UNDERSTANDING STAKEHOLDERS' PERCEPTIONS OF SUCCESS IN PROJECT MANAGEMENT AND ELEMENTS INFLUENCING STAKEHOLDER PERCEPTIONS WITHIN AN ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXT

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment for the requirements of the University of Salford for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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DECLARATION

I certify that the work is that of the author alone and has not been previously submitted, in part or in whole, to qualify for any other academic award part to another University for the award of any other degree

The content of the thesis is a product of work which has been carried out since the official commencement date of the approved research programme, and any published or unpublished materials used in this thesis are duly referenced.

Signature ----------  ----------

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ABSTRACT

Projects are increasingly becoming a major component of organisational activities and a tool that organisations are using to create value for the business (Anantatmula 2010, Medina and Medina 2014). These projects are run by project managers who are faced with the problem of how to effectively manage different stakeholders, who all have differing interests and needs that they expect the project manager to fulfil. For these stakeholders, their expectations must be met for them to perceive the project as a success. The specific problem of interest is that the influence of project management on stakeholder perception is not currently well understood. The purpose of this qualitative research is to assess the perspectives of stakeholders on the impact of project management on project success by examining the extent to which the management of a project influences stakeholders' perceptions. To achieve this, the researcher developed an integrated framework to synthesise the different constructs of success, stakeholder theory, project management, and change management theories, within an organisational context. The framework maps the relationship between the different constructs to promote a holistic approach to managing stakeholders' perceptions of success.

The researcher's focus on stakeholder perceptions is hinged on understanding the different interpretations of how people frame and understand a project that is being developed and how the project emerges in their minds. A person's perception is not a clearly defined or unchanging unit; it comes with an unavoidable level of subjectivity. This roots the research under the interpretivist philosophical paradigm as it views the measurement of success as dependent on different interpretations. It develops our understanding of stakeholder perception as a critical ingredient to project success. A single case study - the Industry Collaboration Zones (ICZ) project of the University of Salford, was adopted for the study and data was collected through the use of semi-structured interviews, focus group and documentation methods.

The study introduced a framework for project managers that considers project success from the stakeholder perspective to improve project delivery and create value for organisations.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1: Introduction

The Project Management Institute (PMI) has created and maintains the Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK), which serves as the professional standard for the management of projects. In 2013, the PMI included Stakeholder Management - the tenth priority to their list of Knowledge Areas, showing recognition for the emergence of a critical factor in the project management field (PMI, 2013).

This thematic area of research has been undisputed by project management academics and practitioners to be critical, reflective of which a large body of literature exists. However, stakeholder conflicts and issues are a part of most projects and are cited as constituting a prime reason for 'project failure' in several project performance surveys undertaken over time. There is a long list of projects that have experienced cost and schedule overruns, undesirable and unexpected scope modifications, serious reputational damage, or which were prone to premature termination because of flawed stakeholder management and engagement by the project's decision-makers (Khan, Skibniewski, & Cable, 2017). The effective management and engagement of stakeholders is hence critical for projects as it is equally as important as the management of cost, time, scope, quality and other 'technical' parameters.

Furthermore, understanding and managing all stakeholders is the ethical responsibility of every project manager. The project manager-stakeholder relationship is postulated to be an intangible measure of project success. The literature agrees that project success is a subjective interpretation of stakeholders. Even if a project is deemed as successful after achieving its goals within its cost, time, scope and quality constraints, contemporary interpretations of project success maintain that the project cannot be considered as truly successful if key stakeholders are not satisfied with how the project is carried out, or if substantial and unsolved stakeholder conflicts and issues emerged as a result of the project before project initiation, during the project life-cycle or after project completion (Khan, Skibniewski, & Cable, 2017).

While these theories are well articulated, the field still lacks comparable data within project management to provide well-founded support on stakeholder management (Davis, 2014;

McLeod, Doolin & MacDonell, 2012; Verbeke & Tung, 2012). Consequently, project managers still have limited knowledge of how to manage stakeholders to achieve successful projects. This has resulted in calls from researchers to better understand stakeholder management and its impact on success (Turner & Zolin, 2012, Davis 2017). Furthermore, project management researchers and practitioners have acknowledged the need for new perspectives, new performance indicators, and a new language to assess success (Ika, 2009; Turner & Zolin, 2012).

This research responds to this gap in the literature by introducing a framework for project managers that considers project success from the stakeholder perspective. It examines the relationship that exists between elements surrounding these theories (stakeholder theory, project management (as well as benefit/value management), and change management) as a basis to prepare a conceptual framework to achieve more successful project outcomes. It provides project owners, managers, planners and executors with significant insight into identifying the processes through which project managers can systemically manage stakeholder perceptions.

The contributions of the research emphasise the importance of the stakeholder perspective, indicating that the perceptions of projects are dependent on the subjective interpretation of stakeholders, and these stakeholders have varying perceptions of success criteria and factors. Findings from the case study showcased how the different stakeholders of the project measured success using different criteria regardless of what the initiators of the project (and project management team) believed were the success criteria and measures of the project. Different understandings and interpretations of the scope and objectives of the project impacted on the participants' perception and led to many viewing the project as unsuccessful. The results emphasise that success is not achievable without paying attention to the needs and expectations of project stakeholders that may cumulatively exert a significant impact on the perception of project success. Although it is difficult to engage all stakeholders, it becomes a necessity if projects are to be perceived as successful.

The findings also emphasised the importance of conducting a dynamic salience analysis of project stakeholders to aid effective decision making as well as understanding the organisational characteristics influencing projects. There is also a need to leverage

psychological insights to understand and manage human factors, to find out what stakeholders want and need, in managing their perception. Consequently, project managers need to analyse their stakeholders and work on more consistent, agile approaches to managing and engaging them rather than communicating with them only at the onset of the project. It is crucial, therefore, to set proper communication channels in place to establish and manage stakeholder expectations.

The project management field can benefit from a better understanding of how project managers manage stakeholder perceptions because stakeholder views are critical for the viability of projects. Specifically, the results from the study are expected to provide project managers insight into the criteria stakeholders use to form these perceptions and how project managers can influence such perceptions about a project. The study is an opportunity to undertake research that both academics and project management practitioners can benefit from and generates a greater level of understanding of success as a contribution to the general body of knowledge.

To achieve its aims, the study conducts a literature review to identify current research and directions in project management, stakeholder theory and organizational change. It concludes by proposing a conceptual framework for project management based on the premise that without the management of stakeholder perception, projects can be perceived as failures. The management of multiple stakeholder perceptions is relevant in achieving a common understanding of success. The study contributes to theory and practice by introducing a framework for project managers that considers project success from the stakeholder perspective.

This chapter presents a brief overview of the research study and gives the background of the research, its aim and objectives, research questions, the rationale for the research, knowledge gap and structure of the research.

1.2 Background

In many organisations, changes are usually carried out as projects (Liikamaa, 2015). Haniff & Fernie (2008) consider this extensive use of projects in organisations as the 'projectification of society' which is essential for fulfilling organisational strategy (Cicmil & Hodgson, 2006). Hence, the performance of organisations depends on the performance of projects. As this extensive use of projects continues to unfold, the use of project management procedures is expected to increase which will undoubtedly lead to an increase in the scrutiny on the value of projects (Too & Weaver, 2014). It becomes imperative, therefore, that organisations employ project-based initiatives to ensure continued success. These calls are mirrored by Ahlemann, El Arbi, Kaiser and Heck (2013) who reviewed papers of the International Journal of Project Management to investigate the maturity state of project management. The authors concluded that project management research was still in its infancy stage in comparison with other sciences and there was still a significant need to improve. Blomquist, Hallgren, Nilsson & Soderholm (2010) added that project management was still immature as a research field and one such improvement area is in stakeholder management.

Davis (2014) draws attention to the lack of empirical data on studies on certain stakeholder groups and highlights that there has been more focus on stakeholders involved directly in a project and less on those considered indirectly involved. This motivated Davis (2014) to examine multiple stakeholder views as opposed to a single set of stakeholders (usually the project manager or programme director). To emphasize this gap, Winch (2017) argued that the research on project stakeholder management has often focused more on the instrumental approach, which has led to frequent calls for a shift towards stakeholder management for those impacted by the delivery of the project (Di Maddaloni & Davis, 2018; Eskerod, Huemann, & Savage, 2015; Eskerod & Huemann, 2013; Eskerod & Jepsen, 2013; Eskerod & Huemann, 2014; Eskerod, Huemann & Ringhofer, 2016; Huemann & Zuchi, 2014).

The subject of project success and failure have been researched extensively and is of much interest to the project management community. However, there continues to be some degree of uncertainty and difficulty in defining and measuring project success (Ika, 2009). This is because project management practitioners and researchers disagree on the definition of project success or the criteria to judge success by (Prabhakar, 2009). This is further made

complicated by different perceptions of project success and failure (Shenhar, Dvir, Levy & Maltz, 2001; Wang & Huang, 2006). Evidence of perceived project failures in industry suggests the need to investigate the subject further to extend the literature and inform practice.

The way that project success is understood and defined has evolved. The views have progressed from definitions constrained to the implementation phase of the project life cycle to definitions that encompass the appreciation of success over the project and product life cycle concerning the strategic value of project management for the business (Jugdev & Müller, 2012; Thal & Bedingfield 2010, pg. 244). For example, Kerzner (2018) made comparisons between the traditional definitions of project success within the triple constraints of time, cost and scope, and new definitions highlighting an important element in success to be value. The author defined project success as the achievement of a desired business value within competing constraints.

The formula for success has been called into question following major project failures such as the aftermath of the BP Deepwater Horizon project that caused havoc to the natural environment and inhabitants (Gould, Teich, Pemberton, Pierannunzi, & Larson, 2015). Also, some projects with ethical concerns with global implications have caused activists to question the success of projects that do not directly or indirectly uphold human rights. Furthermore, stakeholders have more awareness and need assurances that projects and products do not violate human rights in any way (Henisz, Dorobantu, & Nartey, 2014). Several approved and successful business models have been created that justify loss margins that are passed on to customers through social justice. In general, the term "stakeholder" has broadened to include people millions of miles away or those in the future that the project will impact hundreds of years to come.

This suggests that success factors are intangible, which makes an investigation of stakeholder perception of project success and how project managers can manage this perception invaluable to the project management field. Stakeholder satisfaction, in the end, is the ultimate criterion for success (Eskerod, Huemann, & Ringhofer, 2015; Koops, Bosch-Rekveldt, Coman, Hertogh & Bakker, 2016; Thomson, 2011; Turner & Zolin, 2012). The iron triangle as a measure of project management falls short of assessing stakeholder satisfaction, as indicated in case

studies (Davis, 2014; Ika, 2009; Turner & Zolin, 2012). Rather, there are efforts within project management to establish alternative theories that suggest best practices of successful project managers (Ika, 2009; Johnson et. al; Littau, Jujagiri, & Adlbrecht, 2010). This maintains that there is a need for more research on stakeholders, what they collectively deem as success and on how stakeholders go about making their judgements about a project (Davis 2014; 2015; 2017; Johnson, Creasy & Fan, 2016; Turner & Zolin, 2012). By gathering the useful experiences of stakeholders involved in a project, the researcher may be able to fix a specific strategy to the unlearned practices resulting in stakeholder satisfaction (Rezvani, Chang, Wiewiora, Ashkanasy, Jordan, & Zolin, 2016).

Success is based on perception (Basten, Joosten, & Mellis, 2011), therefore, understanding the perspectives of stakeholders is significant. Perception (or perspective) is defined as people's beliefs that are derived from their experiences and interactions with an entity (Xu, Chen, Lu & Fu, 2006). It is built on the summative knowledge of reality and is structured and constructed by the observer and their social context, which includes childhood, training, and experience (Artto, Martinsuo, Dietrich, & Kujala, 2008; Svejvig & Andersen, 2015). Darškuvienė and Bendoraitienė (2013) discussed the power of stakeholders in influencing decisions, stressing that stakeholders have the power to influence how organisations choose projects. According to Case (2017), stakeholders can sway the direction of projects by changing requirements or making demands as the economic picture changes. Inadvertently, stakeholders have a "say" in what they perceive as the outcome of the project.

The research follows on from previous work of other authors like Davis (2014; 2016; 2017) and Googins & Rochlin (2000, pg. 133-134) who investigated the perception of different stakeholder groups and proposed that a common understanding of project success by different stakeholders is pivotal for the success of a project. Davis (2017), in particular, suggests that high failure rates are as a result of different interpretations of the criteria and factors used for success by multiple stakeholder groups. The author's earlier works (Davis 2014; Davis 2016) identify the importance of additional stakeholder groups in measuring success and explores the perspective of multiple stakeholder groups in judging success and failure. Davis provides evidence that the project success rates published by industry surveys can be adversely affected by different perceptions from stakeholders. The author further developed

a framework that ensures alignment of stakeholder perceptions when evaluating project success using success factors throughout the project life cycle (Davis, 2017).

The scope of this research is critical considering Chen's (2010) view that those involved in a project or business must be questioned individually about different areas within an organisation (for example, businesspeople are asked questions relating to the business and IT people asked IT questions). Turner, Zolin, and Remington (2009), however, contradicted this by suggesting that "all stakeholders may judge all levels of results" (p. 10).

1.3: Statement of the Problem

The specific problem of interest is that the influence of project managers on stakeholder perception is not currently well understood (Eskerod, Huemann, & Ringhofer, 2015; Turner & Zolin, 2012). Research is needed to bring clarity to this gap in knowledge which causes the inability to properly incorporate stakeholder management when managing projects to ensure that more projects are successful (Turner & Zolin, 2012; Verbeke & Tung, 2013). This research does this by contributing to the criteria of how different stakeholders judge success, the different factors they base their judgments on and how project managers can better manage stakeholder perceptions to achieve success.

The concept of stakeholder management is not a new one. However, the continuous challenge for project managers is for them to ensure that stakeholders develop positive expectations with a high degree of certainty towards the project, and which extend throughout its life cycle, and that stakeholders recognize and appreciate that the project is consistently fulfilling or exceeding their expectations. Pedrini & Ferri (2019) state that most considered works are either case studies or conceptual development, whereas research aimed at broader data sets are still missing. The authors call for a growing commitment for academics to extend more research efforts into further understanding stakeholder management. There are also calls for future research into understanding the importance of stakeholder management as a managerial tool to support strategy development and value creation (Pedrini & Ferri, 2019).

The concept of stakeholder salience was initially developed in the realm of organizational management, referring to the degree to which managers give priority to competing

stakeholders (Mitchell, Agle, & Wood, 1997). The stakeholder salience theory is one of the most influential works within the organizational management domain (Laplume, Sonpar & Litz, 2008; Khurram and Pestre, 2015). However, in examining the literature further, it was found that there was limited research on the application of the stakeholder salience model in project management. This observation is supported by Elias, Cavana and Jackson (2002) and Knox and Gruar (2007) who identified that the theory was limited in identifying stakeholders. A stakeholder's salience to the firm is a function of its power, legitimacy, and urgency as perceived by the firm's managers (Mitchell, Agle & Wood, 1997), and determines 'who counts' as a stakeholder. The salience theory has been criticized as representing a static view of salient stakeholders, where stakeholder analysis is conducted at the front end of the project. Jepsen and Eskerod (2009) argued that front end project analysis is incomplete because project managers have difficulty in foreseeing interactions with stakeholders in the future. Also, contributions from each stakeholder can vary in different stages of the project due to unforeseeable events in the project. Some stakeholders can have more influence over a project than others and this influence can also change over the course of a project, therefore continuous stakeholder identification and prioritisation is encouraged. The salience model is based on determining different levels of stakeholder importance from the perspective of the project manager. As the aim of this study is to explore the role of project management in influencing stakeholders' perception, it becomes imperative also, therefore, to examine the salience model from the lens of different stakeholder views.

The importance of the context into which projects are embedded is highlighted within literature (Grabher, 2004, Lindkvist, 2004, Manning, 2008), and has led to calls for future research to continue to investigate the relationship between context and projects (Bakker, 2010). Chandrasekaran, Linderman & Schroeder (2015) pointed out that there was a dearth of research in examining the role of the organizational context on the management of change projects, and particularly in project management literature (Hornstein, 2015). According to the authors, while the literature records a growing interest in project success variables in organizations such as strategy, the impact of organizational culture, behavioural competencies of the project manager, and leadership, the impact of organizational change management on project success has only been recently identified and acknowledged to be important to

success (Parker, Charlton, Ribeiro, & Pathak, 2013; Hornstein, 2015). A contextual look at organisational change projects is, therefore, required.

Amirsayafi, Jin, & Senaratne (2018) suggested that stakeholder management studies have majorly focused on specific industries such as construction, building (Bourne & Walker, 2006), and software (Kaur & Sengupta, 2013). However, organisational change projects have not been given as much attention. The authors also pointed out that in comparison with projects found in the manufacturing, construction and IT industries, no consistent framework can be found that guides organisational change projects. In this context, an organizational change project is a project set up to change the way an organization operates, including its structure, generally, to improve performance or to enable the organization to face external changes in its environment. The authors suggested working on project success models in specific fields to improve project performance. As stated, "there is a need for empirical study to identify the critical success factors based on organizational types and to identify the relationship among the various variables" (p. 356). This illustrates the need to study factors that affect project outcomes and adopt a suitable framework based on actual research findings. The literature evidences consistently that for organizational initiatives or projects to be delivered successfully, there is a need to invest in effective change management and leadership (Infoq, 2017, Turner and Müller, 2005).

Prior empirical studies on project success have predominantly been quantitative and grounded in the objectivist approach (Ika, 2009). This often involves the use of surveys and tools such as Likert scales to collect data, and statistical techniques to analyse the data. Cicmil and Hodgson (2006) raise concerns over the predominance of this objectivist view and point out that, despite the level of attention that research in project success has received, characterizing project outcomes as successes or failures remain problematic. They further assert that the development of knowledge in project management is fragmented and incomplete.

Based on this premise, researchers have called for alternative theoretical and methodological approaches to studying project management to create "new possibilities for thinking about, researching, and developing our understanding of the field as practised" (Cicmil & Hodgson, 2006; Alderman & Ivory, 2011; Ika, 2009). In particular, Ika (2009) suggested that employing an interpretivist approach is a viable alternative to the objectivist tradition that is dominating

project management research. An interpretivist viewpoint of project success and failure is one social phenomenon that is a result of subjective interpretation/construction of individuals (Ika, 2009; Alderman and Ivory, 2011). The current qualitative research responds to this call, raising important questions for consideration regarding the perception of stakeholders on success and failure in project management.

In summary, the main problem areas that this research aims to contribute to include methodology, project management, stakeholder management, and organizational change illustrated in Figure 1.0. The researcher intends to contribute to these areas by bridging the identified gaps in the following ways:

i. By exploring project management research through an alternative constructivist and qualitative lens, which is different from studies in project management that have predominantly been quantitative and grounded in the objectivist approach.

ii. By examining the elements cutting across the different theories that shape stakeholder perceptions in project management within an organisational change context

iii. By examining the contextual characteristics and factors that influence how organisational change projects are perceived to better understand the management of stakeholders.

iv. By considering different stakeholder groups and how the synthesis of stakeholder management, project management and change management can influence more successful projects, which has not been the focus of previous studies.

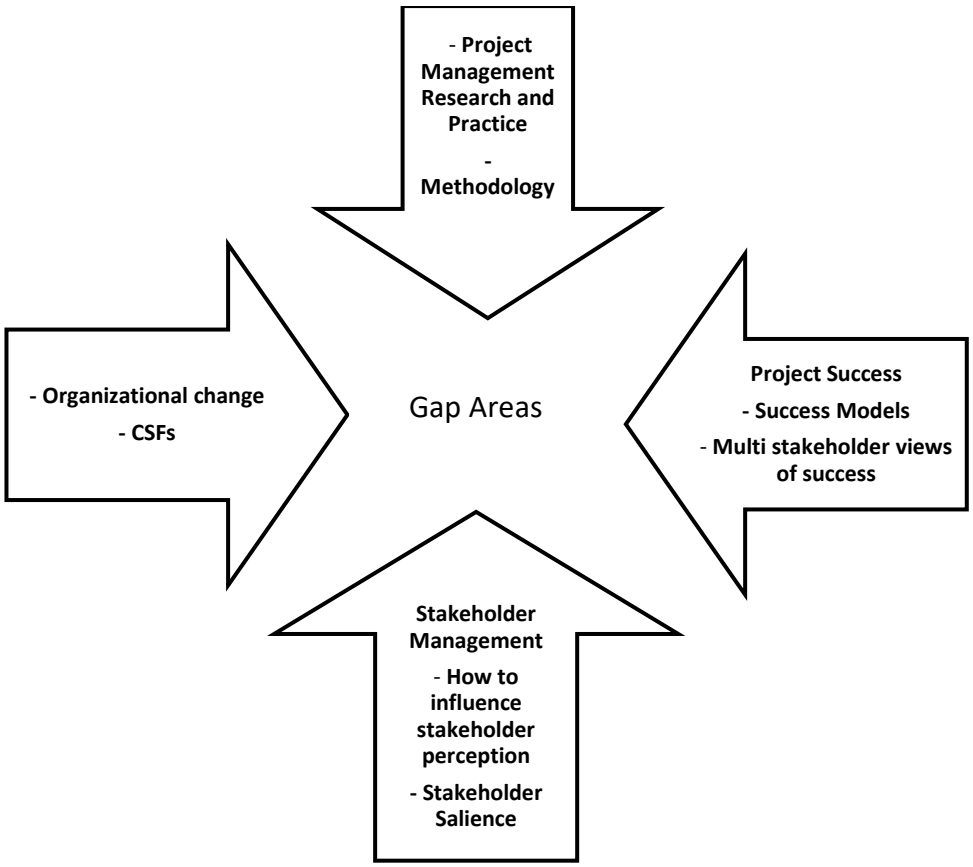


Figure 1.0: Gaps in Research

1.4: Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative research is to assess the perspectives of stakeholders on the impact of project management on project success by examining the extent to which the management of a project influences stakeholders' perceptions. The researcher conducted semi-structured interviews and a focus group as well as the use of the documentation method to obtain perspectives from stakeholders of the Industry Collaboration Zones (ICZ) project of the University of Salford. The sample was comprised of 37 members from different stakeholder groups of the project including 3 project sponsor team members, 2 core project team members, 4 workstream team members, 9 academic staff members, 4 non-academic staff members, 4 student union members and 11 industry partners. The focus group comprised of 32 students in attendance. As discussed in the 'selection of interviewees' section of the Methods chapter, it was important for the researcher to seek out a broad range of views, as this was a fundamental issue identified in the literature reviewed. This research furthers the

discussion on different perspectives of projects from both internal and external stakeholders, while also addressing the need for additional methods to measure project success.

1.5: Research Justification

The justification for this study follows on from preliminary work done by the researcher in understanding current issues project practitioners face in carrying out their duties. The preliminary work involved the observation of groups of project practitioners in workshops discussing the current issues they face in managing projects. Participants from one of the workshops mentioned the Industry Collaboration Zones (ICZ) project of the University of Salford in their discussions. The richness and diversity of opinions from the participants regarding the ICZ project sparked the researcher's interest in using the project as a case study to investigate the project management issues that were emerging from the researcher's preliminary studies.

The ICZ project is a case study set within the academic industry - a field rarely investigated by project management research; therefore, its study creates an opportunity to undertake research that both academicians and project practitioners can benefit from. The findings extend the existing body of knowledge to cover the academic industry while addressing current issues faced by project managers and generates a greater level of understanding of success in project management.

1.6: Psychological Perspective

The researcher adopted a psychological perspective in observing and understanding the behaviours of stakeholders while conducting the research. The psychological perspective was used because the researcher intended to understand why the participants felt, thought and behaved the way they did. Of the different psychological perspectives that are most often used, the researcher adopted the cognitive psychological perspective – an approach that aims to understand the inner workings of the brain and its functions, such as memory, language, attention and thinking. The cognitive approach to psychology focuses on how the mind works, how information is processed, and how the processed information drives people's behaviours.

It also focuses on how the human brain reacts to the surrounding environment and how the cognitive brain processes certain stimuli in specific ways which can explain why people think, feel and behave in certain ways.

1.7: Research Questions

According to Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill (2015), the research questions guide the researcher on the right strategy to use, the choice of data collection techniques and the procedure for analysing data collected. This research asks the following research questions:

RQ 1: Which ICZ (Industry Collaboration Zones) project stakeholders are the most important based on different stakeholder perceptions of success?

RQ 2: Is stakeholder classification related to the stakeholders' understanding of projects?

RQ 3: What are the challenges of successful project delivery within an academic organisational context.

RQ 4: How do stakeholders judge the success of the selected project within the organisation and what criteria do they base their judgement on?

RQ 5: What project management aspects have impacted on stakeholders' views of the ICZ project?

1.8: Research Aim

The main aim of this research is to investigate the view of stakeholders on success in project management and how project change management can influence stakeholders' views of success. The research examines existing research, ideas and concepts of project management, stakeholder management and organizational change, and offers a conceptual framework to build on current theory development and practice. It proposes as an outcome, key elements to improve the performance of projects and create value for organisations.

1.9: Research Objectives

This study has the following objectives:

- To conduct a critical review of relevant literature on project management, stakeholder management and organizational change theories in relation to project success.
- To identify success criteria, critical success factors and success measures of a selected project within an organizational setting.
- To analyse salience based on the perceptions of stakeholders on the selected case.
- To collect views of stakeholders in relation to success using the ICZ case study in order to obtain a better understanding of stakeholder perceptions and how stakeholder perceptions can be influenced for success.
- To develop and modify a conceptual framework that will be used to influence and manage stakeholder perceptions of success or failure in project management.

1.10: Significance of the Study

The literature agrees that project success is a subjective interpretation of stakeholders. However, there is limited research on how stakeholders form their perceptions about a project and how project managers can influence such perceptions. This research responds to this gap in the literature by examining the relationship that exists between the bodies of knowledge of stakeholder theory, project management (as well as benefit/value management), and change management within an organisational context. The study provides clarity on the success of stakeholder management across project management. In recent years, through research and findings from empirical studies on project success, predictions for project success have improved by partnering stakeholders and project managers. Without the further study of stakeholder management, project managers risk meeting iron triangle elements without achieving long-term success or even worse, at the cost of long-term success (Ika, 2009; Turner & Zolin, 2012).

The research is focused on identifying the processes through which project managers can systemically manage stakeholder perceptions. It is largely informed by the stakeholder theory as well as theories in project management including benefits management, project success, and human factors in project management. The research identifies related elements surrounding these theories as a basis to prepare a conceptual framework and achieve more successful project outcomes.

1.11: Conceptual Framework

The researcher has developed a conceptual framework (Fig 1.1) to organise key findings from the review of the literature. The process of building the framework included a detailed study of project management literature based on a synthesis of insights from the stakeholder theory. By investigating the existing research, ideas and concepts, the researcher sought to consolidate the extant research. This was done by establishing connections between stakeholder management and project management and identifying major assumptions underlying the literature within the identified domains of the organisational context.

The framework is expected to be modified using empirical data gathered from the case study. The ultimate concept of the framework is to achieve a shared perception of success from multiple stakeholders through a synthesis of project management, change management and stakeholder management theories. In other words - how a project manager can influence stakeholders' view of success armed with lessons from change management, project management and stakeholder management. The assumption is that the project manager's role is to influence stakeholders' perceptions of success.

The four main elements that are represented in the framework are Success, Stakeholder Theory, Project Management, and Change Management, within the project life cycle and an organizational context. The researcher looks at the interactions between the different schools of knowledge to provide insights into current and potential research. The combination of these knowledge areas may significantly increase the likelihood of project success and may boost project effectiveness and efficiency. The framework is developed by defining the relevant theoretical constructs and gathering data to apply the constructs in an organisational change

context. The researcher then modifies the framework, using the findings, to contribute to knowledge.

