to address their concerns over terminology and alternate meanings. Council C participants were unable to decide by the end of PAR 5 if the visual utilisation of numbers (**10**, **5**, 1) or symbols with different colours (●, ○, ▽) was easier to read in the relationship matrices, as such, they elected to create two HoQs to test the difference. Council C, by the end of PAR 6, ultimately concluded that the key was purely personal preference with an approximately 50:50 split on the preferred option. Council C rarely used the "weak relationship" and questioned its usefulness in the PIHoQ. The changes made to the PIHoQ, through the iterative process of PAR demonstrated the adaptability of both the framework and the process to respond to local conditions.



Voice of the customer (VoC) / Technical requirement (TR)	Financial	Customer								
	Financial management (Funding structure, Revenue and Expenses)	Transport options	Collection, Program & Technology offerings	Café and catering options	Hours of operation	Customer service & relationship management	Engagement	Importance	Satisfaction	Critical decision
1. Collaborative and partnerships	○	●	●	▽	●	○	○	3.91	2.8	Focus
2. Community needs, storage requirements,	●	○	●	○	●	●	●	4	3.45	Focus
3. Council support	○		○		●	●		4	3.5	Focus
4. Enjoyable destination	○	○	●	○	●	○	●	2.73	3.11	Maintain
5. Financially sustainable	●	○	●	○	●	●	○	4.18	2.78	Focus
6. Food and beverage outlets	●	○	▽	●	●	○	●	3.5	3.7	Maintain
7. Free	●		●	▽	▽	○	▽	3.6	3.91	Review
8. Knowledgeable staff and volunteers	○		●			●	○	4.36	3.45	Focus
9. Leadership with a clear vision	○	▽	●		▽	●	●	4.18	3.91	Promote
10. Modern technology	○		●		●	●	●	4.45	4.27	Promote
11. Multipurpose space	○		●			●		4.27	3.9	Promote
12. New experiences and discoveries	○	▽	●	○	●	○	●	3.55	3.36	Maintain
13. Open space and imaginative design			▽			▽		2.82	3.64	Maintain
14. Programming and resources	○		●		●	●	●	4.36	3.8	Promote
15. Sense of safety	▽	▽	▽	▽	●	○		3.6	3.82	Review
16. Sustainable and maintenance schedule	●		▽		▽			4	3	Focus
17. Transport	○	●			○	●		3.82	3.3	Focus
Deployed TRs	✓	✓	✓			✓				

Figure 5-21: PIHoQ with scoring - Council E (PAR 2)



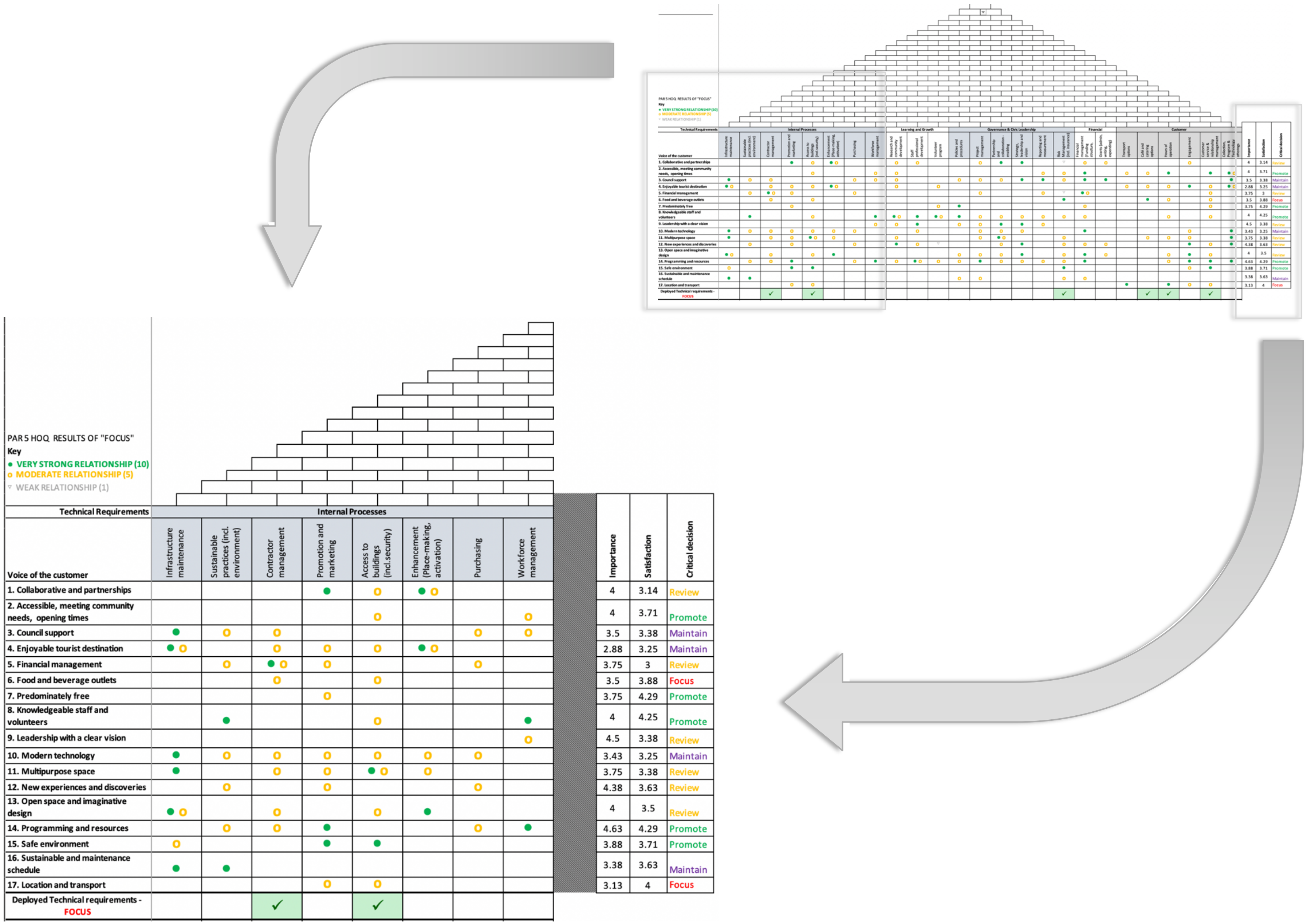
PAR 5 HOQ RESULTS OF "FOCUS"

Key

- ● VERY STRONG RELATIONSHIP (10)
- o MODERATE RELATIONSHIP (5)
- ▿ WEAK RELATIONSHIP (1)

Technical Requirements	Internal Processes									
Voice of the customer	Infrastructure maintenance	Sustainable practices (incl. environment)	Contractor management	Promotion and marketing	Access to buildings (incl.security)	Enhancement (Place-making, activation)	Purchasing	Importance	Satisfaction	Critical decision
1. Collaborative and partnerships				10	5	10 5		4	3.14	Review
2. Community needs, storage requirements, opening times and availability					5			4	3.71	Promote
3. Council support	10 5	5	5				5	3.5	3.38	Maintain
4. Enjoyable destination	10 5		5	5	5	10 5		2.88	3.25	Maintain
5. Financially sustainable		10 5	10 5	5			5	3.75	3	Review
6. Food and beverage outlets			5		5			3.5	3.88	Focus
7. Free				5				3.75	4.29	Promote
8. Knowledgeable staff and volunteers		10			5			4	4.25	Promote
9. Leadership with a clear vision								4.5	3.38	Review
10. Modern technology	10	5	5	5	5	5	10 5	3.43	3.25	Maintain
11. Multipurpose space	10		5	5	10 5	5		3.75	3.38	Review
12. New experiences and discoveries		5		5			5	4.38	3.63	Review
13. Open space and imaginative design	10 5		5		5	10		4	3.5	Review
14. Programming and resources		5	5	10 5			5	4.63	4.29	Promote
15. Sense of safety	5			10	10 5			3.88	3.71	Promote
16. Sustainable and maintenance schedule	10 5	10						3.38	3.63	Maintain
17. Transport				5	5			3.13	4	Focus
Deployed Technical requirements			✓		✓					

Figure 5-22: PIHoQ version 1 with scoring – Council C (PAR 5)



PAR 5 HOQ RESULTS OF "FOCUS"
Key
● VERY STRONG RELATIONSHIP (10)
O MODERATE RELATIONSHIP (5)
▿ WEAK RELATIONSHIP (1)

Technical Requirements	Internal Processes										
Voice of the customer	Infrastructure maintenance	Sustainable practices (incl. environment)	Contractor management	Promotion and marketing	Access to buildings (incl.security)	Enhancement (Place-making, activation)	Purchasing	Workforce management	Importance	Satisfaction	Critical decision
1. Collaborative and partnerships				●	O	● O			4	3.14	Review
2. Accessible, meeting community needs, opening times					O			O	4	3.71	Promote
3. Council support	●	O	O				O	O	3.5	3.38	Maintain
4. Enjoyable tourist destination	● O		O	O	O	● O			2.88	3.25	Maintain
5. Financial management		O	● O	O			O		3.75	3	Review
6. Food and beverage outlets			O		O				3.5	3.88	Focus
7. Predominately free				O					3.75	4.29	Promote
8. Knowledgeable staff and volunteers		●			O			●	4	4.25	Promote
9. Leadership with a clear vision								O	4.5	3.38	Review
10. Modern technology	●	O	O	O	O	O	O		3.43	3.25	Maintain
11. Multipurpose space	●		O	O	● O	O			3.75	3.38	Review
12. New experiences and discoveries		O		O			O		4.38	3.63	Review
13. Open space and imaginative design	● O		O		O	●			4	3.5	Review
14. Programming and resources		O	O	●			O	●	4.63	4.29	Promote
15. Safe environment	O			●	●				3.88	3.71	Promote
16. Sustainable and maintenance schedule	●	●							3.38	3.63	Maintain
17. Location and transport				O	O				3.13	4	Focus
Deployed Technical requirements - FOCUS			✓		✓						

Figure 5-23: PIHoQ version 2 with symbols – Council C (PAR 5)

VoC headings	PAR 5 Voice of the Customer Attributes
1. Collaborative and partnerships	Organically and strategically developed collaborative and partnership opportunities are made available for groups to interact with one another
2. Accessible, meeting community needs, opening times	Accessible facility, services and activities, available to meet community needs, opening times and availability
3. Council support	Council supports volunteer groups in the provision of services
4. Enjoyable tourist destination	The cultural precinct is an enjoyable, fun “destination” that encourages visitation for longer stays
5. Financial management	The cultural precinct is financially managed to a level acceptable to rate payers
6. Food and beverage outlets	Food and beverage outlets such as a coffee shop and similar pop-ups are accessible
7. Predominately free	Basic services such as community spaces, museum, library and gallery are predominately free admission
8. Knowledgeable staff and volunteers	There are sufficient, friendly, helpful and knowledgeable staff and volunteers providing a warm and welcoming service
9. Leadership with a clear vision	The organisation shows leadership in the development and operation of the cultural precinct with strong community participation and involvement and a clear vision and common purpose for the precinct
10. Modern technology	Modern technology including the internet is available
11. Multipurpose space	A flexible, multi-purpose space that can be adapted for a variety of uses and mix of businesses
12. New experiences and discoveries	Visitors participate in new experiences and discoveries such as thought-provoking experiences and diverse and interesting programming
13. Open space and imaginative design	There is open space that is connected to the environment with an imaginative and inspiring design that encourages exploration
14. Programming and resources	Programming and resources are of a high-quality, age-appropriate and meet the needs of diverse demographics
15. Safe environment	Users of the cultural precinct feel a sense of safety
16. Sustainable and maintenance schedule	A preventative, sustainable and ongoing maintenance schedule is in place to effectively manage infrastructure and assets
17. Location and transport	The precinct is centrally located and accessible from a range of transport options

Table 5-4: Glossary of VoC attributes – Council C (PAR 5)

Following this work, the PAR participants were asked in their reflection survey about the ease with which they developed each element of the PIHoQ. Council E (PAR 2) results, shown in Figure 5-24, point to the creation of the VoCs (100% very easy, somewhat easy or neither easy nor hard) and the critical decision (100%) as the easiest to develop in the PIHoQ process. In Council C (PAR 5), see Figure 5-25, the results were somewhat different with the VoCs, TRs and relationship matrices all scoring 100% on level of ease (very easy to neither easy nor hard).

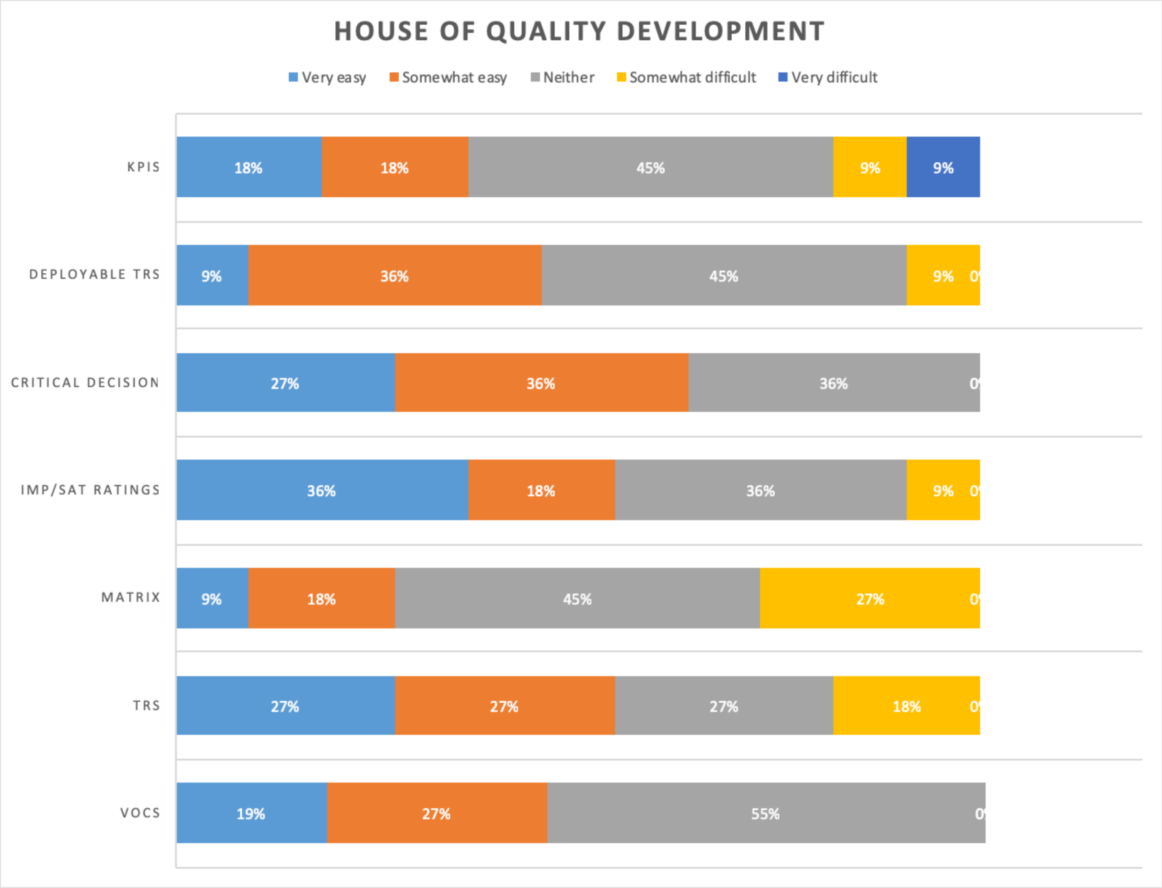


Figure 5-24: PIHoQ process - ease of use – Council E (PAR 2)

Council E (PAR 2) participants found the identification of the deployable TRs and the importance/satisfaction ratings were somewhat difficult at 9% for each. The creation of the TRs were (18%) somewhat difficult, the relationship matrices were (27%) somewhat difficult and the development of the PIs (18%) were very or somewhat difficult). Whilst the Council C (PAR 5) participants found the TRs, importance/satisfaction ratings, critical decision and deployable TRs the most challenging at an equal 25% somewhat difficult. The marked difference between Councils E and C relates to the reduction of the extremes with no rating of very easy or very difficult by PAR 5. In other words, by PAR 5, the development of each step in the PIHoQ process was becoming easier; the ease of use was improving. This might be due to the researcher's growing knowledge and experience as she progressed through the PAR cycles, enabling her to address participant concerns as they arose, clarify issues and improve areas of the PIHoQ process that were difficult in prior PAR sessions – thus also reflecting the learning and adaptability of the researcher in the PAR processes.

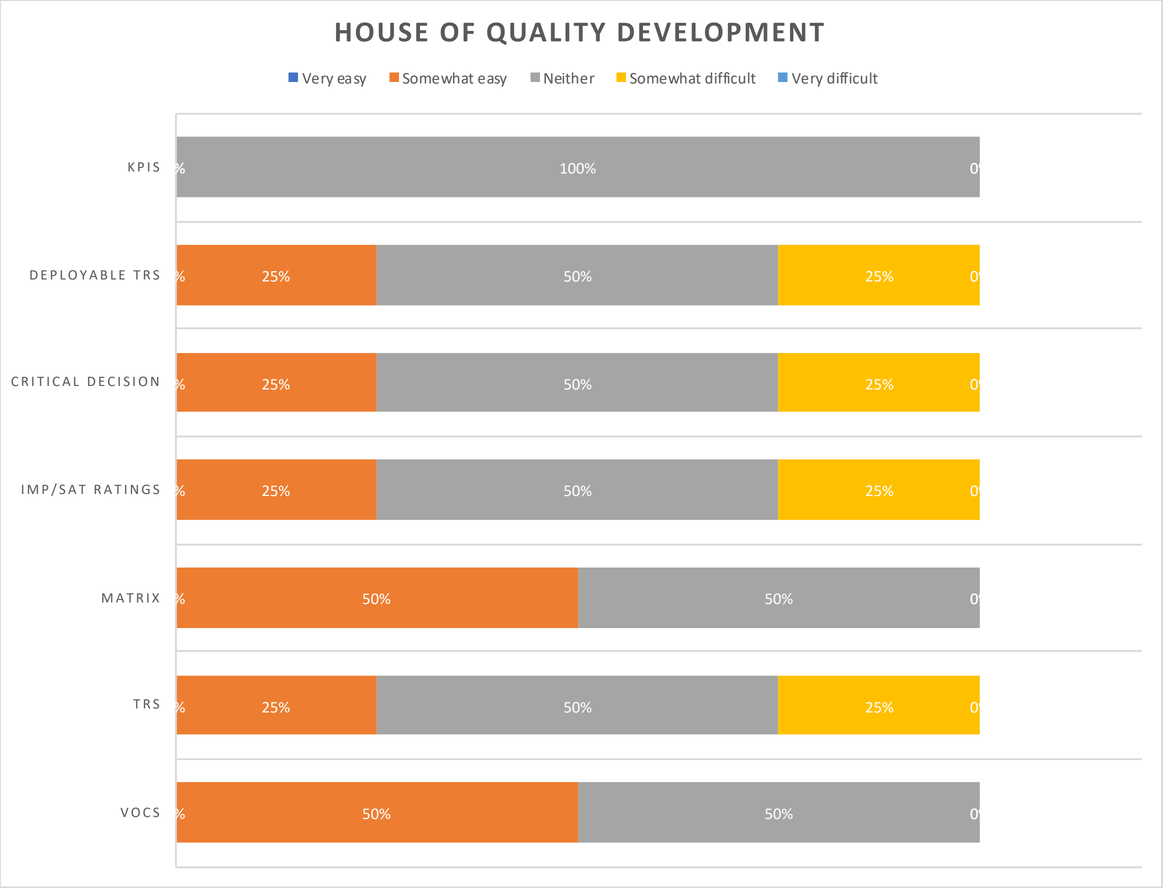


Figure 5-25: PIHoQ process - ease of use – Council C (PAR 5)

5.3.1.1. Voice of the customer

External community PAR participants continued to have some challenges with the terminology in the VoC as reflected in comments such as “A lot of the technical terms are more appropriate for Council. For a lay person I had to have some of them explained for me” (C25, Council E, PAR 2 reflective journal). The concern around the different interpretations placed on the VoCs was an ongoing issue and reflected in comments such as this “Challenge was the context and the different viewpoint that each person brought to what the VoC should be. Also a few duplicate items or things that could have been combined” (M16, Council E, PAR 2 reflective journal). This comment, and others similar to it, reflect the participant view that each CP may be different, and this context is important to keep in mind. There was also varying opinions on the amount of time spent on each section of the PAR and an appreciation that some PAR participants have varying availability to undertake the whole PIHoQ process, “I think it would be beneficial to have more time. The problem then is the amount of time and the range of people that would be happy to go through the process” (M24, Council C, PAR 5 reflective journal).

5.3.1.2. Technical requirements

Like the VoC, terminology of the TRs was a concern, “hard to remember the differences between VoC and technical requirement” (M23, Council C, PAR 5 reflective journal), particularly in PARs 1-3:

> *“Some areas seem to cross-over. Some elements were not clear at the time with people in my team seeing different meanings to the labels. Asking for clarification from Rebekah helped to alleviate this. A suggestion for improvement was partly the action we undertook to conflate categories thus with fewer labels a facilitator can then run through the label definitions. Again the lack of the project scoped i.e. are we talking one large cultural precinct housing many elements or different hubs in the city? This meant some labels may not be necessary or helpful depending on the context. It also meant each person's perspectives and conversations could not be aligned. Doing so would help with the issue of definitions and provide quality outcomes rather than abstract nebulous ones with conversations stuck in what the label meant”* (M15, Council E, PAR 2 reflective journal)

This commentary from participant M15, highlights the need to clearly define the CP to ensure the PIHoQ’s contextual relevance. The PAR participants were undertaking a review of either their current CP or undertaking the process for a potential new CP. While this was discussed in PAR 1 and 4, some PAR participants, perhaps overwhelmed by the amount of data being processed, did not recall the precinct they were assessing by PAR 2/5 and this caused issues in their assessments of each section of the PIHoQ.

All participants in the research, whether they be interviewees in phase 2 or PAR participants in phase 5 had a tendency to add to the TRs rather than refine and/or remove TRs. For example, it was only near the end of the PAR cycle, when PAR participants had completed the full PIHoQ did they begin to see the usefulness in limiting the TRs:

> *“I felt that some of the TRs were redundant or didn't really represent how the precinct would be managed / operated in a real environment. Other aspects that were seen as important by other members of the group I felt would be natural byproducts of some of the higher-level aspects, therefore*

> *there seemed to be a disparity between some of the TR's that were quite high level than others that were minute in detail"* (M16, Council E, PAR 2 reflective journal).

The evidence suggests that PAR participants, having completed the full PIHoQ and supported by the PAR process, should then revisit the established VoCs, TRs etc. and refine them with this new, and more complete knowledge of the PIHoQ.

5.3.1.3. Relationship matrices

The creation of the relationship matrices caused the most concern to all PAR participants, as outlined above in Section 5.3.1. PAR participants were observed using a ruler to try to manage the assignation of relationships across the matrix, particularly in Council C, PAR 5. PAR participants commented that the process of mapping relationships between TRs and VoC/TRs was "exhausting" (Council E, PAR 3 group discussion). The large number of TRs proved difficult to manage when assessing the roof of the PIHoQ and the VoC/TR relationships, "Number of items on each axis and resulting size of the matrix was difficult to read and work with. Could be broken up into sections (main headings) TRs could be combined. It would be easier to work with on a screen" (E8, Council E, PAR 2 reflective journal). This difficulty faced by participants may, to some small extent, result in a failure to comprehensively assimilate the information supplied within the matrices (Iqbal et al. 2016), as a component of the QFD process. However, the roof matrix is regarded by some researchers as an optional element of the traditional HoQ (Iqbal et al. 2016). A number of participants concurred with that view, stating that the roof matrix demonstrated little benefit in the overall PIHoQ.

There was a suggestion of undertaking the relationship matrices individually and showing them separately, "Mainly due to formatting. It's challenging to read when trying to include the House with the table below. Better to separate the two" (M16, Council E, PAR 2 reflective journal), however this perspective failed to take into account the importance of the PIHoQ as a communication tool where the visual results are shown in a single diagram. The PAR participants considered that the most important relationships were between the VoCs and the customer-related TRs (Council E, PAR 3 group discussion). The variances to the PIHoQ that were discussed and included or discarded by participants throughout the PAR cycles points to the adaptability of the framework.

5.3.1.4. Prioritisation of importance and satisfaction ratings

To determine VoC priorities, PAR participants were asked to rate the level of importance for each VoC and discuss the process for the development of the ratings. They were asked to provide no more than three VoCs as a top priority, another 3 as the next highest priority and so on. This was on the basis that an organisation is unable to treat all aspects of the business as high priorities due to resource limitations. In the phase 2 semi-structured interview process, internal stakeholders were asked to rate the importance of the VoCs. As expected, they scored almost 100% of all created VoCs as a high priority and only a few as a medium priority. The forced prioritisation process in phase 5 endeavoured to resolve that tendency. Whilst the majority of the PAR participants completed the task as requested, many found it challenging, "Need a clearer gauge, having only 3 measures [as highest importance] was too limiting" (M16, Council E, PAR 2 reflective journal), "needed more…very important and important attributes" (C28, Council C, PAR 4 reflective journal), "very hard not to describe all these as VERY important" (C26, Council C, PAR 4 reflective journal).

There has been academic concern that potential bias might apply to the importance/satisfaction ratings which might be overcome through the use of "experts" rather than external stakeholders (Azzopardi and Nash 2013). While no evidence in this regard was evident, some internal stakeholders were concerned that the results would be used to further a particular agenda: "I am slightly uncomfortable answering the question relating to financial sustainability as it could be interrupted as cultural precincts needing to generate enough income to support themselves. I do not believe that to be the case and I am uncomfortable answering a question in which the data could be used to reinforce that argument" (M24, Council C, PAR 4 reflective journal). When the results of the importance and satisfaction ratings, shown in the 2nd and 3rd last columns of Figures 5-21, 5-22 and 5-23, were shown to the PAR participants, the majority agreed that the results reflected their understanding of the group discussion, "The group on the whole agreed but did have a couple of conflicting opinions" (M23, Council C, PAR 5 reflective journal). This finding was interesting given the academic discussion around potential bias and internal/external stakeholder participation in the rating process. It suggests that the dual use of internal/external stakeholders in the rating process increased the confidence of the PAR participants that the results were relevant and accurate.

It was noted that satisfaction and importance ratings would change over time. PAR participants stressed the need for multiple reviews of the PIHoQ to ensure the critical decision areas remain valid, the deployable TRs are reflective of current stakeholder needs so that the organisation measures and monitors the right areas for appropriate VoCs and improvements (Council E, PAR 3 group discussion).

5.3.1.5. Critical decision and deployable TRs

It was noted in Section 5.2.4 that participants had challenges converting the importance-satisfaction results into critical decisions. To assist the PAR participants' in understanding the critical decision section of the PIHoQ, they were introduced to their importance/satisfaction results as a quadrant graph. See Section 3.3.6.6 for details of this process. The PAR participants, therefore, had two views of their data in the form of the quadrant graph (See Figure 5-26 and Figure 5-27) and the PIHoQ tool as shown previously in Figures 5-21 to 5-23. The quadrant graph was well-received by PAR participants as they found the details of each section of the critical decision process hard to retain, "This is a complex framework that I think will be useful. I understood things reasonably well in the session but a week away and I'm getting lost in the terminology" (M9, Council C, PAR 5 reflective journal). It was suggested that the labels (maintain, review, promote and focus) were explained in a key next to the quadrant graph (Council E, PAR 3 group discussion). Some PAR participants wanted to spend more time understanding and reviewing the critical decision and the quadrant graph, "I think reviewing the matrix (with the "bubbles") more slowly would have helped. I think it was a great tool to assist people honing-in on what would be worthwhile to spend time on" (M15, Council E, PAR 2 reflective journal).

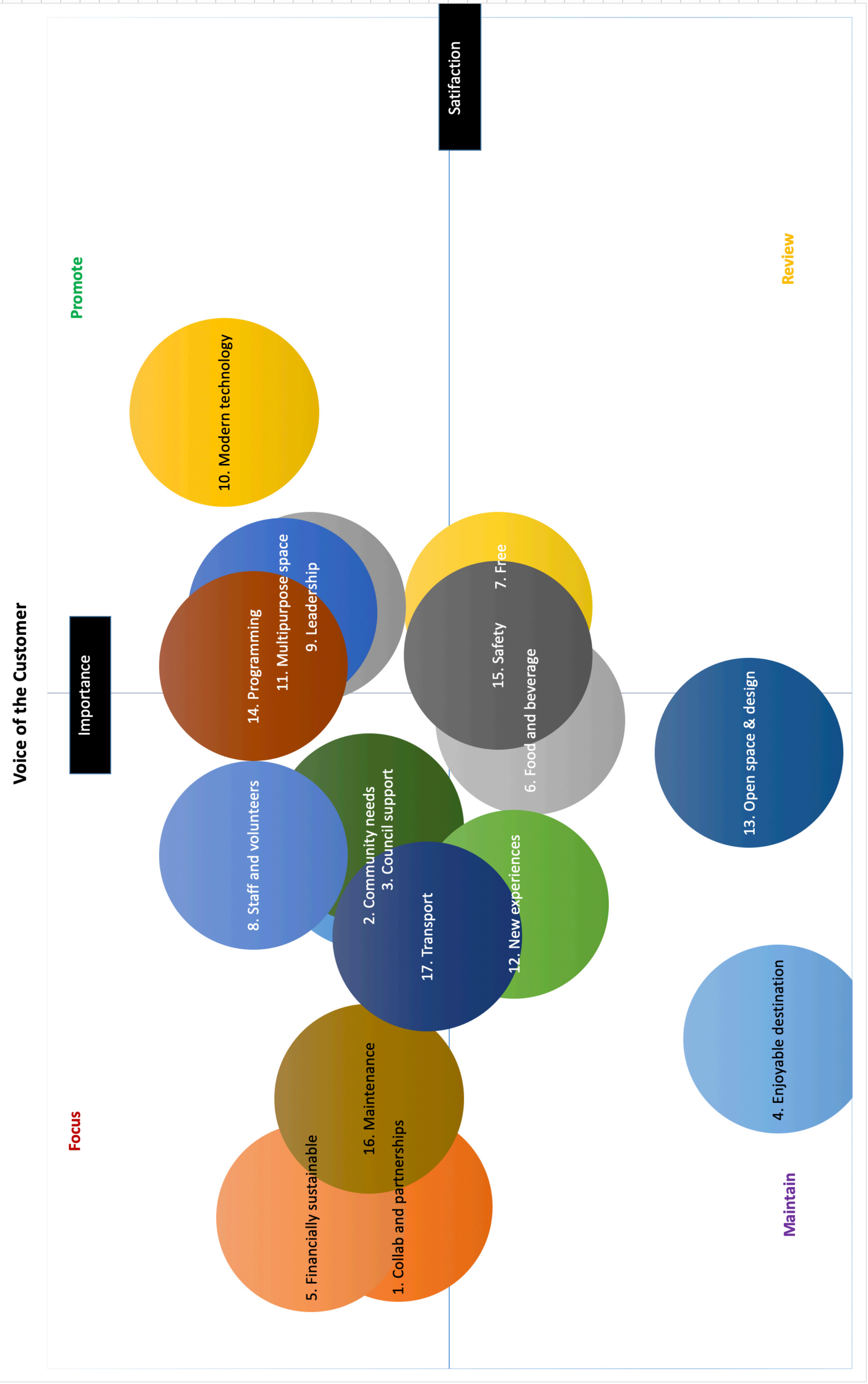


Figure 5-26: Critical decision quadrant graph in Council E (PAR 2)

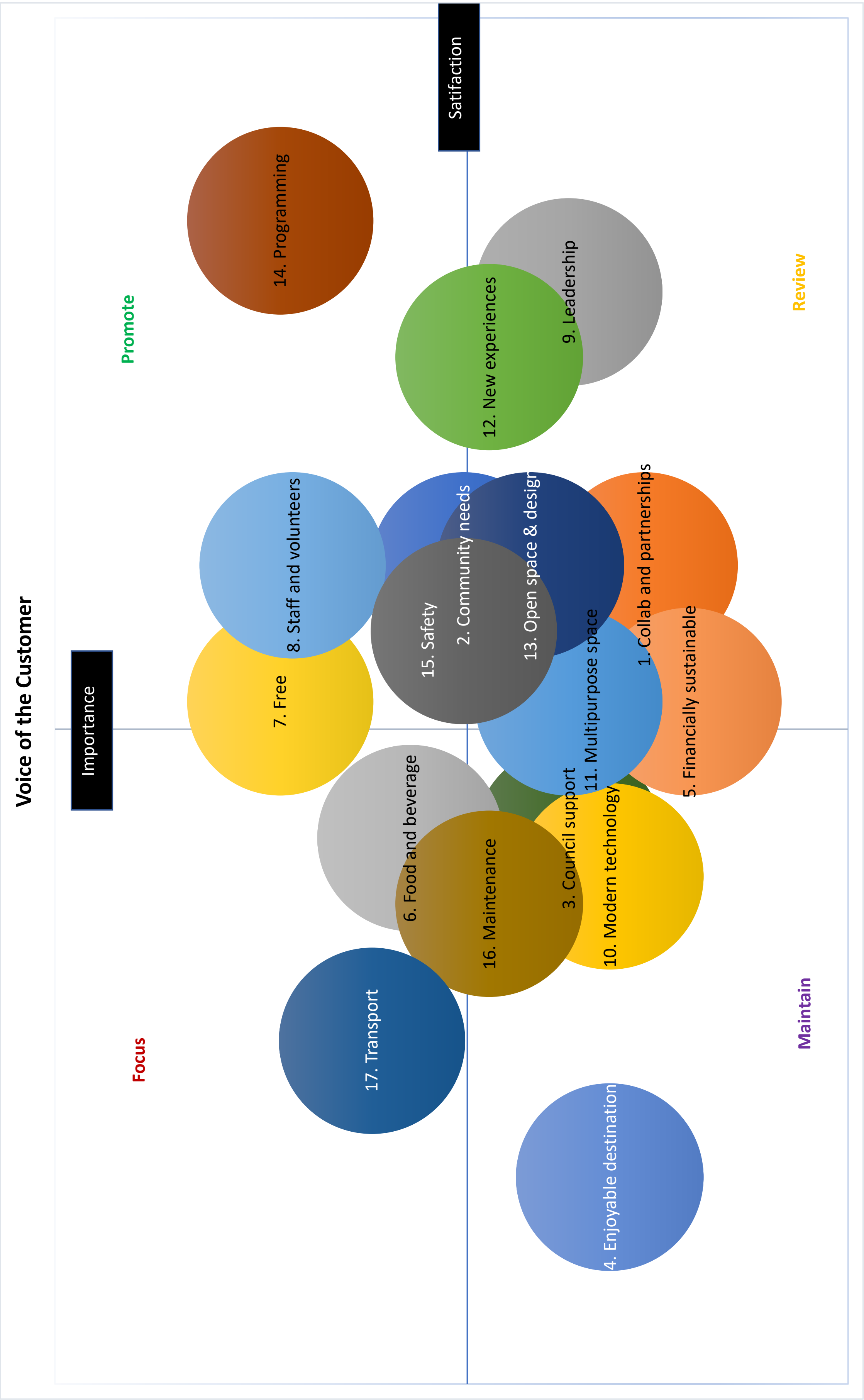


Figure 5-27: Critical decision quadrant graph in Council C (PAR 5)

Much like the critical decision, PAR participants tended to soundly understand the deployable TRs but retaining the various components of the PIHoQ process proved challenging. PAR participants indicated that, at times, they ignored the relationship between the VoC and TR and assigned a deployable TR from one's own experience or "gut reaction" (Council E, PAR 3 group discussion). They felt that this may be the result of assigning too many strong relationships between VoCs and TRs in the matrix, thereby rendering the matrices less relevant and useful. PAR participants suggested undertaking a validity check of the relationships prior to assigning deployable TRs to avoid this problem occurring.

5.3.2. PAR: Relevant and genuine stakeholder engagement

In Section 2.3.2, it was found that for TQM to be successful, a learning program must be in operation (Beer 2003). In consideration of the development phases of CPs in Section 2.4.3, it was found that a place-based learning environment could support performance improvement (Sinozic and Tödtling 2015). Whilst in Section 3.3.6 it was conjectured that PAR might be that learning program to engender genuine stakeholder engagement in the utilisation of a PI decision-making framework. In this current research it has been shown that the concept of learning is an important aspect in the creation of relevant PIs. Research participants agreed, for example, that "[staff] learning, community learning" (P2, Council B, interviewee transcript) was integral to the engagement process. Action research is similarly learning-focused, where the plan-act-observe-reflect mantra produces reflexivity between stakeholders and between contested meanings and knowledge-creation (Bartels and Wittmayer 2014). An executive member of staff elucidated his notion of learning as "sharing and swapping or observing" (E7, Council D, interviewee transcript). Engagement of external stakeholders was important to the internal stakeholders on all aspects of the CP development and performance measurement. Research has shown that external stakeholders are motivated and satisfied with engagement when asked to participate in an engagement program, at least in respect to place management (Zenker and Seigis 2012). Stakeholders noted the need for engagement "in a meaningful way…and that's something we've thought about too, in terms of environmental initiatives, and trying to build up environmental engagement, community engagement" (M8, Council A, interviewee transcript). In support of recent research (SeeLam and Wang 2014), this current study found that internal stakeholders recognise the need for engagement with community but failed to see the benefits of cooperative learning, co-production or collective involvement (Pimentel and Major 2016) until they experienced it directly through the PAR process. For example, a PAR participant wrote: "I think the PIs were better once we had training and started discussing them and their relevance to the TRs" (M23, Council C, homework results PAR 5). The participants recognised what researchers had previously conjectured; that stakeholder participation in the design of PIs would increase relevance and improve communication (Cepiku et al. 2017). Indeed, it was shown in Chapter 2 that the performance measurement system within the service industries was more successfully implemented when stakeholders participated in the performance measurement system development (Groen et al. 2012). Further, PAR participants indicated that a lack of training could be a barrier to the implementation of a framework and the development and selection of relevant PIs (See Section 5.3.3 for details); meaning that cooperative learning or co-production is most beneficial to a genuine engagement process. Rather than viewing PIs as "top-down" or "bottom-up" creations as argued by Olesson et al. (2012), based on current research, it is argued that PIs are co-produced between internal and external stakeholders – this being consistent with research by de Bruijn and van Helden (2006) who suggested that the co-creation of a performance measurement system would improve its effectiveness.

Given the VoC importance discussed in Section 4.3.4, and the need to engage both internal (commonly public administration staff and politicians) and external (customers) stakeholders (Schulz et al. 2018), an effective and genuine engagement process was required to deliver relevant VoCs for the PIHoQ. Indeed, identification of stakeholder groups and their segmentation, appraised in public value (Section 2.2.1) and stakeholder theory (Section 2.2.5), was found to be particularly important in public administrations where internal and external stakeholders may work in opposition to one another (Phillips 2003). The available QFD literature, analysed in Section 2.3.2, clearly recognised the integral role of the customer to drive the successful development of the HoQ (For example, Evans and Lindsay 2011) and warned that the "most difficult step of the process is to capture the essence of the customer's needs and expectations" (Evans and Lindsay 2011, p.591). Suggested processes for the data capture of the VoC included telephone surveys (Evans and Lindsay 2011) and focus groups (Evans and Lindsay 2011). Whilst works on TQM often discuss broad approaches to identify, segment and engage customers (Evans and Lindsay 2011), they are rarely directly referenced in conjunction with QFD and HoQ creation. Indeed, it was reported in Chapter 2, that a systematic process to elicit the internal and external VoC that gives due attention to the tangible and intangible character of CPs was not available in current academic literature.