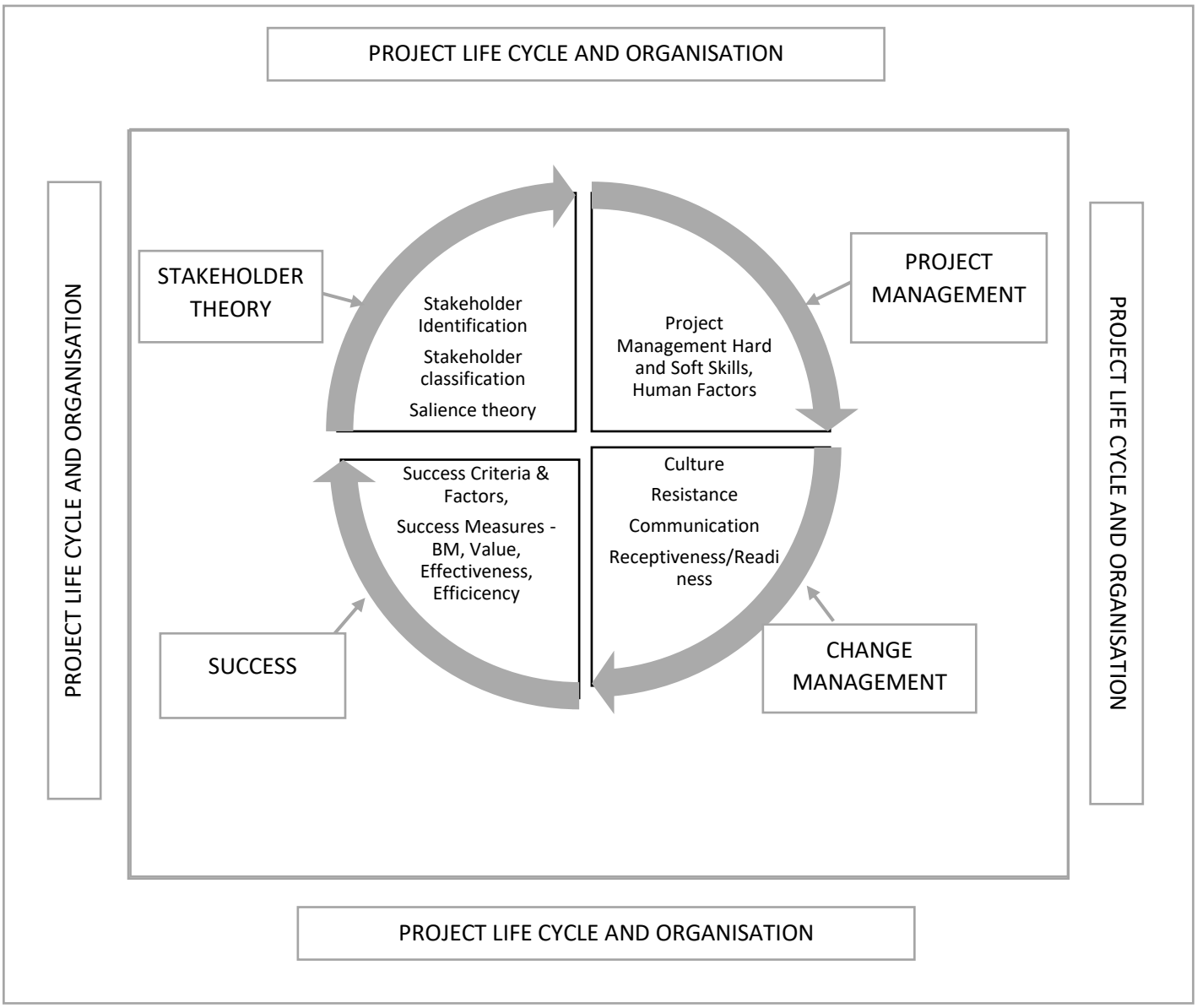


Figure 1.1: Researcher's Initial Conceptual Framework

1.12: Contribution

The research has contributed to knowledge in the following ways:

Contribution to Theory

The field of stakeholder management is rich and cuts across the boundaries of all business studies including project management, strategy, and ethics. However, the primary contribution of this study is made towards project stakeholder management research. The research builds

on both the descriptive and instrumental perspectives of the stakeholder theory, describing project stakeholders and explaining elements that impact their perception of success and the effect of their perception on the project and ultimately the performance of the organisation. The research has filled a gap in the project stakeholder management literature, as well as brought up key gaps and areas for further research in project stakeholder management literature. This research has equally illuminated the mindsets of stakeholders of the ICZ project which will help the organisation to understand the position of the stakeholders and why they think the way they do. Specifically, the contributions of this research are as follows:

i. The study has added to the academic literature by providing further understanding of the dimensions used to identify project success and supported the view that reconciliation of stakeholder views throughout the project lifecycle might well influence the final project outcome. The researcher's framework, therefore, supports the work of Davis (2015) and also extends it by illuminating the additional dimensions of 'project understanding using the project initiator and project recipient classification'.

ii. A modified conceptual framework that is stakeholder centred has emerged. The researcher developed an integrated framework to synthesise the different constructs of success, stakeholder theory, project management, and change management, within an organisational context. The framework promotes a holistic approach to managing stakeholders' perceptions of success. It focuses on integrating all components of projects within the organisational context, as well as mapping the relationship between them. The integrated framework was chosen as a theoretical framework to develop and improve project management delivery within interrelated elements that is characteristic of any project delivered within an organisation. Hence, the framework brings together all elements to complement the other constructs and so can be implemented by change management, project management, and/or stakeholder management practitioners to improve project delivery. In doing so, this research has demonstrated the relevance of project management fused with change management and stakeholder theories. Through the application of this framework, project managers can significantly reduce resistance from stakeholders, while identifying and exploiting the opportunities which present themselves in their engagement with the

stakeholders. It also provides project owners, managers, planners, and executors with significant insight into how stakeholders can be properly managed and engaged.

iii. The study has employed an alternative qualitative methodological approach to investigate the perception of stakeholders on success and failure in project management, contrary to the predominance of the objectivist approach of project management research. Hence, this research extends the methodological choices for the project management study.

iv. The researcher has responded to the criticism of the salience model by conducting a dynamic analysis of the model (project stakeholder salience model) based on different stakeholder perceptions informed by the empirical data. The model, which is stakeholder centred, allows differing views from different stakeholder groups to be included when formulating KPIs to ensure that success measures are met.

Contribution to Academia

v. The scope of this research has credible potential for publication in reputable academic journals, while also providing a foundation for further research. For example, a section of the research has been published at the BAM 2019 conference: Understanding Stakeholder Views on Success in Project Management – An Industry Collaboration Zone Project Case Study.

vi. This research has enriched the stream of research of multiple stakeholders' perceptions in project management particularly within the organisational context, following on from studies of researchers like Davis (2017) and Googins & Rochlin (2000, pg. 133-134) who investigated the perception of different stakeholder groups and proposed that a common understanding of project success by different stakeholders is pivotal for the success of a project.

Contribution to Industry

vii. The impact of the framework is to provide guidance and a better understanding to project practitioners and organizations in general on what contributes to success in projects to optimize the management of projects.

viii. Through a better understanding of the process by which perceptions of success are constructed by stakeholders, interventions might be conceived that increase perception of success or reduce perceptions of failure.

ix. It is expected that results from this study will help project executives, managers and personnel with project management and change management responsibilities to align the lessons from both disciplines within their sectors to attain organisational goals.

1.13: Outline Methodological Framework

The following diagram (fig 1.2) is a framework for the design of the research, from the research objectives to analysing the research findings to contribute to knowledge. The first step is choosing a research paradigm, which establishes a framework of beliefs, values, and methods within which the research takes place. In the next step, the research paradigm determines the nature of the inquiry and subsequent approach to the study. The third step is the research strategy, which flows from the nature of the inquiry, and finally, the final step is matching the research strategy to data collection methods to create harmony in the methodology and a basis for data analysis. The epistemological position of the research is social constructivist. The theoretical perspective, which addresses the philosophical stances lying behind the methodology, is interpretivist. The strategy that links the methods to the desired outcome is the use of a case study and the methods and techniques for data collection and analysis are the use of semi-structured interviews, focus group and documentation for the research.

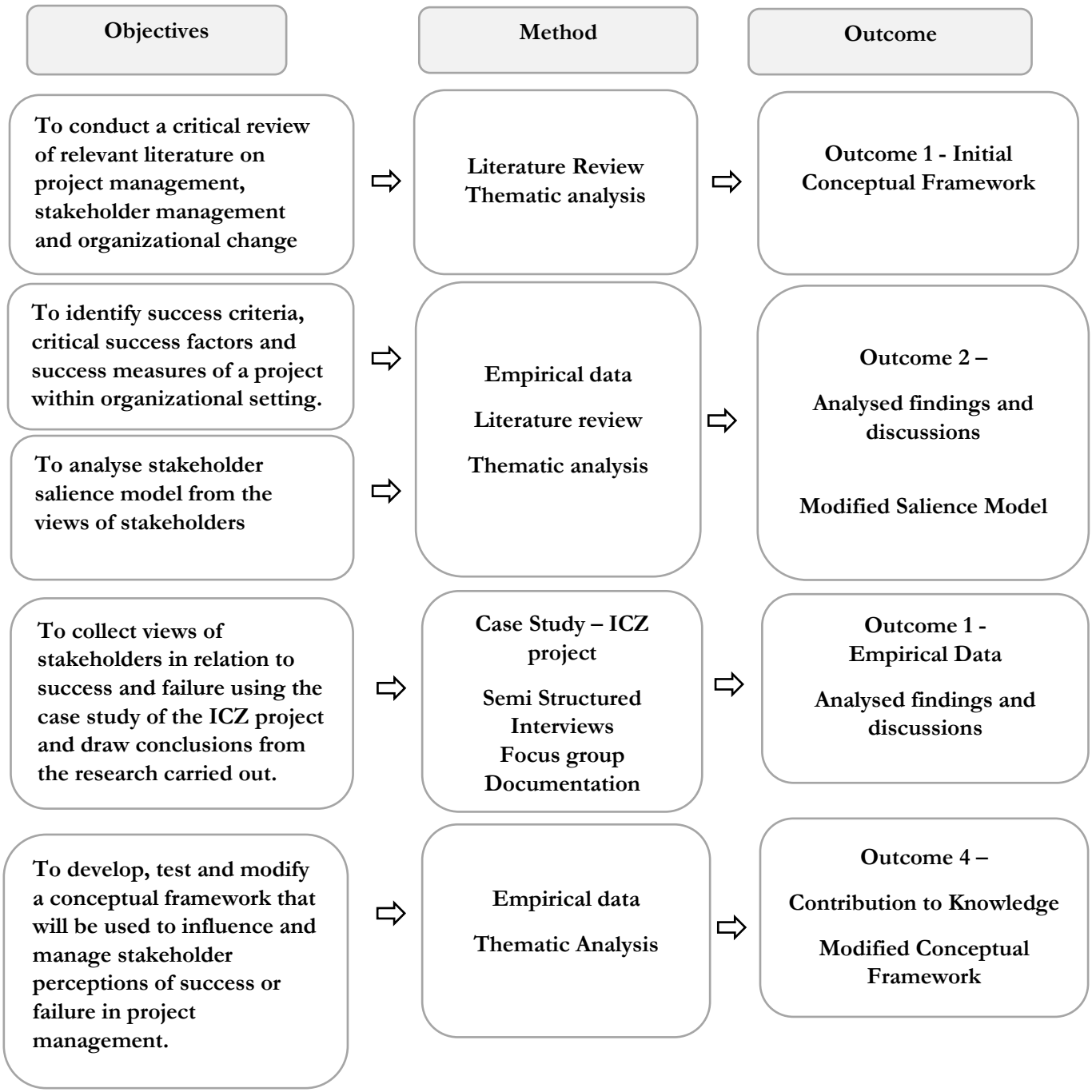


Figure 1.2: Outline methodological framework designed by the researcher

1.14. Structure of the Research

This thesis consists of eight chapters structured in Fig 1.3 as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction

This is the introductory element of the thesis. It presents the rationale for conducting the research. It details the statement of the problem and the gaps within literature and industry practice, the aims and objectives, the scope of the research, and concludes with a look at the research uniqueness and contribution to practice.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter reviews the relevant literature for the research and discusses some of the key issues from the secondary data. This includes elements of the stakeholder theory and its application in project management, stakeholder perception, success factors and criteria, human factors in project management and organizational change management. The gaps in the literature were further confirmed during this process and aided the development of the research conceptual framework. It concludes by presenting a conceptual framework based on the different theories informing the research.

Chapter 3: Industry Collaboration Zones (ICZ) Project

This chapter describes the case study for the research – the Industry Collaboration Zones (ICZ) project of the University of Salford.

Chapter 4: Research Philosophical Assumptions

This chapter describes the research philosophy and the chosen research paradigm for the research as well as justification for the choice.

Chapter 5: Research Methods

This chapter presents and justifies the use of a qualitative methodological approach for the research. It discusses the research design, strategy and data collection methods. It also

presents the case of study and the selection criteria for the case and the participants, as well as justification for the case and different methods adopted.

Chapter 6: Findings and Analysis

This chapter presents the findings and data collected from the case study including semi-structured interviews as the main source of evidence, focus group and documentation. The findings are analysed to discover themes, and patterns, in line with the research questions. It also discusses the qualitative data analysis process.

Chapter 7: Discussion

This chapter presents a detailed discussion of the key research findings in relation to the research questions, aims and objectives. It links the research findings to the current literature by comparing and contrasting them to reach an informed conclusion.

Chapter 8: Conclusion

This chapter concludes the research and presents a summary of the thesis. It synthesises all the sections of this research and how the objectives have been met and research questions answered. It highlights the research contribution, limitations, and implications, as well as highlighting the opportunities for future research. It makes recommendations for the application of the framework in academia and industry.

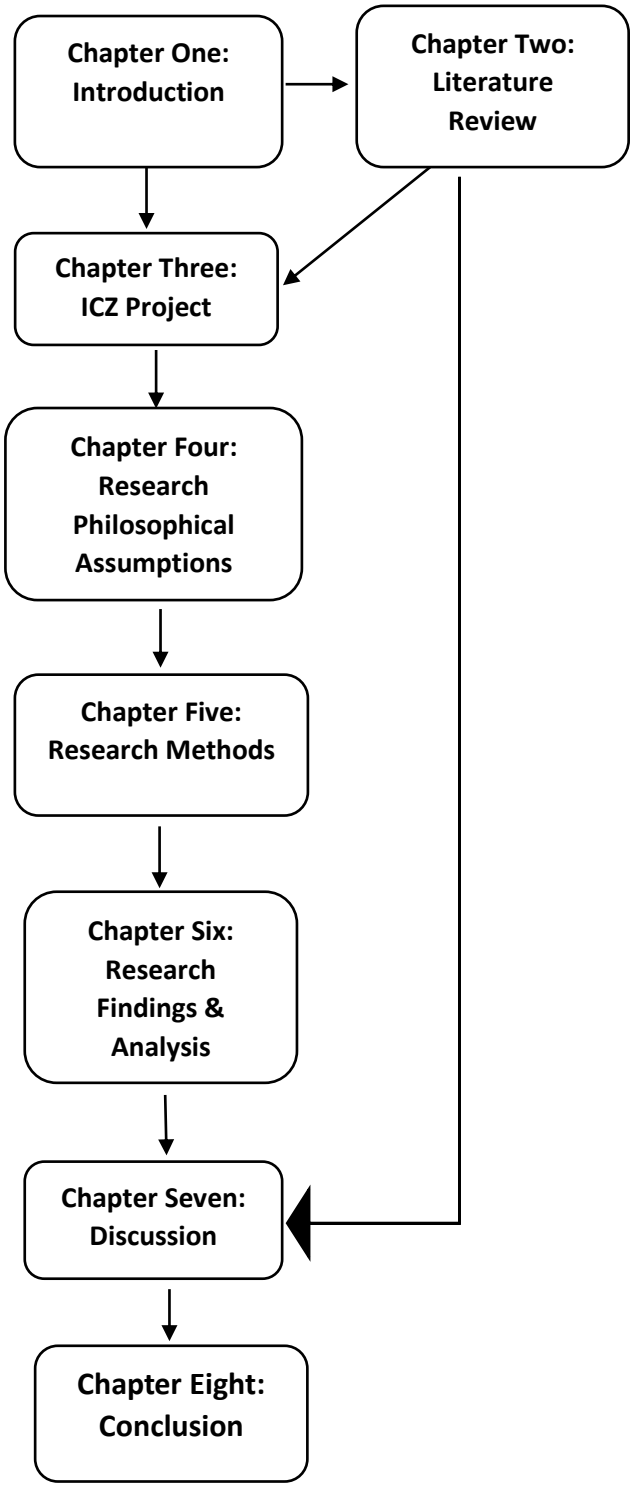


Figure 1.3: Structure of the Thesis

1.15: Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided an introduction and background to the thesis. The focus was to highlight the background of the research, including the aim and objectives, the research questions as well as the significance and contribution of the study. Also, the anticipated contributions of the research to existing knowledge have been explored and the structure of the thesis explained. The chapter also presented the outline methodological framework for the study. The next chapter discusses the different theories in detail in a review of existing literature related to the research study. It also presents the proposed theoretical framework for the study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1: Introduction to Chapter

The chapter starts by discussing the evolution of success in project management. It then looks at the concept of the stakeholder theory. In exploring the theory, it looks at the identification and classification of stakeholders, the salience model, and the application of the stakeholder theory in project management through the classification of stakeholders in projects, and stakeholder management in project management. To understand drivers underlining overall project outcomes and success, it explores the literature on success criteria, factors and measures. It also explores the literature on stakeholder perceptions of success factors and criteria, addressing the perception gap, and the concept of stakeholder influence. The section then looks at the project manager's role in managing perception by exploring the literature on human factors in project management, and the interpersonal skills of a project manager. To understand management strategies in influencing stakeholder perception, the researcher reviews the literature on organizational change management in relation to stakeholder management. In doing this, the review looks at the literature on receptiveness to change, organisational culture, visioning, communication, and language. Finally, the chapter presents a conceptual framework based on the different theories informing the research.

Evolution of Views on Success

The evolution of the views on success can be understood using different periods of development such as Jugdev and Müller's (2005) look at project management success retrospectively across different years. Their study portrays project management success trends using a framework involving three periods: Period 1 to period 4. These periods range from the 1960s to 1980s (the iron triangle age of evaluation method - cost, quality and time); the 1980s – 1990s - developing Critical Success Factors (CSFs), the 1990's – 2000's - Integrated framework for project success, and the 21st century - Strategic Project Management age. The following summarizes Jugdev and Müller's (2005) retrospective outlook.

Period 1 (1960 – 1980) Project Implementation and Handover

This era's focus was mainly on the project life cycle which saw project managers focusing on accomplishing a project, ascertaining that it was working, and getting it out to the target client.

There was minimum contact with customers, with a pattern of following up on a long-term basis as well as troubleshooting. The literature and practice in this period supported the use of the iron triangle as the traditional view and foundation of project management to describe success (Atkinson, 1999, Cooke-Davies, 2002). Success was measured after delivery which involved considering project benefits from the perspective of the stakeholder community and resultant organization. There was a growing pattern of including the satisfaction of clients as a variable in evaluating project success at project closure phase as well as into the life cycle of the product. This also involved understanding upfront measures such as defining needs from the start of the project. There was an assumption that the parties were knowledgeable on how to define their needs (Shenhar & Dvir, 2008). The literature in this period also emphasized hard project management measures of project efficiency where the goal was to reach target dates, a financial plan, and an end product.

Period 2: (1980s-1990s) Critical Success Factors (CSF) Lists

Understanding project success means defining success based on success criteria and critical success factors (CSF). The literature in this period was focused on developing lists of CSFs, as well as stakeholder satisfaction as an indicator of project success for achieving success. According to Kerzner (1987, p. 32), critical success factors (CSF) are the fundamental requirements for creating an environment of successful project management. The impact of projects after they were completed was equally as important as how the projects performed during their pre-completion stage. According to Jugdev & Muller (2005), once a project is complete, there is a shift from completion criteria, “are we done?” to the satisfaction criterion, “are we happy?”. Satisfying customers gradually became important because of strong competition in the marketplace and a need to be attentive to service and satisfaction. The literature in this period also listed a number of useful CSFs but did not group these factors coherently. The literature cited change management, organizational effectiveness, and the link between strategic management and project management. In this period, Morris and Hough’s (1987) preconditions of project success described elements of project success to include definitions of projects, attitudes, external influences, money, organization and contract strategy, timing, human qualities, communications and control, and management of resources.

Pinto and Slevin (1987) also published articles on CSFs in this period which is widely referred to as the "10 CSF" list.

Period 3 (1990 – 2000) CSF Frameworks

This period brought with it an introduction to integrated frameworks for success and highlighted that project success involved both internal and external stakeholders' (recipient organization) interaction. Most of the publications highlighted that success was stakeholder dependent. Initially, the literature was dominated by lists of project success criteria which led to the development of critical success factors and initial success frameworks, followed by more recent holistic frameworks on success. Other lists of CSFs and proposed CSF frameworks include Freeman and Beale (1992), Turner, Zolin & Remington (2009). Kendra and Taplin (2004) also developed a success factors model, which the authors categorised as macro-social, micro-social, macro-technical factors, and micro-technical. The literature on success frameworks remains evolving as more holistic frameworks develop.

Period 4: Strategic Project management 21st century (strategic pm)

In the period, there was an understanding of dimensions for project success including benefits to the organization and future preparations such as through innovations and development of core competencies. Simultaneously, organisations were pressured to achieve economic objectives through projects which forced them to perceive success as the combination of project success (success in the long-term) and project management success (success in the short term. The period also developed the theory of project success over lifecycle as well as highlighted the project owner as a critical success factor. Project managers were also beginning to be assessed and remunerated based on the balancing of the contribution towards project success and the whole organization including managing interfaces to bordering projects, user communities, and the client's holistic objectives of the project (Turner and Müller, 2005).

It is evident, therefore, that contemporary success criteria in project management perceive projects more as long-term strategic objectives which augment economic, social, and environmental benefits of several project stakeholders, and less as remote tasks arrangements for attaining short-term objectives.

2.2: Stakeholder Theory Concept

The main idea of the stakeholder theory is to highlight the relationships that an organisation has with various integral groups whose support can be engendered and maintained through the consideration and balancing of their relative interests (Freeman, 1984, Jones and Wicks, 1999). Generally, the theory's fundamental aim is to equip managers with an understanding and management of stakeholders strategically. Organisations are advised to address the needs of most, if not all, of their deserving stakeholders (Boatright, 2002; Greenley & Foxall, 1998; Schneiderman & Rose, 1996). As stakeholders' needs are diverse and often conflicting, organisations need to balance their own needs with these stakeholder needs.

The stakeholder theory was developed by Freeman whose definition of stakeholders is "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organisation's objectives" (Freeman, 1984, p. 46). This definition has been cited as the classic stakeholder definition (Achterkamp & Vos, 2008) and translated into the starting point of the stakeholder theory (Littau, Jujagiri, and Adlbrecht, 2010, pg. 1). The definition, however, has been criticised to be overly broad as it permits nearly anybody to be categorised as a stakeholder because anybody can be affected or can affect an organisation. Also, the support of many groups that can be affected by an organisation achieving its objectives is oftentimes not required for the organisation to continue to exist.

In comparison, Donaldson and Preston (1995, p.85) defined a stakeholder as a person or group 'who has legitimate interests in procedural and/or substantive aspects of corporate activity'. The emphasis on legitimacy takes a debatably more pragmatic angle as the definition suggests that an entity's claim or stake in the organisation must be legitimate for them to be considered as stakeholders. This suggests that managers cannot possibly consider all stakeholders. As Mainardes, Alves, & Raposo (2011) point out, 'it is not possible to simultaneously deal with all stakeholders. In the author's research titled Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach, Freeman (1984) illuminates the relationship and behaviour between a company and its external environment. The idea, which culminated into the stakeholder theory, developed out of an organisational context that saw the business community come into an understanding that it was not independent of its external environment. These external entities were referred

to as stakeholders by Freeman (1984) and later applied as 'resource dependency' by Frooman (1999).

The theory is ingrained in organisational management and business ethics (Phillips, Freeman, & Wicks, 2003) and addresses the values and morals in organisational management. It requires attending to the interests of all legitimate stakeholders simultaneously, through the formation of overall organisational policies and structures and individual decision making by cases (Donaldson & Preston, 1995, pg. 67). According to Mainardes, Alves and Raposo (2012), the stakeholder theory is intent on integrating the creation of value with the ethical responsibilities of an organisation; moral endeavours are perceived as a minimising cost rather than a chance to elevate competitiveness in the organisation (Freeman & Moutchnik, 2013, Parmar, Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Purnell and Colle, 2010).

The application of organisational stakeholder theory has led to organisations being able to create value sustainably as well as deliver society benefits by the integration of the concept of value creation with the moral obligations of the organisation (Freeman, Martin, & Parmar, 2007).

2.3: Theories of Stakeholder Management

There is some confusion in the literature about the concepts of the stakeholder, stakeholder model, stakeholder theory and stakeholder management because different authors use the concepts in different ways and in many contradictory arguments and evidence (Donaldson & Preston, 1995, pg. 66). Brummer (1991) refers to this as the blurred character of the stakeholder concept. To provide more clarifications of the significance of the stakeholder concept, this section showcases the main theories that are related to the stakeholder and discusses the theories of stakeholder management.

The first time the stakeholders' concept was mentioned was in 1963 by researchers in an internal memorandum at the Stanford Research Institute. The stakeholders defined stakeholders as 'those groups without whose support the organization would cease to exist' (Freeman, 2010). From the original work at the Institute, the stakeholder notion has diverged into four main research themes: corporate planning, systems theory, corporate social

responsibility and organization theory (Freeman, 2010). To bring together these aforementioned themes, a strategic management process was introduced by Freeman (1984). This process included a stakeholder approach that has been widely recognised as a landmark in the advancement of stakeholder management research, where stakeholders are defined as a party 'who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the firm's objectives.

In addition, many different viewpoints of stakeholder management have been developed, for example, three aspects of categorizing stakeholder theory (descriptive, instrumental and normative (Jones, 2016), stakeholder salience and typology (Mitchell, Agle, & Wood, 1997), the concepts of stakeholder dynamics (Aaltonen, Kujala, Havela & Savage (2015), stakeholder influence strategy (Aaltonen, Jaakko & Tuomas, 2008; Frooman, 1999; Hendry, 2005), stakeholder response strategy (Aaltonen and Sivonen, 2009; De Schepper, Dooms & Haezendonck, 2014; Savage, Nix, Whitehead & Blair, 1991) and stakeholder engagement (Strand and Freeman, 2015). Goodpaster and Holloran (1994) identified three levels in the stakeholder theory: new synthesis; strategic level; and multiple-trustee approach. Stakeholder theory has also been considered through a wide range of theoretical perspectives and lenses including doctrine of fair contracts, contract theory, feminist ethics, kantianism; principle of fairness; principle of the common good; and pragmatism.

2.3.1: Categorising Stakeholder Theory (Descriptive, Instrumental and Normative)

According to Donaldson & Preston (1995), there are three major aspects of the stakeholder theory namely: Descriptive, Normative, and Instrumental, and all the aspects of the theory are nested within each other, with all stakeholders having an intrinsic value to managers. Donaldson and Preston (1995) distinguished between the three theories' uses of stakeholder analysis arguing that they involve different goals. The descriptive is used to describe and explain specific corporate characteristics and behaviour. The instrumental is used to explain the connections between the management of stakeholders and the achievement of traditional corporate goals, and the normative is used to describe and explain specific corporate characteristics and behaviour. In Donaldson & Preston's (1995) view, the normative, descriptive and instrumental aspects of the stakeholder theory are contained within each other.

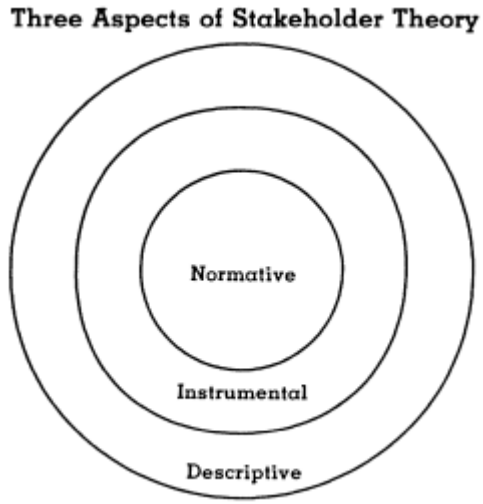


Figure 2.0: Three Aspects of Stakeholder Theory

Source (Donaldson & Preston, 1995)

Figure 2.0 shows the outer shell of the theory as descriptive: this means that the theory presents and explains relationships that are observed in the external world. The accuracy of the descriptive theory is supported at the second level which is its instrumental and predictive value; carrying out certain practices will produce certain results. In the centre of the core lies the normative. The descriptive accuracy of the theory presumes the truth of the core's normative conception, to the degree that it presumes that managers and other agents act as if all stakeholders' interests have intrinsic value. Consequently, recognising these ultimate moral values and obligations gives stakeholder management its fundamental normative base. As the normative dimension is the central core, other parts of the theory play a subordinate role (Parmar, Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Purnell & De Colle (2010). In Donaldson & Preston's (1995) view, stakeholder theory is, primarily, a moral theory that specifies the obligations that companies have to their stakeholders.

Jones & Wicks (1999) contrast this view claiming that there are important connections among the three theories and that the differences are not as sharp and categorical as Donaldson & Preston (1995) suggest. In the same vein, Freeman (1999) rejects the idea of distinguishing sharply between the three branches of stakeholder theory. The author argues that these forms

of inquiry are forms of storytelling and that all three branches have elements of the others embedded within them.