Internal stakeholders understand the imperative to define their relevant stakeholders and understand these stakeholder needs, "With different, different groups that make up the community, you have to – you'd have to target it differently” (M8, Council A, interviewee transcript). They also comprehend the need to define their stakeholders for a particular project such as a CP development, “So it – to be a true art precinct is not to say “we’ve got a gallery on this corner and we’ve got a theatre on that corner and we’ve got a library on that corner”, to be a real arts precinct, as we started off talking about whether it’s an ethnic, or, precinct – you know, Italian, Greek, or Yugoslav, or whatever” (P6, Council D, interviewee transcript). Oftentimes, however, councils do not undertake the appropriate level of engagement and fail to fully understand their community needs as evidenced by “I think council should be really careful about what they build, why they build, what their needs are. They usually don’t do a needs analysis, they don’t do an audience profile, they don’t ask how many people are actually gonna use this facility” (P5, Council D, interviewee transcript). The over-representation of special interest groups in government decisions, discussed in Sections 3.3.4 and 3.3.6, was not raised by participants. However, it was noted in PARs 1 and 4 that external stakeholders who were volunteers in a number of cultural facilities argued passionately for the inclusion of a number of volunteer based VoCs. It was interesting to note that the dialogue with other participants, the post-PAR survey instrument and the reflection discussions at the next PAR session all resulted in fewer and more refined articulation of volunteer based VoCs. These results suggest that the PAR process enabled discussions between stakeholder groups that ultimately ensured over-representation in the PIHoQ results did not occur. Afterall, the negative impact on a council’s reputation and on limited resources, when they get the customer needs wrong, can be significant, as seen in Chapter 2 in the Port Macquarie-Hastings Council case study of the Glasshouse (For example, see Anonymous 2003a; Anonymous 2005c; Anonymous 2006; Creagh 2007; Grimm 2009; Sanna 2008; Willan 2008).

Obtaining the views of the community is not new to local government and was seen as an important component of delivering good outcomes for the community “It’s always interesting having a conversation with the community because – and I’ve always thought that some of the best ideas come from the bottom up. They don’t always come from the top pushed down” (P3, Council C, interviewee transcript). Particularly from the elected members, there was a view that staff may apply a top-down approach to service provision, “We need to encourage people to want to be in that space. So it means that … we shouldn’t be demanding the community…bow to our expectations” (P4, Council C, interviewee transcript). In the final PAR sessions 3 and 6, PAR participants reflected on and discussed the PIHoQ development process. They highlighted the value of having community members and staff work together to create the PIHoQ but some contention was evident. An internal stakeholder suggested that the process was an educative experience for community members. However, the external stakeholder responded with "I'm feeling very talked-down to right now. I don't think it is necessarily an education opportunity for the community but a chance for both staff and community to agree on what we want and how we get there" (C20, Council E, PAR 3 group discussion). The "top-down" approach is, perhaps, demonstrated in this aforementioned discussion. It demonstrates how external stakeholders might be intimidated by what is perceived to be the more knowledgeable position of the internal stakeholder or practitioner.

Staff were concerned that internal stakeholders may be less vocal and honest when the external stakeholders were in the same workshops, "Council staff might be more honest if the community are not in the room during the development of the HoQ" (M18, Council E, PAR 3 group discussion) but recognised that the mix of internal and external stakeholders allowed for greater debate, discussion and overt consensus (Council C, PAR 5 group discussion). This notion is supported within the academic literature, where PAR participants have been shown to work collaboratively to generate context, meaning and knowledge (Bartels and Wittmayer 2014). It is acknowledged that PAR participants, studied within the social constructionist framework, construct meaning reflexively (Allard-Poesi 2005). The issue that arose multiple times around the use of local government jargon (or the language of "experts") was raised and an internal stakeholder suggested that the "community can help by making sure the jargon is easy to understand and query things that aren't immediately understandable" (M14, Council E, PAR 3 group discussion). The researcher put to the group the idea that only the customers should develop the VoC so that the community did not feel like the staff were "manipulating the results" or creating a "top-down" VoC and only staff complete the TRs because this is their knowledge base or expertise. There was some discussion that there was a benefit in just having staff create the TRs (Council C, PAR 5 group discussion), however, ultimately the PAR participants felt that the benefits of combining the internal and external perspectives within the same PAR cycles outweighed the risks or challenges. The agreement between participants in this matter relates to the reflexivity of action research where the participants saw that the opportunity to debate and discuss lead to unambiguous consensus on meaning.

The utilisation of PAR cycles to inform the PIHoQ process had multiple benefits, outlined above in Figure 5-5, in supporting the development of the PIHoQ as well as allowing PAR participants to "think together", reflect on PIHoQ understanding and share knowledge (Pyrko et al. 2017, p.389). The adaptability of the PAR process was evident in the changes made by participants in different PAR sessions. For example, in PAR 4 Council C participants determined that the VoC was critical and more time was required to individually consider the attributes and refine them. While Council E participants chose to include more "sharing" activities throughout all PAR sessions where the whole group came together to discuss the results. It was postulated that internal and external stakeholders would not work in unison, having different agendas. Initially, as stakeholders entered the workshop on the first day, PAR 1 and PAR 4 respectively, staff sat together and community members sat together. Whilst they were friendly and talking to their internal/external counterparts, there was an observable physical separation between the two stakeholder groups. The researcher then asked all participants to move tables and ensure there was a mix of staff and community members on each table. This was greeted by some laughter and was undertaken without any further comment or concern. In subsequent PAR sessions, PAR participants were observed choosing to sit with other internal/externals without prompting, ensuring a mix of internal and external stakeholders on each table for each PAR session.

In PAR 1 and 4 the group work needed to be flexible to accommodate different dynamics. For instance, initially the groups were too big and were subsequently divided into smaller groups to allow greater group discussion. The selection of PAR participants, as outlined in Section 3.3.6.1, was deliberate and ensured a mix of internal and external stakeholders. This diversity of executive, managers, precinct users, special interest groups and visitors worked well with stakeholders indicating that such diversity is critical to the success of a CP, "Another important part of the process is to definitely involve the staff, all the players. So you've done your community consultation, but then if there's current facilities or potential, then they need the industry people [involved]" (M10, Council C, interviewee transcript). The inclusion of elected members (councillors) was also seen as a positive component of the stakeholder engagement process (Council C, PAR 5 group discussion). This distinction by PAR participants within the industry, demonstrates how internal stakeholders recognise differences between elected members, community and staff. The comments by internal stakeholders reflect the sometimes-contentious nature of staff and elected member's relationships and highlights the multiplicity of stakeholder voices. This finding supports previous studies which found that local government is not made up of singular or homogenous voices, rather, they are a mix of voices and ideas (Orr and Vince 2009). This was a significant finding in the current research and is considered in further detail here. The assumption that these voices are different is reflective of the politics/ administration dichotomy whereby the elected members control policy and the staff manage implementation (Stocker and Thompson-Fawcett 2014). However, Stocker and Thompson-Fawcett (2014) argue another theory is conceivable, that being the complementarity model. This model suggests that elected members who represent community views work in complement to staff who provide technical know-how. This model is supported by more recent studies

(Joensuu and Niiranen 2018) and demonstrates that stakeholders with different roles and views can work together to achieve outcomes. Given that these voices are multiplicitous but can work cooperatively, a process was sought whereby these voices, whether homogenous or not, are captured through genuine stakeholder engagement.

A senior executive within a council was concerned with just giving the community what they want, feeling that sometimes challenging the community is part of the CP role:

> *"That's a tricky one, because what I might think is a little different to maybe what the community thinks. And that's the challenge, I think, so there's tension in that. The first answer I will give you is whatever the community wants it to be. But then the second element is, I just think it has to be reflective, I just don't think it can be homogenous…This city could have a range of cultural precincts that reflect and engender that local community. So when you're talking about a CBD, it's really interesting 'cause who is the community? Is it the people that all reside in the city centre or is it the people that reside in the city or is it visitors to the city? So I think it's everyone"* (E7, Council D, interview transcript).

This view shares commonality with stakeholder theory (Miles 2012) and reminds academics and practitioners alike that there is oppositional or contested views between stakeholder groups, indeed, within the "community" which is also not one homogenous group (Prebble 2018), as seen in Chapter 2. It also highlights the contested space, in Aulich's (1999) reform heuristic, between what the external stakeholder wants (VoCs) and what the internal stakeholder provides (TRs). This tension was reiterated by a number of stakeholders including, for example, "We want to get the best outcome for our community, but sometimes that means not being, you know, taken for a ride" (M12, Council D, interviewee transcript) and "A lot of lobbying went on with the number of people that had been involved, previous directors and the night we had a public meeting, they all came down from the gallery, down through the city, with their drums beating and all their placards and banners and that sort of stuff. Because they were passionate about it" (P3, Council C, interviewee transcript). Acknowledgement of the vocal minorities and their potential skewed impact on service provision (Andrews 2014), as discussed in Chapter 2, is critical to ensure a balanced view of external stakeholder expectations. However, the internal stakeholders also saw the benefit of involving a diversity of stakeholders, evidenced by "Another important part of the process is to definitely involve the staff, all the players. So you've done your community consultation, but then if there's current facilities or potential, then they need the industry people [involved]" (M10, Council C, interviewee transcript) and "[council] worked with councillors, with council officers, with the community and out of that came that vision for new facilities in our cultural precinct" (M9, Council C, interviewee transcript). Bringing the two stakeholder groups together allowed for discussion on issues or areas that were important to particular PAR participants; issues such as challenging new experiences, nighttime economies and the perception of safety, for example, were all discussed at length by both Council E and C. These discussions allowed for the varying views to be aired and decisions on the VoC and other components to be made based on a broader understanding of both internal and external stakeholder views.

5.3.3. PICPA: Implementation barriers and alignment issues

The PIHoQ must deal with evolving TRs of facilities and services. For example, one elected member pondered that libraries "contain literature…whether they be scientific ideas, it's "ideaism"! Should they contain books with information? – of course they should! But the point of library difference we're now looking at what librarians are calling their collections. They're changing their way of talking and thinking about collections. What is it that you collect and how do you present it? Presentation could be digital. There will still be physical books [to undertake] research on something. It's still all about the human aspect. That's the way I see it." (P2, Council B, interviewee transcript). As such, TRs need to adapt as precincts change. PAR participants stressed the need for performance indicators that were similarly flexible and could be applied as required, from department to department whilst also being able to provide a whole-of-council view rather than on one department (Council E, PAR 3 group discussion), particularly to avoid silo-thinking (See Section **Error! Reference source not found.** below for further discussion on this point). Further, PAR participants saw a need to be consistent with PIs in order to identify trends; they felt that councils tend to change indicators too often (Council E, PAR 3 group discussion). Understanding this nuance of CP facilities is key to ensuring the TRs are responsive to context and the PIs measure the right things.

The phase 5 participants were asked to investigate the barriers to use of the PICPA. Therein, participants were asked to rate the relevance of a series of potential barriers, including:

- High costs
- Lack of financial resources
- Lack of computer skills in staff

- Lack of technical training and support
- Complexity of the framework
- Limitations of the framework (lack of customisability, of reliability)
- Lack of computers/hardware
- Time to learn the framework, process and data entry
- Lack of belief in the framework
- Need for control
- Uncertainty about the framework and process
- Lack of support from external parties
- Lack of support from other colleagues
- Lack of support from the management team
- Privacy or security concerns
- Lack of support from organisational culture
- Lack of incentives
- Lack of participation
- Lack of leadership

The results of that survey are summarised below in Figures 5-28 and 5-29.

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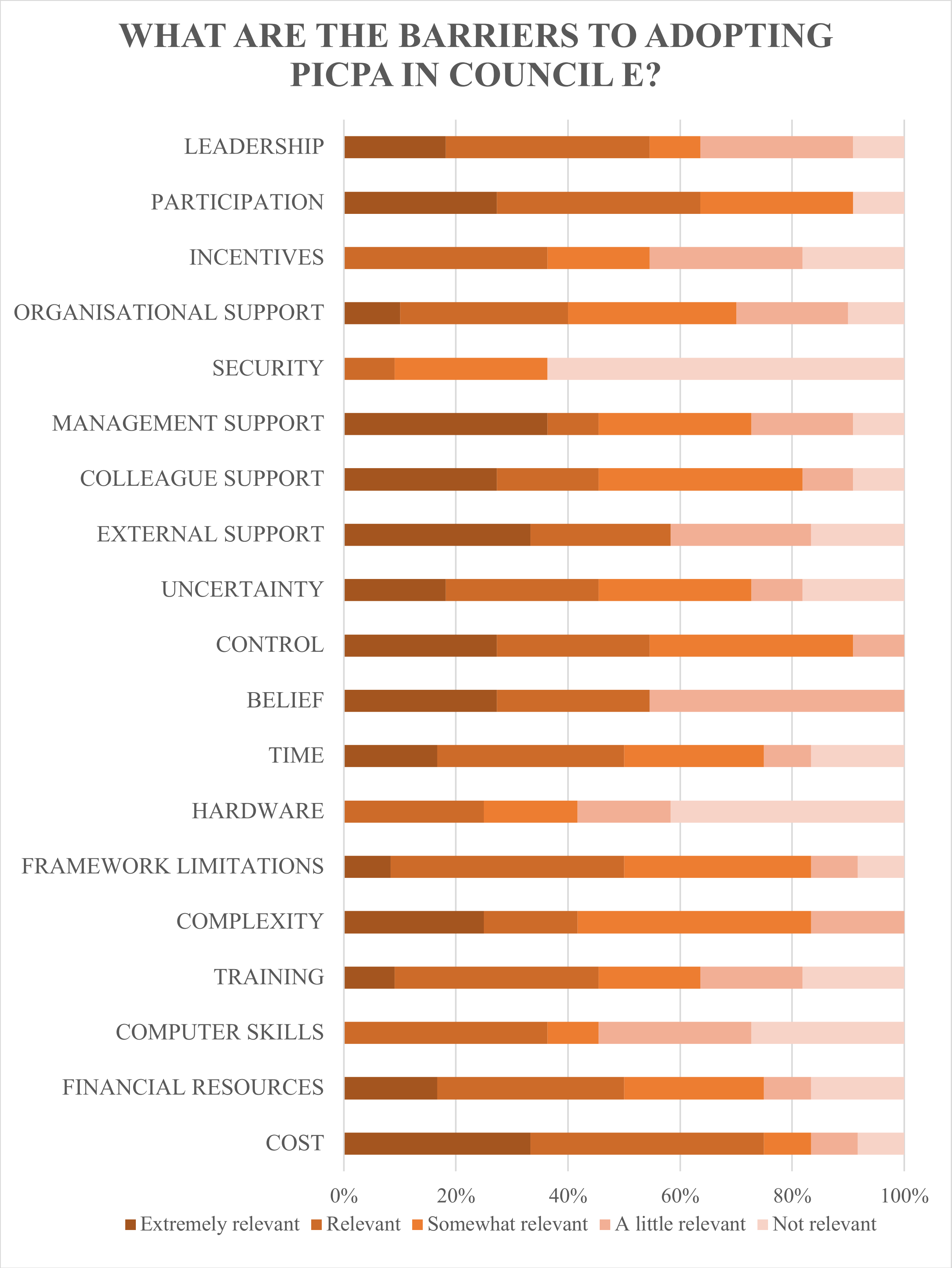


Figure 5-28: Barriers to adoption of PICPA - Council E

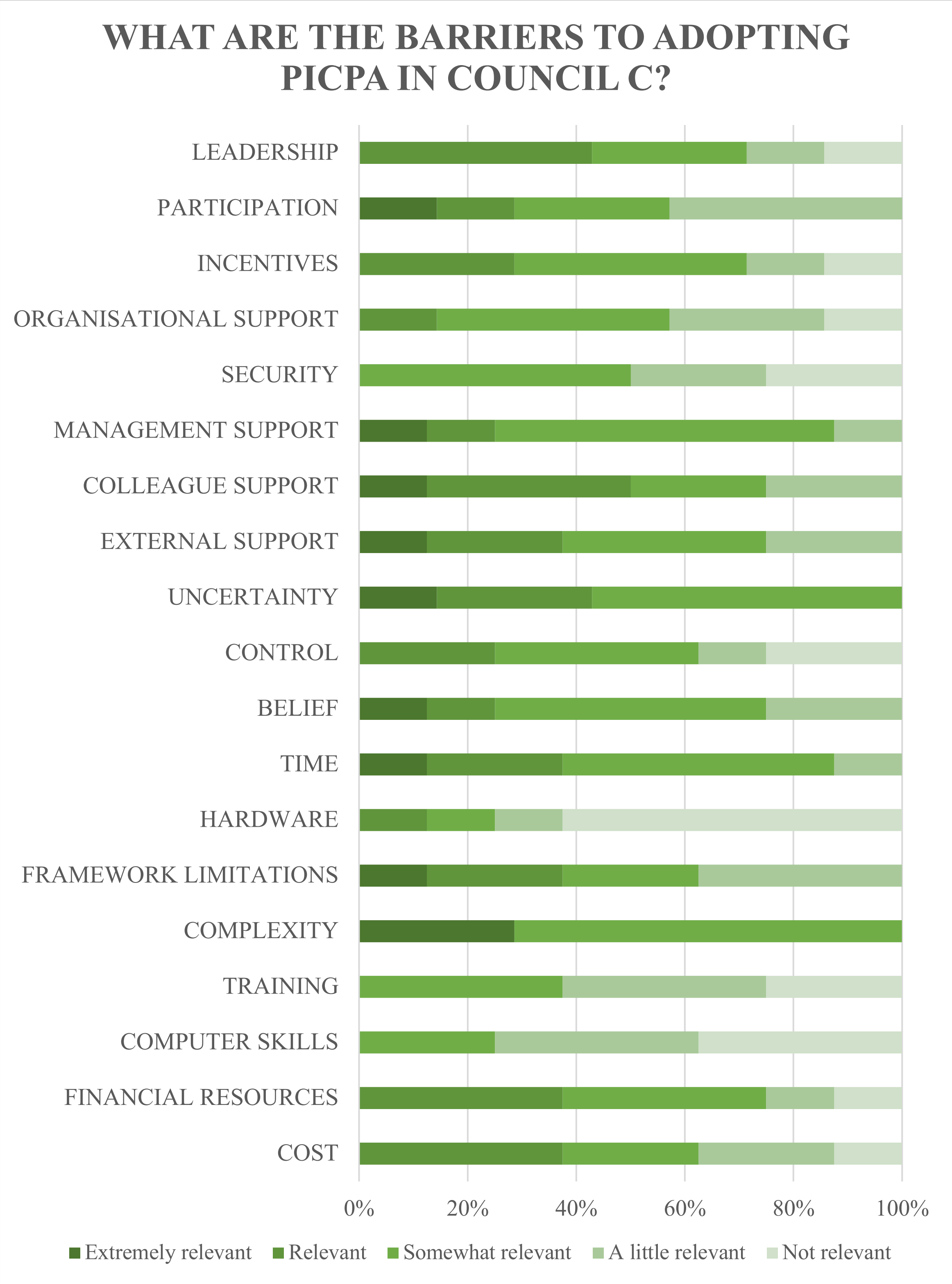


Figure 5-29: Barriers to adoption of PICPA - Council C

The key barriers to the PICPA uptake from the participant's perspective was for Council E: high costs (75% extremely relevant or relevant), and lack of participation (64%) and Council C: lack of support from other colleagues (50%), uncertainty about the framework and process (43%), and lack of leadership (43%). As one internal stakeholder commented: “you need someone with vision” (M9, Council D, interviewee transcript). This result concurs with Perera’s (2007) study that found a lack of strong leadership impacted the implementation of the BSC. These results demonstrate that a range of issues impact the successful implementation of a performance measurement tool or framework and they are contextual.

During group discussion in PAR 3 on the development of the PIs and their alignment, a number of important issues were raised and analysed. Discussion initially focused on the organisational culture which, the PAR participants felt, often could be a barrier to the implementation of a performance measurement system. This was supported by comments from internal stakeholders, particularly elected members: “Yes I think those kinds of measures and things are important but I don’t think council should be too caught up with it. I think if they do their planning work properly their measures will prove themselves” (P5, Council D, interviewee transcript). The organisational culture, according to the PAR participants, was critical to the implementation of performance management practices but also to the ongoing commitment to regularly monitor performance data, review PIs and act on the data available (Council E, PAR 3 group discussion). PAR participants suggested that PIs needed to be embedded into workplans in order to guarantee their take up and effectiveness (Council E, PAR 3 group discussion); thus reducing the possibility of the organisational culture negatively impacting the performance measurement systems and practices.

5.3.4. PICPA: Synergies and opportunities

The customer-focused, participatory learning and recognition of intangible values inherent in both QFD and PAR enable the effectiveness of the PICPA. These correlations are summarised in Table 5-5. PAR participants confirmed the synergies between the PIHoQ and PAR to inform the development of PIs for cultural precincts. Participants noted the learning process of the workshops (PAR) assisted their growing knowledge of the PIHoQ. The customer-focus and participatory learning of both QFD and PAR were discussed in detail in Chapter 2. Given the intangible nature of CPs, also covered in Chapter 2, it has been found that PAR enables discussion on both tangible and intangible elements (Chen-Fu and Tung-Jung 2016). There is recognition of the challenges faced in seeking to measure intangible value (Schulz et al. 2018). However, as measures of public value, some work has been devoted to understanding and measuring intangible values. For example, Papi et al. (2018) explored measures that included structural, human, relational, empathetic and evolutionary value. Having regard to these synergies, it is surprising perhaps to discover that the existing academic literature has not before assimilated PAR and QFD/HoQ as a coalesced engagement tool.

Theme	QFD	PAR
Customer driven and participatory	Politis (2003)	Chen-Fu and Tung-Jung (2016)
Participatory learning and continuous improvement	Chin et al. (2001) Lee and Dale (1998)	Kelleher and McAuliffe (2012)
Recognition of intangible values	Bayraktaroglu and Ozgen (2008)	Chen-Fu and Tung-Jung (2016)

Table 5-5: QFD and PAR correlation

The PAR participants identified that departmental or silo-thinking hindered the creation of cross-organisational PIs (Council E, PAR 3 group discussion). Difficulty arose when PAR participants endeavoured to align indicators to a particular TR. Many internal PAR participants, upon observation, tended to visualise TRs as aligned to a particular department and queried who would then be responsible for the measurement of the PIs (Council E, PAR 3 group discussion). This concern might be, in part explained by one internal stakeholder's comment that "There is silo mentality, its everywhere. And you know the harder the times, the stronger the silos. People are seeking to protect their own arse!" (M3, Council A, interviewee transcript). Indeed, the impact of silo-thinking was identified by many research participants and articulated, for example, "I don't think departments, different organisations within council are doing enough to communicate with one another to create that vibrancy" (M7, Council B, interviewee transcript). Silo-thinking is not a new concept to public administrations where arts-based silos have been recognised as detrimental within local government (City of Vancouver 2008b) and the arts funding sector (Harvey et al. 2012). Core to these practice-based views of silo-thinking is the notion that collaboration is critical to the creativity and activation of the precinct. Academia has also noted the need to reduce silo-thinking to improve the likelihood of positive community outcomes (Hambleton and Howard 2013). The need for bureaucratic silo-reduction is most felt, according to Head (2007), when addressing multi-dimensional and complex issues. Indeed, the United Kingdom, based Lyons Inquiry (Lyons 2007) into local government stressed that place-based solutions to local priorities was critical to the success of government and local government specifically, thus minimising the harm from silo-based service provision.

It was identified in Chapter 4 that collaboration was a benefit of CP developments, viewed as both internal and external collaborations, but the literature indicated that such collaboration was not guaranteed and should rather be regarded as an attribute on a spectrum of organisational growth (Zorich et al. 2009). In fact, internal stakeholders pointed out that CPs "should have fantastic collaborations, but most often they don't. In fact if anything they usually go into silos and that's okay, 'cause a lot of creators need to do that." (P2, Council B, interviewee transcript). This is in spite of the knowledge by most internal stakeholders that minimising silo-thinking will maximise positive performance results,

> *"We're now at the end, [working with] the business community trying to say, we want a million dollars. And you've got directors and from across all parts of council working on this which is different. You know, normally we have our little pockets. Well I made sure, for this to be successful you'd have to have involvement across all fronts. We've got six different working groups"* (E5, Council C, interviewee transcript).

Participants were concerned that CP success (and the measurement of that performance) was only possible if a cross-collaboration was achieved; if silo-thinking and silo-measurement was reduced.

In sum, during the development of the PIHoQ during phase 5 PAR cycles, it was noted that the diversity of participants, being both internal and external, as well as from different creative and cultural industries such as libraries, galleries and venue hire facilities, brought a variety of insights to the VoC, TR and PI creation. The TRs and PIs developed, covered the gamut of categories, including financial, customer service, learning and growth, internal business process, and governance and civic leadership. The PIHoQ, therefore, processually and structurally supported the reduction of silo-thinking and silo-measurement; effectively forcing participants to investigate and measure a variety of aspects of the CP business, regardless of their professional or community-based interest.

5.4. SUMMARY

The results and discussion above centre on the development of the PIHoQ coupled to the use of a participative action research process. The PiHoQ framework and the participative action research or PAR process together constitute the resultant overall approach pursued – that being the performance indicator cultural precinct assemblage (PICPA). This assemblage can be represented formulaically as:

$$PIHoQ + PAR = PICPA$$

This conclusion will summarise the findings of this chapter under each of those elements.

5.4.1. PIHoQ

The PIHoQ is adapted from the traditional HoQ, with multiple amendments to improve its functionality within the PI development context of this study including the insertion of PIs which align to TRs. The PIHoQ also incorporated the BSC and QBL. Further, the PIHoQ utilised an importance/satisfaction analysis tool and associated quadrant graph to support participant understanding and decision-making. Other adaptations to support the PIHoQ's utility in this study included the development of glossaries of terms and the creation of PIHoQ excel templates to support participants as they created and refined the PIHoQ.

As an outcome of this study, it was determined that the PI inclusion in the PIHoQ was conducive and effective in the establishment and selection of relevant PIs that correlate to VoCs and TRs as long as the relationship mapping in the matrices was appropriately conducted through the participative action research process. The task of aligning VoCs and TRs was critical to the overall effectiveness of the PIHoQ; if they were incorrectly aligned the connection between PIs, TRs and VoC would lack meaning. All stakeholders had difficulty understanding the mapping of relationships between VoCs and TRs. The over-use of "strong relationships" between VoCs and TRs resulted in too many PIs being assigned to measure performance. The PIs were also challenging to develop, particularly for external stakeholders who indicated that this was very new to many of them. However, the majority of all participants recognised the benefits of developing the PIs, aligning them to TRs and saw their usefulness in measuring relevant VoCs. They noted that the three-way alignment between these elements of the PIHoQ was highly beneficial. These results suggest that the participative action research process used to develop and establish the PIHoQ was effective in eliciting the linkages between VoCs, TRs and PIs and is needed to guarantee the PIHoQ is relevant to the context within which it is deployed.

It was previously identified that within the context of public administration, particularly in local government, there was a focus on the customer perspective. However, this focus has not translated to an improved understanding of customer expectations of CPs in the public administration environment. The challenges to understanding CPs and ensuring their customer-focus, pertain to the diverse organisational structures within which they operate and the short-termism of government resulting in makeshift decision-making and a lack of impetus to understand customer needs. Also, there is a tendency towards stakeholder placation (addressing the needs of the loudest stakeholders) rather than understanding the diversity of stakeholder expectations and addressing high priority/important issues. The difficulty in defining and measuring culture is challenging particularly as effective performance measurement would necessitate measuring intangible outcomes rather than the preferred output-based measures of public administrations. Previously also, chapter 2 also explicated the multifarious and often dual nature of issues impacting public administration in areas such as public value theory, stakeholder theory, lean thinking, Aulich's heuristic, balanced performance measurement and public administration stakeholders. Such complexity suggests that a comprehensive approach needs to be taken to performance measurement of said CPs. In this study the PIHoQ incorporated the BSC and QBL. The inclusion of the BSC/QBL ensured that all aspects of a precinct and the local government context within which they preside was considered in both the VoC and TR sections of the PIHoQ, those being: the social/customer, economic/financial, environmental, learning and development, trust and legitimacy, service quality and efficiency, and corporate governance aspects. In this study, this ensured that TRs were identified across five categories: finance, customer, internal process, learning and growth and governance and leadership. Categorisation also made the TRs easier for participants to read and digest within the PIHoQ, supporting the idea that the traditional HoQ is also a communication tool (Kullberg et al. 2014). In fact, the PIHoQ framework in this study was demonstrated to ably show links between customer needs and organisational requirements.

To guarantee the usefulness of the PIHoQ, relevant PIs were required across an appropriate range of TRs. In the event that the TRs were lacking, it is possible that relevant and important PIs would also be missing from the PIHoQ. It was consequently important to ensure tools were applied to check, validate and refine the TRs and the BSC and QBL were selected as appropriate tools to respond to this risk. In attributing the BSC/QBL categorisation across the TRs, participant/stakeholder confidence grew knowing that opportunities were available to stop, organise and filter TRs. They also safeguarded against internal stakeholders focusing solely on their own department at the expense of other unidentified TRs. Accordingly, the introduction of the BSC/QBL into the PIHoQ further aids the notion that QFD reduces silo-thinking (Knowles et al. 2002). In sum the inclusion of the BSC/QBL helped to organise, filter, communicate and guide the development of the TRs and their relationship to other PIHoQ elements.

The third significant adaptation in the PIHoQ was the utilisation of the importance-performance analysis tool and the supporting quadrant graph. Used together, they supported participant learning and assisted with the decision-making of the participants to ensure that VoCs were prioritised. The prioritisation of VoCs was challenging since in this study it was demonstrated that if participants were not forced to prioritise VoCs they would rate all VoCs as very important, making it impossible for an organisation to realistically allocate resources to priority issues. These tools helped stakeholders identify VoCs of critical importance, visually providing evidence of "focus" areas (high importance/low satisfaction).

Other adjustments made to the PIHoQ included the use of glossaries and PIHoQ templates. It was determined by the participants during phase 5 of the research that rather than lose rich, deep and complex VoC data during the PIHoQ development process, a glossary of the VoCs would be available to participants as they worked on understanding and refining the PIHoQ. These longer explanatory notes used for reference against the summary VoCs, encouraged a fuller understanding of the VoCs. This portfolio of resources also ensures that the overall approach is transparent. Due to the complexity of the PIHoQ and to provide ease of access to the framework, the researcher developed a suite of PIHoQ templates in Microsoft Excel for participant use. These templates were initially created in phase 4 and then refined in phase 5 as participants used the templates and provided feedback on their usability.

A number of challenges to the creation and implementation of the PIHoQ were also recognised, examined and addressed in this research. These challenges led to further refinement of the PIHoQ framework and processes. For example, participants indicated that they had difficulty remembering the codes for very strong relationships etc. between VoCs and TRs and TRs with TRs. Therefore, a key was added to the framework template to provide quick and easy access to the relationship matrices relationship codes. The use of technical language by internal stakeholders tended to initially minimise the input from external stakeholders as they did not have the prior knowledge or exposure to that language. As a consequence, the researcher developed the glossary of terms to overcome that challenge. A further refinement was made to the process so that all participants reviewed the outputs of each PAR session to confirm their understanding of the terminology and their confidence that the words expressed represented the consensus view of each PAR group. This problem is reminiscent of the discussion in Chapter 4 concerning asymmetric information. Here, like above, a glossary of terms was used to support different levels of knowledge and experience. Another example of a challenge was that stakeholders developed too many TRs. In practice, the TRs were occasionally duplicated and some proved irrelevant by the completion of the PIHoQ. Participants would then choose to remove TRs from the PIHoQ based on their new understanding.

In summary, the form of the PI decision-making framework for CPs was refined and enhanced from the traditional HoQ to include the development of PIs in the context of public administrations (particularly in reference to local government) and adapt to the diversity of stakeholder voices, the range of issues impacting government, and the rich and intricate data inherent in the study of CPs. The developed PIHoQ (and its attendant processes) encouraged “out of the box” thinking according to stakeholders, and via this study, the concept of the HoQ was shown to have utility in a non-traditional (for HoQ), complex service-based industry.

5.4.2. PAR

The second input element of PICPA involves a genuine customer engagement process of PAR - participative action research. In this study, in the pursuit and examination of five core issues it was determined that participative action research was the most appropriate process through which to effectively develop and refine the PIHoQ. Those issues included: the concept that a more profound sense of customer engagement is critical to public administrations, the need for a contextually adaptive engagement process to enable genuine customer engagement with the PIHoQ, the diversity of stakeholder views, skillsets and knowledge and potential for opposing viewpoints, the sensitisation of stakeholders to the PIHoQ being crucial for the success of PIHoQ in practice, and finally, participative action researchs’ more general disposition in respect to the co-production of outputs and knowledge, and the promotion of learning and practitioner reflexivity.

In this study it was demonstrated that the PIHoQ was judged more successful by stakeholders when undertaken with an immersive engagement process. Indeed, internal stakeholders in this study agreed that external stakeholder engagement was critical to the success of a CP. The extant literature acknowledges that stakeholders are more positive when asked to participate in community engagement (Zenker and Seigis 2012) and that implementation has been shown to be substantially more effective when stakeholders participate in the development of new systems or approaches (Cavalluzo and Ittner 2004). The participative action research engagement process as utilised in this study, therefore, helps address a critical challenge for local government: engaging external and internal customers in the selection and understanding of PIs and performance data. External stakeholders become immersed in a learning program that identifies their needs, acknowledges their viewpoints, builds a positive impression of the public administrative unit, and whereby they mutually develop relevant PIs and related performance data.

Through the study, participants indicated that they wanted "open", "organic" and qualitative methods to understand CPs. iPyrko et al's. (2017) concept of "thinking together" intimates how participative action research was used in this current study to plan, act, observe and reflect on the PIHoQ over 3 participative action research cycles within two case councils. The process was adaptive; organically changing as new ideas presented themselves and participants "thought together". The participative action research process was adapted within the local context as participants reflected on aspects of PIHoQ development. Where a cohort of participants reflected and demonstrated concern over their understanding of the VoCs, more time was then planned and devoted to the VoC refinement process. Whilst in another cohort, the opportunity to have rich and robust discussions between tables was deemed highly useful and resulted in greater learning, increased confidence and a sense of teamwork. These iterative and contextual changes to the participative action research process provided participants with ownership of the engagement process.

All stakeholders demonstrated a diversity of views (sometimes opposing), skillsets and knowledge during the participative action research sessions. These impacted the participative action research process and required the researcher to observe and note issues and reflect these back to the participants for exploration and reflexivity. For example, where opposing views were aired on one table, other tables were invited to join the discussion to allow for more detailed discussion and reflection of the way forward. Time spent in participative action research was also important to the success of the PIHoQ framework with different groups requiring more or less time to complete tasks. The PAR process evolved as participant skillsets and knowledge became apparent. The PAR process needed to be adaptable to handle differences between participants, for example, some participants were comfortable with online survey tools whilst others preferred hardcopy. Participants also felt that smaller workshops might reduce relationship matrices mapping exhaustion and subsequent inaccuracies in the PIHoQ development.

Stakeholders, particularly external stakeholders in this study were not automatically comfortable taking on the role of active participants in the participative action research process. Nonetheless, involving a range of stakeholders was deemed important to the participative action research process. For example, internal stakeholders acknowledged the differing perspectives of staff and elected members. The concept of such opposing voices is understood within the politics (control policy)/administration (control implementation) dichotomy. However, the stakeholder relationship can also be viewed within the frame of the complementarity model where politics represent the community view and the administration provides the technical know-how to achieve community needs, working together rather than in opposition. This current research suggests that, at least within the context of participative action research engagement, the complementarity model was the more relevant lens through with to see the relationship between stakeholder groups. Both of these lenses – politics vs administration and complementarity model – are represented in the core components of the PIHoQ, that is, the VoC and the TRs. Whether opposing or complementary, the VoCs work in tandem with the TRs to visually demonstrate the relationship between the two elements via the relationship matrix. This is important because it demonstrates to all stakeholders the key relationships between what they want and how they will get it; effectively providing understanding between stakeholder groups.

In the often politically charged, volatile environment of public administrations, the visual cues of the developed PIHoQ created during the PAR cycles, arguably, provides understanding without over emphasising the views of any single but vocal stakeholder group. Group work, the team approach and the sensitisation of participants in participative action research was seen by participants as a key benefit of the engagement process, supporting the notion in stakeholder theory that there are benefits in obtaining multiple and varied perspectives, such as the internal and external stakeholder perspectives. Participants valued different perspectives – internal and external participants had distinctive ideas and their opinions were critical to a holistic VoC. All stakeholders, regardless of their internal or external focus, act as the issue-framers in the participative action research process; setting goals, prioritising needs and finding solutions. Internal stakeholders particularly valued the distinctive view of external stakeholders to the discussion on TRs, ensuring ideas were not taken for granted by the practitioners. The participative action research participants, as a further example, validated the importance/satisfaction rating. The participants were asked to reflect on whether the prioritisation of the VoC was reflective of their own view and if they felt that they were representative of the whole group. The internal stakeholders were again very interested in hearing the reflections of the external stakeholders. It suggests that the dual use of internal/external stakeholders in the rating process increased the confidence of the participative action research participants that the results were relevant and accurate. Internal stakeholders indicated they were worried that they would be "more honest" if external stakeholders were not present during the participative action research sessions. However, in the next participative action research session they acknowledged that this did not stop them from being honest during the participative action research process. This supports Phillips (2003) idea that stakeholders with different views can come to consensus and see the value of working together, known as "sensitisation" (Adiano and Roth 1994).

External stakeholders generally found the PI development process in this study more difficult than the internal stakeholders. This reflects other research from James (2011b) for example, which indicated that external stakeholders lack knowledge and experience in working with performance data – and in this present study, this was initially further complicated by a lack of knowledge or experience concerning both the framework and the process used to create the PIs. Internal stakeholders initially suggested that the participative action research process was a good "learning" opportunity for external stakeholders. However, this incited some debate with external stakeholders feeling "spoken down to". The internal stakeholders clearly felt that the external stakeholders were lacking in knowledge, perhaps an acknowledgement to the asymmetry of information between the internal and external stakeholders. However, the internal stakeholders in the next participative action research session reflected that the learning process increased their own knowledge and encourage them to think differently. The participative action research engagement process acted as the sensitisation and learning process and encouraged practitioner reflexivity.

After participating in the participative action research process, stakeholders indicated that they appreciated the benefits of learning and co-production of the PIs. The participative action research process enabled reflection and open discussion between participants about their views and contested understandings and thereby created new knowledge in keeping with social constructionism. Participants saw the immersive training in the development of the PIHoQ as important to the final development of the PIs. The participants worked collaboratively to understand the problem and co-produce the resolution. Learning and co-production, as key features of the participative action research process, were essential to the development of the PIs for CPs.

5.4.3. The combination: PICPA

A number of significant benefits of PICPA were realised in the course of this study. The study demonstrated, for example, that PICPA provided an opportunity for participants to “think outside the box” or “re-think” notions of CPs. The previously discussed “sensitisation” process undertaken as part of the PAR process and PIHoQ framework development similarly ensured that the VoCs were relevant and enabled new ways of thinking about CPs. The holistic view of TRs achieved through the BSC/QBL categories within the PIHoQ also encouraged a whole-of-council thinking, reducing silo-thinking and increasing strategic decision-making. Silo-thinking was identified at various points in the research and was often seen by participants as an anathema to the creation of vibrancy and activation within a CP and new ideas in relation to planning and performance measurement of CPs. In fact, siloed management was identified as a core reason for the failure of past CP developments. The reduction of silo-thinking, on the other hand, improves community outcomes, advances strategic decision-making and maximises performance results. In short, PICPA in this study encouraged innovative thinking within the local government context and actively discouraged silo-thinking, silo-decision-making and silo-measurement.