2.3.1.1: Descriptive Theory

The descriptive theory is used to describe and explain specific corporate characteristics and behaviours such as the nature of the firm (Brenner & Cochran, 1991), how managers think about managing (Brenner & Molander, 1977), the thinking of board members on the interests of corporate constituencies (Wang & Dewhirst, 1992) and the actual management of some corporations (Clarkson, 1991; Halal, 1990; Kreiner & Bhambri, 1991). The theory echoes and explains past, present, and future states of affairs of corporations and their stakeholders. This helps in exploring new areas and to generate explanatory and predictive propositions. An example of a descriptive research is one that makes factual claims about what managers and companies do. Donaldson and Preston (1995, pp. 65–7) presume that the stakeholder theory is descriptive because it describes 'what the corporation is'; which is, a gathering of cooperative and competitive interests that possess intrinsic value.

2.3.1.2: Instrumental Theory

The instrumental theory, on the other hand, is used to identify the linkages, or lack of linkages, between stakeholder management and the achievement of traditional corporate objectives (e.g., growth, profitability). The theory is used to connect stakeholder approaches and desired objectives such as profitability. The stakeholder definition from the Stanford Research Institute as "those groups without whose support the organization would cease to exist" (Stanford Research Institute, 1963; quoted in Freeman, 1984: p.31) suggests that managers must encourage constructive contributions from stakeholders to achieve their desired results. The theory specifies the actions of managers to achieve their interests of maximising profit or shareholder value.

Many instrumental studies that have been applied to corporate social responsibility refer largely to stakeholder perspectives, using methodologies such as conventional statistics, direct observation and interviews (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Cornell & Shapiro, 1987; Barton, Hill, & Sundaram, 1989; Cochran & Wood, 1984; McGuire, Sundgren, & Schneeweis, 1988; Aupperle,

Carroll, & Hatfield, 1985; Preston, Sapienza, & Miller, 1991; Preston & Sapienza, 1990). These studies imply that adhering to stakeholder principles and practices is the best approach that leads to the achievement of corporate performance objectives with Kotter and Heskett (1992) observing that highly successful companies such as Dayton Hudson, Walmart and Hewlett-Packard share a stakeholder perspective. An example of an instrumental research is one that looks at the outcomes of specific managerial behaviour. The stakeholder theory is descriptive due to it establishing a framework for examining the linkages, if any, between the practice of stakeholder management and the achievement of various corporate performance goals. This is mainly so that 'corporations practising stakeholder management will be relatively successful in conventional performance terms, with other things being equal, (profitability, stability, growth, etc.) **(**Donaldson and Preston, 1995, pp. 65–7)

2.3.1.3: Normative Theory

The normative theory is used to interpret the function of the corporation and includes identifying moral or philosophical procedures for the operation and management of corporations. The normative is in the field of ethicists and explicitly moral. Many views dominating the entirety of classic stakeholder theory from the beginning to more recent versions are normative (Carroll & Buchholtz, 2014; Kuhn, 1991; Marcus, 1993). An example of a normative research is one that asks what managers or corporations should do.

The normative rationale of stakeholder theory considers stakeholder management as a system motivated by a firm's moral orientation and institutional view (Friedman and Miles, 2006; Jones and Wicks, 1999), how committed the firm is to respect property rights and social contracts (Phillips, Freeman and Wicks, 2003; Donaldson and Preston, 1995), in order to add to the common good, or in promoting principles of impartial justice. Donaldson and Preston (1995, pp. 65–7) believe that the central basis of the stakeholder theory is normative. This involves accepting that: (a) Stakeholders are persons or groups with legitimate interests in procedural and/or substantive aspects of corporate activity. Stakeholders are identified by their interests in the corporation, whether the corporation has any corresponding functional interest in them. (b) The interests of all stakeholders are of intrinsic value. That is, each group of stakeholders' merits consideration for its own sake and not merely because of its ability to

further the interests of some other group, such as the shareholders' (Donaldson and Preston, 1995, pp. 65–7).

2.3.1.4: Argument of Justification for the Three Theories

There have been arguments for the integration of the different aspects of the stakeholder theory within literature. For example, Asher, Mahoney, & Mahoney (2005) argue that the instrumental and normative theories enrich strategic management research. The descriptive theory has been described as controversial (Harrison, Bosse, & Phillips, 2010) as it tries to determine the distribution of value among major shareholders to secure their satisfaction and collaboration in the long term (Barnard, 1968). Its descriptive accuracy is supported by the instrumental value of the stakeholder theory. Clarkson (1991, pg. 349) showed that the three aspects were connected by concluding that his stakeholder management model represents a new framework for "describing, evaluating, and managing corporate social performance".

The view of justifying the incorporation of the descriptive, instrumental and normative aspects of the stakeholder theory of the firm is supported by Goodpaster who sees stakeholder theory expressed in a firm's operational context (Goodpaster and Holloran 1994). Berman, Wicks, Kotha, & Jones (1999) argued that there are two stakeholder management models: Strategic stakeholder management model where the firms' interest in stakeholders is due to the perceived benefits of improved financial performance; and the intrinsic stakeholder commitment model where the firms' interest is based on normative and ethical commitments rather than on maximizing profits. In his work, Freeman endorsed all three aspects of the stakeholder theory.

Descriptive and instrumental theories are explicitly part of the social sciences and involve matters of fact. According to Swanson (1999, p. 507), the concern of normative theories/research is on why organizations should take stakeholder interests into account, the concern of descriptive 'theories'/research is whether they are considered; and for instrumental theories/research, the concern is the assessment of the effects of stakeholder management on achieving corporate goals.

2.3.1.5: The Nature of the Stakeholder Theory

Donaldson and Preston (1995, pp. 65–7) state that the stakeholder theory is descriptive because it describes 'what the corporation is' which is a gathering of interests that are both competitive and cooperative which possesses intrinsic value. The theory is instrumental in that it establishes a framework for examining the connections, if any, between the practice of stakeholder management and the achievement of various corporate performance goals. Principally that 'corporations practising stakeholder management will, other things being equal, be relatively successful in conventional performance terms (profitability, stability, growth, etc.). Finally, the authors state that the fundamental basis of stakeholder theory is normative, which involves acceptance that '(a) stakeholders are persons or groups with legitimate interests in procedural and/or substantive aspects of corporate activity. Stakeholders are identified by their interests in the corporation, whether the corporation has any corresponding functional interest in them. (b) The interests of all stakeholders are of intrinsic value. That is, each group of stakeholders, merits consideration for its own sake and not merely because of its ability to further the interests of some other group, such as the shareholders.'

2.4: The Gaps in Current Literature with Regards to Stakeholder Management

Literature has recorded a widespread acknowledgement of the importance of stakeholder management to project management in both practice and theory, however, little research has been conducted in identifying, specifically, the aspects of stakeholder management that influence project management and vice versa. As a result, project managers are still limited in their knowledge of how to manage stakeholders to achieve project management success (Xia, Guo & Lin, 2021). In Pedrini & Ferri's (2019) descriptive analysis of the stakeholder management development literature, the authors discovered that there is still a limited number of published articles. This calls for the growing commitment of academics in exploring stakeholder management in project management. Furthermore, while there is a wide range of works on case studies or conceptual developments, there is still sparse research in exploring broader data sets.

The perspective of the stakeholder being impacted on has attracted significantly less attention in the literature than the view of stakeholder management from the view of the focal firm or project. Davis (2014) draws attention to this lack of empirical data on studies on certain stakeholder groups and highlights that there has been more focus on stakeholders involved directly in a project and less on those considered indirectly involved. This motivated Davis (2014) to examine multiple stakeholder views as opposed to a single set of stakeholders (usually the project manager or programme director). To emphasize this gap, Winch (2017) argued that the research on project stakeholder management has often focused more on the instrumental approach, which has led to frequent calls for a shift towards stakeholder management for those impacted by the delivery of the project (Di Maddaloni & Davis (2018); Eskerod, Huemann, & Savage (2015); Eskerod and Huemann, 2013; Eskerod and Jepsen, 2013; Eskerod and Huemann, 2014; Huemann, Eskerod, & Ringhofer, 2016; Huemann and Zuchi, 2014).

The importance of the context into which projects are embedded is highlighted within literature (Grabher, 2004, Lindkvist, 2004, Manning, 2008), and has led to calls for future research to continue to investigate the relationship between context and projects (Bakker, 2010). Chandrasekaran, Linderman & Schroeder (2015) pointed out that there was a dearth of research in examining the role of the organizational context on the management of change

projects, and particularly in project management literature (Hornstein, 2015). According to the authors, while the literature records a growing interest in project success variables in organizations such as strategy, the impact of organizational culture, behavioural competencies of the project manager, and leadership, the impact of organizational change management on project success has only been recently identified and acknowledged to be important to success (Parker, Charlton, Ribeiro, & Pathak, 2013; Hornstein, 2015).

A contextual look at organisational change projects is, therefore, required. Amirsayafi, Jin, & Senaratne (2018) suggested that stakeholder management studies have majorly focused on specific industries such as construction, building (Bourne & Walker, 2006), and software (Kaur & Sengupta, 2013). However, organisational change projects have not been given as much attention. The authors also pointed out that in comparison with projects found in the manufacturing, construction and IT industries, no consistent framework can be found that guides organisational change projects. In this context, an organizational change project is a project set up to change the way an organization operates, including its structure, generally, to improve performance or to enable the organization to face external changes in its environment. The authors suggested working on project success models in specific fields to improve project performance. As stated, “there is a need for empirical study to identify the critical success factors based on organizational types and to identify the relationship among the various variables” (p. 356). This illustrates the need to study factors that affect project outcomes and adopt a suitable framework based on actual research findings. The literature evidences consistently that for organizational initiatives or projects to be delivered successfully, there is a need to invest in effective change management and leadership (Infoq, 2017, Turner and Müller, 2005).

Pedrini & Ferri (2019) highlighted that there was limited research on the effectiveness of communication tools as well as on communication towards stakeholders. According to the authors, existing research mainly considers traditional methods such as interviews, workshops, surveys, and focus groups while new opportunities such as online communication are ignored. Moreover, more attention is directed at stakeholders closer to the organisation than on those external to the organisation. The rapidly increasing development of information and

communication technology as well as social networks suggest that this will be a growing issue for the future of stakeholder management.

Several studies have considered how stakeholder management can influence the development of resources but an area that has not been explored is how information collected through stakeholder management is used to make decisions to further understand its importance as a managerial tool to support the development of strategy and creating value for the project and organisation (Pedrini & Ferri, 2019).

Another area of infancy in stakeholder management is in analysing the measurements of stakeholder management performance and impacts. Some researchers have proposed models and processes of analysis, however, an area that is still lacking in research is how effective the measurements are, which calls for more research. A better understanding of these areas is important for project management practitioners and academics because it may aid in improving the performance of stakeholder management and the commitment of companies to stakeholder management practices. This in turn will lead to successful project outcomes and increased organisational performance.

In examining the literature, it was found that there was limited research on the application of the stakeholder salience model. This observation is supported by Elias, Cavana and Jackson (2002) and Knox and Gruar (2007) who identified that the theory was limited in identifying stakeholders. A stakeholder's salience to the firm is a function of its power, legitimacy, and urgency as perceived by the firm's managers (Mitchell, Agle & Wood, 1997), and determines 'who counts' as a stakeholder. The salience theory has been criticised as representing a static view of salient stakeholders, where stakeholder analysis is conducted at the front end of the project. Jepsen and Eskerod (2009) argued that front end project analysis is incomplete because project managers have difficulty in foreseeing interactions with stakeholders in the future. Also, contributions from each stakeholder can vary in different stages of the project due to unforeseeable events in the project. Some stakeholders can have more influence over a project than others and this influence can also change over the course of a project, therefore continuous stakeholder identification and prioritisation is encouraged. The salience model is based on determining different levels of stakeholder importance from the perspective of the project manager. As the aim of this study is to explore the role of project management in

influencing stakeholders' perception, it becomes imperative, therefore, to examine the salience model from the lens of different stakeholder views.

2.5: Identification and Classification of Stakeholders

The PMBOK (2013, p. 29) defined the stakeholder as an "individual, group, or organisation who may affect, be affected by, or perceive itself to be affected by a decision, activity, or outcome of a project, who may be actively involved in the project or have interests that may be positively or negatively affected by the performance of completion of the project". A stakeholder may exercise their influence over the project, deliverables, or team. According to Littau, Jujagiri, & Adlbrecht (2010), who carried out a meta-analysis research on the stakeholder theory in project management, as of 2006 onwards, the definition from the PMBOK guide has become the leading definition of the stakeholder in the project management discipline.

According to the PMI (2013), as cited by Littau, Dunović, Pau, Mancini, Dieguez, Medina-Lopez,... & Lukasiewicz (2015), to successfully implement a project, it is critical that a project manager identifies stakeholders, gain a good understanding of their relative level of influence on the project, consider the balancing of their expectations, needs and demands, and analyse and categorise vital details pertinent to interests, participation, interdependencies, as well as how they influence and can impact on the success of projects.

The views on the stakeholder theory and its application have led to several lines of research carried out on the use of different sets of criteria to identify and classify stakeholders. Different frameworks have been developed to classify stakeholders (e.g. Achterkamp and Vos, 2008, Bourne and Walker, 2006; Cova and Salle, 2005); and stakeholders characterised by attributes (Rowley & Moldoveanu, 2003), strategically and morally (Goodpaster, 1991), as well as voluntarily and involuntarily (Clarkson, 1995). This section now presents the literature on identifying and classifying stakeholders.

The stakeholder theory offers a focal point for the identification and classification of stakeholders as well as gaining an understanding of their behaviours to be able to manage stakeholders better. This includes the identification of different methods to segment a number of likely stakeholders to distinguish ways for organisations to handle stakeholders in each

segment who the organisation owes both fiduciary as well as non-fiduciary obligations (Friedman and Miles 2006). This could explain why the majority of research on stakeholders in project management have been hinged on the growth of diverse bases and frameworks to measure stakeholder characteristics and attributes (Olander & Landin, 2005, Bourne & Walker, 2005). Some studies have indicated that challenges in the stakeholder environment are largely in relation to the significant behaviours and characteristics of stakeholders, understanding as well as managing them (Beringer, Jonas and Kock, 2013; Fageha and Aibinu, 2013). This requires analysing, knowing and applying management methods and strategies of inclusion to assess, utilise and manage stakeholders more effectively to ensure project success.

According to Freeman, Harrison, & Wicks (2007, pg. 7), before stakeholders can be mapped into meaningful categories, there is need to identify the stakeholders (see figure 2.1) as well as the stakes that they have in the organisation. This also involves identifying that stakeholders and their stakes are not static but change over time depending on which strategic issue is being considered. An entity can be said to be a stakeholder without having an actual relationship with an organisation; a possible relationship being as relevant as having one. This is supported by Clarkson's notion of involuntary stakeholders (Clarkson, 1995) and Starik's (1994, pg. 90) reference to stakeholders as those who "are or might be influenced by or are or potentially are influencers of some".

To identify a stakeholder, Savage, Nix and Whitehead and Blain (1991) reflects on two essential attributes – the ability to influence an organisation and a claim. Brenner (1993) and Starik (1994) however consider such attributes as either/or components of the definition of entities that have a stake. Mitchell et al. (1997) argued that this classification is confusing as influencers can have power over a firm regardless of having valid claims or not or wish to stake their claims or not. On the other hand, claimants may or may not have legitimacy, and the power to influence the firm. This can also be the case where power and legitimacy can overlap.

In categorising stakeholders, Donaldson and Preston (1995, pg. 83) argue the importance of differentiating between stakeholders and influencers as some entities may be considered as both e.g., stockholders, some may be recognised to be stakeholders but not influential (applicants for jobs), while others may be influential but have no stake (media). Also, different sub-categories of employees may have different interests, identities, claims, and other

characteristics. As the stakeholder theory advances, other scholars have shown greater interest in distinct stakeholder groups (Forray and Goodnight, 2010, Davis, 2018)

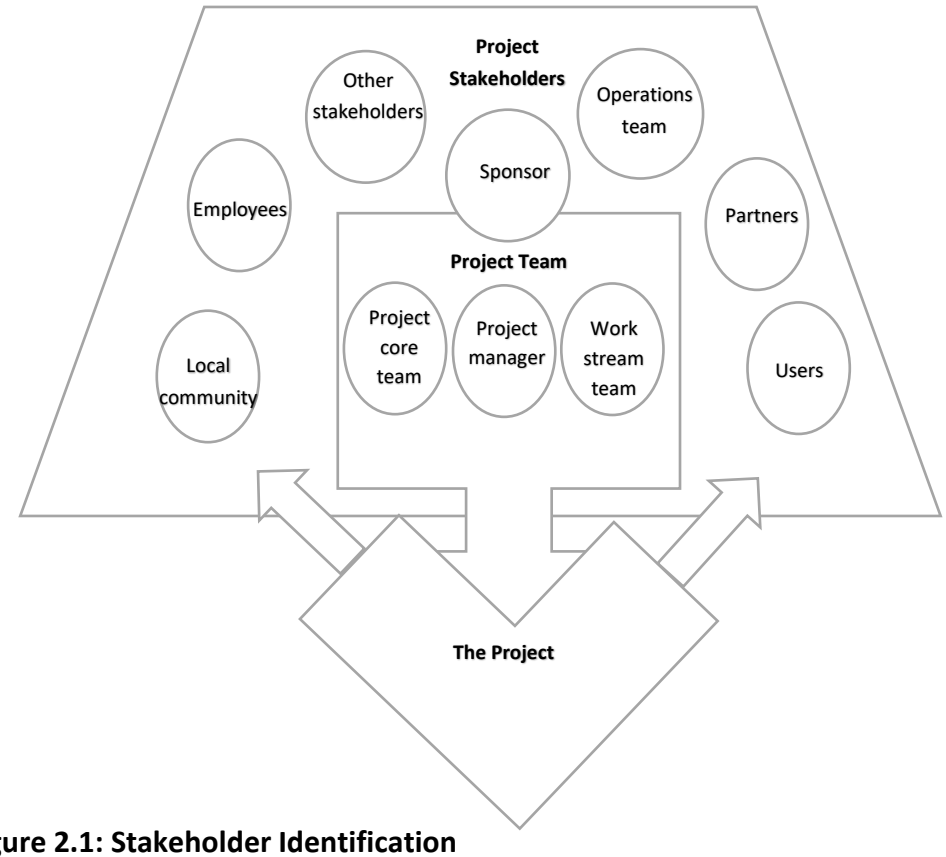


Figure 2.1: Stakeholder Identification

2.6: Classification of Stakeholders in Project Management

An important issue in project management is the management of the relationship between the project and its stakeholders. Considering the needs and requirements of project stakeholders is essential for better project performance and provides a solid basis for effective stakeholder engagement. This involves the processes of stakeholder identification, classification and assessment (Eskerod et al., 2015, Eskerod and Huemann, 2014). According to Aaltonen and Sivonen (2009), the strategy employed by a project manager in managing stakeholders is influenced by the characteristics of stakeholders and the issues that they present. To understand these characteristics, stakeholders need to be classified which is a basis for identifying who they are (Nguyen, Chileshe, Rameezdeen, & Wood, 2019), therefore stakeholder identification in project management is important for the stakeholder management process (Turner, 2014).

According to Doloi (2013), the intricacies of multiple stakeholders lead to budget overruns in projects. This has led to calls for project organizations to categorize people with stakes in the project, understand what they expect, what their interests and needs are, and manage accordingly their relationships and influence (Beringer et al., 2013). However, as Too and Weaver (2014) point out, there is more to the success of projects that goes beyond the capacity of the project manager and team. Such considerations include the absence of backing, differing aims and objectives, and further contextual matters that relate to leadership issues that can impact the successful delivery of projects (Too and Weaver, 2014).

The characterisation of stakeholders in project management often differs. Stakeholder categorisation can be directly connected with management strategies, where stakeholders are classified according to particular project roles (Roeder, 2013; Trentim, 2015). These project roles include customers, clients, contractors, members of the local community, sponsors, lobbying organizations, the media, NGOs, government agencies (Cova and Salle, 2005). Stakeholders in projects have also been classified based on their definition. By drawing on Freeman's stakeholder definition, Cleland (1986) defined the project stakeholder as persons or institutes that may come under or outside the authority of a project manager and can affect or be affected by the outcome of the project and have a stake in the project. Kerzner (2013) considered stakeholders as any populace that may be affected positively or negatively by a project or program; this can include owners, clienteles, investors and other members of the general public.

Stakeholders have also been characterised as internal and external stakeholders. Internal stakeholders also called business actors (Cova and Sale, 2005) or primary stakeholders (Cleland, 1998) are comprised of formal members of the project alliance and usually are in support of the project (Winch, 2004). External stakeholders do not belong to the project alliance but may be impacted or impact a project. They do not usually have a claim that they can enforce on the project. So, they rely on regulators for backing, the influencing through political power either through open movements or secretly or act directly (Winch, 2004).

Cotterell and Hughes (1995) categorise project stakeholders into three categories: inside the team; outside the project team but inside the organisation; and external to both the team and the organisation. McVea and Freeman (2005) however criticise this categorisation, warning

that a generic categorisation of stakeholders is getting complicated, because the borders of differentiating stakeholders are getting unclear, as well as the issue of complexity in stakeholder relationships.

The literature suggests that it is important to differentiate between stakeholders that show interest in the project and those that have influence over the project. It is possible for a potential stakeholder to be both a stakeholder and an influencer, however, having a stake does not necessarily mean that the stakeholder has influence. For instance, Winch (2004) categorises stakeholders according to promoters and opposers of the project. Turner (2009) considers stakeholders as those who are affected but do not directly benefit from the project. This is a narrow view of stakeholders because they are viewed as external factors that do not have an active involvement with the project.

The following Table 2.1 presents recommendations for mapping stakeholders within project management literature. Collectively, these stakeholder mappings outline the critical role of addressing stakeholder interests in the management of a project.

Table 2.1 Mapping of Stakeholders Recommendations List

Author (Year)	Mapping stakeholder recommendations
Savage, Nix, Whitehead & Blair (1991)	Classifying stakeholders by their threat and co-operation potential
Mitchell, Agle et al. (1997)	Classifying stakeholders by their power to influence, how legitimate their relationship is with the organisation, and how urgent are their claims on the organisation. The outcome of classifying stakeholders this way may provide answers on which groups of stakeholders' managers have to pay the most attention to and which not.
Johnson and Scholes (1999)	A widely utilised approach of classifying stakeholders by power and interest in a categorisation matrix.

Turner, Kristoffer & Thurloway (2002)	Identifying, assessing awareness, supporting, and influencing, that results in communication strategies and stakeholder satisfaction assessments of awareness levels and supporting or contrasting attitudes
Fletcher, Guthrie et al. (2003)	Classifying stakeholders by hierarchies of value and key performance areas
Milosevic (2003)	Classifying stakeholders based on a stakeholder influence grid
Bourne & Walker (2006)	Classifying stakeholders based on the stakeholder circle
Young, Brady & Nagle (2009)	Classifying stakeholders based on the stakeholder/project success grid
Cameron, Seher et al. (2011)	Process of positioning stakeholders by their needs as well as how important each stakeholder is compared to other stakeholders.
Winch, Morris & Pinto (2010)	The use of contractual relationships between clients and stakeholders to classify internal or external stakeholders
Aapaoja & Haapasalo (2014)	Merge stakeholder management, salience and classification, and requirement engineering to optimize the project's value creation.
Davies (2014)	Classifying stakeholders based on 3 groups - project recipients, project core team, and senior management, and based on research on stakeholder groups that are interested in project success and judging of criteria for project success

Davis (2014) categorized stakeholders into project recipients, project core team, and senior management based on research on stakeholders that are interested in project success and judging of criteria for project success (table 2.2). The researcher found that Davis' (2014) categorisation was the most applicable method suited for the research because the author

proposed the categorisation based on similar research focused on success perceptions from different stakeholder groups. The three groups are highlighted in Table 2.2 below:

Table 2:2: Stakeholder Grouping based on different stakeholder groups

Stakeholder Group	Categorised stakeholders into groups
Senior management	Board, director, executive, executive management, investor, project executive, portfolio director, programme director, owner, senior management, sponsor, top management, project sponsor
Project core team	Engineer, other organisational involvement (e.g., business departments), project leader, project manager, project personnel, project team leader, project team, team members
Project recipient	Client, consumer, customer, end-users, users

Source: Davis (2014)

2.7: Stakeholder Salience

Stakeholder salience is defined as the "degree to which managers give priority to competing stakeholders' claims in their decision-making process" (Mitchell et. al, 1997, p.854). The theory of stakeholder salience was introduced by Mitchell, Agle and Wood in 1997, in answer to opposing explanations for 'the stakeholder' and disagreements on who stakeholders were (Freeman, 2010), as well as which stakeholders should receive the attention of managers (Mitchell et al. 1997, p.853-854).

Subsequently, after a detailed literature review, Mitchell et al. (1997, pg.864) proposed a new normative model for identifying stakeholders based on three variables namely the power to influence the firm, legitimacy of the stakeholders' relationships with the firm, and urgency of the stakeholders claim on the firm. Pedrosa, Hernández-Ortiz, García Martí, & Vallejo Martos (2019) labelled this as stakeholder attributes. A high salience would mean that a stakeholder was perceived as having more attributes of power, legitimacy, or urgency. This suggests that stakeholders with power, legitimacy and urgency are given greater priority than stakeholders

who do not have as many of these attributes. Hence, assessing these attributes determines the salience of each stakeholder. The model, hence, enables a manager to make decisions on the comparative salience of each stakeholder.

More recent literature suggested that factors such as managerial cognitions, domination, differentiation, and novelty affect stakeholder salience which invariably impacts the manner that managers perceive the attributes of stakeholder legitimacy, power, and urgency (Mitchell, Agle, Chrisman, Spence, 2011).

2.7.1 The Salience Model

A stakeholder salience model is illustrated below in figure 2.2. It comprises of 3 rings, each representing the attribute of legitimacy, power, and urgency. By mapping stakeholders' legitimacy, power, and urgency on each of the rings, it creates 7 different categories of stakeholders with each stakeholder assigned to a region - core, dominant, dangerous, dependent, latent, discretionary, and demanding. The connection of the 3 rings represents stakeholders with more than one attribute.

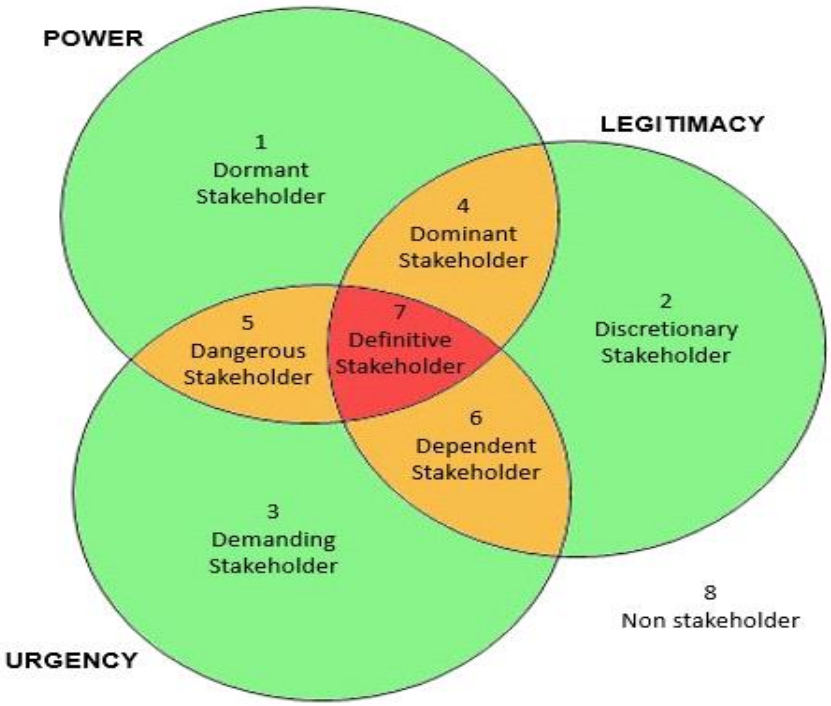


Figure 2.2: Salience Model

Adapted from Mitchell et al. (1997, p.873)

Mitchell et al. (1997, p.873) further classify the 7 types of stakeholders into 3 groups. These include latent (green), expectant (amber) and definitive (red). Table 2.3 highlights the salience attributes from the salience model.

Table 2.3: Salience Attributes

Green	Latent stakeholders: one attribute, low salience. Managers may do nothing about these stakeholders and may not even recognise them as stakeholders.
Amber	Expectant stakeholders: two attributes, moderate salience. Active rather than passive. Seen by managers as 'expecting something'. Likely higher-level engagement with these stakeholders.
Red	Definitive stakeholders: all three attributes, high salience. Managers give immediate priority to these stakeholders.