The stakeholders also expressed that the PIs became progressively more relevant to them as they progressed through the PICPA. This outcome supports previous findings from other studies that the relevance of performance indicators increased when stakeholders participate in the design process (Cepiku et al. 2017). Participants found the iterative PAR process of developing the PIHoQ, wherein for example each element of the PIHoQ was added sequentially and then reviewed and refined, facilitated their learning. Through that, there was a reduction in asymmetric information for participating stakeholders as they were learning whilst making decisions; which thereby also supports previous research in this field (Fletcher et.al. 2015). PICPA assisted in the management of special interest groups’ propensity for over-representation in decision-making, where PAR enabled open discussion to ensure balance between stakeholder groups. Further, PICPA allowed participants the opportunity to adapt the framework to their needs, for example relocating TR categories (customer and financial) to encourage relevant relationships to be defined in the VoC/TR relationship matrix. Moreover, changes were also made to increase the amount of time spent on a particular element of the PIHoQ so as to positively respond to the different levels of knowledge of the participants and their confidence with the material under discussion. Also, stakeholders valued the regular opportunities provided through the PAR to revise or review various elements of the framework to ensure their understandings and confirm the relevance of the data.

At the end of the PAR sessions (PAR 3/6) the participants indicated that the key barriers to the adoption of PICPA within the context of this study were high costs in its development, lack of participation from stakeholders, a similar absence of support from other colleagues and a lack of leadership within the organisation. During reflection on these barriers, participants indicated that they believed there would be significant staffing costs and that it would be difficult to recruit enough participants for the PAR sessions. The lack of support from staff and leaders were seen as resulting from the cost and lack of stakeholder participation. When asked what was essential to the success of the PICPA, the participants indicated that the organisational culture was critical to the development of relevant and meaningful performance indicators. Further, constant review of the PICPA and analysis of the performance indicator data were seen as important to the continuous improvement of the organisation and cultural precincts. Concern about the development of relevant performance indicators within the local government context was raised during the study with participants stating that current training for council officers was not appropriate. They saw a need for improved training in performance indicator development and analysis. PICPA was discussed as a potential solution to this gap in local government performance measurement. These results demonstrate that, from the perspective of the participants in the current study, the local context will play a major role in the delivery of PAR, the development of PIHoQ and, ultimately, the implementation of PICPA.

In sum, in this study, the PIHoQ takes the traditional house of quality framework, adaptively modifies it to suit the context of performance indicator development in public administration, and in so doing, provides a systematic constructivist structure to pursue the customer development of performance indicators. This framework is then coupled to a process of PAR wherein, external and internal customers of cultural precincts are genuinely and deeply engaged in developing those performance indicators. The process of PAR has at its core, the learning of participants and the enactment of change i.e. action and research in the field. In this study, PAR not only served to facilitate customers' generating performance indicators but also enabled the customers to critically examine and adjust the PIHoQ framework as they proceeded, and thereby improve its utility within the context. PICPA in this study has demonstrated high effectiveness in four aspects: addressing customer needs, achieving alignment between customer needs and operational attributes, focusing council and community on critical decisions concerning relevant performance indicators, and ultimately delivered the selection of cultural precinct performance indicators which meet the needs of diverse customers.

6. CONCLUSION

This detailed study had five key research questions, aimed to understand and/or develop five significant areas of knowledge which included (1) an effective framework and (2) engagement process to support (3) an understanding of cultural precincts (CPs), and to (4) comprehend their benefits, gauge cultural precinct performance and (5) apprehend relevant performance indicators to measure performance. As the culmination of this thesis, Section 6.1 firstly highlights the key themes and findings evident in the study. Section 6.2 then details this study's major contributions to theory, its methodological contributions and its contributions to practice in the public administration sector. Section 6.3 elucidates the limitations of this current research and identifies future research opportunities that arose during the course of this study. Finally, Section 6.4 then offers a summary of this chapter.

6.1. KEY THEMES

The key themes are discussed herein and are related to three major areas of contribution: the performance indicator cultural precinct assemblage (PICPA), cultural precincts, and the cultural precinct performance indicators.

6.1.1. PICPA

PICPA includes both the performance indicator house of quality (PIHoQ) framework and the participative action research (PAR) process – and together they act as a methodological toolkit to successfully develop cultural precinct PIs. PICPA responds directly to the first two aims of this study related to a framework and engagement process for cultural precinct PI development. Through the delivery of a comprehensive literature review, document search, case study, and mixed method approach, the most significant contribution to theory and practice from this study is in the provision of PICPA. It is also argued here, that PICPA is a unique and highly adaptive methodological approach to the development of relevant and contextually meaningful, PIs. Moreover, this study is the first comprehensive exploration and analysis of a step-by-step process of developing a traditional house of quality (HoQ) and therein, developed significant refinements to the base processes of the house of quality to enhance its utility in the development of PIs within public administration.

PICPA also acknowledges and mitigates, to some extent, the plethora of pressures incumbent on public administrations and articulated in new public management theory. These pressures, examined earlier in Chapter 2, include those faced in the external environment: the need to address external customer satisfaction, the broad communal (meaning both internal and external stakeholders) desire for success, understanding and attaining quality in facility and service provision, the requirement within the democratic process of government to seek out and understand customer needs, understanding non-financial measures including community-based measures whilst ensuring the focus on external customers is not lost. These are depicted in Figure 6-1 on the left-hand side of the diagram. In opposition to these external pressures, public administrations have a series of internal pressures also. These are depicted on the right-hand side of Figure 6-1 and include: the view by internal stakeholders (staff and elected members) that there is an oppositional nature or competitiveness of stakeholders during engagement, the requirement of sustainable service provision, the bureaucratic need for efficient service delivery, financial measures and internal service measures, and the varying knowledge-base of internal staff and elected members. These two dichotomous environments of public administration result in a highly politicised context within which cultural precincts operate and in which councils seek to measure and effectively manage performance. The PICPA, situated in new public management theory, forms a bridge between these two environments in the pursuit of developing PIs and striving for continuous improvement. Through the iterative cycles of the PAR process, the deliberate inclusion of both internal and external stakeholders taking on the role of co-researchers undertaking the plan-act-observe-reflect cycles, allows for their learning, self-reflection and co-production of the PIHoQ.

The PICPA is systematic in its processes, deals effectively with complexity, provides multiple visual cues, and is a vehicle for communication. In addition, with the inclusion of participative action research, it is also a reflective learning tool, which is iterative and sensitising, and underpins co-production of outputs. Ultimately, the synergy between PIHoQ and participative action research allows for a contextualised and constructivist approach to performance indicators development. Each of these outcomes are briefly examined and summarised below.

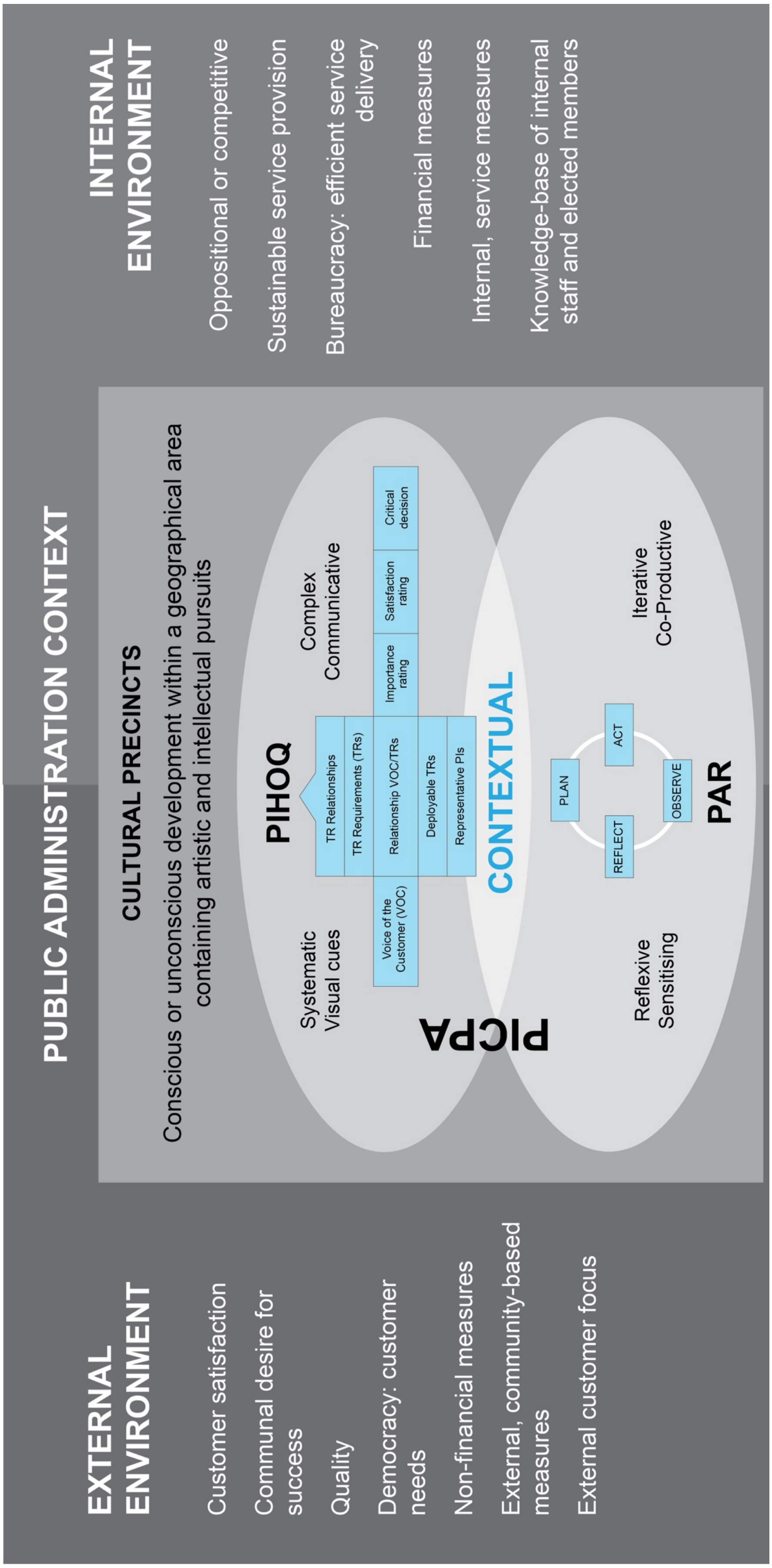

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION CONTEXT
EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT
Customer satisfaction
Communal desire for success
Quality
Democracy: customer needs
Non-financial measures
External, community-based measures
External customer focus
INTERNAL ENVIRONMENT
Oppositional or competitive
Sustainable service provision
Bureaucracy: efficient service delivery
Financial measures
Internal, service measures
Knowledge-base of internal staff and elected members
CULTURAL PRECINCTS
Conscious or unconscious development within a geographical area containing artistic and intellectual pursuits
PIHOQ
Systematic
Visual cues
Complex
Communicative
Voice of the Customer (VOC)
TR Relationships
TR Requirements (TRs)
Relationship VOC/TRs
Deployable TRs
Representative PIs
Importance rating
Satisfaction rating
Critical decision
CONTEXTUAL
PICPA
PLAN
ACT
OBSERVE
REFLECT
PAR
Reflexive
Sensitising
Iterative
Co-Productive

Figure 6-1: PICPA in the public administration context

6.1.1.1. PIHoQ as a systematic approach

Given the complexity of cultural precincts and the need in public administrations to take a holistic approach to service delivery, the systematic nature of the PIHoQ implementation and completion is a significant benefit of the framework. The steps involved in its creation from the development of the voice of the customer through to the deployment of technical requirements and associated performance indicators within the maturity pathway provides a framework that leaves nothing to chance. The majority of participants in the PAR activities indicated that the PIHoQ was beneficial in aligning customer needs with organisational requirements, understanding customer needs and areas where councils should focus attention. Further, PIHoQ was seen as beneficial in measuring performance in areas of importance as part of the critical decision process. As the literature to date has failed to prescribe a customer-oriented systematic framework for PI development, this study is filling this significant void in academic knowledge. The refinement of the standard house of quality to the PIHoQ to include performance indicators, an importance/satisfaction analysis tool and quadrant graph, categorisation via the BSC and QBL, glossaries of terms, and the provision of excel templates all serve to improve its utility and ensure its effectiveness as a systematic tool for PI development.

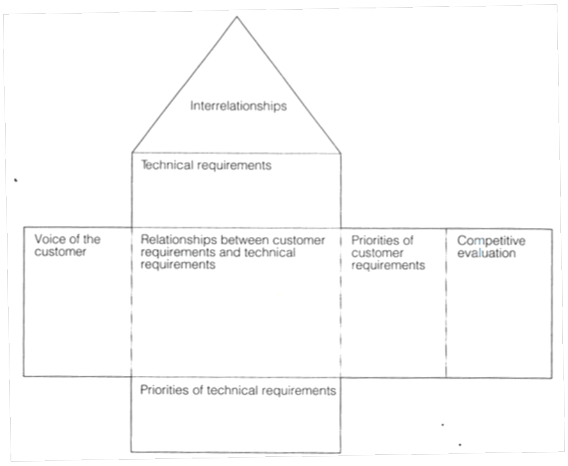
6.1.1.2. Complexity of PIHoQ

CPs have a role to play in developing social cohesion, place-making and cultural development as well as in the activation, accessibility and collaboration of public spaces. These precincts support the creation of social capital, liveability, place-based economic development and cultural tourism. These factors make for a complex phenomenon requiring PIs that are reflective of this complexity. Public administrations, on the other hand, have grappled with the establishment of relevant and meaningful PIs for decades. The traditional output-based and tangible indicators of the past are inadequate for the modern-day cultural precinct. Further, the silo-measurement approach taken in many local government authorities towards PI utilisation provides a very limited view of cultural precinct performance measured against output-based cultural PIs such as "number of exhibitions per quarter". The benefits of cultural precincts outlined above require PIs that measure outcomes and focus on the intangible nature of the phenomenon which has similarities to the performance measurement literature of the services industry and the Third Sector. The PIHoQ framework seeks out the very strong relationships between VoCs and TRs and provides practitioners with an approach to align PIs with deployable TRs, thereby confirming that PIs respond to and measure the right attributes in accordance with customer expectations. Further, the refinement of the PIHoQ with the inclusion of the maturity pathway allows public administrations to select PIs that respond to the maturity of the precinct. This is an important step towards providing a more robust and nuanced approach to the development and utilisation of meaningful PIs.

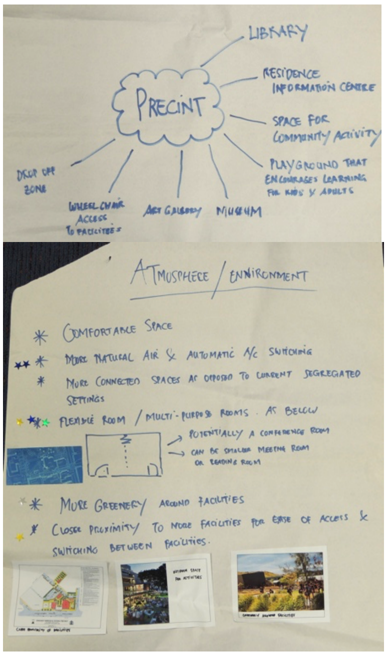
The challenges associated with PIHoQ are similar to those documented in quality function deployment literature including the technical nature and language of the framework, complexity of the relationship matrices, and understanding the steps involved in the PIHoQ delivery. This study also found that there was a tendency to over-allocate very strong relationships between technical requirements in the relationship matrices. Further, participants were prone to prioritise all VoCs unless "forced" to rank the priorities into categories of importance. The complexity of the PIHoQ required opportunities for participants to learn the process, understand the correlation between sections of the framework and how decisions in one aspect of the PIHoQ would impact later outcomes. These challenges associated with the PIHoQ (and, arguably, the traditional house of quality) may be overcome to a large degree through the use of the PAR process which performs as a reflective and iterative tool to support the PIHoQ implementation.

6.1.1.3. Visual cues and communication tool

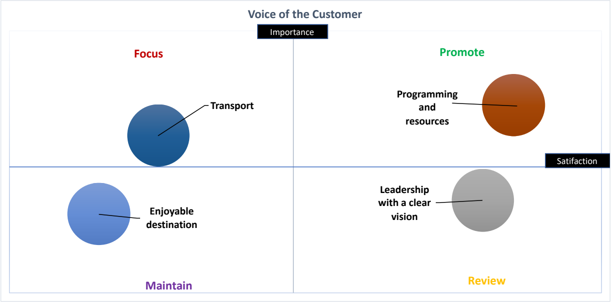
The PIHoQ acts as the visual cue and communication tool between internal (staff and elected members) and external (customers) stakeholders - representing the VoC (stakeholder needs) and TRs (how they will achieve the community's expectations. Further, research participants concurred that the framework was a useful way of presenting the data, making sense of it and providing a starting point for discussions about various aspects of the CP. PIHoQ visually demonstrates connections between elements, for example VoCs/TRs, TRs/TRs, PIs/TRs etc. These visual aids show the impact on service delivery. Examples of these communication elements are shown in Figure 6-2. The addition of the importance/satisfaction analysis tool and quadrant graph are further visual tools unique to this framework to support the understanding of internal and external stakeholders (See Figure 6-2, (iii)). The addition of rich picture development within phase 3's focus groups provided additional contextualisation of cultural precinct concepts (See Figure 6-2, (ii)). The PIHoQ imagery was also useful to convey other messages to participants such as visually demonstrating components of the house that were more challenging (See Figure 6-2, (iv)). This portfolio of visual cues was instrumental in encouraging participation and ownership of the process and framework. The portfolio also assisted in clearly articulating the attributes under discussion by participants and provided a vibrant platform for discussion of these attributes across stakeholder groups – between elected members, practitioners and community. Whilst time-consuming in their development, the visual cues were ultimately timesaving; reducing time wasted on constant clarification throughout the PAR process. These findings support the extant QFD academic literature which found that the traditional house of quality visually depicts important elements in a product's design and is a good method of communication with communities. The framework, in this current study, was an effective communication tool for all participants, regardless of whether they were internally or externally oriented. However, the communicative impact of the PIHoQ was not identified until the framework was understood by the participants. In other words, the PAR process was required to provide an iterative learning experience of the PIHoQ and the process before its meaning was understood. In fact, this finding is further supported by research showing that the use of a visual narrative in action research aids in the co-production of meaning (Fernández-Díaz et al. 2018). This is a significant outcome as it suggests that the traditional house of quality might be less impactful without prior knowledge and understanding. Internal and external stakeholders found the concept of the house of quality initially complex and challenging but this improved as the PAR cycles were enacted. Important to this current study, the visual cues of PIHoQ are critical to the PAR process and PAR is critical to understanding the PIHoQ. The framework fosters a greater understanding of cultural precincts, their benefits, areas of importance, current performance and, as a result, provides visual cues and serves as a communication tool to determine areas for focus, review, promotion or maintenance.


Interrelationships
Technical requirements
Voice of the customer
Relationships between customer requirements and technical requirements
Priorities of customer requirements
Competitive evaluation
Priorities of technical requirements

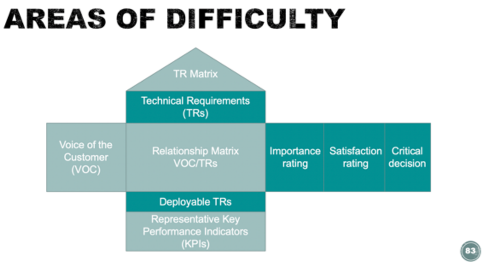
(i) Phase 2: Information supplied to interviewees on the participant information sheet - QFD sample house of quality (Evans and Lindsay 2011, figure 12.1)


LIBRARY
PRECINT
RESIDENCE INFORMATION CENTRE
SPACE FOR COMMUNITY ACTIVITY
PLAYGROUND THAT ENCOURAGES LEARNING FOR KIDS & ADULTS
DROP OFF ZONE
WHEEL CHAIR ACCESS TO FACILITIES
ART GALLERY
MUSEUM
ATMOSPHERE / ENVIRONMENT
* COMFORTABLE SPACE
* MORE NATURAL AIR & AUTOMATIC A/C SWITCHING
* MORE CONNECTED SPACES AS OPPOSED TO CURRENT SEGREGATED SETTINGS
FLEXIBLE ROOM / MULTI-PURPOSE ROOMS. AS BELOW
→ POTENTIALLY A CONFERENCE ROOM
→ CAN BE SMALLER MEETING ROOM OR READING ROOM
* MORE GREENERY AROUND FACILITIES
* CLOSER PROXIMITY TO MORE FACILITIES FOR EASE OF ACCESS & SWITCHING BETWEEN FACILITIES.