Source: Adapted from Mitchell et al. (1997, p.873)

2.7.1.1 Power

Though it may be difficult to define power, as Mitchell et al. (1997) put it – it is easy to recognise. Salancik & Pfeffer (1974, pg. 3) state that those that have power have the ability to achieve the results they desire. It is noted within the literature that most explanations of power are consequent from early ideas that power is the likelihood that someone within a social affiliation would be able to achieve their will despite resistance. Pfeffer (1981, pg. 3) refers to power as a social connection in which one person can get another to do something that they would not have done otherwise. Pedrosa, Hernández-Ortiz, García Martí, & Vallejo Martos (2019) explain power to be the likelihood of a social actor to gain resources such as skill, riches, or information and the resources that are symbolic such as status, repute, and allure in imposing their resolve on others.

Etzioni, Marcus, Merton, Reiss, Wilson & White (1964) suggested a logic for an exact categorisation of power in the organisation. This could be dependent on the type of resource for exercising power - coercive power (physical resources of force, violence, or restraint); utilitarian power (material or financial resources); and normative power (symbolic resources). Mitchell et al.'s (2011) definition is derived from Etzioni's (1988, p.59) suggestion. The authors define power as the degree that an actor can access means of coercive (physical), utilitarian (material) or normative (prestige, esteem and social) to carry out their will.

A stakeholder's ability to carry out their will is guided by the relative power of that stakeholder. It is imperative, therefore, that a project manager determines the power of the stakeholder regarding the project or its outcome.

2.7.1.2 Legitimacy

In simple terms, legitimacy can be referred to as the genuineness of involvement with a project. Although there has been much research on legitimacy in organisations, the notion of stakeholder legitimacy is still limited in research (Parent and Deephouse, 2007) and (Neville, Bell, Whitwell, 2011). Suchman (1995, pg.574) defines legitimacy as a generalised

understanding that an entity's activities are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed structure of standards, morals, principles, and definitions.

Weber (2009) proposed that the attributes of legitimacy and power can exist distinctly or can be brought together to generate authority (a legitimate use of power). It is imperative that a project manager manages stakeholders whose involvement are appropriate and who have legitimate interests in the project. Mitchell et. al (1997), however, argue that there should be separate attention paid to legitimacy and power because an entity can have a legitimate standing or claim but have no power to enforce their will in the relationship. There can also be a perception that the entity's claim is not urgent, and therefore will not be found salient by managers.

2.7.1.3 Urgency

Urgency is the degree to which stakeholder requirements call for immediate attention. This relates to the sensitivity of the timing as well as the criticality of the relationship with the stakeholder or how important the claim is (Mitchell et. al, 1997, p.867). According to Wartick and Mahon (1994), the issue of responding to stakeholders in a timely manner paying attention to stakeholders in a timely manner has been emphasised by researchers of issue and crisis management for a long time. The attribute of timing sensitivity is not enough on its own to identify a stakeholder's claim or relationship to be urgent. There must be an equal view of the stakeholder's claim or relationship with the organisation as critical or highly important. Pedrosa, Hernández-Ortiz, García Martí, & Vallejo Martos (2019) proposed adding another attribute – durability, to the salience model to complement stakeholder urgency analysis. They point out that urgency is the aptitude to make immediate demands on an organisation while durability is the likelihood that a stakeholder will continue to make future demands on the organisation. The authors define durability as an attribute for representing the continued capability of stakeholders to make lawful, official and other demands on the organization, thereby adequately addressing long-term stakeholder management issues.

Aaltonen & Sivonen (2009) highlighted that salience shaping strategies like - direct and indirect withholding, can directly put pressure on a project and so it is necessary to take into account pressurizing and salience building strategies.

2.7.1.4 Stakeholder influence

The literature illuminates the investigation of explanations for actions of stakeholders (Hill and Jones, 1992), forecasting when stakeholders will take action (Rowley and Moldoveanu, 2003) or investigating reasons for stakeholder actions to become significant (King, 2008).

The studies emphasize procedures stakeholders can follow to increase their influence. Hunter, Van Wassenhove, Besiou & Van Halderen (2013), for example, highlighted 3 successive tactics that stakeholders can influence certain behaviours from firms through social media. These involve the broadcast of serious criticisms to erode the fidelity of their targets; then they engage in activities to activate widespread antagonism, using the media to intensify their efforts; and lastly, they join other forces to take charge of the narrative.

Zietma and Winn (2008) also examined other stakeholder influencing strategies and proposed 3 consecutive processes – raising of issues, position, and seeking solutions. Frooman (1999) developed a model of stakeholder influence strategies comprised of 2 elements: how resources are controlled by stakeholders and how they manipulate the stream of resources. In an instance where an organisation's critical resources are controlled by certain stakeholders, the organisation's behaviours can be affected through the use of withholding strategies such as halting the source of essential resources.

On the other hand, usage strategies can be employed where stakeholders can engage in the continuation of resource supply, but with attached conditions. These strategies can be applied either indirectly or directly dependent on four classes of resource relationship between the stakeholder and organisation: stakeholder power, organisational power, low interdependence, and high interdependence. Organisations enjoy more power when they are not as dependent on stakeholders. Moreover, organisations and stakeholders can be either extremely dependent on each other or not.

In all the studies reviewed here, it is seen that stakeholders have great influencing abilities and make use of different strategies to maximise the impact of these abilities. The relationship with the firm can influence certain behaviours. Their perception is recognised to be significant and to vary, depending on who the assessors are, with their associated satisfaction levels, interests,

and influences. This provides a basis upon which this study can understand the role of different stakeholder perceptions on the success of a project.

2.8: Stakeholder Theory in Project Management Context

The project manager takes decisions on a project that are motivated, driven, and constructed by many competing stakeholder claims (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983). The stakeholder theory maintains that all stakeholders, with their corresponding interests, are critical to the success of a project (Freeman, 2010). This signifies that the theory is an important consideration for the delivery of projects (Achterkamp and Vos, 2008, p. 750; Davis, 2017; Littau, Jujagiri & Adlbrecht (2010), p. 1, p.7; Rose, 2013, pg. 3; Parmar et al., 2010, p. 428) as evident in definitions of the environment and social context of a project, as well as in the evaluation of project success.

The theory is of significant importance to project management. According to Littau et al. (2010), the application of the theory is gaining momentum in project management research and practice, with its application largely in the context of project strategy and evaluation, which covers success, risk, and performance themes. The authors suggest that over two-thirds of articles on stakeholders are in the context of project evaluation or project strategy, indicating that the body of literature on stakeholders in project management is fed predominantly by these research fields.

Applying the stakeholder theory to project management is considering the premise that projects exist within organisations, with their corresponding stakeholders, as well as their interests - whether financial or emotional. The influence can also be observed in project risk management where the risks associated with stakeholder management are evaluated by the study of structured mechanisms as well as in the design of risk prevention and mitigating strategies. Stakeholder theory is also applied to research in project governance, which recognises the relevance of internal and external stakeholders and the need to attend to their legitimate interests.

2.8.1: Importance of Project Stakeholder Management

The impact of stakeholder management has increased over the years (Uribe, Isabel Ortiz-Marcos and Ángel Uruburu, 2018) with recent studies confirming that stakeholders are

important in the management of projects (Aaltonen & Kujala, 2016; Achterkamp & Vos, 2008; Chan & Oppong, 2017; Maddaloni & Davis, 2017; Mok, Shen & Yang (2015); Nguyen et al., 2019. Stakeholder management represents a managerial base for the stakeholder theory. It is a process of management of expectations/requirements of individuals, teams, groups, and organisations who either have a stake in a project or will be impacted by its outcome, decision or activity. It is also a dynamic and shifting process because stakeholders have shifting priorities and expectations which vary (Young, Brady and Nagle 2009; Klein, Wu & Liang (2009).

Many studies report on the challenges that external stakeholders bring to projects, significantly affecting the outcomes of such projects (Miller and Lessard, 2001). One of such challenges arises due to limited understanding of management on the numerous interest groups that make up these stakeholders. Aaltonen, Jaakko and Tuomas (2008) call for a better understanding of stakeholder strategies that affect the realisation of projects. This suggests that the management of project stakeholders is critical for project success.

Eskerod, Huemann and Savage (2015) consider the relationship between project management and stakeholders to be an indispensable area for project development, whereby success cannot be achieved without satisfied stakeholders. The relationship has also been argued to benefit organisations by enabling them to maintain a stronger strategic competence due to the promotion of sustainable activities that generate value for stakeholders (Mazur & Pisarski, 2015). According to the following authors - Aaltonen, 2011; Chang, Chih, Chew, & Pisarski, 2013; Hietbrink, Hartmann, & Dewulf, 2012; Meredith & Mantel, 2011, effectively engaging stakeholders to promote the successful delivery of project deliverables.

Assudani and Kloppenborg (2010) also pointed out that the management of stakeholders is critical to project success. The authors argued that success in project management is related to the effective communication and management of stakeholder relationships. According to Yang, Shen, and Ho (2009), lack of proper management of stakeholders is problematic as it leads to issues such as limited definition of scope and requirements, inadequate project resources, low frequency in communication, regular changes in project requirements leading to cost and schedule overruns. Poor stakeholder management is cited as one of the key reasons for failures in projects (Chang, Chih, Chew, & Pisarski, 2013; Hietbrink, Hartmann, & Dewulf, 2012; Yang, Shen, Ho, Drew, & Xue, 2011; Zolin, Cheung, & Turner, 2012).

Building on this, Nguyen, Chileshe, Rameezdeen, & Wood (2019) categorise approaches in project stakeholder management into 'management for stakeholders' and 'management of stakeholders' (Freeman, 2010). A 'management of stakeholders' approach prioritises stakeholders based on their importance levels to project success and necessitates that stakeholders abide by the needs and requirements of the project, while the 'management for stakeholders' approach considers the equal importance of all stakeholders while seeking for win-win resolutions in conflicts areas.

In a survey of software engineering projects that failed, the Standish Group (2015) also acknowledged ineffective stakeholder participation, particularly for end-users, as critical. Fageha and Aibinu (2013) illuminated that a majority of project managers are unmindful of stakeholder management and that stakeholders are not sufficiently engaged in projects. Butt, Naaranoja, and Savolainen (2016) also supported this view, opining that stakeholder communication is overlooked by a record number of project managers.

Eskerod, Huemann & Ringhofer (2015) consider stakeholder management in relation to 'stakeholder inclusiveness'. This is considered as a focal organization that embraces a wide selection of stakeholder groups. According to the authors, the application of stakeholder inclusiveness in a project leads to the following: (1) enhancement of the chances of having more engaged and content stakeholders; (2)enhances the risk of not keeping track of stakeholders who are highly resourceful for the continued existence and development of the project; and (3) enhances the risk of disappointing stakeholders as a result of the escalation of expectations and inability to acceptance of differing interests and requirements.

Littau et al (2015) suggested that the most suitable method of measuring the impact of stakeholders on a project is to look at the stakeholders as entities with their power, interests and dynamics of their relationships. They proposed a model where interests strive to become impact, which depends on power and network position. Marjolein (2015) developed a connecting framework between project stakeholders and their voiced issues with the aim of enabling assessments systematically and managing the impact of stakeholder issues on the development and outcomes of a project. So, what then is success? And how is project success assessed in project management? The next stream of literature reviews the literature on success in project management.

2.9: Stakeholder Complexity

A project that has a greater number of stakeholders is more complex and makes stakeholder management more challenging (Aaltonen & Kujala, 2016). The diversity of stakeholders in a project contributes to the challenge of managing stakeholders (Oliver, 1991), due to the differences in stakeholders' attributes, backgrounds and goals (McKenna and Metcalfe, 2013; Remington, Zolin and Turner 2009). As the number of stakeholders within the project landscape increases, there is an increase in the time, resources, coordination costs and effort required to engage stakeholders as well as to balance acts between their needs, and to decide which of the stakeholders will be included in engagement efforts and which stakeholders will be dismissed. There is also the added challenge of recognising main stakeholders and possible outcomes. Effective stakeholder management, therefore, must consider not only individual stakeholders, but also the influence of stakeholders on each other via complex interactions that involve multiple, and potentially interdependent, stakeholders (Beringer, Jonas & Gemünden, 2012).

This diversity results in a highly complex stakeholder base whose aims are to either make use of the project outcome or gain assets from the project. The variety of relationships in a project also increases the challenge of managing stakeholders. This is because a project with a variety of different types of stakeholder relationships and requirements for relationship management strategies and actions is more difficult to manage than one with similar types of relationships. Some of these relationships may, for example, be critical, strategic and long-term and hence require careful attention (Aaltonen & Kujala, 2016).

The variety of relationships increases the challenge of managing stakeholders as a project with a variety of different types of stakeholder relationships and requirements for different types of relationship management strategies and actions is more difficult to manage than one with a project with similar types of relationships. Some of these relationships may, for example, be critical, strategic and long-term and hence require careful attention (Aaltonen & Kujala, 2016).

The many relationships between stakeholders are a cause of project complexity (Ommen, Blut, Backhaus & Woisetschläger (2016). A large number of stakeholders in projects leads to the complex interactions among actors with varying stakes (Martinez, 2016), as well as conflicting stakeholder interests, perspectives (Yang, 2014), concerns (McKenna and Metcalfe, 2013) and

an inadequate understanding of complex stakeholders (Sæbø et al., 2011). A complex network of stakeholders may lead to a complex decision-making process (Blokhuis, Snijders, Han, & Schaefer (2012) and complex project evaluations involving multiple objectives and multiple stakeholder groups (De Brucker, Macharis & Verbeke (2013).

Stakeholder complexity has implications for the success of projects (Kowalska & Haniff, 2018). Attention has focused recently on inter-organizational projects where the client is formed from various organisations engaging in a single project (Sydow and Braun, 2018). Such projects consist of a varied set of influential stakeholders, from different parts of the client organisation(s) that are interested in the result of the project or can be affected by its outcomes (Turner, Zolin and Remington, 2009). These varied stakeholder needs, and interests result in varied perceptions of success across the different stakeholders and groups (Bryde and Brown 2004) and increase with stakeholder complexity. The literature has demonstrated that stakeholder power and conflicting interests create a critical challenge for stakeholder management; consequently, project managers need to select appropriate strategies to deal with issues arising from stakeholder conflicts (Aaltonen and Sivonen, 2009).

A complex network of stakeholders may also result in a complex decision-making process (Blokhuis et al., 2012) and project evaluations involving multiple objectives and multiple stakeholder groups (De Brucker et al., 2013; Windapo and Qamata, 2015). In addition, projects have different phases, such as the conceptual, planning, execution and termination phases. These project phases have dramatically different characteristics (Turner, 2009) and create a dynamic context for managing stakeholders and their behaviour as the project shifts through the different phases of its lifecycle (Aaltonen and Kujala, 2010). Thus, a better understanding of stakeholder management trends during the complex project lifecycle might increase project performance when facing the complexity of projects.

2.10: Success Criteria and Success Factors

De Wit (1988, p. 165) explained project success by suggesting that a project is considered an overall success if it achieves its technical performance specification, its mission, and if the outcome of the project is satisfactory to the key people, parent organisation, and users of the

effort. Chan & Oppong (2017) on the other hand, referred to project success as the measure to which goals and expectations of a project are attained. Pheng and Chuan (2006, p. 26) stated that there was no standard way of defining or an accepted method for measuring success. The authors resolved that it took the best practice of project managers to achieve project success. For their research, they defined project success as "completing a project within accepted timing, cost and quality requirements and to achieve client's satisfaction".

Project success is considered depending on two components - success criteria and critical success factors. It is important to distinguish between the two as the two terms are sometimes deployed loosely, which occasionally gives the impression of misinterpretation and/or confusion (Bernroider and Ivanov, 2011, p. 326; Davis, 2014, p. 189; Gingnell, Franke, Lagerström, Ericsson and Lilliesköld, 2014). According to Cooke-Davies (2002), success criteria is specific to a measurement that can be used to make conclusions on whether the project is successful or a failure. On the other hand, success factors consist of techniques and tools a project manager or an organization may use to grow profitably. Wateridge (1998) suggested that, firstly, project managers should identify important success criteria before identifying critical success factors that would aid in the delivery of success criteria. The following section discusses success criteria and success factors within the literature.

2.10.1: Success Criteria

Success criteria are dependent variables that judge the successful outcome of a project. They are considered as the principles and standards by which project success can be judged, i.e., the measures that indicate that a project has been successful (Lim and Mohamed, 1999, p. 243). Different authors have discussed different criteria for measuring success. Some of these include efficiency and effectiveness, impact on team, impact on customers, business success (Tam et al., 2011; Turner and Zolin, 2012; Chang, Chih, Chew & Pisarski, 2013); business value, and project impact on customers (Turner and Zolin, 2012; Chang et al., 2013). Ika's (2009) success criteria include realisation of the strategic objectives of the client organisation, satisfaction of end-users and satisfaction of other stakeholders. Serrador & Turner's (2015) project success criteria include efficiency in the short term and effectiveness and impact in the longer-term achievement of desired results. Westerveld (2003) examined the relationship between success criteria, critical success factors, and project types and developed success

criteria to include project results, client appreciation, project team members, users, contracting partners, and stakeholders.

The following section reviews specific debates on the success criteria of business value and effectiveness/efficiency.

2.10.1.1 Success Criteria - Business Value

According to Matinheikki, Artto, Peltokorpi & Rajala (2016), projects are considered not simply for the completion of goal-centric tasks but as vehicles for the delivery of value throughout the project lifecycle. This is also reflected in Shenhar, Dvir, Levy & Maltz's (2001) view, who denoted that what was important was the value delivered by a project to an organisation, rather than how well the project was being managed. Addressing this issue, Serrador & Turner (2015) stressed that project managers can no longer deliver projects without considering the bigger picture and must be mindful of the business value to organisations. They must understand the business environment and view their projects as part of the company's struggle for competitive advantage, revenues, and profit.

Arguments for the alignment of projects with organisational strategy suggest that an alignment enriches the performance of an organisation by allowing projects to develop the business strategy (Milosevic & Srivannaboon, 2006; Ogunlana, 2010). Milosevic & Srivannaboon (2006) in particular, posits that the core purpose of project management is to support the execution of the organisational strategy through projects while ensuring the accomplishment of results. In the same vein, Ogunlana (2010) suggested that projects allow for the actualisation of the business case and objectives of the project investment as well as the realisation of strategic objectives, benefits and future opportunities. Too & Weaver (2014) posited that there must be a clear link between the outputs created by projects and the requirements of an organization's business strategy before the organization can create optimal value from its investment in projects. This means that organizations that have a structure in place for aligning the project deliverables with their organizational goals will be better placed to realize their investment in projects and achieve the value defined by their business strategies. In line with the arguments, there have been calls for the project management discipline to move from the tactical field to a more strategic field (Jugdev & Müller, 2005; Shenhar et al. (2001).

2.10.1.2 Success Criteria - Efficiency and Effectiveness

The measurement of value in project management is often considered through efficiency and effectiveness success criteria. The literature suggests that project management is applied to projects to optimize efficiency and effectiveness (Ogunlana, 2010). Efficiency measures relate to cost, time, and scope while effectiveness measures relate to broader measures such as the wider organisational value that projects aim to deliver. In line with this, project efficiency was named as one of five factors in Shenhar & Dvir's (2007) model of the five dimensions of success. The components of the efficiency dimension were highlighted as meeting schedule, meeting cost, yield performance/functionality and other defined efficiencies. The other four dimensions include team satisfaction, impact on the customer, business success, and preparing for the future, suggesting wider measures of measuring success (effectiveness). See table 2.4:

Table 2.4: Components of Project Success

EFFICIENCY	IMPACT ON TEAM	IMPACT ON CUSTOMER	BUSINESS SUCCESS	PREPARATION FOR THE FUTURE
• Meeting schedule • Meeting cost • Yield performance, functionality • Other defined efficiencies	• Team satisfaction • Team morale • Skill • Team member growth • Team member retention • No burnout	• Meeting requirements • Meeting specification • Benefit to the customer • Extent of use • Customer satisfaction • Customer loyalty • Brand name recognition	• Sales • Profits • Market share • Cash flow • Service quality • Cycle time • Organizational measures • Regulatory approval	• New technology • New market • New product line • New core competency • New organisational capability

Source: Shenhar & Dvir (2007)

In Müller & Jugdev's (2012, p. 26) view, efficiency measures offer a learning process that enables organisations to identify valuable information for future improvements (p. 27). They

suggested looking at value from the perspective of stakeholders and through three clusters: meeting design goals, impact on the customer, and benefits to the organisation.

Basten, Joosten, & Mellis (2011) introduced the concept of process efficiency. Using project managers' subjective perceptions of project success and its potential dimensions, they tested three alternative approaches to measuring information system (IS) project success. They found that the traditional way of assessing project success was inadequate in assessing the overall success of an information system project and suggested that project management should focus on process efficiency and on best satisfying customers' rather than on solely keeping plans. Tuner (2014), however, pointed out that the reward system in organisations encourages the project manager to focus solely on project efficiency rather than effectiveness.

2.10.1.3: Project Management and Project Success

The relationship between project efficiency, effectiveness, project management success, and project success has been accepted and applied by various studies (Badewi, 2016; Locatelli, Mancini & Romano, 2014). Cooke-Davies (2002) and Ika (2009) differentiated between project success and project management success, referring to project management success as based on project efficiency and measured at project completion. Project success, on the other hand, refers to whether the project outcome meets the strategic objectives of the investing organisation (project effectiveness). Turner and Zolin (2012) presented a similar argument to this, agreeing that measuring project management success was based on project efficiency, and adding that measuring the success of an investment was considering wider measures of success.

Lloyd-Walker and Walker (2011) suggested that measuring project management success by efficiency and not effectiveness is an insufficient measure for the long-term sustainability of a business. Andersen (2016) also differentiated between project management success and project product success, stating that while project management success represents the traditional triple constraint criteria, project product success encompasses the satisfaction of the strategic objectives of the project owner and the needs of other stakeholder groups, including the project user/customer.

Zwikael and Smyrk (2012) adopted a 'triple-test performance framework by breaking down project success into three dimensions namely: project management success, which relates to the triple constraint criteria and is a measure of the project manager's performance in achieving the project plan as judged by the project owner; project ownership success which is a measure of the project owner's performance in realizing the business case as judged by the project funder, and project investment success, which is a measure of the actual value generated by the project investment as judged by the project funder.

2.10.2 Success Factors

Success factors are independent variables that influence the achievement of the success criteria and are considered as a common means of assessing projects (Nixon, Harrington and Parker, 2011, Söderlund, 2011, p. 159; Thi and Swierczek, 2010, p. 570). A myriad of researchers developed different critical success factors across different contexts including industries and countries (Kerzner, 1987; Pinto and Slevin, 1987; Pinto and Slevin, 1989; Wateridge, 1995; Belassi and Tukel, 1996; Clarke, 1999; Cooke-Davis, 2002; Muller, 2003). Irvine & Hall (2015) consider success factors to be the conditions, circumstances and events that contribute to the success of a project. Fortune and White (2006) listed the three most cited critical success factors in a project to be: (1) support from senior management; (2) clear/realistic objectives; and (3) efficient planning. Pinto and Slevin (1987), who are highlighted as the most widely recognised authors for success factors (Jugdev and Müller, 2005, Turner and Müller, 2005) developed ten success factors list shown in table 2.5 below.

Walker (1995) highlighted project scope to be a success factor that impacted on project duration. Belassi and Tukel's (1996) success factors are classified into 4 major criteria. Atkinson (1999) classified success based on the phases of process, system & benefits. Turner & Muller (2005) highlighted the role of the project manager's leadership style as a success factor.

In examining complexity in projects, Morris and Hough (1987) concluded that project failure is a result of poor management skills in communicating, involving clients and a qualified project team is essential for success. Freeman and Beale (1992) identified five main critical success

factors including performing technically, efficient execution, satisfying customers, growing personally and manufacturability and business performance.

Table 2.5: Success factor list

	Success Factor	Description
1	Project mission	Clearly defined goals and direction
2	Top management support	Resources, authority and power for implementation
3	Schedule and plans	The detailed specification of the implementation process
4	Client consultation	Communication with and consultation of all stakeholders
5	Personnel	Recruitment, selection and training of competent personnel
6	Technical tasks	The ability of the required technology and expertise
7	Client acceptance	Selling of the final product to the end-users
8	Monitoring and feedback	Timely and comprehensive control
9	Communication	Provision of timely data to key players
10	Troubleshooting	Ability to handle unexpected problems

Source: Pinto and Slevin's (1987)

However, Pinto and Slevin's (1987) list of success factors (table 2.5) was criticised by Jugdev and Müller (2005) for focusing mainly on the operational level rather than strategically linking the project to overall organisational objectives. Davis (2014) also criticised the list, highlighting that the project manager's role was not explicitly mentioned as a success factor. Morris and Hough's (1987) success framework responds to some of these criticisms, highlighting that success is dependent upon multiple stakeholders' perceptions and the time during the project when success is measured.

Cooke-Davies (2002) stated that answering the question of which factors are critical to success is dependent on three distinct questions: what are the factors leading to project management success? what are the factors leading to a successful project; and what are the factors leading to consistently successful projects? These questions underline the need for a more fundamental understanding of success factors patterns that emphasise overall project success (Cooke-Davies, 2004). In response to this, a myriad of researchers have developed several critical success factor frameworks, for example, Belassi and Tukel (2006); Davis (2014); Koutsikouri, Austin and Dainty (2008); Spalek (2005); and Westerveld (2003). In particular, Belassi and Tukel's (2006) critical success framework identified factors associated with the project manager, project team, organisation and external environment. Belassi & Tukel's (2006) table 2.6 below highlights a list of critical success factors developed in research.

Table 2.6: Critical Success Factors

Authors	Critical Success Factors (Belassi & Tukel, 2006)
Martin (1976)	Define goals; select project organizational philosophy; general management support; organize and delegate authority; select project team; allocate sufficient resources; provide for control and information mechanisms; require planning & review
Locke (1984)	Make project commitments known, project authority from the top, appoint competent project manager, set up communications and procedures, set up control mechanisms (schedules, etc.), progress meetings
Cleland & King (1983)	Project summary, operational concept, top management support, financial support, logistic requirements, facility support, market intelligence (who is the client), project schedule, executive development and training, manpower and organization, acquisition, information and communication channels, project review
Sayles & Chandler (1971)	Project manager's competence, scheduling, control systems and responsibilities, monitoring and feedback, continuing involvement in the project
Baker, Murphy & Fisher (1983)	Clear goals, goal commitment of project team, on-site project manager, adequate funding to completion, adequate project team capability, adequate initial cost estimates, accurate initial cost estimates, minimum start-up difficulties, planning and control techniques, task (vs. social orientation), absence of bureaucracy
Pinto and Slevin (1988)	Top management support, client consultation, personnel recruitment, client acceptance, monitoring and feedback, communication, troubleshooting, characteristics of the project team leader, power and politics, environment events, urgency
Morris and Hough (1987)	Project objectives, technical uncertainty innovation, politics, community involvement, schedule duration urgency, financial contract legal problems, implement problems

Source: Adapted from Belassi & Tukel (2006)

Davis's (2014) framework identified a theme of critical success factors based on themes from the project manager, client, user/end-user/consumer, project team, senior management team, and the project sponsor/owner. The following table 2.7 categorises Davis' success factors found:

Table 2.7: Davis' list of critical success factors developed in research

Stakeholder Group	Critical Success Factors (Davis', 2014)
Project Manager	Budget/cost (Barclay and Osei-Bryson, 2009), Schedule/time (Jugdev and Müller, 2005), Quality (Tukel and Rom 2001), Stakeholder satisfaction in terms of the customer team and end-users (Müller and Turner, 2007, Tukel and Rom, 2001), Focus on people (Turner and Müller, 2005, Wang and Huang, 2006) Co-operation between the project team (Cooke-Davies, 2002), Agreeing objectives (Turner, 2004), Suitability of products, market feasibility (Barclay and Osei-Bryson, 2009), Emotional and managerial competencies (Müller and Turner, 2007), Commercial success of a project (Wateridge, 1998), Top management support, client consultation, availability of resources (Belassi and Tukel, 1996), Agreement on success criteria between the project manager and end-users, impact on the customer, business and direct success & strategic potential (Jugdev and Müller, 2005)
Client	Stakeholder satisfaction (Müller and Turner, 2007, Turner, Zolin & Remington (2009), Communication (Belassi and Tukel, 1996, Pinto and Slevin, 1987), Client's use of the finished product (Munns and Bjeirmi, 1996, Pinto and Slevin, 1987), Repeat business with the client (Turner et al., 2009), Time and Cost (Bryde and Robinson, 2005)
User/end-user/consumer	Quality (Jugdev and Müller, 2005, Tukel and Rom, 2001, Turner et al., 2009), Close co-operation/involvement (Cooke-Davies, 2002, Tukel and Rom, 2001), Perceived values (Jugdev and Müller, 2005), Project well accepted by users (Lim and Mohamed, 1999), Users making use of the completed project/product (Munns and Bjeirmi, 1996), How the final project is sold to intended users (Pinto and Prescott, 1990), Meeting the functional and technical specifications (Tishler, Dvir, Shenhar & Lipovetsky, 1996). Benefit provided by the asset and obtaining benefit from project outcome, availability, reliability, maintainability, cost and time (Turner, Zolin & Remington, 2009).
Project team	Level of collaboration within a project (Barclay and Osei-Bryson, 2009, Cooke-Davies, 2002), Importance of the project mission (Pinto and Slevin, 1988), Successfully reaching the end of the project (Munns and Bjeirmi, 1996)
Senior Management team	Identification of objectives (Barclay and Osei-Bryson, 2009, Jugdev and Müller, 2005), Executive commitment to, and corporate understanding of the project (Kerzner, 1987)

Project sponsor/owner	Maximising efficiency, developing a quality reputation (Barclay and Osei-Bryson, 2009), Time (Freeman and Beale, 1992), Having a project manager with appropriate focus for their work (Müller and Turner, 2007a), Continuous communication (Jugdev and Müller, 2005), Project performance reports (Turner, 2004), Determining project success (Wang and Huang, 2006)

Source: Adapted from Davis (2014)

Finally, Davis (2014) noted that there was a gap in the literature on senior management's assessment of success perception and suggested that different perceptions of the constituents of success between different stakeholder groups are a result of the absence of agreement between stakeholder groups when defining project success. As highlighted, a myriad of success frameworks exists in the literature. However, as Davis (2014) points out, there are limited studies on critical success factors based on multiple stakeholder perceptions.

2.10.3: Success Measures

Based on the success criteria discussed, a series of measures have been adopted for success. These include achieving schedule, achieving costs, achieving quality requirements, satisfaction of team, requirements accomplishment, and market share (Turner and Zolin, 2012; Cserhati and Szabo, 2014; Demirkesen and Ozorhon, 2017; Bjorvatn and Wald, 2018). The following section reviews the literature on measures including the triple constraint or 'iron triangle, and benefit management as discussed in the literature.

2.10.3.1: Success Measure - Triple Constraint' or 'Iron Triangle'

The 'iron triangle' of cost, time, and scope/quality' or 'triple constraint' have been eminent indicators of project performance since from the 1960s to 1980s (Agarwal and Rathod, 2006; Shenhar, Dvir, Levy, & Maltz, 2001). This era is oftentimes termed as the traditional project management age where the focus was on delivering the project according to pre-determined time frames and schedules and mostly focused on the execution phase of projects. As time passed, there was an increasing acknowledgement among academics and practitioners, that success criteria for the traditional 'iron triangle' or 'triple constraint' was incomplete

(Andersen, 2016, Atkinson, 1999). Shenhar et al. (2001), for example, disputed that a successful project should be based on achieving much more than schedule, cost, and quality, but should also meet the requirements of customers. Zaman et al. (2019) also included customer satisfaction in the measurement of IT project performance, which have been also employed among different organizational projects (Turner and Zolin, 2012; Lu, Wu, Liu, Li, & Zhang (2017). Lloyd-Walker and Walker (2011) correctly put this in perspective in identifying that stakeholders are demanding more than traditional measures of success in project management. How the project affects customers and other stakeholders as well as how the business benefits from projects are becoming equally important in assessing if the project has succeeded or failed.

2.10.3.2: Success Measure – Benefits

The terminologies 'benefit' and 'value' are frequently used interchangeably (Aubry et al., 2017), with many overlying and unclear concepts such as benefit (Chih and Zwikael, 2015), value (Morris, 2013), impact (Volden, 2018) and worth (Zwikael and Smyrk, 2012). Therefore, it is of great importance to differentiate between the terms of value, benefit and impact as described in the literature. Value is "the benefit delivered in proportion to the resources put into acquiring them"—i.e., benefits (financial and non-financial) divided by the use of resources (spending, money, persons, time, energy, and materials) (OGC, 2010). It is relative and perceived differently depending on which stakeholder is viewing it, therefore, the value for different stakeholders could be either negative or positive contingent on individual benefits and disadvantages (Laursen and Svejvig, 2016), either at the individual, organizational, or social level (Lepak, Taylor, Tekleab, Marrone & Cohen (2007: pg 182). As the focus of projects shifts to value creation (Winter, Smith, Morris and Cicmil (2006), it is essential that success criteria are extended to take in the complete value of the project, which comprises outputs, outcomes and benefits (PMI, 2016a).

There is a growing weight on project managers to demonstrate benefits from projects to the funding organisation and contribute to implementing organisational strategy (Lappe and Spang, 2014, Mir and Pinnington, 2014). A benefit is explained to be the flow of value that is

achieved when customers use project outputs (Zwikael and Smyrk, 2012). According to Bradley (2010), benefits are the eventual deliverables and the reason why organizations undertake project investments. They may be objective and measurable, for example, cost savings and revenue generation (NSW Office of Finance and Services, 2015), or subjective and immeasurable, for example, brand image and customer satisfaction (PMI, 2016). Bradley (2010) describes benefit as an outcome of change that is viewed advantageously by stakeholders. Zwikael, Chih and Meredith (2018) grouped project benefits into two classes namely fortuitous benefits and target benefits. While target benefits are those benefits that are planned before the start of the project which is sought by the funder of the project through investing in the project, fortuitous benefits are those benefits that develop in the project (Zwikael & Smyrk, 2012).

'Impact' is considered as all projected and developing effects that can be ascribed as the project's result for diverse stakeholders, whether negative or positive or long term or short term (Volden, 2018: pg.111). It is considered as more inclusive than benefit and value.

2.10.3.3: Benefits Management and Benefits Realisation

Benefits Management is defined as a process of identifying, planning, measuring and following up of the benefits of a program or project (Serra and Kunc, 2015). The 'Standard of Program Management' from the Project Management Institute (PMI, 2017) highlights that the prospective benefits should be registered, analysed, classified and planned in detail, pursued and transferred using a five-stage process: (1) benefits identification; (2) benefits analysis and planning; (3) benefits delivery; (4) benefits transition; and (5) benefits sustainment. The five-stage process aligns with the three stages of the life cycle of a program with the first stage being performed during the definition of the program phase, while the 2nd and 3rd stages are performed during the program benefits delivery phase and the last 2 stages focus during the program closure.

The Benefits Management (BM) school of thought encompasses such factors as how the project affects customers and other stakeholders as well as how the business benefits from projects. These benefits are realised by people, whether as individuals or an organisation.

Zwikael, Chih, & Meredith (2018) point out that there has been an increase in the emphasis on project benefits management in the project management discipline due to an increase in the number of larger, complex, inter-organizational, and mega projects. Breese (2012) defined Benefit Management (BM), also referred to as Benefits Realization Management (BRM), as a range of procedures that ensure that projects, programs, and portfolios implant strategic business requirements into business-as-usual, to ensure value creation meaningfully and sustainably (Serrador, 2013). The ultimate aim of benefits management is to ensure that the strategic translation of project goals into benefits. This specifies the setup of organisational processes including governance structures that contribute toward delivering benefits that are planned (Ward and Daniel, 2012; Serra and Kunc, 2015; Ul Musawir, Serra, Zwikael & Ali, 2017). These processes and structures help to dynamically manage and continually align project outputs, outcomes, benefits, and organizational strategy (Zwikael and Smyrk, 2015; Svejvig, Geraldi & Grex, 2019, Ward & Daniel, 2012; Laursen & Svejvig, 2016).

A holistic approach in BM commences at the phase of selection of the project, which sees the collaboration of leaders, executives, decision-makers, owners of businesses, and project specialists for the identification of potential benefits of investment prospects (PMI, 2016). The benefits that are targeted are then expressed and articulated in the business case for individual projects to be approved by the project sponsor (Chih and Zwikael, 2015; Jenner, 2015). The targeted benefits then go through tracking, reviewing, and alignment with relevant stakeholder needs during the project course (PMI, 2016). Lastly is the phase of benefits realisation or 'harvesting' which may happen throughout the project, at the delivery of the project, or, more often, after the delivery of the project (Breese, Jenner, Serra & Thorp 2015). Therefore, BM takes place before the commencement of the project, in the course of the project, and afterwards the characteristic project life cycle.

Despite the apparent importance and extensive understanding of BM approaches and applications (Ul Musawir et al., 2017) numerous organisations still struggle with implementing an inclusive approach to BM (Breese et al., 2015; Aitken, Coombs & Doherty, 2015) and many projects still fail to deliver the anticipated benefits (Economist Intelligence Unit, 2016, Aubry, Boukri & Sergi (2021). According to Ul Musawir et. al (2017), the major challenge in adopting BM is the failure of several organisations in recognising and/or measuring the realisation of

project benefits as a success criterion for projects (Badewi, 2016; Ul Musawir et al., 2017; Svejvig, Geraldi, Grex (2019). According to a PMI report, (PMI, 2016), a high level of maturity in benefits realisation has been reported by only 17% of organisations and has not changed from 2014 to 2016. Also, frequent reporting and identification of benefits that are in alignment with strategic objectives are achieved by only half of organizations. Therefore, practices of BM in projects still need to be considerably researched (Badewi, 2016; Ul Musawir et al., 2017).

Project governance is highlighted to be one of the most prominent influences that are facilitating how controlled and reliable BM approaches in projects are implemented (Bradley, 2016, Doherty, Ashurst & Peppard, 2012; Turner, 2009). The systems, roles, and responsibilities that are required for effective BM are provided by a strong governance framework (Ahlemann et al., 2013; May, Sapountzis, Yates, Kagioglou & Aouad, 2009). A strong governance framework ensures the continuous alignment of project outputs and outcomes with the benefits contained in the business case of the project (Hjelmbrekke, Lædre & Lohne, 2014). Sanderson (2012) identified that the main project issues arise due to misaligned or immature mechanisms for governance, which lead to project actors being unable to provide a robust response to the expected project turbulences or organisational environment. According to Ul Musawir et al. (2017), the success of projects depends largely on the management and realisation of the expected benefits of multiple stakeholders (Ul Musawir et al., 2017). Fernandes & O'Sullivan (2021) describes benefits management as an important enabler of benefits realisation. Recently, the Project Management Institute published the first version of the practice guide for BM realisation (PMI, 2019).

According to (Payne, 2007), a benefit is a measurable improvement that derives from the outcomes obtained. It is perceived as positive through the eyes of a stakeholder (Breese, 2012; Jenner, 2014). Benefits can be defined as strategic; i.e., how can they contribute to the long-term improvement of organisational performance (Zwikael and Meredith, 2018).

The focus on benefits improves the success rates of projects (Breese et al., 2015; Ul Musawir et al., 2017). Zwikael and Meredith (2019), hence, it is a field gaining interest within project and program management (APM, 2012; Axelos, 2011; Breese, 2012; PMI, 2017). Zwikael and Meredith (2019) identified a list of nine organisational tools for setting 'target' benefits in a single organisation. These include (i) benefits maps (dependency maps); (ii) business case; (iii)

lessons learned; (iv) investment logic map; (v) benefits realisation plan (benefits management plan); (vi) benefits checklist; (vii) three column analysis; (viii) benefit distribution metrics and (ix) benefits profiles.

The literature recognizes several benefit management frameworks (Badewi, 2016; Hesselmann and Kunal, 2014; Sapountzis, Lima, Yates & Kagioglou, 2011). One such interactive framework is the 'Cranfield' model presented by Ward, Taylor, and Bond (1996). This comprises of five phases including (1) Identify and structure benefits; (2) Plan benefits realisation; (3) Execute benefits plan; (4) Review and evaluate results; and (5) Assess the potential for further benefits. The phases continue to be implemented after the project ends, exploring the possibility of future benefits and initiating a new plan for all the unexpected benefits that occur (Ward and Daniel, 2012).

In the Standard for Managing Successful Programmes', Benefits Management is perceived as a continuous activity that starts before the program is accepted (Axelos, 2011). The BM process takes into account the identification, monitoring and execution of benefits throughout the whole program, even after its closure. It begins with the vision statement and progresses through the following five phases: (1) establish and maintain a BM strategy; (2) identify and map benefits; (3) plan benefits realisation; (4) execute benefits realisation; (5) review and evaluate realisation; and (5) optimise and look for other benefits.

2.10.3.4: Value Generation through Effective Stakeholder Engagement

The Stakeholder theory suggests that value generation is a collaborative effort in relationships, ideally benefitting the focal business and all its stakeholders (Freeman 2010). Value generation lies at the centre of business model research (e.g., Richardson 2005; Wirtz, Pistoia, Ullrich & Göttel (2016) ; Zott, Amit & Massa (2011). Concepts in business models emphasise that value is generated for customers in exchange for economic value for the business. Osterwalder and Pigneur's (2010) business model canvas places value proposition for customers in the centre, with financial outcomes for the focal business as the main outcome. Lambert & Enz (2012) concluded that customer value is the most important of other value generated because a business model cannot exist without creating value. In this perspective, stakeholders are

divided into those receiving value and those contributing to generating value. Value generation can also take place in value networks with multi-directional value flows (Gordijn, Akkermans & Van Vliet, 2000; Bouwman and van Den Ham 2003; Andersson, Bergholtz, , Edirisuriya, Ilayperuma, Johannesson, Gordijn, ... & Weigand, 2006).

Value should be created with and for different stakeholders. Freudenreich, Lüdeke-Freund & Schaltegger (2020) suggest a framework for value generation from the main attributes of the stakeholder theory. The authors highlight a joint value creation process relationship between stakeholders in which stakeholders are both recipients and creators or co-creators of value. The reasons businesses exist form the basis for stakeholders to build effective relationships with the business (Freeman et al. 2010). Viewing value generation from a relational perspective is recognising that stakeholders are motivated to be engaged in relationships with a focal business and its value creation and exchange processes (Bridoux and Stoelhorst 2016; Brickson 2007; Donaldson and Preston 1995). Viewing value generation from a stakeholder theory perspective, the shared values of a company and its stakeholders results in a joint purpose, which serves as a motivating reference point for joint value creation (Breuer and Lüdeke-Freund 2016). According to Freeman (2010), for value creation to be mutually beneficial, it requires that the relationships between a focal business and its stakeholders are deeper than transaction-oriented encounters (Freeman 2010). Therefore, the business appreciates the stakeholders' active contributions as well as has a joint purpose with the stakeholders. Not having this in place will lead to a business losing legitimacy as well as its business partners and resources. The ethical decisions that a business makes are also relevant to the discussion on value generation for stakeholders as to how businesses engage with their stakeholders also affects the kind of value created. The understanding of what constitutes value is different for every recipient because different individuals have different needs and hold different values (Breuer and Lüdeke-Freund 2017; Freeman 2010a), each recipient will have a different understanding of. Value is defined in terms of the recipient stakeholder, in the context of the stakeholder theory (Garriga 2014; Schneider and Sachs 2017). In a resource-based perspective, businesses more narrowly define value as an attribute of firm resources that are necessary to achieve competitive advantages and therefore meet business needs (e.g., Barney 1991). In a more general perspective, individuals (or groups of individuals) will consider something valuable if it is perceived to meet a (fundamental) human need (Max-Neef, Elizalde, and

Hopenhayn, 1991). Freudenreich, Lüdeke-Freund & Schaltegger (2020) propose that the value created through a business model is an outcome that meets an actor's business or personal needs. If stakeholders consider ecological and social outcomes valuable, then value generation processes need to reflect this.

Stakeholders contribute actively to activities that create value. This conclusion from the business model literature is supported by current interpretations of Freeman (1984) stakeholder theory, such as Garriga (2014, p. 491) definition of stakeholders "as groups or individuals who contribute, whether substantially or not, to the value creation process of the business". Value in the context of business models—understood as a portfolio or blend of different forms of value—is therefore created jointly by and exchanged between the focal business and its stakeholders (Figge and Schaltegger, 1999).

Business value is accrued through the realisation of benefits that result from project work. Benefits are part of ensuring that investments are made to deliver value to the organisation. This normally applies even when the project is being done by a supplier or contracting organisation, or if the work is needed to maintain current capability or to conform to new regulations or directives so that smooth business operations can be allowed to proceed. The successful deployment of change, the support of new behaviours and the utilisation of new capability, resulting in the realisation of benefits, involves engaging with, promoting and working with diverse communities and groups. To ensure that value is created and sustained, organisations need to consider and address the full investment life cycle ensuring that forecasted benefits materialise.

2.11: Different Perceptions of Success Criteria/Factors/Measures

Perceptions play an important role in project success because stakeholders can have different perceptions of what constitutes project success for them. If users are satisfied with the outcome of a project, they consider the project a success. If, not, they consider it to be a failure. Baker, Murphy, & Fisher (1988, p. 93) defined the perceived success of a project thus: "If the project meets the technical performance specifications and/or mission to be performed, and if there is a high level of satisfaction concerning the project outcome among key people in the

parent organisation, key people in the client organisation, key people on the project team, and key users or clientele of the project effort, the project is considered an overall success".

In line with this, Toor and Ogunlana's (2010) research findings on large public sector development projects suggested that what was important for the success of a project was stakeholder perception and satisfaction. Also, Brunges & Foley-Brinza (2014) highlighted the importance of the stakeholder perspective and stated that a project is more likely to fail if stakeholders are pushed to adhere to strict project management procedures without considering the unique perspective of each stakeholder. In the same vein, Dimitriou, Ward, and Wright (2015) considered that limited or absent stakeholder involvement leads to an underestimation of project impacts, which can lead to lost opportunities and the risk of stakeholder opposition. On the other hand, actively engaging with key project stakeholders helps to manage risks and adjust project objectives to progress the delivery of a project. Hughes, Dwivedi, and Simintiras (2016) also linked project failure to a diminished understanding of stakeholder perspective. Synonymously, Case (2017) suggested that exploring stakeholder perspectives illuminate events that contribute to project failures. In Andersen's (2016) study, it is suggested that further work is done on understanding different perspectives of project team members and factors that affect these perspectives. This is because different stakeholders can have different perceptions of success or failure.

It is a popular view in the literature that projects should be managed for the benefit of all its stakeholders. Aapaoja & Haapasalo (2014), in particular, stress that stakeholders should participate in decisions that affect their welfare. Freeman, Harrison, & Wicks (2007, pg. 7) suggested seeing the world from the viewpoint of the stakeholder to create value for the stakeholder (pg. 61). The authors stressed that creating value for stakeholders is about understanding and satisfying stakeholder needs and concerns (pg. 15). Walker (2015, p. 311) emphasised on the importance of customer satisfaction in understanding project success. The authors argued that project success is based on differences between the customer's expectation at project commencement and the at project completion.

It is important for stakeholders to define what success looks like for them from the start of the project so that project managers can satisfy stakeholder needs. Meredith & Mantel (2011) stressed that failing to address this from the beginning will lead to a project manager striving

to meet goals that were never intended by the stakeholders. Keogh, Fourie, Watson, and Gay's (2010) study on the Department of Nursing and Health Studies at the Manukau Institute of Technology (MIT) in New Zealand highlighted the importance of the involvement of the stakeholder in the development of a new curriculum for its success. There are also reports of the adverse influence of external stakeholders in industries such as in construction (Chan and Oppong, 2017; Maddaloni and Davis, 2018; Teo and Loosemore 2017).

The subject of project success and failure has been further made complicated by different perceptions and perspectives on project success and failure (Wang & Huang, 2006). Drevin & & Dalcher (2011) and Turner (2014) both suggest that stakeholder perceptions may vary both in terms of important criteria and actual project performance (such that a project can be considered a success even if it does not meet up with cost, time, and quality criteria as assessed using the iron triangle, and a failure even if it has met all these criteria (Ika, 2009). As Thomas, Jacques, Adams, and Kihneman-Woote (2008, pg. 106) pointed out, "measuring project success is not straightforward". An example of the Sydney Opera House is illustrated - a project which according to traditional project measures failed due to being over-budget and overran its schedule (Jugdev & Müller, 2005, p. 22) However, from modern projects point of view, the project is argued by Shenhar, Dvir, Levy & Maltz (2001, p. 700) and Jugdev & Muller (2005, p. 20) to be a success due to considerations of the 'value' that the project delivered as a landmark of Australia.

Other examples exist where the client was found to be greatly satisfied even though the original project objectives were not achieved. Collyer and Warren (2009), for example, cited the movie Titanic, which was flaunted as a late, over-budget failure but became the first film to make more than US$1 billion. This suggests that project success is in the eye of the beholder and is very well decided by the people who add value to it – the stakeholders.

Perception can be influenced by time. Turner and Zolin (2012) discuss popular projects that were significantly delivered late and overshot their budgets but were, in future, perceived to be successful. They suggest that the measurement of projects based on the iron triangle of project success (time, cost, and quality) is an insufficient measure for project success and that success does not only depend on the completion of the project's scope of work, but also on the project achieving its business objectives over different time frames.

While the present research does not look at different timescales, their research is relevant to this study because it identifies a set of success and failure factors and foremost performance indicators that can be measured during project execution that can hypothetically forecast different perceptions of performance. In their study, Turner and Zolin (2012) argue that the criteria for project success must encompass multiple stakeholders' perceptions. The authors also show that perceptions of multiple stakeholders are critical to the success of a project and inappropriately evaluating an existing project's success criteria could potentially misdirect the project's decision-making, demotivate staff and create an uncreative organisational culture.

McLeod, Doolin, and Macdonell's (2012) study investigated the subjective perception of project outcomes by different stakeholders and the evaluating criteria that they base their judgements on. Their findings suggest that the failure to consider one group's view may derail the overall outcome of the project; the evaluating stakeholder provides the final judgment. They agreed that "project outcomes are subjectively perceived by different stakeholders". Their research was criticised by Davis as only considering the perception of the project sponsor and team members. This research extends this line of research by considering the perception of project recipients, in addition to the project sponsor and project team.

In attempting to link stakeholder perceptions to project success, McLeod et al.'s (2012, p.72) stress the importance of taking into account different stakeholder views for the successful outcome of a project. Though the literature points out that different stakeholder groups have different criteria for success, Cavarec (2012) denotes that not all stakeholders on the same project share the same objectives; rather, success or failure depends on stakeholder appreciation. This highlights the complex nature of stakeholder management in project management, which would readily fall on the shoulder of the project manager. While Turner and Zolin (2012) consider seven stakeholder satisfaction indicators as measures of project success, the only mention of the project manager is in relation to satisfaction with his/her pride in their work, recognition, contacts, satisfaction, growth, and top management support.

In their study, Belassi and Tukel (1996, p. 141) concluded that different perceptions of parties involved in a project in addition to varying lists of success factors from each party lead to ambiguity in understanding project success. Parfitt and Sanvido's (1993, p. 244) research support this by showing how each research participant defined project success differently.

Moreover, it may be debatable to label a project as a 'success' and 'failure' depending on its context of occurrence. For instance, a project may be cancelled as a result of change in the business conditions, which does not essentially specify that it has failed (Jenner, 2015). Such factors lead to the conclusion that current estimated rates of project success may be inaccurate (Jenner, 2015, Zwikael and Smyrk, 2012).

The context of different interpretations of success criteria and factors (deemed as success dimensions) from the viewpoint of multiple stakeholders is explored by Davis (2014). In the author's view, a common understanding of project success by multiple stakeholder groups, as opposed to a selected few, is critical to the perception of project success. Davis' (2017) findings emphasise 'accountability' as a new dimension for investigation and the necessity to understand the reasons that people get involved in projects as a way of increasing engagement. The author calls for a more participative approach of an alliance between stakeholders to determine if a project is a success or a failure. Davis' work also proposes a multiple stakeholder theoretical model that is stakeholder centred and uses previously unconsidered dimensions that stakeholders consider as key to success to judge project success, rather than dimensions from a single stakeholder group. The model allows differing views to be considered when formulating key performance indicators; its use throughout the project cycle is expected to increase the agreement of project success among all stakeholders (Davis, 2017).

2.11.1: The Perception Gap

There are differences in opinions/perceptions among stakeholders. Jiang, Klein, Wu, & Liang (2009) consider this to be a perception gap. In studying an information systems (IS) development project, the authors found that the stakeholder perception gap was due to the differences in perceptions among all stakeholders which was moulded by different stakeholder backgrounds. The perception gap was stated to be the complex result of social shaping as much as understood needs. These differences in perceptions led to manifold and inconsistent interpretations about an organizational situation which limits the shared understanding required in accomplishing project goals.

To improve success, Klein and Jiang (2001) stressed that project managers must endeavour to decrease this gap to achieve 'consonance' – which in information systems (IS) means the agreement of IS users and developers on system requirements, success criteria, and interpretation of system delivery characteristics. In the same vein, Davis (2014) found that there were no common success factors among three stakeholder groups - project recipient, project core team, and senior management. This suggested a discontinuity of perceptions between the groups and provided a case for empirical research into multiple stakeholder groups' perceptions of project success

To address the perception gap, Jiang, Klein, Wu, & Liang (2009) suggested using techniques such as pre-project partnering to influence understanding of the project's goals, measures, and objectives. This partnering is dedicated to building a common understanding of the project before any project task starts. Pre-project partnering requires working towards a mutual understanding of the definitions and measures of success, as having different concepts of terminology is one form of disagreement that leads to a lack of commonality.

2.12: Theoretical Underpinnings of Stakeholder Perceptions

2.12.1: Psychological Lens of Stakeholder Perceptions

Psychology is a science that seeks to understand human factors, which can provide insights for application in stakeholder management. Project managers can leverage insights from psychology to manage the human factors in projects, which leads to successful project outcomes. A project, after all, is a human activity (Reiss, 2007). Traditionally, stakeholder management is dependent on a process-centric approach, based on hard factors. However, stakeholder needs are also emotional and need to be attended to. Hence, human factors such as influencing, negotiating, and power dynamics are important factors that project managers must understand and manage to deliver projects successfully. Effective stakeholder management requires attention to both the rational, as well as human factors.

Khan, Skibniewski, & Cable (2017) highlight six key psychological factors - motivation and concern, expectation and perception, and attitude and behaviour, that apply universally to all internal and external stakeholders on projects. The authors argue that a thorough

understanding of these factors, and how they influence stakeholders to behave the way they do, is vital in aiding project managers to develop effective management and engagement strategies. These strategies can drive the development of a constructive, long-lasting, and mutually beneficial relationship with stakeholders throughout the project life cycle. By employing these strategies, project managers and leaders can maximize project opportunities, while simultaneously and proactively, minimizing the threats that arise from stakeholder opposition to their projects.

The psychology of project management is hinged on the need to understand human behaviour in project situations, how and why people think the way they do, how emotions develop and the impact they have on people's interactions with others. For project managers to effectively manage projects, they must, firstly, go through the process of identifying stakeholders who are people, groups, or organisations that could impact or be impacted by a decision, activity, or outcome of the project. They must analyse and capture information relating to the stakeholders' interests, involvement, and potential impact on the success of the project. Failure to identify 'powerful' stakeholders early is critical to project success as one main challenge that project managers face is the early identification of powerful stakeholders. To identify powerful stakeholders, project managers can develop insights from psychology on sources of power that make these stakeholders powerful.

Garimella & Pruseth (2016) argue on the three types of power sources including personal basis of power, cognitive basis of power, and structural bass of power illustrated in Figure 2.3. Project managers armed with this understanding can effectively identify powerful stakeholders. For example, personal attributes such as expertise, information or charisma make a person powerful. Also, the cognitive basis of priming and belief makes one powerful. By understanding these sources, project managers can effectively identify powerful stakeholders. For example, stakeholders who hold the expertise, information or charisma tend to be powerful. Likewise, stakeholders who hold legitimate power through organizational structures, those who can reward, or those who can coerce others, tend to be more powerful.