(ii) Phase 3: Focus group rich picture development



(iii) Phase 5: Presentation to PAR participants – importance-performance analysis and quadrant graph


AREAS OF DIFFICULTY

TR Matrix
Technical Requirements (TRs)
Voice of the Customer (VOC)
Relationship Matrix VOC/TRs
Importance rating
Satisfaction rating
Critical decision
Deployable TRs
Representative Key Performance Indicators (KPIs)
83

(iv) Phase 5: Presentation to PAR participants – challenges with PIHoQ

Figure 6-2: Communication tools used in PIHoQ

6.1.1.4. Contextualised nature of PIHoQ & PAR

A key finding in this study was that the performance of CPs, local government, and public administration more broadly is inextricably linked to the context of place and community. This study found that whilst LGAs may have similarities in service provision (e.g. programming and technology) and asset development (e.g. museum facilities) within a CP, the VoC elements will remain unique and particular to a context and place. It was also found that the barriers to the implementation of PICPA were contextual. Such barriers therefore need to be scoped within each context in order to mitigate the barriers to successful implementation.

The PAR process was determined (and observed) to be highly adaptable to the context within which the study was conducted. It was suitably adapted as issues arose around participant skillsets, learning styles, tiredness, different approaches to teamwork, and growing participant confidence. This is particularly important in an industry such as public administration where diverse and sometimes oppositional perspectives often exist. Thus, the PIHoQ and PAR show utility in acknowledging a plethora of stakeholder views and obtaining perspectives with acknowledgement of power relations. Furthermore, the iterative nature of PAR with its plan-act-observe-reflect cycles allow diverse stakeholder groups the opportunity to review content and knowledge production and confirm its validity within the context in which it is created. In accordance with a social constructionist approach to the topic of this study, PICPA was successfully applied across different local government environments and participants confirmed that the results accurately reflected their unique contexts.

6.1.1.5. The reflexivity & iterative nature of PAR

The engagement process undertaken in this study was shown to effectively bring together the perspectives of internal and external stakeholders who became more positive as a result of the PAR process. Participants were particularly engaged in the process of thinking-together and stimulating reflexivity in order to make change and create meaning. Indeed, the diversity of views from internal and external stakeholders was deemed a key benefit of the PAR process by participants, allowing for improved deliberation, dialogue and overt agreement. The reflexivity of PAR reduced the negative impact of jargon utilisation. Participants reflected often on the meaning of particular words, particularly the external stakeholders who queried jargonistic terms, which often resulted in reaching consensus on their meaning or removal from a statement or attribute. Given that the use of jargon can alienate segments of the community and impact learning (Hansén

2009), the importance of managing jargon over-use is paramount and the use of reflexivity in PAR has high utility in that regard.

This thesis also argues that the PAR engagement process was essential to ensure the viability and reliability of the PIHoQ. PIHoQ development alone does not elicit meaningful and relevant PIs. The iterative cycles of PAR support mutual learning, increase participant confidence in the tool and results and improves the sense of teamwork between participants. These cycles, whilst supporting learning, also reduced the level of asymmetric information prevalent in the knowledgebase of internal stakeholders (including elected members) and external stakeholders.

6.1.1.6. Sensitisation & co-production in PAR

It was previously shown that public administrations are challenged by the broad demographics of stakeholders and their diverse perspectives and apparent oppositional views. This study found that PAR allowed for sensitisation of participants; where participants were made aware of the views of others. In the case of this study, the PAR participants were sensitised to the different, sometimes competing and other times complementary CP VoCs. Participants in all phases of this study acted as the issue-framers where they set goals, prioritised needs and found solutions; not unlike the role of engaged citizens in government decision-making. Additionally, the sensitisation process resulted in new approaches to thinking about CPs. Sensitising stakeholders has been shown to support knowledge sharing and encourage appropriate organisational behaviours (Conduit et al. 2014). Sensitisation using PAR is important in knowledge sharing, understanding different community expectations and between internal departments. The sensitisation process has potential, therefore, to reduce the prevalence of silo-thinking and encourage greater collaboration and in turn, improve and support outputs.

Collaboration and co-production, made feasible using PAR, may be an answer to public administration's more general propensity for communication after the fact and a near-sighted focus mostly on legislative requirements. Participants recognised the benefits of collaboration in the creation of meaning and in the development of attributes. The participants reported that the relevance of the PIs increased as they learned through the PAR process and co-produced the PIHoQ and the resulting PIs. These findings support the available literature that found positive improvements to PI relevance through the co-production of PIs (Cepiku et al. 2017). Most significant to this study is that collaboration and co-production with both internal and external stakeholders elicit positive results including an improvement to the relevance of PIs, consensus on the knowledgebase of the PIHoQ and an increase in communication and understanding between stakeholder groups. Collaboration and co-production across stakeholder groups may be the new paradigm in public administration's drive for better community engagement.

In summary, a key finding of this study is that PICPA, with its two components PIHoQ and PAR, is an effective tool kit for the development of PIs for CPs. The framework and engagement process work synergistically to support PI development through managing a diversity of stakeholders and their perspectives, adapting to the challenges faced by government, providing a means to effectively engage and communicate with stakeholders and providing an approach that is contextual and adaptive to a sense of place.

6.1.2. Defining cultural precincts & their benefits

A further aim of this thesis was to improve understanding of CPs and their community benefits. Firstly, the lack of definition for CPs (and associated names such as quarters, districts or clusters) was noted in both the extant academic literature and in the field. This current study provides a definition that was initially developed through the literature review and later supported by research participants. A CP is a clearly defined geographical area that contains facilities and services related to artistic and intellectual activity. Also, this study confirmed the literature's assertion that CPs have developed over time either consciously or unconsciously and act as meeting places for communities. However, CPs in the local government context are generally made up of a unique mix of facilities and services; there is no standard or set elements to CPs. Greater agreement exists on the ancillary services required as part of CPs including commercial spaces, walkability (e.g. footpaths), public transport and eating options. While CPs continue to be developed across Australia and internationally, local government's notion of "core services" (e.g. waste, roads, drainage) has not changed considerably and continues to exclude cultural facilities within these core services. This misalignment is mostly due to the slow increase in cultural service provision in local government and the failure of State government in NSW, for example, to update legislation to be relevant to current service provision. This finding suggests that the NSW State government (and potentially other State level governments elsewhere) should review their notion of core local government services in order to be representative of current practice. Further, this study contends that issues such as stakeholder placation, the short-termism of government and the politicised nature of public administrations all have an impact on CPs and their associated services and facilities.

Secondly, this study found that stakeholders articulated five key benefits of CPs, they include: social cohesion, place-making and cultural development; activation, accessibility and collaboration; building social capital and liveability; economic development and cultural tourism; and economies of scale. The benefits expressed by stakeholders are reflective of the available literature, particularly in the disciplines of town planning and cultural studies. However, the issue of economies of scale has limited discussion in cultural studies and no exploration in town planning literature. Rather, cultural studies literature briefly identifies service rationalisation, and the reduction in duplication and costs which were not expressed by stakeholders in this current study. Economies of scale literature in the discipline of public administration was similarly very limited. Further, there is no evidence to suggest that CPs attain economies of scale and even the correlation between government-wide amalgamations and economies of scale are currently inconclusive. The political motivation of elected members was addressed by stakeholders and considered a driving force behind many CPs, if not a benefit of CPs. In relation to this political motivation for CP development, there was also limited extant literature. A key finding of this study was that there is a significant gap between the key five key benefits of CPs as listed above, (with the empirical evidence supporting these benefits), and the documented benefits local government promote in their strategic planning documents. Clearly, based on this study, government does not clearly articulate what CP success looks like or the criteria by which CPs are gauged as the benefits of a CP are currently ill-defined (and possibly not understood) in industry planning documentation. This highlights how important it is for local government to systematically identify the benefits of a CP, develop relevant and meaningful PIs and measure performance against those benefits.

6.1.3. Cultural precinct performance indicators & maturity pathway

Through the enactment of its assemblage, this study sought to apprehend a series of PIs to measure CP performance. Firstly, this study contends that a definitional distinction is required between PIs and PMs. In Section 4.4.2 of this study it was determined that PMs are a sub-set of PIs and are specific to the context within which they will be used. Furthermore, more than one PM might be attributed to a single PI.

Moreover, it was determined that primarily because of the importance of a sense of place, the diversity of stakeholders and the heterogeneous nature of CPs in each LGA, the PIs and associated PMs must reflect the diverse customer needs relevant to that context. The PIs were, therefore, locally defined, refined and confirmed by internal and external stakeholders.

This study also determined that in the case councils their CPs were in different stages of development or maturity levels. At a more general level, the available literature has suggested that understanding the level of maturity might support informed decision-making as to the type of PIs organisations might deploy. The concept of a maturity pathway was thus introduced into the PAR processes of this study, to aid the participants in thinking about and reaching a consensus on the maturity of their precinct and thus also, in the subsequent selection of the PIs they might deploy: tangible or intangible performance indicators (TPI and IPI respectively).

6.2. THEORETICAL, METHODOLOGICAL AND PRACTICAL CONTRIBUTIONS

This thesis makes three substantial contributions to knowledge. Firstly, this is the first original study on PI development for local government operated CPs. Secondly, the stakeholder-centric approach involving the inclusion of multiple stakeholder voices consisting of internal staff and elected members together with external customers/community, is a unique approach to PI development. Thirdly, the outcomes of this study are grounded in a social constructivist epistemology which represents an innovative approach to PI development. In association with these contributions to knowledge, this thesis makes specific contributions to theory development, methodology and industry practice - as detailed below.

6.2.1. Contributions to theory development

This thesis makes contributions to theory across four key disciplines including, performance measurement and management, CPs, QFD and house of quality (HoQ), and community engagement and participation in public administration.

6.2.1.1. Performance measurement and management

This is the first original study of its kind into PI development for CPs within local government which embraces a social constructivist epistemology and engages multiple conceptual perspectives and tools in assessing the phenomenon. This approach is in contrast to existing traditional positivist approaches to PI development. Consequently, this thesis challenges any notional idea of *standardised* and *consistent* PIs across government run CPs as they may lack local relevance and legitimacy and fail to meet diverse stakeholders' needs. In that frame, benchmarking for example, which necessitates the use of consistent and standardised PIs across LGAs primarily for comparison purposes, therefore, has less appeal when the contextual nuance is more attractive to local government. The implications of this constructivist approach for theory development concerning how PIs are developed, and their relevancy within and across contexts are thus quite profound and potentially broad-ranging, and thereby stress a need for researchers and practitioners alike to consider this alternate paradigmatic approach in future PI development and management research activities.

6.2.1.2. Cultural precincts

The clear lack of theory on CPs within public administration, town planning and cultural studies disciplines is addressed in this thesis. A clear definition of CPs is posited in this work, providing new meaning to CP theory and demonstrating that such developments fail to gain significant recognition in local government. Of note, and building upon previous theory on CPs, this thesis defines CPs, recognising the complexity (e.g. intangible elements of CP outputs), fluidity of the conscious and unconscious development pathways, and the make-up of CPs with facilities and services (e.g. artistic/intellectual activities, ancillary services and atmospheric elements) that go beyond those mentioned in previous extant literature. For the first time, CPs have been understood through the lens of Aulich's heuristic and the tension between the political motivation to meet community expectations and a bureaucratic need for service efficiencies. This thesis developed a suite of exemplars (understood from the perspectives of elected members, community and staff and therefore recognising Aulich's heuristic), to further elucidate the complex role of CPs in society that cross public administration, town planning and cultural studies disciplines. These CP exemplars go beyond the traditional clichés of CP benefits such as cost minimisation or service rationalisation, tourism or quality of life, and provide rich data to better understand the CP's role in social cohesion, place-making and cultural development; activation, accessibility and collaboration; building social capital and liveability; place-based economic development and cultural tourism; and economies of scale.

6.2.1.3. Quality function deployment (QFD) / House of quality (HoQ)

Traditional QFD and HoQ theory focuses on engineering and product design but in this study the focus was expanded to explicate complex, service-based operations for the expressed purpose of PI development. This study builds on the QFD theory of aligning the VoC with TRs, where the TRs are service-related outputs rather than design features. Explicitly, this study has redefined the standard HoQ, developing the PIHoQ that incorporated new core concepts and elements including the BSC/QBL, importance-performance analysis, and alignment of PIs with VoCs and TRs to support PI development. These additions resolve the deficiencies of HoQ, including the management of the complexity of the framework when applying it to service-based industries. Further additions such as a glossary of terms to give a detailed understanding of VoCs and TRs was applied to resolve the identified issue of asymmetric information inherent in the relationship between elected members, staff and community. In essence, the PIHoQ significantly enhances extant QFD/HoQ theory by its particular focus on PI development for complex services within the public administration context.

6.2.1.4. Community engagement and participation

This thesis builds on stakeholder theory, engagement and participatory practices and offers a new paradigm in stakeholder engagement: the co-production of knowledge through the active participation of internal and external stakeholders. Most compelling is the utilisation of PAR which steps participants through the engagement process with the result that all stakeholders (both internally and externally focused) are fully engaged in the co-production of knowledge. The extant literature suggests that there is a growing trend in government to engage in participatory democracy and the sharing of power and decision-making. However, the literature has overwhelming failed to address *how* participatory democracy is to be achieved, instead focusing on *why* it is important. This thesis astutely addresses this failing, providing a systematic PAR process for engaging communities in decision-making on CP PIs and the framework, PIHoQ, in which to capture, visualise and analyse the performance data. Moreover, in accordance with the work of Phillips (2003), this current research demonstrates that diverse stakeholders including elected members, staff and communities can work together towards the success of the organisation. The current research found that CP developments are often influenced by the political motivation of elected members. Co-production through PAR minimises the negative impacts of political motivation, building on the theoretical concept of "sensitisation" found in action research and exposing elected members to the views and expectations of communities and staff and the tensions inherent in public administrations such as those espoused in public value theory and lean theory.

6.2.2. Contributions to methodology

Two key methodological contributions are herein expounded, in the areas of the PICPA approach and the VoC development and prioritisation process.

6.2.2.1. PICPA

The available literature in QFD theory provides limited and summarised methodological processes for the development of the HoQ. This thesis provides a significant contribution to methodological theory, providing the performance indicator cultural precinct assemblage to counter the lack of methodological detail in HoQ development. The combination of PIHoQ and PAR provides a highly detailed process for each step to guide the development of PIs for CPs. The limitations of HoQ, particularly in managing the QFD jargon and complexity of the framework were shown to be managed effectively through the learning or sensitisation process of PAR. The use of PAR, therefore, saw improvement in the participant understanding and ease of use of the PIHoQ. Theory has most often considered the standard HoQ in isolation, but this thesis uniquely argues that PIHoQ requires the strong support of the PAR engagement program in order to successfully implement the PIHoQ. The distinctive combination of the systematic PIHoQ development with the iterative, reflexive learning and co-production characteristics of PAR work synergistically to provide a toolkit that adapts to the context within which it is deployed. These substantial methodological innovations to the QFD and HoQ theory should help inform, potentially challenge extant thought on this issue, and guide future researchers and practitioners' activities in better understanding and developing PIs.

6.2.2.2. VoC development and prioritisation process

QFD theory stipulates that the VoC is a critical component of the house of quality development and yet quality function deployment literature fails to provide a systematic approach to its development. This thesis helps address such a methodological knowledge gap. A set of processes were developed, tested, refined and detailed in this thesis, which provided step-by-step guidance on the voice of the customer development and a prioritisation process. In addition, and through the inclusion of participative action research, an importance-performance analysis and the visual cue of the quadrant graph were also deployed, and through these compilations, researchers and practitioners have now been informed of a collection of systematic and iterative processes to help apprehend and prioritise diverse customer voices and which helps address the tensions identified in public administration theory.

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6.2.3. Contributions to practice

Practical contributions include a systematic process and framework for the practical output of PIs, sub-processes for VoC development, an engagement process for the inclusion of diverse stakeholder groups and linkages to local government strategic objectives.

6.2.3.1. Systematic process and framework for the practical output of PIs

This thesis offers a significant contribution to the local government sector and public administrations more broadly. That contribution is in the development, refinement and case study endorsement of a systematic and approachable framework practitioners' may use to progress the development of cultural precinct PIs and which engages both internal and external stakeholders. Further, this approach to PI development should challenge any practitioner notion of the need or value of consistent or standardised PIs to serve benchmarking purposes across organisations and instead emphasise locally relevant indicators. . The flexible and adaptive aspect of the PIHoQ is a primary feature, in that, the customers (internal and external) collaboratively drive the process as relevant to their local contexts – so it is not a one-design or one-processfits-all situation. Thus, this is a framework and process which is able to be customised by local stakeholders to meet their specific needs and contexts.

The second and equally significant contribution to practice is the suite of representative CP PIs developed in this thesis that act as a starting point for practitioners to use, modify, deploy and review. The thesis initially provided a compelling insight into the lack of current effective practice concerning PI development in local government and the opportunities available to do better. The contribution to practice highlights the weaknesses of current practice and realises the extent of the poor current approaches to PI development. Once appreciated, practitioners will be enabled and inspired to improve how they go about such PI development activities. If this framework and process were to gain traction across councils, then the practice of developing effective and locally relevant PIs becomes a much more complex, multi-layered, resource intensive and community engagement-based activity which will need to be supported and resourced by councils.

6.2.3.2. Sub-processes for VoC development

Local government practitioners are invested in engaging customers and communities and overwhelmingly lack the tools required to engage effectively. This thesis developed, trialled and refined a new approach to understand the customer/community needs through a sub-set of processes that support the VoC development. Practitioners are often faced with a multitude of community needs, some in direct contradiction of each other. The VoC development process and associated prioritisation approach effectively supports practitioners in their management of these competing priorities.

6.2.3.3. Engagement process for the inclusion of diverse stakeholder groups

Local government is faced with a prodigious array of stakeholders with diverse needs and learning styles. Not only does this thesis offer an approach to engage all traditional local government stakeholders, it challenges these entities to engage in a new co-productive engagement program that coalesces the perspectives of elected members, staff and community members. This challenge to local government and public administrations more broadly is supported by a detailed step by step engagement process that is modelled on the traditional PAR cycles of plan, act, observe and reflect. It has the advantage of increasing stakeholder knowledge, ensuring the relevance of the VoC and improving understanding between stakeholder cohorts.

6.2.3.4. Linkages to local government strategic objectives

PIHoQ and the associated PAR process informs organisational strategic choices and actions by distilling functions of CPs into relevant and meaningful PIs. It was found that government has difficulty expressing the linkages between customer requirements, strategic directions and performance information. PIHoQ is an original framework, building on the traditional HoQ, that government can use to visually communicate such linkages. The inclusion of the BSC and QBL to the framework provides government practitioners with the necessary categorisation to guarantee customer needs, TRs and resulting strategic directions are included in the framework. Further, the holistic approach to PICPA ensures local government does not perpetuate the propensity for siloed-management and siloed PI practice. This thesis offers practitioners an assemblage of tools to effectively measure CP performance across all aspects of the business, and which support the strategic direction of the entity.

6.3. LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

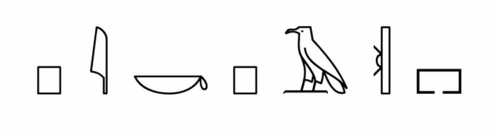
This thesis has demonstrated the applicability of a PIHoQ framework and PAR process to elucidate relevant PIs for CPs, and there is the opportunity to extend on this study. Chapters 4 and 5 investigated a range of indicators that might be meaningful for utilisation in local government, based on current academic literature and original research. However, there was not time nor space (nor an objective of this study) to also scrutinize the suite of indicators to test their usefulness to inform decision-making and continuous improvement. Further, it was not possible to collect performance data from the case councils for the representative PIs as the case councils were not collecting the performance data at the time of undertaking this study. Future research should include a longitudinal study to ascertain the indicators' relevance and impact. Such research would inform academics and practitioners understanding of how PIs could impact performance improvement. As performance measures were determined to be contextual and specific measures as a subset of PIs, performance measures could also be an object of future research. Future research might also examine the maturity pathway together with contextualised performance measures to determine their utility and efficacy in relation to maturity profiling.