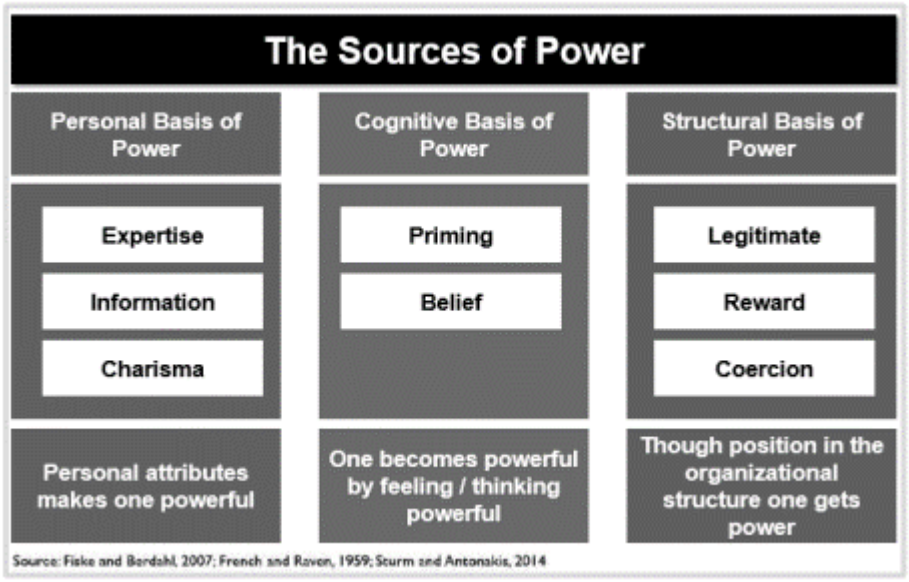


Figure 2.3: Sources of Power
(Source: French and Raven, 1959)

After identifying stakeholders, a project manager goes through the process of developing appropriate management strategies to effectively engage stakeholders throughout the project lifecycle, based on the analysis of their needs, interests, and potential impact on project success. The main challenges faced are getting stakeholders' buy-in and creating a collaborative environment. Psychologist Leon Festinger, in the theory of Cognitive Dissonance, argues that the mental state is distressed when people find that their beliefs are inconsistent with their actions (Festinger, 1957). For the project manager, this means that stakeholders will suffer cognitive dissonance if they do not believe in the project's overall objective. On the other hand, the stakeholders will change their behaviours to achieve the objective if they are happy. Project managers, therefore, must ensure that project objectives are conveyed in such a way that stakeholders buy into the project by believing the project is worth undertaking and the project contributions make sense to them.

Managing stakeholder perceptions is a process of communicating and working with stakeholders to meet their needs/expectations, address issues as they occur, and foster appropriate stakeholder engagement. One challenge in managing stakeholders is influencing without authority. Influencing both internal and external stakeholders of a project is crucial to project success. A project can use strategies of persuasion principles or leverage cognitive biases to influence without authority.

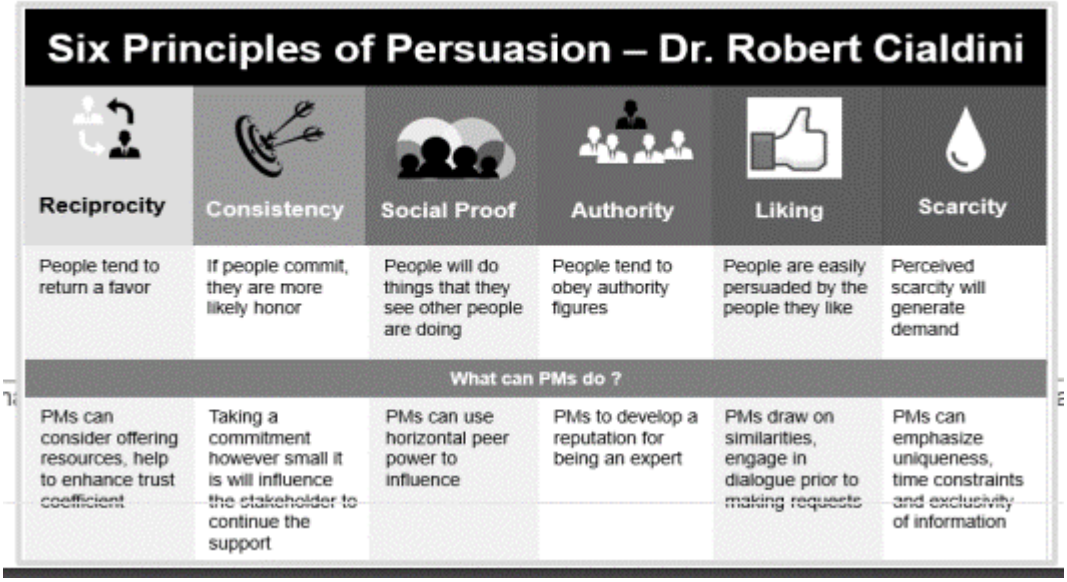


Figure 2.4: Six Principles of Persuasion
(Source: Cialdini, 2001)

2.12.1.1: Principles Of Persuasion

For effective influencing, Cialdini (2001) identifies six principles of persuasion including Reciprocity, Consistency, Social Proof, Authority, Liking, and Scarcity (figure 2.4). In 'reciprocity', research suggests that when a stakeholder receives a favour without any expectation, they will invariably return the favour, which enhances trust between the stakeholder and the project manager. In 'consistency', in line with cognitive dissonance theory which highlights that humans strive for internal consistency, it suggests that when people commit to an idea or goal, they are more likely to honour that commitment to be consistent with their self-image, therefore, a stakeholder can be influenced when they see a commitment from the project manager. In 'social proof', there is an influencing advantage to using the horizontal peer power meaning that a project manager can refer to similar stakeholders having already done the same and have succeeded. In 'authority', the project manager makes sure that people recognise authority as people tend to obey authority figures. In 'liking', understanding that people tend to be persuaded by the people they like. Positive comments of traits and praises in turn lead to compliance with the person's wishes that is offering the praise. Finally, in 'scarcity', perceived scarcity generates demand. To influence stakeholders,

project managers can, therefore, emphasise that the information is exclusive, the proposal is unique, or that there are time constraints.

2.12.1.2: Leveraging Cognitive Biases

A cognitive bias refers to a systematic pattern of deviation from rationality in judgment, leading to wrong inferences. In a seminal work on cognitive bias, Tversky and Kahneman (1974) (a Nobel Laureate and a social psychologist) identified different types of cognitive biases on human judgments and decisions. These include framing bias, anchoring bias, and availability heuristic. According to the authors, framing is a type of cognitive bias that makes people make decisions based on how the situation is presented (Framing Bias). For example, an idea that is framed positively is taken up easily but when framed negatively, does not have the same acceptance. Anchoring states that when an initial estimate is provided, people tend to adjust the outcome to reach the initial estimate. Project managers in anchoring position their requests with reference to another already accepted request. In availability, the authors argue that people are influenced by readily available information, therefore, project managers can influence stakeholders better by using information that is recent and familiar.

The final process in managing stakeholder perception is the process of monitoring and controlling overall project stakeholder relationships, by making adjustments to strategies and plans for stakeholder engagement. A challenge in monitoring and controlling stakeholder engagement is effective negotiations. A project manager is expected to use negotiation skills while engaging with stakeholders to resolve conflicts at different stages. Fisher, Ury & Patton (1991) concept of principled negotiation provides a comprehensive framework by focusing on interests and not on positions, and by separating the relationship issues from the problem issues, to solve problems. Typically, problems with people arise due to differing interpretations of perceptions, emotions, and poor communication (Garimella & Pruseth, 2016). As negotiations tend to get into a win-loss situation, it is more effective to separate different issues being negotiated on with different priorities leading to trade-offs and win-win situations. Using this strategy provides opportunities to enhance stakeholder engagement to realize

mutual gains. Also, the use of objective criteria to make decisions may help solve problems while maintaining good relationships, especially with directly opposed interests.

2.12.2: Relational Lens

Relational behaviour refers to desired actions to promote cooperative relationships (Hewett and Bearden, 2001). The concept has been recognised over recent years as an important way to develop and maintain favourable and productive inter-organizational relationships (Lu, Guo & Zhu, 2020; Ning & Ling, 2014; Zheng, Lu, Le, Li & Fang, 2018).

According to relational exchange theory (RET), relational behaviour is characterized as autonomy, reciprocity, and long-term orientation that includes timely information sharing, flexible problem resolution, and joint problem solving (Li, Lu, Cui & Han, 2019). The adoption of such behaviours generally leads to reductions in inter-organizational conflicts, improvement of resource efficiency, and the resolution of strategic difficulties (Griffith, Harvey & Lusch, 2006; Ning & Ling, 2014).

Zheng, Chen, Han, Ren and Shi (2021) found that effective communication is the most significant relational behaviour for stakeholders by analysing critical relational behaviour types, flows, and cycles. The involvement of several stakeholders in a project results in complex Intra and inter-organizational relationships (Buvik & Rolfsen, 2015). Denicol, Davies & Krystallis (2020) found that these high-quality organizational relationships wield significant positive effects on successful project delivery.

2.13: Risk Mitigation Through Managing Stakeholder Perception

Risk Management has developed quickly over the past decades as part of project management (Alhawari, Karadsheh, Nehari Talet, and Mansour, 2012). Projects are increasingly requiring risk management practices due to the need for a systematic process for identifying and managing risk, helping to achieve different project aims, improve project monitoring, improve

the communication between participants in the project, facilitate the decision-making process and prioritize actions, and ultimately increase the project's chances of success.

The Project Management Institute (PMI) defines risk as “an uncertain event or condition that, if it occurs, has a positive or negative effect on one or more project objectives”. All projects are risky, as they are unique enterprises, with different degrees of complexity, which aim to provide benefits. They do so in a context of restrictions and assumptions, while at the same time responding to stakeholders’ expectations that can be contradictory and changeable. Organizations should choose to assume project risk in a managed and deliberate way to provide value while balancing risk and reward (PMBOK) (as cited by Fernandes, Domingues, Tereso & Pinto (2021).

Every risk is associated with people, groups, or social actors, who are (or perceive themselves to be) affected by a risk (or decisions, strategies and/or processes in the management of a risk factor). In a risk management process, stakeholders are dynamic and so likely to come and go, while others may join at different stages of the process. Therefore, project managers and organisations at large must engage with these stakeholders. The participation of stakeholders in the risk management process is increasingly becoming recognised as a means of producing decisions that are responsive to the varying interests and values (Jardine, 2008). There are numerous benefits of engaging stakeholders to manage their perceptions and expectations during the process. This includes a greater understanding of the risk, developing trust and credibility because stakeholders feel involved in decision-making and actions affecting their future, stakeholders feel that their interests are taken seriously by the organization (Ndlela, 2019). Engagement generates mutual understanding and sharing of responsibility if things go wrong. It also allows risk stakeholders to express their opinion on the risk and the actions taken by the organization to address it, as well as its potential outcome. Engaging with a variety of stakeholders provides a platform for different voices to be heard. Different risk stakeholders can be consulted at different stages of the risk management process. To engage appropriately with the stakeholders to mitigate risks from the project, Ndlela (2019) proposes a 4-step process of identifying and analysing the risk stakeholders, prioritizing the risk stakeholders, planning of the risk stakeholder management, and engaging the risk stakeholder.

A vital part of the process of mitigating risk is risk communication which requires different forms of communication and information activities at different stages and levels of the process directed at specific target risk stakeholder groups. Stakeholder perception is embedded in definitions of risk communication - “any public or private communication that informs individuals about the existence, nature, severity, or acceptability of risks” (Plough & Krimsky, 1987, p. 6) be they source- or sender-oriented definitions focusing on conveying or transmitting information, from the risk assessors to the stakeholders, or interactive process definitions focusing on the exchange of scientific information between interested parties (Covello, Winterfeldt, & Slovic, 1987).

Risk communication is thus a strategic management activity that involves the ability to communicate effectively the nature and magnitude of risks to the internal and external stakeholders. Crucial to risk management is not only recognising the problem but also communicating the risks to the key stakeholders. Risk management processes would be futile if internal stakeholders were not included in the processes. Communication skills for persuading different stakeholders, convincing conflicting stakeholder interests, reaching compromises and satisfaction of the key stakeholders are fundamental to effective risk communication. Risk management solutions are likely to fail if stakeholder groups feel that they have not been properly informed.

Persuasive risk communication is often used when the communicator intends to change behaviour. It entails persuasive efforts by risk communicators to change the behaviours, attitudes and opinions of specific groups or stakeholders regarding a risk issue. Miller (1980), cited in Cushman and Mcphee (2013), defines persuasive communication as any message that is intended to shape, reinforce or change the responses of another or others. Persuasion includes “any effort to modify an individual’s evaluation of people, objects or issues by the presentation of a message” (Cacioppo and Petty, 1984). Persuasive communication emphasizes the notion of change, be it a change of attitude, behaviour, habits, emotions or beliefs about an issue. Hence any message that is intended to shape, reinforce or change the responses of another, or others, will be defined as persuasive communication (Stiff, 1994, p. 10)

One of the biggest challenges facing risk communicators is to motivate, persuade or influence stakeholders on matters of risk. As noted in Gutteling and Wiegman (1996), to some risk communication researchers, especially those who hold an implicit technical view of risk communication, there is no problem in trying to reach an agreement between the source and the receiver by applying persuasive tools.

Projects are frequently frustrated by stakeholder-related risks (Mok, Shen & Yang, 2015), with multiple stakeholders responsible for major failures in projects. Accordingly, stakeholder management is cited as an important area of project management as it can be the difference between success and failure (Project Management Institute (PMI), 2017). The literature has also widely accepted that effective stakeholder management is critical to project management success (Achterkamp and Vos, 2008; Littau et al., 2010; Eskerod, Huemann & Savage, 2015; Nguyen, Chileshe, Rameezdeen & Wood, 2019; Saad, Zahid & Muhammad, 2020; Xue, Shen, Yang, Wu, Li, Lin & Xue, 2020). Completing the project on time, within cost, and achieving the required quality were traditionally considered to be project management success (Budeli, 2021; PMI, 2017); thus, mitigating the criticality of project-related risks, such as work delays, cost overruns and quality defects, will possibly benefit the success of project management (Xia, Guo & Lin, 2021).

Communicating risk requires a profound understanding of the risk stakeholders. For risk communication to succeed, it is imperative that the communicator understands the stakeholders and how they perceive the potential risk. Identifying, assessing and segmenting the stakeholders, understanding their concerns and perceptions, would enable the communicator to design better risk communication strategies. It would enable the communicator to design better risk messages, customize messages for specific target groups and ensure that stakeholders receive relevant messages. It is equally important for the communicator that the stakeholders want to be involved.

Stakeholder management can be effective in overcoming crises or scandals that may impact a business. Madsen and Ulhoi (2001) stressed that companies need to be able to identify stakeholders' expectations and assess their influence on firms. For this reason, having many receptors linked to stakeholders helps managers define a strategy that contains the risk of damage to the firm. Following that, Alpaslan, Green & Mitroff (2009) discussed the role of

stakeholder management as an activator of proactive and accommodating behaviours from stakeholders during crisis management. More recently, Eskerod and Vaagaasar (2014) provided detailed descriptions of how a project management team could exploit stakeholder relationships to build trust among subjects involved in a project and manage project-related risks (2001), who stated that companies need to be able to identify stakeholders' expectation and assess their influence on firms.

In the study of stakeholder management, some authors have mainly focused on the opportunity of stakeholder management to reduce risks (Fama, 1970; Godfrey, Merrill & Hansen, 2009; Graves and Waddock, 1994) or to strengthen a business's reputation and trusting relationships (Barringer and Harrison, 2000; Fischer and Reuber, 2007).

2.14: Skills in Managing Stakeholders

Authors have suggested that stakeholder management is an important interpersonal skill in projects. Awan, Ahmed & Zulgarnain (2015), for example, suggest that the proper exercising of interpersonal skills by project managers will lead to the successful completion of projects and benefits for an organisation.

Project management encompasses an accepted inclination for conflicts that arise from intrinsic budget and schedule constraints, powerful and political procedures that emerge as projects move across functional borders, the intricacies and connectivity of project tasks, and the learning curve linked to project uniqueness. Having considered the existence of these complex project relationships, Pant and Baroudi (2008) suggest that the successful management of projects entails the interpersonal aptitude to comprehend people and circumstances and then vigorously integrate suitable behaviours of leadership to the individual situations.

The Merriam Webster Dictionary defines interpersonal as "being, relating to, or involving relations between persons". Project Management Institute (PMI) refines this definition in the project management context and describes interpersonal skills as the abilities that a project manager must have to be able to apply project management tools and techniques over the life cycle of a project, across stakeholder groups, and in the organisation. This is reflected by

Millhollan (2015) who specified that these were abilities that a project manager required to apply project management tools and techniques within the organizational context. The Project Management Body of Knowledge Guide (2013) referred to interpersonal skills as behavioural competencies including the proficiencies of communication, conflict resolution, influencing, emotional intelligence, negotiation, group facilitation, and team building (PMI, 2013a, p. 301). Robles (2012) refers to interpersonal skills as traits showing character, attitudes, and behaviours. They comprise of the intangible, non-technical, specific personality skills that are determining of a person's strong points as a leader, negotiator, mediator, and facilitator (Robles, 2012).

Kechagias (2011) referred to interpersonal skills as soft skills and described these as inter-and intra-personal (socio-emotional) skills that are vital for individual growth, social involvement and success in the workplace. Examples of such skills are communication skills, flexibility and the ability to work on multidisciplinary teams (p. 33). Azim, Gale, Lawlor-Wright, Kahn, & Alam (2010) described them as skills required to deal with human issues and that are required for the application of technical skills and knowledge at work.

According to Robles (2012), interpersonal skills are the capabilities of a manager to work with different kinds of people, intrinsic character traits and handle stress at work, while being productive. In a major study, Mazur, Pisarski, Chang, & Ashkanasy (2014) studied the personal attributes of a project manager and success and developed a model, which was tested on 373 major project managers. The authors found that there was a relationship between emotional intelligence and the strength of relationships with other stakeholders. The weakness in their study, however, is the failure to ask other stakeholders apart from project managers.

In Lee-Kelley & Leong Loong's (2003) study on the influence of the leadership style of the project manager on their perception of project success, the authors found that the project manager's confidence levels and self-image from knowledge and experience will possibly play an important role in the ability of a manager to deliver a successful project. The authors found that the project manager's perception of project success and their personality and contingent experiences were significantly related (2003, p. 590). In studying the link between leadership competencies of a project manager and project success, Geoghegan and Dulewicz (2008)

revealed that certain leadership dimensions are positively related to certain variables of project success.

2.15: Human Side of Project Management

"...Indeed, it has been said that projects do not fail, but rather that people fail projects" (Williams, 2011).

According to Gemunden (2015), the human side of project management has gradually increased in importance over the past 15 years and will continue to be relevant in practice and research. The human side, as a key element of successful project implementation, has been highlighted by many researchers (Belout and Gauvreau, 2004, Kendra and Taplin, 2004). Gruden & Stare (2018) refer to the human side as people skills. According to the authors, people skills are core to project success due to project managers constituting a large part of leadership capabilities (Bredin & Söderlund, 2013). The arguments of Wong (2007) and Ciccotti (2014) suggest that project managers and leaders require people skills that help them to understand and respond to the behaviours of members of a project team. Ciccotti (2014), in particular, suggests that project managers can confidently manage the most challenging teams and situations if they understand human behaviour, therefore, understanding human behaviour is important.

Nitschke (2013) supported this view, suggesting that the common elements between project failure and project success are people, and how those people are led. According to Amason & Reilly (2007), human factors highlight how leadership, project spirit and conflict management skills influence project success. The authors argue that project success is dependent on human behaviour - predominantly the behaviour of the team leader, which they assert as the critical factor in deciding the success or failure of a project. Wong (2007) highlighted the importance of the human factor in project management, arguing that in business, elements of behaviour are often ignored; yet behaviours make or break organisational performance. The author referred to the increase in the publishing of articles on the human side of project management while works on planning and controlling are published less.

Ciccotti (2014) suggested that the human factor is built on the substance of human needs psychology and emotional intelligence, providing project managers and leaders with the most

effective tools and approaches to understand and respond to the behaviours of team members. The principle of human needs psychology is the possession of the same six basic human needs by every human being, irrespective of background, education, knowledges, etc. (Madanes, 2009, p. 16, 21-25). Each person prioritises these needs based on their experiences and belief systems, and each person has their tactics for how to meet those needs. According to Ciccotti (2014), project managers, who understand this, can have an unparalleled confidence level in their capabilities to successfully manage the most challenging situations and teams.

2.15.1: Skills/Competencies in Project Management

According to Mac Donald, Rezania, & Baker (2020), project managers have responsibility for the implementation of the processes required to achieve anticipated project outcomes and are answerable to stakeholders for project outcomes. The literature has recognised that a project manager's actions, attributes, and activities can significantly influence a project outcome (Atencio, 2012). Therefore, it is necessary to consider the project manager's skills as it pertains to project success.

The literature highlights a growing shift from technical competencies to softer, more behavioural competencies in project management. For instance, according to IPMA (2006), there is a growing awareness of the importance of behavioural competencies for project performance among professional circles. Leybourne (2007) also pointed out that there is a change in bias from tools and techniques to more social and behavioural characteristics of project management (p. 61). In the same vein, Gruden and Stare's (2018) study focused on understanding the influence and impact of behavioural competencies influences on efficient project performance. They found that behavioural competencies meaningfully influence the performance of projects and more than one-third of the competencies lessen delays and work hours.

The literature also records several qualitative and quantitative studies that have focused on stakeholder perceptions of the impact of competencies on the performance of projects. Examples of such qualitative studies include Anantatmula (2010), Fisher (2011), and Ortiz-Marcos, Cobo Benita, Mataix Aldenueva, and Uruburu Colsa (2013). On the other hand,

quantitative studies have used measures such as regression analysis to explore the real impact of competencies on project performance (Muller and Turner, 2010 and Geoghegan and Dulewicz, 2008). Opinions of senior executives and line managers have also been investigated such as in studies by Stevenson and Starkweather (2010), and Ahsan, Ho, and Khan (2013).

In reviewing the literature, the researcher found that there was some debate on the importance of hard versus soft skills in project management. The Guide to the Project Management Body of Knowledge (2013) referred to hard skills as understanding and skills of the project manager associated with project management processes, tools and techniques. Awan, Ahmed & Zulqarnain (2015) referred to hard skills as routine management and technical skills such as planning, evaluating, risk management, and monitoring and scheduling. Azim, Gale, Lawlor-Wright, Kirkham, Khan, and Alam (2010) referred to hard skills as "processes, procedures, tools and techniques" (p. 392) while Marando (2012) described hard skills as creating tangible deliverables like project schedules, work breakdown structures, critical path diagrams, project budgets, earned value reports, and project dashboards.

While the arguments for hard skills point to tangibility measures of the deliverables, Alam, Gale, Brown & Khan (2010) presented an alternative argument stating that managing a project involves more than the hard techniques of Gantt charts and network analysis. Instead, it involves creating and managing a team of people involved in a project from the beginning to successful completion. Gareis & Huemann (2000) argued that project success depends not only on technical expertise but on project managers' skill sets and people management skills. In addition, Müller and Turner (2010) stressed that success in a project is not mainly determined by techniques, structures and systems in project management but by the orientation towards the project stakeholders and participants. Successful project managers are primarily managers who are relationship orientated (Lee-Kelley and Leong, 2003; Prabhakar, 2005).

Azim et al. (2010) highlighted that technical project management tools help a project manager to plan a project, but the delivery of these plans requires people management skills to attain project success. In the same vein, Kaminsky's (2012) study observed the effect of non-technical leadership practices on IT project success including responsibility-taking, feeding work back to people, and motivating stakeholders to embrace change, and came to the conclusion that there was a clear need for the integration of technical and non-technical practices such as the

management of risk, time and quality. Frame (1987, p. 71) observed that the project manager's responsibilities extend beyond delivering the project on time, within budget and according to specifications. According to the author, project managers are also responsible for the development of staff, being intermediaries between senior management and project staff, and passing on lessons learnt to the organisation.

The argument is not different in academia as researchers have criticised the education and training of project management to be overly focused on hard skills and ignore the soft skills that are believed to be essential for project success (Ramazani and Jergeas 2015). This is suggested to be as a result of the PMBOK Guide (Project Management Institute (PMI, 2013) heavily influencing the education of project professionals. The Guide predominantly focuses on becoming proficient at project management tools and applications such as budgeting and planning, which according to Svejvig and Andersen (2015), is promoting the technical or hard project management skills, while overlooking the soft skills required to manage a project.

There are further studies that examine the relevance of human competences in the management of projects (Skulmoski and Hartman, 2010; Stevenson and Starkweather, 2010; Ballesteros and Chavarria, 2016; Clarke, 2010; Thal and Bedingfield, 2010; and Fisher, 2011), however, none of these studies directly examine project managers' influence on stakeholders' perceptions of success.

2.16 Organisational Change Context

2.16.1: Organisational Context

Different contexts differentiate project success. These include contexts such as different locations, sectors, project phases, and business conditions, therefore context, as well as factors that influence culture, are to be considered to influence how projects are viewed (Chou and Pramudawardhani (2015). There are other contextual factors such as environmental and organizational factors (Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp & Gilson, 2008) that affect how organisations are led, tasks are designed, and other characteristics of teams in organisations. According to Hornstein (2015), other factors affect how successful projects are perceived apart from rigorous project management processes that a project manager applies

to deliver the project. These factors include the level of adoption of change initiatives by employees of an organization that the project advocates as well as leadership, organizational resistance, how to match culture, ethical values, and the satisfaction of users/customers, (Burnes and Cooke, 2012, Kaminsky, 2012, MacKay and Chia, 2013, Turner and Zolin, 2012). This makes it imperative for the researcher to study the organisational context of projects.

As context is important, it is necessary to recognise the importance of the context into which projects are embedded. This is highlighted within literature (Grabher, 2004, Lindkvist, 2004, Manning, 2008), and the need to study the contextual nature of projects well emphasised. Manning (2008), for instance, pointed out the need for research to understand the relationship between contextual factors and organising in projects. Engwall (2003) also called for the study of the influence of a project's internal life to the factors at the organizational level. The organisational context involves how the project develops and considers elements of culture, values procedures, rules, and beliefs held or imposed in an organisation (McLeod, Doolin and MacDonell, 2012).

Klimkeit (2013) explained the organizational context of projects to be characteristics that a project is embedded in that can impact internal project forces. The context persists outside an individual project life span and consists of organizational culture, guidelines and measures, governance and structures, and people (as well as competencies and networks).

Klimkeit (2013) explored the impact of the organizational context on international collaboration in researching global customer projects in a project-based organization. The author found that there are important resources that can be illuminated by the organizational context. These include policies, authority, guidelines and arrangements that can be geared towards enabling collaboration. Though, this can only apply with collaboration drivers on international projects, comprising of interdependencies and interests in the success of the project. The author presents a framework to showcase how the organizational context can impact collaboration in global projects. This framework shows the role of the outlined mechanisms on the connections between the organizational context and the internal dynamics of projects. The following section reviews the literature of some important factors to consider in the management of organisational change projects (Palmer, Dunford, & Akin, 2016, pg. 122).

2.16.2: Change Management as a Competence

The management literature abounds with instances of project failures that have directly resulted from failing to attend to issues of organisational change (Hornstein, 2015). The needs of users change constantly, which makes it crucial for project managers to have the ability to attend to change continuously. Crawford et al. (2014) observed that project management professionals use change implementation practices across different projects that are in need of different levels of organisational and behavioural change, as well as industries of finance and engineering. The authors suggested that project practitioners that are starting out ought to undergo introductory training and development as a guide on using implementation practices for change (p. 93).

Projects need to be viewed as initiatives for organizational change. Hornstein (2015) emphasized this need and advocated for the training of project managers to apply change processes and methodologies that integrate social and psychological viewpoints in project implementation. Crawford et al. (2014) put this in perspective by advocating for project management processes to consider the engagement of employees from the start so that they start to view change initiatives as their own, rather than doing it because they are told to. Cicmil & Hodgson (2006) also stressed the need for project managers to include the ability to guide organizational change projects as a competence in project teams.

Horstein (2015) illustrated a case of the PMI only recently including a change management track in the program agenda for its 2014 Research and Education Conference. The author stressed that research on project success factors had been comparatively silent about the role of organizational change management (OCM) in project success and called for organizations like the International Project Management Association (IPMA) and PMI to advocate for OCM resources to be included on project teams.

Pursuant to this, Crawford and Hassner-Nahmias (2010) collected information from change projects that were integrated with information technology implementations in diverse organisations. The authors found that there were frequent competitive situations between project/program managers and change managers to assume the management role on

organizational change projects, which was often a barrier to a beneficiary synthesis between the two disciplines. The authors concluded that program/project managers do not have the necessary competences to perform the required activities required to endorse the adoption of project changes.

2.16.3: Organisational Receptiveness/ Readiness to change

Change management experts have stressed the importance of 'organisational receptiveness for change' and 'individual readiness for change' as well as recommended various strategies to consider in organisational change management. Organizational receptiveness denotes the commitment and efficacy of organisational members to implement organizational change (Weiner, Lewis, Linnan, 2009). When an organization has a high receptiveness to change, resistance to change will be limited and changes will be easier to implement.