A number of elements arose within PICPA that require further research and analysis as they were outside the scope of this particular study. Namely, those elements include the impact of strong relationships in the PIHoQ matrices, the usefulness of the roof matrix also in the PIHoQ, the utility of PIHoQ on continuous improvement and the application of the PICPA within other public administration contexts. As a further contribution to practice and HoQ theory, a future study could examine the impact of selecting one or two "strong relationships" in the matrices, particularly the VoC/TR matrix to study their implications to the completion and use of the PIHoQ. While this current research identified the challenge in the over-use of strong relationships in the VoC/TR matrix and the PAR process assayed the reasons for this over-use and its negative impact on the resultant PIHoQ, it was not possible to further explore the issue within the constraints of the Phase 5 research cycle. Similarly, the Phase 5 research found that participants saw little benefit in the roof matrix; hence, supporting some academic literature in favour of removing the roof matrix from the traditional HoQ. However, further research could be undertaken to specifically confirm the benefits or otherwise of the roof matrix. This study demonstrated, in being the first research of its kind, that PIHoQ has utility in identifying customer needs, aligning PIs with customer expectations, defining priority areas of focus and developing relevant PIs for CPs. The utility of PIHoQ in the collection of performance data and its processual impact on continuous improvement was not within the scope of this current research. As such, a further longitudinal study should explore these components to further enrich the theory on HoQ.

Finally, the application of PICPA, across other public administration PI development contexts is required to further assess its utility more broadly across multiple contexts. Within the government context, PICPA requires future research to test its utility in the face of political power dynamics and its impact on governance. This thesis, being concerned with the concept of the CP within the context of local government, has not reflected on the role of regionally focused or operated CPs. Further study could examine other CP types and compare such facilities to those explored in this current research. Future in-depth research is required on CPs and their place-making role in a multicultural society, particularly in relation to race, ethnicity and differences. The benefits of economies of scale were typically espoused within the media and during data collection by internal stakeholders. However, academic coverage of this issue, particularly in relation to CP developments together with the concept of convergence requires significant future study.

6.4. SUMMARY

Having in the past studied Egyptology (a passion for most of my life), I am reminded of the complex world of ancient Egypt where meaning was at times contextualised and represented as a series of dichotomies or dualities in forms such as day/night, god/goddess, fertile/barren and Upper/Lower Egypt. Similarly, the world of public administration, and by extension, cultural precincts, can be understood through a series of dichotomies representing the external and internal environments. The performance indicator cultural precinct assemblage or PICPA, utilising the appropriate Egyptian hieroglyphs:



responds to the dichotomous world of public administrations and the operation of cultural precincts, providing a framework and process to capture the important and multifarious voice of the customer (again with the duality of the internal/external stakeholder) in order to understand expectations. PICPA affords government the opportunity to understand the important aspects and benefits of cultural precincts and measure performance against these defined priorities. The PIHoQ framework and the PAR engagement process come together as an assemblage which adaptively supports the development of relevant and meaningful performance indicators that are contextually relevant, measure the intangible and respond to the entity's maturity pathway.

Participative action research offers a genuine engagement process to co-produce the PIHoQ and its various components and participate in reflective learning to improve the utility of the tool. The PICPA approach responds to the known challenges of the traditional house of quality, providing a structure and support to manage the complexity inherent in the house's development, the intricacy of a service-based industry, the diverse stakeholder voices and the knowledge required to develop a house of quality.

This study also identified a significant gap between what local government articulates as important aspects and benefits of cultural precincts, what they actually deliver, what they measure and what they report to the community. Moreover, media coverage suggests that the key issues in the development and delivery of cultural precincts are not identified by local government and are certainly not monitored or measured. This thesis argues that the utilisation of PICPA also bridges the gap between these different aspects, delivering both a framework and engagement process to identify needs and benefits, target strategic and operational areas of focus, measure the right things and provide visual cues when reporting to stakeholders. Overall, this thesis represents a major step forward in our understanding and appreciation of cultural precincts within the local government sector.

In sum and in specific reference to the previously stated five research objectives, this thesis found that academic literature failed to adequately address the challenges inherent in quality function deployment and house of quality development. Further, the thesis demonstrated that performance measurement in the government context was often limited to output-based, easy-to-measure indicators that led to limited strategic improvement. In response to these fundamental gaps in the extant literature, this thesis established that a framework in the form of a performance indicator house of quality could significantly support local government when deciding on performance indicators to measure cultural precinct performance. This study demonstrated that the enhancements to the house of quality also required an attendant stakeholder engagement process to support the utility of the decision-making framework. This thesis found that the use of participative action research ably supports the development of a performance indicator decision-making framework for cultural precinct performance. The framework and engagement process used in unison were shown to bring to light the benefits of cultural precincts (for example social cohesion and building social capital) and their importance to internal and external stakeholders. In totality, this assemblage of the framework and engagement process was demonstrated to have noteworthy utility in the selection of tangible and intangible performance indicators to ably measure cultural precinct performance.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: INFRASTRUCTURE, FACILITIES MANAGEMENT, REGIONAL FOCUS AND BENEFITS

The following discourse was initially undertaken in the course of considering the development and operation of cultural precincts (CPs) in Section 2.4 and the infrastructure renewal crisis in Section 2.2.3.3.

Over the past twenty years research and debate has grappled with the management and performance measurement of facilities with an increasing focus on holistic management and benchmarking practices (Loosemore and Hsin 2001). The effectiveness of measuring performance in facility management is under increasing scrutiny (Brackertz and Kenley 2002; Loosemore and Hsin 2001; McShane 2006; Meng and Minogue 2011; Tucker and Pitt 2009) in part due to increased customer demands and financial burden of facility management and renewal. Studies outside Australia give some understanding of the potential benefits of performance measurement in facility management. A past study found that “it is not surprising that the limited amount of benchmarking used in the facilities management sector is introspective, simplistic and unimaginative” (Loosemore and Hsin 2001, p.474). This present study reviewed benchmarking in health care, hotels, education, defense and a government enterprise, so the findings have limited application to facilities management in local government. In a study of experts in facility management in the United Kingdom and Ireland, respondents identified four benefits to effective performance measurement including “client focus, value for money, high standard of service delivery and tender selection based on performance” (Meng and Minogue 2011, p.478). The relevance of this literature is, however, limited in that its focus is on commercial facility management rather than government- or not for profit-managed facilities where the focus may be different and the client group is much broader.

A cultural precinct incorporates both facilities or infrastructure and services (Schulz et al. 2018). As discussed in Section 2.2.3.3, in an independent inquiry into the financial sustainability of NSW local government found that ageing infrastructure was one of the most significant problems facing councils, estimating the value of required infrastructure renewals at over $6 billion (Independent Inquiry into Local Government Inquiry 2006). The inquiry indicated that infrastructure “should be of a satisfactory standard in terms of providing services in a relevant, functional, safe, reliable and cost efficient manner” (Independent Inquiry into Local Government Inquiry 2006, p.13). From this commentary it becomes clear that local government, at least in Australia, requires funding assistance to renew, improve and create the necessary infrastructure to meet community needs. However, as shown previously, local government also need strategies in place to manage and measure the performance of infrastructure and facilities to ensure relevance, functionality, safety, reliability and cost efficiency (Meng and Minogue 2011). The literature on facility management, though limited in its relevance to local government gives some understanding of the range of issues that need to be addressed in the management of facilities with cultural precincts being only one of many examples of such facilities.

The local versus regional debate is an important one for local government. Out of operational necessity, local government is primarily focused on the benefits to their LGA and community. In the past there has been little incentive to work regionally, perhaps resulting in the notion that Federal and State government agencies were averse to working with local government for this very reason (Jones 2008). However, maintaining a local-focus rather than expanding to a regional-focus, in theory, could lead to government failure in the worst case or inefficiency at best. Kortt et al. (2012, p.49) argued that councils working across regions have the potential to improve service delivery while fostering the "local voice". A Department of Local Government (2007) study found that there was benefit in strategic partnerships between councils for cultural development. The Local Government Act (NSW) (State Government New South Wales 1993, s.8C(a)) prescribes that councils must, as part of their integrated planning and reporting requirements, examine regional priorities. The focus of this present study was on cultural precincts at a local-level and did not seek out or examine regional cultural precincts operated by more than one council.

An LGA may want to demonstrate the benefit of the services provided. This requires an ability to understand and clearly articulate those benefits. Governments would also require the means by which to measure the benefits. The level of community benefit for different services and facilities is an interesting one when applied to cultural facilities and services or cultural precinct development. With "benefit region", Dollery (1997, p.449) argued that "services which are nationwide in their benefit incidence (like defense forces) should be provided nationally; services with regional benefits (such as highway systems) should be provided regionally; and services with local benefits (like streetlights and pavements) should be provided locally". The available literature does not examine the local or regional benefit of cultural precincts. As a result, the implications of a region of benefit to this research on developing PIs for cultural precinct planning, development and ongoing operation are unknown. Arguably, current literature related to the Australian government at all levels is unable to address these issues and further research is required on the level of benefit that can be ascribed to cultural precincts developed by local government.

APPENDIX 2: PHASE 2 INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

General

- What is your understanding of the term "cultural precinct"?
- What are the benefits of having a cultural precinct?
    - Why do you want a cultural precinct?

For councils with a cultural precinct

- When you first set out to develop your cultural precinct what were you looking for?
    - (early stage might elicit simpler indicators like visitor numbers but later stages might require more complex indicators such as repeat visits, satisfaction)
- In the development of your cultural precinct what were your priorities?
- What tradeoffs did you need to make in this precinct development?
    - Was that a good trade off?
- Do you consider your cultural precinct a success? Why/why not?
- What were the unintended/unexpected outcomes or impacts of the development?
- What information would you like to know about your cultural precinct but currently can't obtain?

Stakeholder requirements

- What mix of services and facilities are required for a successful cultural precinct?
    - External, internal - facilities
    - Private or commercial interests
    - Prompt: you mentioned having a _____ in the precinct. What services would be included in this facility?
- What programs should be offered?
- What accessibility features should be made available?
- What services/facilities would you charge for?
- How would you/do you fund your cultural precinct?
    - Local government
    - State/Federal funding
    - Commercial
    - User-pay/Mix?

- What features generate a good atmosphere in a cultural precinct?
- What staff requirements are needed to ensure your cultural precinct is a success?
- What time requirements are needed in:
    - the building/management of a cultural precinct
    - the delivery of service
    - (i.e. opening hours, waiting times, deadlines, closures)
- What level of quality do you expect in (expected lifecycle)?
    - the facilities of a cultural precinct
    - the delivery of service
- For non-cultural precinct councils: What information would you like to know about your current facilities and services but currently can't obtain?
- What do you currently measure?
    - Are these measures useful?
    - What performance indicators would you like to include in your measures for cultural precincts?

Technical requirements

- What gaps (if any) exist in the following technical requirements?

Rankings

- For each of the listed stakeholder requirements, please rank – from 1-5 – which of these you consider the most important to least important. '5' indicates greatest importance.
- For each of the listed stakeholder requirements, please rank – from 1-5 – which of these you consider are your Council's strengths and weakness. '5' indicates strength and '1' indicates weakness.

While ranking these items, if you think of others, we can add them.

Best practice

- Were there any specific examples of cultural precincts you looked at during the development of your precinct?
- Are you aware of a cultural precinct that you would consider best practice?

Wrap-up

- Are there other people in council that view things differently and who else in council should I speak to and why?

APPENDIX 3: PHASE 3 FOCUS GROUP QUESTIONS

General group discussion

- What is your understanding of the term “cultural precinct”?
- What are the benefits of having a cultural precinct?
    - Why do you want a cultural precinct?

In groups, on butchers’ paper, participants will be asked to answer the following questions:

Stakeholder requirements

Core services

- What mix of services and facilities are required for a successful cultural precinct?
    - External, internal - facilities
    - Private or commercial interests
    - Prompt: you mentioned having a _____ in the precinct. What services would be included in this facility?
- What programs should be offered?

Access & equity/ Transport and parking

- What accessibility features should be made available?
- What safety features should be included?

Timing

- What time requirements are needed in:
    - the building/management of a cultural precinct
    - the delivery of service
    - (i.e. opening hours, waiting times, deadlines, closures)

Funding and cost

- What services/facilities would you charge for?
- How would you fund your cultural precinct?
    - Local government
    - State/Federal funding
    - Commercial
    - User-pay
    - Mix?

Atmosphere & environment

- What features generate a good atmosphere in a cultural precinct?
- What sustainable features should be available?

Maintenance/asset renewal

- What level of quality do you expect in (expected lifecycle)?
    - the facilities of a cultural precinct
    - the delivery of service

Employees

- What staff requirements are needed to ensure your cultural precinct is a success?

Rankings

- Each participant receives 5 stars for each of the categories (25 in total)
- Place 5 stars on most important attributes in each category (stars can go on your own paper or other groups)

General questions for group discussion

- When your council first set out to develop your cultural precinct what were you hoping for?
- Do you consider your cultural precinct a success? Why/why not?
- What were the unintended/unexpected outcomes or impacts of the development?
- For non-cultural precinct LGAs: What information would you like to know about your current facilities and services but currently can't obtain?
- Imagine your Council is sending you a letter telling you how your new cultural precinct is performing. What would you want to know about?

Best practice

- Are you aware of a cultural precinct that you would consider best practice?

APPENDIX 4: LIMITATIONS OF ACTION RESEARCH

The following discussion relates to Section 3.3.6.10 of this thesis.

Action research is criticised for providing both limited theoretical and practical contributions to knowledge, as though one is mutually exclusive of the other. However, the reverse of this is also possible and is documented in the available literature: action research, Badham and Sense (2001) argue, strives to be good at both research and action/practice. They contend that the two stakeholder groups in action research, the practitioner and academic audiences, collaborate effectively towards a meaningful contribution to both theory and practice. In action research the researcher is not separate to the participants (Stokes 2011), however, there is opportunity for the researcher to develop a bias towards one or other of the stakeholder groups and create partiality in the research. The planning and standardisation of research tools such as surveys that takes place prior to the implementation of PAR within a case are critical factors in reducing or limiting the possibility of bias in the research. The researcher, in Badham and Sense's (2001) research, uses the tools at hand to bridge both the academic/theoretical and practitioner/practical contributions to knowledge.

Stokes and Baer (1977) advocated for the generalisability of theory and provided principles for the effective elicitation of such generalisations. These were further developed in later years (Stokes and Osnes 2016) and provided a method of programming in action research to engender theory generalisation (Riley-Tillman et al. 2005). However, action research involves study within local contexts and involves collaboration *with* people, rather than the study *of* people (Altrichter et al. 2002). Consequently, this study in local contexts leads academia to the notion that the knowledge gained has limited generalisability (Denscombe 2014). However, generalisability can be borne out of theoretical deductions based on the knowledge gleaned from the action research and refined with each iteration of the action research cycles (Cherns 1969). The generalisability of the research is based on the constructionist approach where knowledge and meaning are contextual and therefore changing. It has also been argued that an action research study undertaken in a single site will elicit limited theoretical generalisability when compared to a multiple site study (Cherns 1969) as used in this current study and outlined above. Indeed, single site action research has called for further research prior to eliciting generalisable theory (For example, Canterino et al. 2018) though single cases have also been argued to provide a theoretical contribution (Gravesteijn and Wilderom 2018). Returning to the work of Stokes and Osnes (2016), the application of their generalisation principles, including diversity in training (for example, the use of diverse examples such as multiple case examples to engender discussion), the incorporation of functional mediators (use of resources such as powerpoint presentations or handouts to stimulate the production of knowledge) and functional contingencies (use devices such as reflection surveys to reinforce understanding) have been shown to assist in the generalisability of theory and its transfer to practice (Riley-Tillman et al. 2005). These principles were applied to the development of the PAR cycles outlined above and throughout the plan-act-observe-reflect cycles in the field.

Action research has been criticised as having a limited contribution to practice where the development of theory is often very separate to action and the write-up of practical contributions in the "real world" is rarely undertaken (Susman and Evered 1978, p.582). Research suggests that PAR participants involved in the research process (in the current study the PAR process itself), the practical model (the PIHoQ) development and the establishment of the outcomes (PICPA) will result in an improved contribution to practice (Porschen-Hueck and Neumer 2015). Moreover, the participation of practitioners in the cyclical process of learning and improvement are key to the successful practical contribution of PAR (Gravesteijn and Wilderom 2018). There is challenge inherent in understanding and identifying meaning from the diverse and sometimes disparate views of PAR participants (Bartels and Wittmayer 2014). However, action research has been shown to generate reflexivity, learning and improvement (Bartels and Wittmayer 2014) thus supporting a contextualised and practical contribution to knowledge and change. In the current study, the PAR + PIHoQ are developed and refined with two major stakeholder groups: internal and external stakeholders together with a researcher/facilitator to produce a practical outcome: PICPA; thereby constituting a strong contribution to practice.

Action research can be impacted by the variable distribution of power in respect to PAR participants (Susman and Evered 1978). The contextual nature of PAR must then identify the power distribution of participants and ensure the careful facilitation of PAR sessions to observe and reflects the impact on the creation of meaning and knowledge (Suopajärvi 2017). In this current study stakeholder analysis (See Section 3.3.6.1) was undertaken to identify the context within which stakeholders operate and ensure this was acknowledged in the research. Reflection surveys and the mixed distribution of internal and external participants across tables in each PAR sessions assisted in minimising the detrimental effects of unequal power distribution across the stakeholder groups.

Action research has been accused of lacking control (Riley-Tillman et al. 2005) and rigour but these arguments fail to acknowledge that the dual participants of action research, the practitioner and academic, working collaboratively, learning and creating iterative change which is then documented and analysed (Cunningham 1993). This approach requires the capacity to understand the contextual problem to be solved whilst also meticulously examining the actions, decisions and discussions in the field for later analysis and write up (Levin 2012).

APPENDIX 5: PERFORMANCE INDICATORS IN BSC/QBL CATEGORISATION

The detailed list of current practice performance indicators within the case Councils A-E below, relates to the sample current practice in Table 4-18.

BSC/QBL	Sample performance indicator	Document study reference
Customer	Feedback from communities, satisfaction rates	Council A (2011); Council A (2015c) Council B (2013a); Council C (2011); Council D (2012) Council E (2016); Council E (2017)
	Overall community health and well bring	Council B (2013a)
	Number of participants, participation rates, percentage of people participating in the arts/cultural activities	Council A (2011); Council A (2015c) Council B (2013a) Council C (2011) Council D (2012) Council E (2016); Council E (2017)
	Opportunities to engage in arts and related cultural activities	Council D (2012)
	Number and response times for calls etc. Customer service satisfaction	Council A (2011); Council A (2015c) Council D (2012)
	Usage of sporting facilities and other facilities	Council A (2011); Council A (2015c); Council B (2013a)
	Number of complaints and compliments received and actioned	Council A (2011); Council A (2015c)
	Number of activities targeting a particular community group	Council B (2011)
	Number and type of exhibitions	Council C (2011)
	Percentage of population believe council has progress values	Council B (2011)
	Number of entertainment venues open in the evening	Council B (2011)
	Percentage of tourists who nominate a specific aspect of the region, tourism sentiment	Council B (2011) Council D (2012)
	Number of domestic and international visitors	Council B (2013a)
	Percentage of residents and businesses who are satisfied with living/working in the city	Council B (2011)
	Number of visitors who nominate an element of the city’s diverse history as a highlight of their visit (rural, town, first peoples, wilderness gateway, historic buildings, green gateway)	Council B (2011)
	Reported incidents of violent crime as a percentage of population	Council B (2011) Council B (2013a)
	Percentage of people who feel safe	Council D (2012)
	Level of public transport utilisation	Council D (2012)
	Percentage of commuter modal share from walking and cycling	Council B (2011)
	Level of satisfaction with accessibility of spaces	Council D (2012)

BSC/QBL	Sample performance indicator	Document study reference
Financial	Community belief that council is financially sustainable	Council B (2013a)
	Number and dollar value of grants received/awarded	Council B (2013a) Council E (2016); Council E (2017)
	Economic impacts of tourism	Council C (2011)
	Estimated economic impact of events	Council C (2011)
	Percentage of people employed in the creative sector	Council D (2012)
	Percentage of creative business contributing to the city's economy	Council D (2012)
Learning and growth	Percentage population participating in volunteer work, volunteer hours contributed	Council B (2011) Council B (2013a) Council D (2012)
	Volunteer engagement – increasing volunteer placement	Council C (2011)
Internal process	Number of website hits	Council B (2011)
	Number of good news stories	Council B (2013a)
	Number of incidences of information distribution	Council A (2011); Council A (2015c)
	Percentage of community satisfied with opportunities to be informed	Council C (2011)
	Progress towards renewable technology	Council B (2011)
	Level of satisfaction with appearance of public space	Council D (2012)
Civic leadership	Community belief that council is accountable	Council B (2013a)
	Percentage of community satisfied with opportunities to be heard	Council C (2011)

APPENDIX 6: CURRENT PRACTICE PERFORMANCE INDICATORS – COUNCILS A-E

The detailed list of current practice performance indicators within the case Councils A-E below, relates to the sample current practice in Table 4-19.