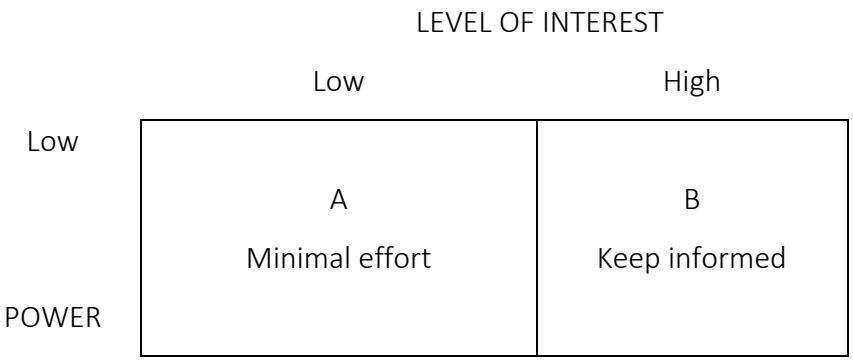
Palmer, Dunford & Akin (2016) highlighted the role of timing and action in strengthening conditions when receptiveness is low (pg. 118). While some conditions improve with time, others can be strengthened through actions. These include making sure that people clearly understand and are strongly motivated for change; ensuring that the organisation defines a clear vision as well as its goals and benefits of change; implementing measures to build confidence to advance trust; making sure that high-performing individuals hold significant positions; ensuring that there are required capabilities to manage change are; ensuring that satisfactory resources are available to support the proposed change; ensuring that performance management and reward systems are aligned with change goals, and developing a clear action plan.

On the other hand, individual readiness is the tendency to accept or embrace change. The uppermost level of commitment to organizational change implementation arises when people's motives are that they want to change. The individual readiness to change is demonstrated through attitudes and behaviours that show that change is supported, and people are open and committed to change. Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) highlighted the reasons why people in organizations may commit to organizational change. These include – valuing change, no choice in the matter, or they are obliged to the change. These reasons are mirrored by Rafferty, Jimmieson, & Armenakis (2013) who highlight five beliefs that support

an individual's readiness to change. These include Discrepancy - it is needed; Appropriate – it is appropriate; Efficacy – the seeming ability an individual has to implement change; Principal support - the organisation will support with resources; Valence - the assessment an individual does on how the costs and benefits apply to them personally.

Weiner (2020) argued that the highest level of organizational readiness occurs when the people in organisations are not only willing to change but believe strongly that they can. According to Kozlowski & Klein (2000), organisations must focus on disseminating a consistent message, as well as reflect these in their actions to engender people to be ready for change. This will also encourage unity in the perception of readiness for change. Messages should be shared by interacting socially and experiences shared with past change efforts. Weiner (2020) draw on the motivation and social cognitive theories to suggest settings that might encourage a shared readiness for change within the organization.

Palmer, Dunford, & Akin (2016, pg. 122) suggested that the readiness to change in individuals can be encouraged by implementing procedures that are designed to improve people's participation in decision making, by disseminating good change communications, as well as promoting perceptions that the organisation has a history and experience with change through support and similarities of values. The authors proposed using the stakeholder analysis approach to focus on where key stakeholders are positioned to assess individuals' readiness for change. The power interest matrix (Figure 2.5) is proposed where stakeholders' power is plotted against stakeholder interests. Decisions on stakeholder management strategies for certain change initiatives can be made using this matrix (Grundy, 1997).



High	C Keep satisfied	D Key players

Figure 2.5: Power-Interest Matrix
Source: Based on Johnson, Scholes & Whittington (2009)

Interestingly, Worley and Lawler (2006) argued that the structuring of many business organizations does not encourage change, which defeats the contemporary need for agile working and adapting to change. The argument is that usually these organizations are designed to last through structures and practices in response to the need for stability and predictability. Hamel and Zanini (2014) also supported this argument noting that stating that organizations today are not built to change proactively, rather they are constructed for discipline and efficacy, and are heavily rigged by hierarchy and the practice of routines. Palmer, Dunford, & Akin (2016, pg. 122) responded to this, suggesting that the answer to the problem was to build organizations that were flexible-to-change, efficient in performance and open to respond to changing trends and environmental developments.

2.16.4: Organizational Culture

Every organization has its personality or climate which make up its unique identity. This is referred to as organizational culture. Palmer, Dunford, & Akin (2016, pg. 150) initially defined organizational culture as “the way we do things around here.” The authors then proceeded to produce a more technical definition - “the shared values, beliefs, and norms that influence the way employees think, feel, and act toward others, both inside and outside the organization” (Schein, 2011). Organisational culture is defined as a set of vital assumptions that members of an organisation share that are often unstated (Kozami, 2003). The two major assumptions are beliefs and values. Beliefs are assumptions about reality and are derived from and reinforced by experience. Values are assumptions about ideas that are desirable and worth striving for. A corporate culture is created when beliefs and values are shared in an organisation.

Blunt and Jones (2011) stressed that the management of culture encompasses the process of influencing behaviours, attitudes and beliefs. Influencing attitudes involves a look at the different individual perspectives and if these individuals accept that their attitudes need to be changed. Employees will not change their attitudes just because they are asked to do so. This introduces a challenge for managers. Understanding employee behaviour as well as devising a counselling approach to understand certain changes to their behaviour could be beneficial to the organisation as well as to the employees (Armstrong, 1996)

According to Jones, Jimmieson, & Griffiths (2005), for an organization to be ready to change, it needs to be able to embrace novelty, take risks, and be open to learning. In Weiner's (2020) opinion, organizational culture has the power to intensify or diminish the degree of change valence that corresponds with an exact organizational change, contingent on whether the effort to go about the change relates to cultural values.

In Lawson and Price's (2010) view, for a change to be successful, there needs to be an attempt to influence people to change their "mindsets". This could mean influencing people to reason differently about how they work. The first step is to change behaviours. The authors acknowledged three conditions for the changing of mindsets, in collective thinking and behaviours—from reactive to proactive, from hierarchical to collegial, and from looking inwards to focusing externally. The three conditions are highlighted as - the rewarding and recognition structures must correspond with the new behaviours. The people must have the required capabilities and champions or ambassadors that employees respect must be seen to actively model the new behaviours. When these conditions are met, there is bound to be a change in behaviours because attitudes at work will change (Lawson and Price, 2010, p. 32). The discussions suggest that "mindsets" (or in this case perceptions) can be made to change through carefully reconsidering structures, capabilities, and exemplary representations.

Conclusively, managers should arm themselves with an understanding of the culture of the organisation that their project is situated in, recognise the appropriate culture that supports the new system and be committed to playing an important role in showcasing the required behaviours, develop them in their employees and install the value system of the organisation.

2.16.5: Visioning and Leadership

Carter, Self, Bandow, Wheatley, Thompson, Wright & Li (2014) show the importance of leadership in change management. According to the authors, effective change in a firm's culture comes from competent, powerful and committed leaders. The literature illuminates that vision is an ingredient that leaders provide their people with to be receptive to change. Organisational visioning provides a purpose for any organization. A vision of an organization is well defined if it creates short- and long-term goals, authorises and inspires leaders and followers to effect change and firm up their mechanisms to adapt in staying relevant and competitive (Sullivan and Harper, 1996)

Visioning is provided by transformational leaders which involves four main processes: vision creation, vision communication, getting people to commit to realising vision by leading effectively and dynamically, solidifying vision through risk taking, preparing and executing plans to translate vision into reality. Transformational leaders are also termed "heroic leaders". According to Nadler and Shaw (1995, p. 219), they have responsibility for invigorating and backing followers and giving them the vision to support the development of commitment, a common goal that people believe in and for them to feel they have succeeded.

Visioning is vital and serves as a guide for direction, purpose, and to inspire many in addition to solidifying the drive to be receptive and open to change. It is argued by Gardner and Avolio (1998) that visionary leaders are charismatic and are tasked with providing "identity images" that many value, they instil trustworthiness, integrity, morals, creativity, reverence, and influence. The authors highlight four processes that these kinds of leaders endorse their visions. These include framing (understanding a vision and passing this vision to others to accept by highlighting the vitality and how the vision aligns with the followers' values); scripting (directing and bringing together ideas and actions such as using metaphors and stories to communicate the right dialogue, for the message to be more attractive and appealing as well as the use of verbal, nonverbal and emotional displays; staging (using signs, objects, and scenarios to buttress the vision; performing: (passing on the vision by living the vision to demonstrate the required behaviours to followers).

It is perceived that the heroic/transformational/charismatic leader drives the organizational change process. Palmer, Dunford, & Akin, 2016 (pg. 199) highlights the argument among some authors that suggest that vision is not an ingredient for successful change leadership. In their view, the power of charisma and vision are overstated because vision is an abstract and vague concept. This argument is rejected as seemingly vague as abstract visions have been articulated by organizations but characteristically integrate values of excellence, social responsibility, employee empowerment, and more satisfied customers.

Visions develop due to the difficulty in articulating a precise picture of the future when a transformational change process is just beginning. The tendency to make strong futuristic appeals rather than focus on existing operational issues can obstruct change. In Goffee and Jones' (2000) view, there are other qualities that are necessary to complement vision such as being understanding but realistic and concentrating on needs rather than wants and showing followers personal weaknesses to gain their trust. Abualqumboz, Reid, Papalexi, & Bamford 2017) quote Chen (2014) in highlighting that better collaborations and organisational performance can be achieved where a high level of trust has been developed within an organisational network.

Visions should be clear, attractive, bright, determined, and achievable in order to be effective. While they need to provide direction and guide the making of decisions, they also need to be flexible enough to be open to creativity and change and should embody a desirable future for the organization.

To develop a vision is being open to different approaches. These include that the vision comes from the chief executives ("tell"), or that people participate in developing the vision (co-create). The 'tell' approach, though may be speedy and inspiring, are not consistent with the perceptions of employee enablement and engagement. The co-create method which sees senior leaders orchestrating the process is bound to make better visions and ensure change is successful.

The best approach is dependent on the change management picture in use in the organisation. Other approaches highlighted (2016, pg. 201) include instinctive, logical, and benchmarking approaches. Palmer, Dunford, & Akin (2016, pg. 201) suggest that the manager of the change project should assess the role and need to develop a vision concerning specific change

situations as context of organizational backgrounds, history, challenges, and future goals can differ with organizations.

2.17: Communication

Communication has been widely mentioned as a critically important competence necessary for successful project management (Prabhakar, 2005; Hyvari, 2006; Bansal, 2009; Söderlund, 2011; Oke, Omoraka, and Ayeni, 2017). Communication is defined as an "exchange of information and understanding between two or more persons and groups" (Omachonu and Ross, 2004, p.28), and "the transfer of a message (information, idea, emotion, intent, feelings, or something else) that is both received and understood" (Goetsch and Davis, 1997, p. 307). The literature suggests that project managers should excel at communication, as the absence of communication is an essential factor that can hinder project success.

A major accountability of a project manager is to enable communication among stakeholders and get "everyone on the same page" (Awati, 2011). Project stakeholders vary in backgrounds and so it is expected that there will be differences in opinions. This emphasises that effective communication from the project manager is essential (Conklin, 2005).

The literature suggests that communication also needs to be effective for a range of stakeholders. For example, Stevenson and Starkweather (2010) study examined the ability of project managers to communicate with multiple stakeholder levels including end-users and senior management. Zielinski (2006) stresses that project managers should understand how to communicate effectively across the organisational chain to different audiences, and how to manage and influence people who may report to others. Ziek and Anderson's (2015) study explores how project managers' communication generates a discourse with stakeholders that eventually impacts the content, direction and outcome of a project. Proper management of stakeholder relationships, hence, is important and will improve the chances of a successful project outcome if good communication channels are established and maintained (Bansal, 2009). According to Pedrosa, Hernández-Ortiz, García Martí, & Vallejo Martos (2019), sustaining stakeholder relationships must be the forefront in management's decision-making and the pillar of a more inclusive corporate strategy.

Communication also has a central role to play in the change communication process (pg. 206). The communication of change, though important, is often overlooked by organizations. In a UK survey of one hundred employers, it was found that only a low 40 per cent had formal strategies for change communication (Taddicken & Wolff, 2020). The companies that had formal strategies were four times more probable to agree that having a formal strategy was contributary to their success.

Palmer, Dunford, & Akin (2016) stated that how proposals for change are communicated matters and result in greater understanding and commitment. According to Whelan-Berry and Somerville (2010), an often-cited change driver is communication. This involves illuminating the need for change and how this can be realized; the failure of change comes from poor communication.

The concept of having two-way communication has often been cited by many authors. This involves telling as well as listening. It is essential from the start to the end of a change process that the organisation practices a two-way communication system. Change communication need also to be adequately resourced to address resistance, inspire the individual acceptance of change, illuminate key challenges, and support the drive for change.

Whelan-Berry and Somerville (2010, p. 181) define change communication as a two-way communication that regularly specifies the initiative for change, its enactment, linked victories, issues and challenges and how these can be resolved. In a two-way communication of change for an organisation, there is potential for greater engagement and understanding from employees, and an effective medium to address uncertainties and questions and potential obstacles (p. 181).

According to Christensen and Cornelissen (2011), change communication is significant due to factors such as the importance of stakeholder communications; the growing need to demonstrate sustainability and corporate social responsibility, and corporate citizenship as well as corporate communications. Communication is considered to be a driving force for organizing and building for organizations (p. 398) because it has the power to construct change in the understanding of recipients of the communication, through a collective process of sense-making.

As Christensen and Cornelissen (2011) note, the communication of change is aimed at influencing the viewpoints of diverse internal and external stakeholders for an organisation. This raises the suggestion that clarity and consistency are significant factors. However, Christensen and Cornelissen (2011, pp. 402–3) argued that organizations are faced with plenteous voices, with diverse views and ideas and so can benefit from change communications being ambiguous and inconsistent. This is due to the following:

- The use of vague and equivocal language permits organisations to create dialogue in a manner that allows various stakeholders to participate without isolating anyone.
- The use of excessive clarity and uniformity in forming shared values may lead to managers being prevented from establishing an agreement with particular corporations.
- While corporate communications and organisational branding promote the elimination of ambiguity, some ambiguity is vital in endorsing 'unified diversity' - the ability for the coexistence of differences within the union of the organisation.
- Management can consciously design ambiguity and polyphony as a strategy for promoting identification and reduction of tension by permitting diverse audiences to make their interpretations of what is viewed as one corporate message.

The process of exchanging meaning to illustrate interpersonal communication is modelled based on the research of Shannon & Weaver (1949), who focused on signal processing in electronic systems. The model of the communication process highlights the process of employing the use of an appropriate channel to transmit a message to a receiver. See figure 2.6.

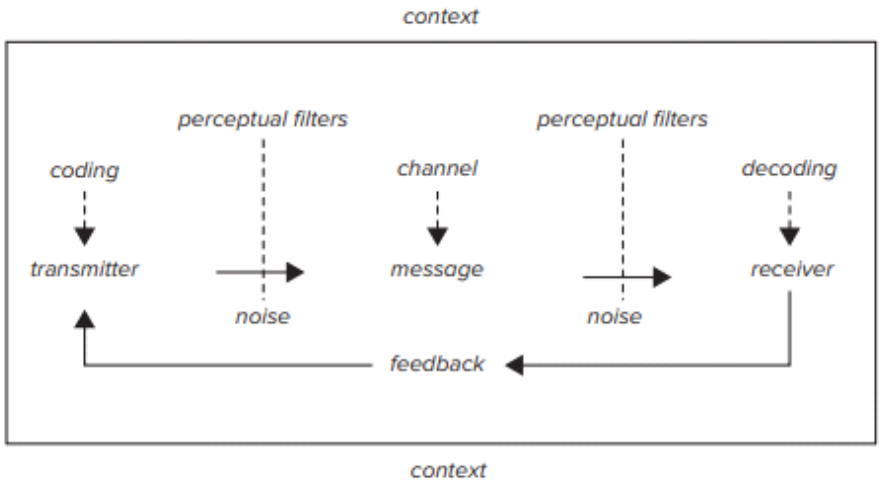


Figure 2.6: Exchange of Meaning: Communication Process Model
Source: Palmer, Dunford, & Akin (2016, pg. 210)

It is not enough to have a common language; for communication to be successful, receivers and transmitters must have the same frames of reference as well as shared experience and understanding. In communicating elements of a major change initiative, Palmer, Dunford, & Akin (2016, pg. 210) stressed on not assuming that everyone receiving the message will understand at the same level as the transmitter. Decoding of the message can be affected by perceptual filters, for example, a willingness to hear, or not hear, certain types of information. There may be different settings within an organization where people may or may not have time to reflect on the messaging or may be overloaded with information. These impact what content is filtered out and which is decoded.

Context is another factor that can impact the decoding process and therefore, is significant for communication to take place. Context can be defined by the past or current occurrences within an organisation which suggest that people in an organization with past successful occurrences of change will be more receptive to new change initiatives than in organizations where this is not the case. Employees that feel let down in the past regarding change management will likely have negative perceptions in decoding more communication on change projects.

In designing a communication approach, managers are encouraged to evaluate how context features can affect message coding and decoding and accordingly design the message content and channels. Nelson and Coxhead (1997) highlighted three challenges to consider in the

design of change communications. These include overload, ambiguity, and distortion. Palmer, Dunford, & Akin (2016, pg. 211) believe that the problems of change communication can be addressed by espousing a common language, by the constant modelling of desired change behaviours by senior management, by promoting employee engagement and using required resource capabilities to monitor and control the change management process.

Gender differences, power and emotions can also affect the process of communication (pg. 213). Understanding the emotive side of change is significant. Managers must be understanding and responsive to emotive responses to change. Emotions can be either channelled to hinder the communication process or promote readiness, commitment, and openness for change. Williams (2007) suggested that the expectation that change will affect one negatively produces adverse feelings that generate distrust for management which leads to situations of non-cooperation and engagement issues about employees. This is synonymous with Maurer's (2010, p. 23) argument on resistance being associated with negative emotions of fear, hostility, conflict, irritations, and other misgivings. This negativity can be prevented by taking perspective (empathizing on the perspective of the people who the change is impacting and how they will feel about the change). This is synonymous with the aim of this research in understanding the perspectives of stakeholders of a change project as lessons for stakeholder management for delivering more successful projects. Another negativity preventive measure suggested by William (2007) is reducing threats (engaging in deliberate activities to reduce perceptions of negativity associated with change), as well as reflecting (evaluating self to lessen feelings of negativity and learn to alter actions).

2.17.1: Language

The management of change requires that different kinds of conversations are held at different stages of the process of change. These conversations must be coherent linguistically and should be aligned with the kind of change that is being communicated. This oftentimes requires the use of a common language of change among the stakeholders of the change project.

The importance of language in change communication cannot be overemphasized in relation to consistency in the conversations relating to the change, Sillince (1999) draws on both theories of linguistic and political science in highlighting four dominant language methods of

change conversations in organisations. These include ideals that suggest preferences; appeals that search for support; rules to guide behaviours; and deals to bargain and exchange with. It is suggested that the different methods be balanced out as relying on one over the other can lead to issues. In Sillince's (1999, p. 492) view, the motivation of change in the initial stages of organizational change requires that appeals that search for support and corresponding statements of ideals are communicated, while rules and deals to be negotiated are communicated at future stages.

According to Marshak (1993), it is essential that images and descriptions that are being employed by change managers are in alignment with the kind of change that is being driven. The inability to do this leads to failure because the absence of alignment leads to confusion for those who are being impacted by the change. This can be avoided by aligning change languages with the change activities or initiatives. The author identified four imageries and corresponding languages for each:

- Imagery of machine (fix and maintain): This advocates that the organization needs to be fixed due to its broken state
- Imagery of development (build and develop): This advocates for the organization to progress by building on historical and present practices.
- Imagery of transition (move and relocate): This advocates for the design of change to adjust the current state of the organisation
- Imagery of transformation (liberate and re-create): this advocates for radicality in the proposed change to influence the business model of the organization.

In response, Palmer, Dunford, & Akin (2016, pg. 221) suggested that change managers should be focused on reforming procedures, schemes and developments that confuse the change dialogue (pg. 221). Ford and Ford (1995) suggested that the perception of communication as a channel for creating deliberate change should be revised, rather it should be viewed as a driver of change – by communicating, change is happening, therefore, managing change is managing dialogues (p. 566).

In consideration of the speech act theory, the authors presuppose that change takes place through resourceful dialogues, dialogues to understand, dialogues to perform, and dialogues

to close down. A breakdown in change and dialogue occurs when resourceful dialogues are not being held with the right people who can make decisions for change, there is no common understanding around the intention of the change and what the people find as criteria for satisfaction or success, there is a common understanding, however, the right dialogue about performance does not happen and so people are confused about responsibilities, the prompts for change activities are not taken seriously and lack clarity on specific required outcomes, conversations are not closed formally which lead to people judging the change as still ongoing.

Ford and Ford (1995) acknowledged that change conversations do not all occur linearly, and certain stages can be missed out. The authors emphasized that managers of change would need skills in handling change conversations.

According to Palmer et al. (2016), the exact words that are used in a change process can influence how change is understood by the people being impacted. This, again, illuminates the importance of maintaining a common language. In a bid to avoid confusion and conflict, it is important to check the understanding of the shared view of words used. An example is cited by Heracleous and Barrett (2001) who found that the absence of a shared language and meaning among change recipients led to the failure of an automated risk management system in the insurance industry in the UK. They compare 'surface-level communication with 'deep discursive structures. Deep discursive structures encompass explanatory arrangements, dominant themes, narrative imagery, and persuasive strategies. They conclude that the consideration of deep discursive structures of the different stakeholders elucidate why the stakeholders resisted the new system and why the project failed.

Therefore, the concept of deep discursive structures needs to be explored and understood by change managers to effect more successful projects. This is because the structures underpin stakeholders' surface communications and may explain the resistance to change. The authors distance themselves from guaranteeing that understanding and deep discursive structures of stakeholders will lead to success. However, they accept that these activities can lead to evading pitfall, dead ends and concessions that are self-defeating in implementing change (2001, p. 774)."

Some authors claim that it is not possible to over-communicate. However, Geigle and Bailey (2001) disagree. They illustrate the example of a federal agency project, where the

management of change involved open communications across the organization which led to worry and suspicion amongst the recipients of the change. This was due to information overkill as well as limited buy-in from the change recipients as the change communication strategy did not require buy-in. The overload of information is challenging for change recipients that currently receive huge volumes of other data. Another reason offered for the change failure was that there was no plan for integrating feedback into the project.

According to Geigle and Bailey (2001), rigid compliance to an open communication plan is not enough to guarantee success. The authors argue that instead of acting as reporters, that the team should be tasked with sense-making and enabling the understanding and empowering of change recipients to determine what is relevant and what isn't. Lewis (1999) supported this view and agreed that change managers behave oftentimes like reporters in distributing information. Rather, they should be sense-makers, in search of and able to absorb the feedback from change recipients.

According to Keller et al. (2010), change recipients need to be adequately informed during a change process. The authors suggested that there is a higher chance of success in empowering frontline staff to drive change. The input from employees will result in designing change communication that will create engagement which will be invaluable to achieving the proposed change. Also, it leads to recognizing what employees' value and making sense of their perceptions of the costs of the change to them as well as the benefits. The authors, hence, stressed the importance of having clarity in the value proposition that speaks to the needs and motivations of individual employees.

Employees will 'buy in' when they find that the change has individual value to them and that there is justification for the change. It was found that in cases where the justification of the need for change is well justified, there is a sense of perceived fairness with regard to both the change process and the outcomes. This is illustrated in Daly's (1995) study of a relocation project, the author found that there was a greater need for justification of change by management when the change was viewed as unfavourably by employees. Therefore, Daly (pg. 426) concluded that there was a tendency for some managers to not feel they had to explain decisions of change to employees if they believed that the outcomes were positive and employees would be open to the change, nonetheless. Still, employees may have a different

opinion from this and will not fathom that the change was positive or not and would still expect that they are carried along through effective communications. If this happens, the employees may feel dealt with unfairly. This could result in anger and resistance to that change.

Clampitt, Dekoch & Cashman (2000) developed a continuum with five strategies for change communication. These include spray & paint, tell & sell, underscore & explore, identify & explore and withhold & uphold as highlighted in Figure 2.7.

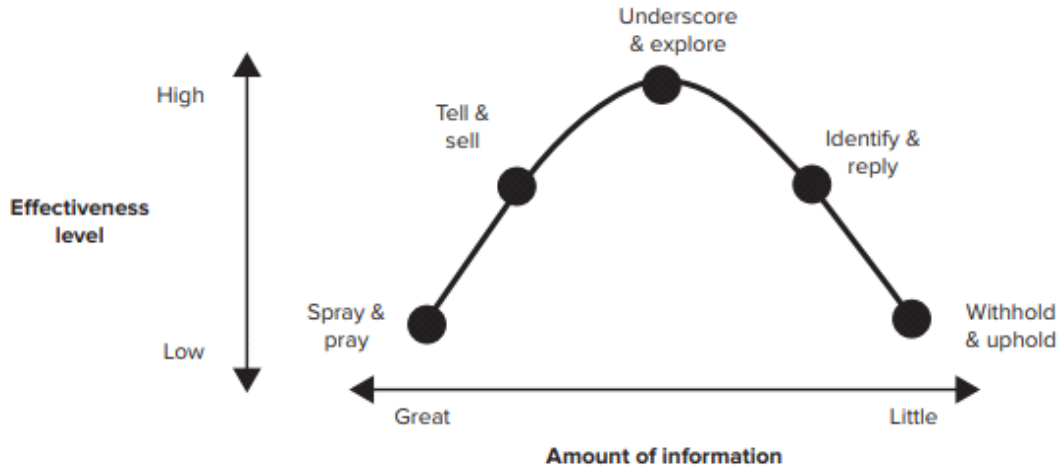


Figure 2.7: Communication Strategy Continuum
Source: Clampitt, Dekoch & Cashman (2000)

These strategies are often combined by organisations. Clampitt, Dekoch & Cashman (2000) argued that the underscore and explore level has a greater chance of success because it allows for interaction between management and employees where management considers the concerns of employees in their management activities. The authors cite an instance where the spray and pray strategy was employed to overload employees with information about the performance of the organization while a withhold and uphold strategy was employed to manage downscaling and functional changes within an organisation, so as not to make undue promises that cannot be kept by management. However, this method of combining strategies led to distrust for management among employees. See table 2.7.

Table 2.7: Communication Strategies

Strategy	Actions

Spray and pray	Shower employees with a range of information; more is better. Managers pray that staff will see what needs to be done. Benefit: Staff are exposed to company information. Downside: Staff overloaded with information, may not be able to identify what is more important, and may be able to understand what is happening, but not why.
Tell and sell	Limit the information provided to core issues. Management tells staff about the changes and sells them on why these are necessary. Benefit: Can be done rapidly. Downside: Staff are passive recipients, and lack of dialogue opens potential for staff scepticism and cynicism
Underscore and explore	Focus on fundamentals but engage employees in dialogue to identify obstacles and misunderstandings that need to be addressed. Benefit: Staff engagement solves problems, strengthens support for change and can generate useful ideas. Downside: Takes time.
Identify and reply	Defensive approach to identifying and responding to rumours and innuendo, and to reduce staff confusion about charges. Benefit: Can resolve problems at an early stage. Downside: reactive approach that assumes (sometimes incorrectly) that staff understand the organizational problems that the changes need to address.
Withhold and uphold	Withhold information until it is absolutely necessary to communicate. Management publicly defends the change strategy. Information is not disclosed openly. Benefit: management retains a high degree of control. Downside: Staff bitterness and resentment

Source: Adapted from Clampett et al (2000)

According to Duck (1993, p. 110) to be successful in communicating change, the dialogue between change managers and recipients must be managed by senior management. The author suggested setting up a team of senior managers with responsibility for the drive for change. This team will incite dialogue conversation and enable the sharing of information beyond organisational borders. It is essential that the change managers possess the required capabilities in line with the different communication strategies for change.

Transitions that are developing require interactive and social capabilities. Changes that are related to the completion of tasks are dependent on prudently written communications. Changes related to charisma require inspirational communications. Changes that are related to the aftermaths of disasters may need an instructive and despotic approach which not many change managers may be able to engage in to communicate change.

Quirke (2017) argued that the approach to communicate change depends on the measure of change needed, for example, a high level of engagement may be required for an important change initiative. Quirke illustrates employing the communication escalator (Figure 2.8) to direct the design of a strategy for communication. The escalator shows different levels of engagement beginning with awareness to understanding to support to involvement and finally to commitment.