Council	A	B	C	D	E
Annual report	Cash surplus/deficit Income raised Operating expenditure & capital by QBL (i.e. Social & Cultural) Visitor numbers per facility Utilisation of meeting rooms Event participation rates Number of programs Number of wireless logins Number web hits Volunteer hours worked Satisfaction rates for facilities	Income raised Expenses from operating budget Number of attendances at Arts Centre and School of Arts Community facilities usage - hours per quarter booked Number of attendances at Council's aquatic and leisure centres Number of attendances at the Entertainment Centre Number of attendances at Council's libraries Number of virtual visits at Council's libraries	Hits to website Number of enquiries, walk-ins and service requests related to various services i.e. tourism centre Number of visitors to facilities Number of exhibitions Number of attendees to events Number of season ticket holders Number of public programs Web hits	Rates levied (income) Average residential rate Available working funds balance Operating performance ratio Asset maintenance ratio Number of employee (FTE) Population per employee Governance + Admin expense per capita Environmental expenditure per capita Community services expenditure per capita Recreational + Culture expenditure per capita Public order, safety + health expenditure per capita Library services expenditure per capita Visitation per facility	Total number of projects Total completed Total ongoing Total deferred Programming: Number of participants participating in particular programs Number of programs held Facilities operating at capacity (as a percentage) % of audits completed Satisfaction ratings for use of particular facilities (% satisfied) $ value of grants awarded Volunteer hours contributed
Master plan/ Planning documents	No performance measures	Percentage of population who participate in voluntary activities Number of community activities hosted by Council responding to diverse cultures and lifestyles, and number of attendees Number of cultural activities which encourage public engagement and number of attendees	No performance measures	No performance measures	No master planning documents available

Council	A	B	C	D	E
		State of city survey carried out once every two years, reaches 20% of the adult population and is completed by 5% of the adult population Percentage of city residents who believe the city has progressive values Percentage of new residents Progress towards establishing renewable technology park Number of new knowledge, culture, green, tourist and media based enterprises which are established Percentage of population who are unemployed Average uplift in household income Percentage of population in the top 10% and bottom 10% income distribution Number of new buildings designed to meet higher than minimum BCA standards for energy, carbon and water Household recycling rates Amount of seating approved for outdoor dining Number of entertainment venues open for evening trading Percentage of tourists who nominate the food culture as a reason to visit the region			

Council	A	B	C	D	E
		Progress in meeting outcomes of Food Strategy Percentage of residents and businesses who are satisfied with living/working in the city Percentage of population who take moderate physical activity three times a week or more Number of visitors who nominate an element of the city's diverse history as a highlight of their visit (rural, town, first peoples, wilderness gateway, historic buildings, green gateway) Reported incidents of violent crime as a percentage of population Level of fear of crime amongst the population Percentage of commuter modal share from walking and cycling			

Council	A	B	C	D	E
Community Strategic Plan	Access to buildings by community groups Feedback from community through surveys Number of participants attending events, such as ‘Seniors Week’ Participation rates at cultural diversity events. Participation rates at Indigenous events Number of incidences of information being distributed to new migrants Participation rates in English classes Usage of recreation and sporting facilities - City Library, Museum, Gallery and Entertainment Extent to which facilities are utilised Participation at family friendly events/initiatives Usage/attendance at events and programs Number of website hits by service type e.g. library, development applications, etc Number and response times for telephone calls, customer requests, correspondence, etc Satisfaction with customer services	Community satisfaction with Council’s overall performance and progress in working towards achieving the objectives of the CSP Overall community health and wellbeing Environmental sustainability actions implemented at home and work Access to information and services Awareness of Council’s strategic direction Feeling safe at home and in the community Community participation in consultation programs A Council that is accountable and financially sustainable Performance against targets of the Delivery Program and Operational Plan Level of volunteering in consultation bodies or committees, recreation, sporting and environmental activities Use of Council libraries and other facilities Education and skill levels in the community Number of events Attendance at events Levels of use of community	Increase the economic impact of Domestic Overnight Visitors by 2% from $119.4million (2009) to $121.8million Increase the economic impact of International Overnight Visitors by 2% from $11.3million (2009) to $11.5million Increase the economic impact of Domestic Daytrip Visitors by 2% per year from 509,000 (2009) to 519,180 in 2012 Customer satisfaction with the range of activities available. Review and undertake Customer Satisfaction Survey in October 2011 and every two years following Over 70% of community surveyed are satisfied with opportunities to be informed and heard Maintain upward trend in relation to Domestic Overnight Visitors (390,000 in 2009) Maintain upward trend in relation to International Overnight Visitors (11,129 in 2009) Art Gallery: A 2% increase (600 visitors) in participation rate compared with 2010	↑ Tourism sentiment – as a place to promote and a place to visit ↑ Overall satisfaction with Council ↑ Customer service satisfaction with Council ↑ Percentage of community who utilise parks, leisure and recreational facilities on a weekly basis ↑ Opportunities to engage in arts and related cultural activities ↑ Percentage of people who participate in arts and related cultural activities ↑ Percentage of people with internet access at home ↑ Percentage of people with broadband internet access at home ↑ Level of public transport utilisation ↑ Percentage of residents who cycle or walk to work ↑ Kilometers dedicated to walking or cycling paths ↑ Level of satisfaction (%) with accessibility and appearance of public space. ↑ Percentage of people who feel safe or very safe walking alone in local area during day/night	No performance measures

Council	**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**
	Complaints/compliments received and actioned	facilities Population growth Number of domestic and international visitors Number of good news stories Budget operating surplus or deficit, excluding capital grants and contributions Respond timely to complaints and requests received from the community Number of new initiatives and opportunities undertaken Number and dollar value of grants received	figures Library Museum: A 2% increase (4,000 visitors) in participation rate compared with 2010 figures Library: Maintain consistent attendance at approximately 96,000 visitors compared with 2010 figures Entertainment Centre: A 2% increase (1,100 visitors) in participation rate compared with 2010 figures Increase private bookings by 10% (from 86) Events Team to report on participation and estimated economic impact of events Social History: 50% of exhibitions generated inhouse; at least one public program per exhibition; develop an exhibition program to showcase emerging artists; 15 artists engaged per annum to develop new work Volunteer engagement: 5% increase in volunteer placements within Cultural Services	↓ Percentage in city footprint ↑ Percentage of people employed in creative sector ↑ Percentage of creative business contributing to the city's economy ↑ Percentage of people who help out as volunteers	

APPENDIX 7: CURRENT PRACTICE PERFORMANCE INDICATORS - INTERNATIONALLY

The detailed list of current practice performance indicators within an international selection of councils below, relates to the sample current practice in Table 4-20.

Council	International 1 Vancouver British Columbia, Canada	International 2 Perth and Kinross, Scotland	International 3 Broadway Los Angeles, California, USA
Annual report	Consolidated financial results of operation	Tourism generated expenditure Participants in cultural, sporting and active recreation sessions Attendances at sport and active recreation activities Income due from Council Tax received by end of year	Project budget outlook deficits Improve Our Fiscal Standing Reduce the Deficit Use Performance and Outcomes to Guide the Budget Process Negotiate new MOUs that promote long-term sustainability, partnership and stability Address Liabilities Use Innovation and Technology to Improve Services Improve Transit Options Maintain Green Energy Goals with Reasonable Rate Structure Establish a New Economic Development Model Improve the Convention Center Facilities and Operations
Master plan/ Planning documents	No performance measures	No performance measures	No performance measures

Council	International 1 Vancouver British Columbia, Canada	International 2 Perth and Kinross, Scotland	International 3 Broadway Los Angeles, California, USA
Strategic Planning documents	Percentage of calls answered in 60 seconds or less Percentage of residents very/somewhat satisfied with City services Number of website visits Number of website page views Number of people engaged through outreach, online surveys and consultation programs Percentage of total capital funding provided by external partners Percentage of total operating funding provided by external partners Number of library in person and website visits Attendance at theatres and museums Number of registrants community centre programs Percentage of major public works assets in poor condition	% of children meeting expected developmental milestones when entering primary school Number of people involved in family learning, adult learning and parenting programs Number of new business start-ups as a % of the business stock Tourism generated revenues (£) Number of participants in cultural, sporting and active recreation sessions Number of new community initiatives to support older people Percentage of council dwellings that are energy efficient Number of attendances at sport and active recreation activities Emissions from Council buildings Number of complaints of antisocial behaviour received by the Council % of adults giving time to volunteer in the last 12months	No publicly available documents

APPENDIX 8: PERFORMANCE INDICATORS ALIGNED TO TECHNICAL REQUIREMENTS

The detailed list of performance indicators within the extant literature and aligned to the TRs, referring to the summarised in Table 4-21.

Perspective - Balanced Scorecard/QBL	**Technical requirement**	***Interviewee quotes***	**Associated representative performance measures**	**Literature reference**
Financial	**Fee/funding structure**	*“we’ve always had a philosophy of price is an accessibility factor. So we’ve done what we could to not include a fee.” (M11, Council C)*	No. refunds given Expenses per customer Expenditure per capita Ratio of Government funding to ‘other sources’ Spending efficiency using Data Envelopment Analysis Time-driven activity-based costing Total employment and number of businesses in creative industries Return on investments	Adams (2010, p.46); Parmenter (2010, pp.272-273); Library Council of New South Wales (2013); Stouthuysen et al. (2014) Seifert and Nieswand (2014, pp.766 and 786) Partridge et al. (2011, p.24) Matthews (2011, p.11)
Customer	**Customer service**	*Interviewer: “What information would you like to know about your current facilities and services but can’t currently obtain?”* *Interviewee: “Satisfaction! From the community. What can I do today to make it better for them tomorrow?” (E1, Council A)*	Service quality Community/customer satisfaction Abandon rate at call centre No. of customer complaints escalated to senior management	Donnelly et al. (1995); Parasuraman et al. (1988); Pimentel and Major (2016); Spitzer (2007, pp.222-223); Department for Culture Media and Sport (2008, p.9); Library Council of New South Wales (2013, p.21); Parmenter (2010, pp.271-274, 276)
	Facility hours of operation	*“maybe different sections would be open – multipurpose centre could be open 7 days a week.” (M8, Council A)* *“the whole city was open for 24 hours whereas usually the only places that are open are the convenience stores, brothels you know kebab shops and licensed venue.” (M3, Council A)*	Total cost per hour of operation Time-driven activity-based costing Activity-based costing Aggregated scheduled opening hours Number of library visits Visits to facility per capita No. people to access the collection on-site	Stouthuysen et al. (2014) Spitzer (2007, pp.240-242) Library Council of New South Wales (2013, p.5) Department for Culture Media and Sport (2008, pp.5, 7) Library Council of New South Wales (2013, p.7)

Perspective - Balanced Scorecard/QBL	Technical requirement	*Interviewee quotes*	Associated representative performance measures	Literature reference
	Program and exhibition offerings	*"…I would want to see learning programs and public programs, for children, for preschoolers, for the aged, demographically geared." (P2, Council B)* *"…for me it's about product development… but also signage, timing, pricing." (M2, Council A)*	Sale frequency Sales cancelled New business by occurrence type No. programs by type No. participants attending activities Thinking about public art in the streets, parks and public places, how satisfied are you with the range and quality of public art installations and artworks? Very satisfied; satisfied; Neutral/Don't know, Dissatisfied; Very dissatisfied;	Parmenter (2010, pp.274, 279, 289) Library Council of New South Wales (2013, pp.19, 29) Partridge et al. (2011, Appendix A, p.23)
	Café and catering options	*"It's about appropriateness. Because what you're trying to do is you're trying to create a layering of access points for people for your facilities...Facility management, maintenance schedule, café, catering." (P5, Council D)*	Utilise KPIs within "Fee structure" and "Customer service"	Tarigan and Deborah Christine (2012)
	Collection size	*"I would say about the collections is that they need to change. If they're too static, and one of the challenges we have with …your exhibitions and your curation of your exhibitions is such an expensive exercise." (E4, Council C)*	Rate of growth of the collection in 12 months Items per capita	Adams (2010, p.46) Library Council of New South Wales (2013, p.13)
	Collection offerings	*We've moved on from that (watching footy and going to the pub) and we're establishing a cultural identity and that's a local thing. Clearly from the arts point of view that sort of significant collection where we've got a very strong connection here with (local artist)." (E2, Council B)*	% condition rating Turnover of stock Circulation per capita No. items from the collection digitised	Adams (2010, p.46) Library Council of New South Wales (2013, p.15) Library Council of New South Wales (2013, pp.4, 49)
	Internet access	*"the internet is obviously very helpful for what we do" (M7, Council B)*	% facilities providing access to electronic information No. visits to the collection on-line in 12 months	Department for Culture Media and Sport (2008, p.6) Adams (2010, p.46)

Perspective - Balanced Scorecard/QBL	Technical requirement	*Interviewee quotes*	Associated representative performance measures	Literature reference
	Technology offerings such as PA etc.	*"there needs to be interactivity. …Was had…these electronic exhibitions, so they'd run at night.* *And so you had all this artwork, it's all video art, but it was all showing outside, from outside the building, you could stand around outside or at the other end of the square and see all this video art coming up on (glass doors)." (E4, Council C)*	IT expense as a % of total administrative expense No. systems integrated with other systems Downtime due to equipment failure No. electronic workstations with access to the internet	Parmenter (2010, pp.281, 287, 289) Department for Culture Media and Sport (2008, p.6)
	Transport offerings including parking	*"So you have to look at pedestrian safety and traffic movements and entry and exit to sites and they were looking at this site to provide underneath this site basement parking as well." (M4, Council A)*	Modal split Travel time Expenditure on road infrastructure	Flood (1997, p.1662)
Internal process	**Facility maintenance schedule**	*"I'll want to know all about the way they're operating and how long the building's going to last for and how soon that will change or not change, and that should come out in the master plan for the arts precinct as well. And the willingness to actually evolve the buildings themselves and the operations, you know." (M12, Council D)*	Unplanned versus planned maintenance Maintenance efficiency index	Parmenter (2010, p.286) Lavy et al. (2014a, pp.263-264); Lavy et al. (2014b, pp.282-284); Lavy et al. (2010)
	Facility size	*"The Town Hall, a hospital or the public library should be substantial buildings on their own. They should stand out, pronounced to the community. If they are hidden in some sort of high-rise it lessens their existence I think." (P1, Council A)*	Building capacity vs highest visitation numbers	Library Council of New South Wales (2013, p.7)
	Facility security and access	*"Obviously you'd fit your lighting and then it feels safe. That it has easy access… It doesn't necessarily have to have car parking, but that there's an ability to access that area. Both by transport but also within sort of that disabled access and, and child-friendly access in terms of ramps." (M5, Council B)*	Proportion of households living within specified distance of a facility Number of reported incidents Percentage visitors who feel safe or very safe in precinct Percentage of police requests for CCTV camera footage that are satisfied	Department for Culture Media and Sport (2008, p.4) Partridge et al. (2011, Appendix A, p.9)

Perspective - Balanced Scorecard/QBL	**Technical requirement**	***Interviewee quotes***	**Associated representative performance measures**	**Literature reference**
	Online promotion	*"Getting, you know, 50 departments in a council working together for the first time ever. You know, with marketing, with the website. But it was great. Because the end result produced something that was possibly a model for Australia. A pilot for Australia. And they knew that." (P2, Council B)*	Direct communications to customers in month Brand recall (%) based on market research	Parmenter (2010, pp.272-273)
	Hardcopy promotion	*"we invited Professor at Sydney Uni and…he talked about identifying what critical mass you already have in the community, what marketing advantage you might have in creating what he calls clusters." (E3, Council B)*	Direct communications to customers Brand recall (%) based on market research No. of photos in papers	Parmenter (2010, pp.272-273, 276)
	Contractor management	*"I see that as part of the cultural precinct down there. We are teaching people to swim, who can't swim, who have never seen a swimming pool. And all that sort of stuff because we are such an outdoor environment, you know we have got the contract down there so (name of park) Park, I wanted them to be managing it and all that sort of thing, so you have got a park there." (E1, Council A)*	Key work carried out by contractors	Parmenter (2010, p.283)
	Procurement	*"We're actively looking at convergence on the performing arts centre and the town hall, concert hall. But we had problems before in procurement in terms of how we actually do that. What you wanted to necessarily do wasn't as easily done by procurement. But we're now actively looking at opportunities there." (E6, Council D)*	No. suppliers on the accounts payable ledger	Parmenter (2010, p.287)

Perspective - Balanced Scorecard/QBL	**Technical requirement**	***Interviewee quotes***	**Associated representative performance measures**	**Literature reference**
	Environmentally sustainable practices	*"I guess the usual things with you know the power and things like that, obviously has some sort of opportunities to look at, you know the current innovations in terms of how you run your air conditioning and your lighting with your energy saving lights and I mean a lot of this will go back to design of course, so hopefully you would incorporate that in the design aspects of it as much as possible." (M1, Council A)*	Energy consumed Entries to environment/ community awards % environmentally friendly projects Total energy from non-renewable sources Ratio of waste recycled to waste sent to land fill	Parmenter (2010, pp.275-277) Adams (2010, p.46)
	Parks & garden maintenance	*"So you'll be able to sit out there and just look at the beautiful green grass, the lovely trees out there and even the evening with the, with the trees lit up and that sort of thing." (P3, Council C)*	Unplanned versus planned maintenance	Parmenter (2010, p.286)
Learning and growth	**Staffing – workforce management**	*"Should have a good mix of staff that matches the demographic of the community." (M8, Council A)*	Employee satisfaction Minimum no. staff members per 3,000 population % local residents in total workforce Empowerment index – no. staff and managers who say they are empowered in staff survey Qualified staff members	Pimentel and Major (2016, p.1006) Library Council of New South Wales (2013, p.9) Parmenter (2010, pp.276-278, 285, 287, 291) Library Council of New South Wales (2013, p.9)
	Volunteer program	*"So I've been, not outspoken, but, you know, made it clear in the organisation I believe we could do things much, much better with volunteers and it's shouldn't just be focused on WHS, yes, volunteer safety's important." (M6, Council B)*	Volunteers recruited Volunteers resigned Total no. volunteers registered No. volunteer hours worked	Parmenter (2010, p.276) Adams (2010, p.46)

Perspective - Balanced Scorecard/QBL	Technical requirement	*Interviewee quotes*	Associated representative performance measures	Literature reference
	Research & community development	*"So there was a consultant came in to look at the needs for our library museum and gallery services and identified that our museum was inadequate, our library was inadequate, our gallery at this stage was okay though could be improved. And from there, we said, okay, we need a new library and museum, we want to revitalise the cultural precinct. Let's look at co-locating, at that stage, library and museum. And where? Well, we want to revitalise the cultural precinct… What can we do beyond co-location? … it became a fascinating research project." (M9, Council C)*	Initiatives completed Investment in research No. research papers generated	Parmenter (2010, pp.273, 287, 293)
Governance & civic leadership	**Project management**	*"There's a strict policy on any project that you're gonna do that involves community money, that there's community consultation. and a process, how you go through it, and that, different sections of people" (M10, Council C)*	% projects on time Post-project wrap-ups outstanding Late projects by manager Innovation climate	Parmenter (2010, pp.272-274) Spitzer (2007); Stewart-Weeks and Kastelle (2015)