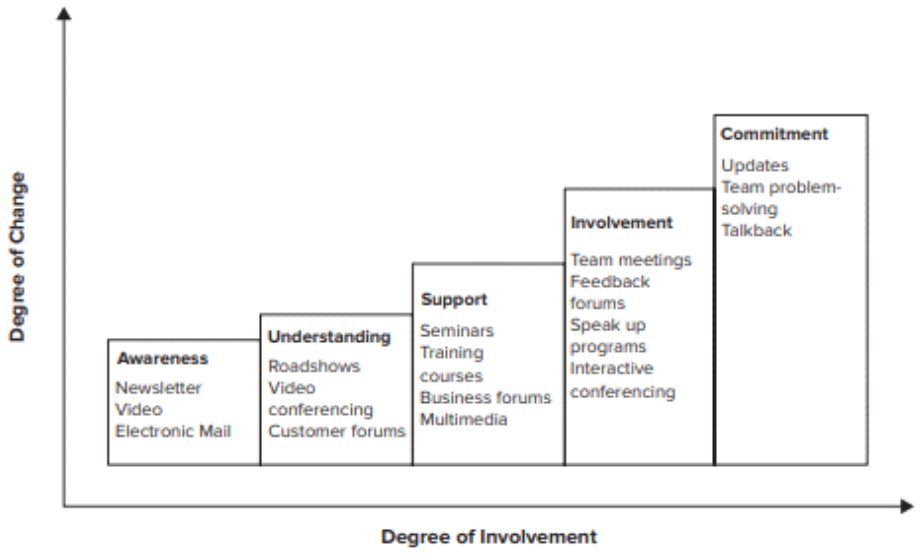


Figure 2.8: Escalator for Communication

Reardon, Reardon & Rowe (1998) suggested that the phase that a change process is in determines the strategy of communication that is required. The authors highlighted that there are 4 leadership styles with their corresponding procedures and approaches. These include commanding (focused on achieving results with an instructive approach), logical (focused on discovering attainable possibilities by analysing and through reason, offering explanations for

different management approaches), inspirational (focused on vision development to inspire unity, generating buy-in and belief in the initiated change), supportive (focused on generating a transparent atmosphere, through interaction). The communication modes should differ according to the phases of change implementation. The authors summarise leadership styles that fit with the five phases of a change process in Table 2.8 below, highlighting that the capabilities that are required often differ depending on the phase of change implementation.

Table 2.8: Leadership styles that fit with five phases of a change process

Stage	Leadership style
Planning	Focus on identifying what needs to change requires a combination of logical and inspirational leadership styles
Enabling	As people are selected and trained in relation to the change process, a combination of logical, inspirational, and supportive styles is needed
Launching	As change unfolds, combine logical and commanding styles
Catalyzing	Use inspirational and supportive leadership styles to motivate and engage
Maintaining	To encourage staff to continue with a change effort, perhaps in the face of obstacles, inspirational and supportive leadership styles are helpful

Source: Adapted from Reardon, Reardon & Rowe (1998)

2.18: Resistance

Resistance has been argued as a factor that is responsible for the high failure numbers associated with organisational change projects. The successful implementation of a change project depends on the level of resistance that recipients have towards the proposed change (Hornstein, 2015). The expectation that is placed on change recipients to conform to the desires of management and still not get involved impacts the level of resistance from employees (Lundy and Morin, 2013). This suggests that employee's participation in making decisions can influence resistance (Gilley et al., 2008)

Authors have considered resistance in change proceedings as problematic, and requiring solution, an obstacle to be removed, or as an adversary to conquer. Foote (2001), for example, refers to resistance as a nasty and debilitating cancer. It is considered powerful and has the potential to kill equal opportunities and good intent. Geisler's (2001) disparagingly refers to people who complain about and resist change as bottom-feeders because change eliminates the 'waste' of internal strife, bureaucracy, and repressive posturing, that they need to survive.

Maurer (2010, p. 23) believes that a simple mention of the terminology 'resistance' is negative because it denotes emotions of fear, hostility, conflict, irritations, and misgivings. According to the author, this encourages a confrontational approach to resistance, which does not help the situation of resistance.

It is perceived that resistance comes in different forms, both productive and negative. According to Ford and Ford (2009), understanding resistance in change dealings is invaluable in providing feedback on the change that is proposed. Resistance can be logical and often be well-founded. Ford and Ford identified five approaches in using resistance effectively: through inspiring discourse, illuminating a purpose, recognising new possibilities, learning from dialogues and avoiding previous mistakes. Jick and Peiperl (2010) also solicited for change managers to reconsider the notion of resistance and expect resistance to come naturally in part of the process of becoming accustomed to change and likely to generate feedback and vigour.

Maurer (2010) also argued that resistance is useful for building support for change and calls for resisters to be treated with respect. This, potentially, can reinforce relationships and improve the opportunities for success. The author suggests that change managers should avoid the temptations of pushing back when faced with resistance and rather, learn from it by looking for common ground. The author, however, recognises that certain situations can arise where this can be counterproductive, e.g., where there is misinformation about the change proposals or where it is needed for the survival of the organization.

Resistance can sometimes be active for benefits to be gained, or passive involving silence and uncooperative actions. By soliciting for dialogue, managers can get active resistance feedback and use the ideas constructively. Though there are positive dimensions of resistance, there also exists negatives. Resistance can be destructive to the organisation as well as the recipients

individually and result in lower levels of productivity, inability to obtain new skills, and dismissals. It is of key importance, then, to balance views and be mindful of both negatives and positives of resistance to change.

The literature highlights that change cannot be avoided in the execution of projects and therefore change management influences project success. Crawford and Hassner-Nahmias (2010) note that though project management and change management make use of unrelated terms and procedures and highlight diverse capabilities and skills, one discipline complements and support the other and so can benefit in lessons on the success of projects. Project success, thus, extends into the associated field of organizational change management**.**

The following table 2.9 is a summary of the sources for **c**ritical factors influencing successful organisational change management as discussed in the preceding chapters.

Table 2.9: Critical factors influencing successful organisational change management

	Drivers	Source
1	Organisational Change	Chou and Pramudawardhani (2015), Hornstein (2015), McLeod and MacDonell (2011), Klimkeit (2013), Crawford et al. (2014), Crawford and Hassner-Nahmias (2010)
2	Organisational Receptiveness/ Readiness to change	Palmer, Dunford, & Akin (2016), Herscovitch and Meyer (2002), Hamel and Zanini (2014), Worley and Lawler (2006)
3	Organizational Culture	Palmer, Dunford, & Akin (2016), Schein (2011), Lawson & Price (2010), Weiner (2020)
4	Visioning, Leadership	Palmer, Dunford & Akin (2016), Goffee and Jones (2000)
5	Communication	Prabhakar (2005), Hyvari (2006), Bansal (2009), Söderlund (2011), Oke, Omoraka, and Ayeni (2017), Ziek and Anderson (2015)
6	Language	Sillince (1999), Palmer, Dunford, & Akin (2016), Heracleous and Barrett (2001), Benefiel, Fry & Geigle (2014), Clampett et. al (2000)
7	Resistance	Hornstein (2015), Lundy and Morin (2013), Ford and Ford (2009), Jick and Peiperl (2010), Crawford and Hassner-Nahmias (2010)

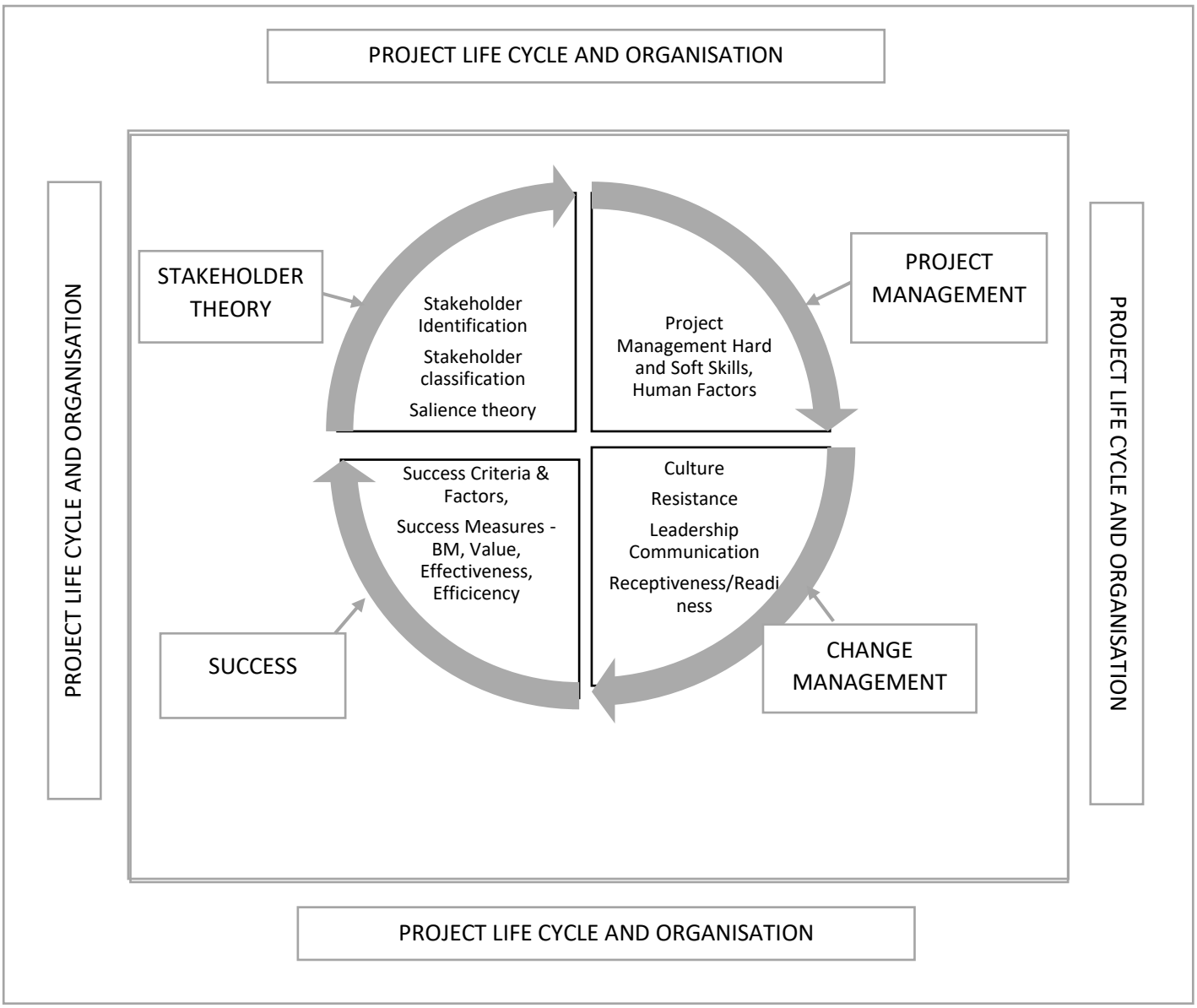
2.19: Conceptual Framework

The researcher has developed a conceptual framework to organise key findings from the review of the literature. In developing a framework, Fellows and Liu (1997) recommend that the framework should capture the reality that is being presented as meticulously and practically as possible and should contain the required fundamentals of that reality, it should be easy to put together and easy to apply. The resulting framework from this research was used to address the overall research question and the aim posed in the study.

The ultimate concept of the framework is to achieve a shared perception of success from multiple stakeholders through a synthesis of project management, change management and stakeholder management theories. In other words - how a project manager can influence stakeholders' view of success armed with lessons from change management, project management and stakeholder management. The assumption is that the project manager's role is to influence the stakeholder's perception of success.

The process of building the framework included a detailed study of project management literature based on a synthesis of insights from the stakeholder theory. By investigating the existing research, ideas and concepts, the researcher sought to consolidate the extant research. This was done by establishing connections between stakeholder management and project management and identifying major assumptions underlying the literature within the identified domains of the organisational context.

The four main elements that are represented in the framework are Success, Stakeholder Theory, Project Management, and Change Management, within an organizational change context. The arrows connecting the four constructs signify that it is a cyclic process. The constructs are explained as follows:



Initial Conceptual framework developed by the researcher

2.19.1: Stakeholder Theory Construct

The stakeholder theory construct has been informed by the literature on stakeholder identification, stakeholder classification, multiple stakeholder perceptions and the salience model, in relation to project management. This body of knowledge also looks at the role of different stakeholder perceptions in defining and measuring success. Another focus here is also to explore the use of the stakeholder salience model in determining stakeholder importance as a decision-making mechanism in project stakeholder management. Project

success is dependent on the subjective interpretation of stakeholders, and these stakeholders have varying perceptions of success criteria and factors. One of the aims of the research is to gather stakeholder views on what success means to them. Another aim is to analyse the salience model based on empirical findings from the research, from the different perspectives of stakeholders (both initiators and beneficiaries). Stakeholder salience means the importance and priority given to stakeholders and stakeholder claims when making decisions and executing work. The salience theory has been criticised as representing a static view of salient stakeholders, where stakeholder analysis is conducted at the front end of the project. The analysis of the model (project stakeholder salience model), using the empirical data from the research, responds to this criticism. Table 2.10 is a summary of key elements of the literature under the stakeholder theory construct.

Table 2.10: Summary of key elements of the literature

Stakeholder identification	Stakeholder identification focuses on the normative stakeholder theory logic which considers who the stakeholders of the project /organisation are and of which class they belong. Figure 2.1 is a summary of some of the critical stakeholders identified involved in a project.
Stakeholder Classification	The chapter has summarised some of the recommendations for mapping stakeholders in project management. See Table 2.1
Salience model	The salience model considers to whom managers pay attention. This focuses on the descriptive logic of the stakeholder theory on the conditions to identify stakeholders. The more the attributes, the more salient the stakeholder is. See Table 2.3

2.19.2: Project Management Construct

The project management construct has been informed by the literature on the human side of project management in relation to the role of the project manager in managing the project for success. The researcher identifies with the school of thought that suggests that the common element between a failed project and a successful one is people and how those people are led. The researcher's preliminary research also found that most of the recurring problems in projects are people-based. The literature here is also focused on a synthesis of success criteria, success factors and measures in project management, including the concepts of project management success and project success, as well as effectiveness and efficiency, and benefits management and value. The project stakeholder salience serves as a tool to define and analyse stakeholders for projects.

2.19.3: Change Management Construct

The Change management construct has been informed by the literature on receptiveness/ readiness to change, leadership/visioning, change communication, and resistance within the organizational change management literature. As the research is set within the organizational context, and projects are change agents, here, the researcher examines adopting change management with project-based initiatives as levers for influencing perceptions of success. The researcher embraces the argument that project success involves the question of whether or not employees of the organization adopt the changes that projects bring as well as measures such as visioning/leadership, organizational resistance, culture matching, communication.

2.19.4: Success Construct

This construct represents the eventual aim of the research to investigate the view of stakeholders on success in project management. It also illuminates the organization context and lessons to be learnt from a synthesis of all the other constructs. A detailed analysis of the different constructs is done in the discussion chapter of this thesis.

2.20: Summary of Chapter

The chapter has provided a theoretical base for the research, discussing the literature from the theories that inform the researcher's study. It began with a review of the literature on the alignment of project management with organisational strategy, discussing the evolution of the definition of project success from the perspective of the iron triangle to the wider benefits to the organisation. It then presented literature on the application of the stakeholder theory within project management, touching on the relevance of the stakeholder in defining and measuring success. It then reviewed the literature on different stakeholder perceptions and how these relate to the view of success. It touched on the criteria for success. It discussed the literature on the human factor of project management, discussing soft and interpersonal skills and how they relate to success. It then discussed organizational change management and concluded by presenting a theoretical framework for the research. The discussion chapter contains a more in-depth analysis of the framework in relation to the findings. The next chapter presents the research philosophical assumptions for the research.

CHAPTER 3: INDUSTRY COLLABORATION ZONES (ICZ) PROJECT

3.1: Introduction to Chapter

This chapter discusses the Industry Collaboration Zone (ICZ) project of the University of Salford, the case study for the research.

3.2: The ICZ Case

The ICZ project is the university's single strategic priority that underpins its vision to prepare students for life (ICZ brief, 2016). The project was aimed at achieving the creation of four zones that would act as a focus of collaboration within and across the University with partners in different industry sectors. The University Council endorsed the ICZ project in October 2015, alongside the University strategy 2021. The 2-year project commenced formally in January 2016. The project team was appointed in Feb 2016. The project lasted for 24 months.

The University of Salford agreed a new vision – "by pioneering exceptional industry partnerships, we will lead the way in real-world experiences preparing students for life" - in 2015 (University Strategy Document 2016 – 2021). According to the University Strategy document, the vision originated from the university's determination to "harness the skills, imagination, creativity, innovation and enthusiasm of its colleagues and students to change people and communities and deliver lasting economic and social benefit".

The university's strategy in achieving the vision was an attempt at departing from traditional structures and models of learning to prepare students for life and the provision of an outstanding experience for university staff, students as well as partners (The ICZ Development Framework document). A single strategic priority of the university was conceived, and it was agreed that this single priority would shape five years (2016 – 2021) of the university's strategic ambitions. The priority involved the development of four Industry Collaboration Zones (ICZs) across the university's key areas of expertise: Sport; Health and Wellbeing; Engineering and Environments; Digital and Creative. The university's aim was that 'the creation of the four ICZs would act as a focus of collaboration within and across the University with partners in the different industry sectors' (ICZ brief, 2016). The zones would 'unite staff, students, industry

and communities in a multi-disciplinary, technology-enabled environment in the pursuit of the shared goals of knowledge, learning and innovation' (University Strategy Document 2016 – 2021).

To deliver this vision and support the culture change that came with the achievement of the vision, a 2- year project was initiated by the university. The project was referred to by the university as the 'ICZ programme' but is referred to in this study as the 'ICZ project'. This is in line with the definition of a project provided by the PMBOK® (2013, p. 3) which defines a project as "a temporary endeavour undertaken to create a unique product, services, or results".

The ICZ project was structured around four (4) project phases including 'initiation phase', 'preparing the organisation phase', 'forming the individual zones phase', and 'engaging the partners' phase'. The phases ran concurrently, with phases 2, 3 and 4 having interdependencies and impact on each other. According to the project brief, "the initiation phase entailed the approval of the project brief, finalising of the project governance as well as benchmarking of the university's best practices and the formation of different workstreams". The second phase entailed "preparing the organisation which required engaging of the stakeholders to identify the culture change required as well as review the existing university structures and programmes to achieve objectives". The third phase involved "the creation of the four zones, agreement of staff and facilities resourcing and embedding of zone governance and design of operational processes". The final phase entailed "finalising of the organisational structure for the partnership management, embedding the principles of the key account management, implementation of the data capture to inform and build partner potential, develop a clear view of the extent and depth of existing and desirable partners, and stimulate more interactions and support economic development" (The ICZ brief, 2016).

The ICZ project was endorsed by the University Council in October 2015, alongside the University strategy 2021. The project commenced formally in January 2016, the project team was appointed in Feb 2016, and the detailed ICZ project structure was endorsed by the University Council in June 2016 (University Strategy Document 2016 – 2021). The project lasted for 24 months. The university's case for the ICZ project is discussed below.

3.3: The University's Case For The Industry Collaboration Zones (ICZ) Project

The following section details the university's case for the development of the industry collaboration zones project. It explains the vision and motivation of the project sponsor in initiating the project as well as deliverables and timelines for implementation. It presents the detail of the ICZ principles, the workstreams as well as the framework for the delivery of the project. The section is a summary of the university's strategy and ICZ project documentation, some of which were sourced by the researcher and some which were given to the researcher by the project team. The section contains words taken verbatim from the documents and have been summarised by the researcher. They are not the works of the researcher or the position of the researcher. The documents used to prepare this section include the following:

- University Strategy Document 2016 – 2021
- The ICZ Brief
- The ICZ Development Framework
- The ICZ Development Framework Synopsis
- Responding to the Industrial Strategy
- Industry Collaboration Zones
- ICZ Annual Reports
- ICZ Ready Framework and Principles
- The ICZ Ready Curriculum Design Process

3.3.1: University's Mission, Vision and Strategic Priority

Following extensive engagement and consultation, the University of Salford community agreed a new vision in 2015 – "by pioneering exceptional industry partnerships we will lead the way in real-world experiences preparing students for life". The vision originated from the university's determination to harness the skills, imagination, creativity, innovation and enthusiasm of its colleagues and students to change people and communities and deliver lasting economic and social benefit. The university aimed to achieve this through an approach of promoting teaching excellence, creative pedagogies, and meaningful real-world research

and knowledge exchange, strengthened through its partnerships with large and small enterprises across the public, private and charitable sectors.

To achieve this vision, the university is attempting a transformation of how students can make a significant contribution to the university community and to the disciplines and careers to which they aspire. The project sees a departure from traditional structures and models of learning to provide an outstanding experience for university staff, students and partners alike.

Arising out of this vision was a single strategic priority which was agreed to shape five years (2016 – 2021) of the University's strategic ambitions. This single priority was the development of four Industry Collaboration Zones (ICZs) across the university's key areas of expertise: Sport; Health and Wellbeing; Engineering and Environments; Digital and Creative.

The creation and development of ICZs provide the university with an opportunity to redefine and reposition its engagement with industry and positions the university as bold and distinctive in relation to the sector in its offer and practice, driving such partnerships through a holistic curriculum to the direct benefit for students as they are prepared for life. The collaboration will address the skills and knowledge gap, thus ensuring student employability, while developing capabilities for existing and emergent real-world challenges and moving the university from a static anchor institution into an integrated learning and innovation ecosystem.

The ICZs will, through the creation of exceptional partnerships, provide the vehicle for establishing the University of Salford as the first choice for students wanting an experience characterised by integrated work-based learning, a flexible, industry informed and research-based curriculum, underpinned by a commitment to a creative pedagogy and aligned to contemporary business models. The ICZ project will provide new space for students, colleagues and industry partners to co-create experiment and in so doing offer new and unique learning opportunities aimed at providing real-world experiences and better preparing our students for life.

The following (figure 3.1) is a strategy map that illustrates how the mission, vision and single strategic strands are interdependently linked.

Figure 3.1: Strategy Map illustrating how mission, vision and single strategic strands are interdependently linked.

3.3.2: The ICZ Project Principles

The seven ICZ principles underpin what the ICZ project will do. They provide the basis for decision making; investment; quality assurance processes; impact evaluation and underpin the ICZ Programme Objectives. The ICZ Principles have been mapped to the six project objectives and seven initial workstreams that flowed from this mapping have been identified.

The ICZ Project will:

- Establish a culture of co-production, trust and co-creation
- Promote and facilitate experimentation, exploration and incubation
- Provide unique environments (physical, virtual and remote) to promote creativity and enable collaboration

- Provide integrated work-based learning and industry engagement for all students
- Provide a gateway into the University for industry, facilitating and supporting the development of exceptional industry partnerships
- Promote sustainability and social responsibility
- Embed impact measurement and evaluation outcomes for all activity

Why the principles are important

New models of knowledge generation and exchange: The development of the four ICZs and ICZ project moves the university forward to the development of exceptional partnerships. In these partnerships, knowledge generation and exchange have to be co-created and co-produced rather than the traditional consultancy and transactional-based ways of working, rather a move towards a more pedagogical approach.

Our students: Students will be provided with the added value and support of industry informed curriculum, integrated work-based learning throughout all levels of study; industry placements to actively prepare students for employment

Diversification of income streams: The University will meet the growing demand for more flexible, digitally enabled, student-centred and industry-relevant programmes with learning facilitated in physical, virtual and remote locations and through the use of emergent models of funding and delivery. The income will be facilitated through the development of high quality, research-informed curricula delivered in a range of flexible formats and locations informed by industry requirements.

The University as an ICZ: The University must demonstrate how the ICZ principles are being enacted and modelled in its everyday activities and how the university is ICZ ready. Within the university community, the university will model and evidence the types of partnership and relationship behaviour that it expects colleagues to demonstrate with students and external partners as part of being ‘ICZ ready’.

Addressing Global Challenges: The ICZs will shape and structure the university's contribution to meeting global challenges. Through the work involved in addressing these challenges, university colleagues will clearly articulate and champion a bold and distinctive offer to all stakeholders thereby continuing to improve and enhance the standing of the university across sector benchmarks as seen in TEF, REF and other league tables positions.

3.3.3: The ICZ Project Objectives

The ICZ project objectives identify HOW the principles are translated into action. Each of these objectives come with its associated deliverables, enablers and actions. Below are the 6 objectives:

- Enable our people to support the achievement of our Single Strategic Priority – the ICZ Programme
- Create cultural, physical and virtual environments within which colleagues, students and industry partners can collaborate, innovate and learn
- Formalise frameworks for Integrated Work-Based Learning and Industry Engagement to be delivered within all University programmes
- Develop a framework for identifying, developing and sustaining exceptional industry partnerships
- Promote and facilitate the development of colleagues and students in becoming entrepreneurs and intrapreneurs
- Change University systems to ensure fitness for purpose for the delivery and operation of ICZs

3.3.4: The Project Work Streams

The objectives highlighted above form the basis of seven work streams. It is within each work stream that the processes for managing and allocating finance (capital and revenue) and other resources required to underpin and deliver the ICZ Project will be determined. The following work streams are recognised as being essential to the effective delivery of the programme. The workstreams will be formed by multi-disciplinary teams, working to agreed frameworks to meet the project objectives.

- Our People and the ICZ Project
- Integrated Work-Based Learning
- Industry Partners – Structure, Development and Key Account Management
- Articulating the ICZ Programme
- Infrastructure (Systems)
- Infrastructure (Space and Technology)
- Impact Evaluation.

3.3.5: Programme Governance Structure

The scrutiny, measurement and enhancement of these objectives will be undertaken through the ICZ governance structure (figure 3.2). These consist of the Thought Leader Group (TLG) which replaces the traditional University Programme Board arrangement; The Operational Management Group (OMG) which is formed by the leaders of the enabling Work Streams; The Deans Group (TDG) which will provide a reflective space for Deans of Schools and the ICZ Programme Director to meet and will be used to inform the TLG, receive updates on programme progress and provide an opportunity for idea generation through co-creation; and the Schools and Professional Services Executives which form the wider University organisational Governance and Management structure. In addition, the ICZ programme Marketing and Communication strategy will outline how this will be achieved through a schedule of events, communications and opportunities for colleagues to get involved.

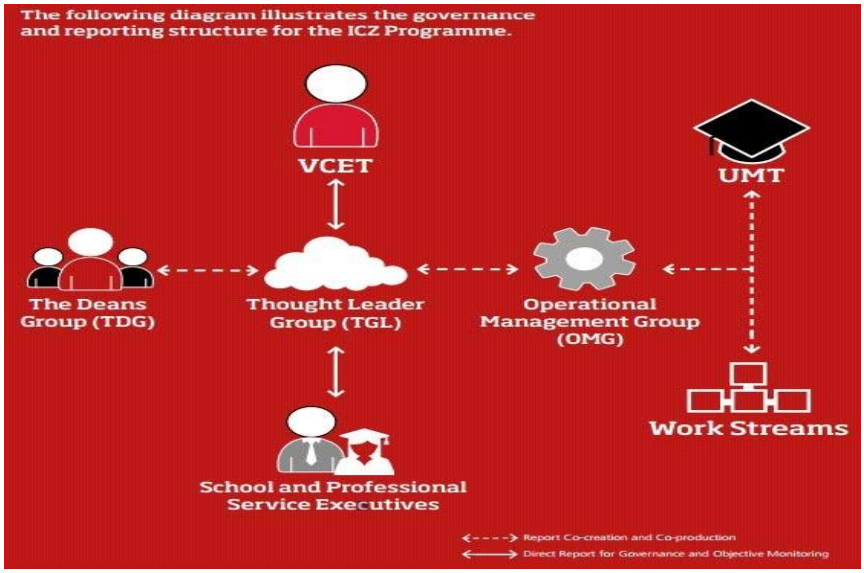


Figure 3.2: Governance & Reporting Structure for the ICZ project

3.3.6: The ICZ Development Framework

The ICZ Development Framework sets out the scope of the ICZ Project and the work undertaken to establish each of the four ICZs. The framework has been co-created by the ICZ project team, the four development leads and their Steering groups (which includes students, academics and professional service colleagues) with input from VCET, UMT and industry advisors. It demonstrates how the agreed underpinning principles are translated into a tangible roadmap of deliverables for the creation of the four individual zones. Below are the deliverables that were planned to be achieved in the 24 months of the Zone development in table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Deliverables planned to be achieved in the 24 months

S/N	Deliverable	Timeline
Deliverable 1	Support for 25 high performing, industry engaged academics who are activity connected and integrating external partners in everything they do	Dec 2016
Deliverable 2	AskUS to develop (and manage) an on-campus internship and employment opportunity job shop for all students	Mar 2017

Deliverable 3	Exceptional key account management will be implemented for all industry engagement - facilitated through the creation and maintenance of a single 'black book' (CRM) of industry partnerships with consistent behaviours captured in role descriptors for industry engagement	July 2017
Deliverable 4	Up to 60 academics to enable the development of activities that lead to larger multi-disciplinary projects	Sept 2017
Deliverable 5	All programmes approved within the University will evidence 'ICZ readiness' through a key set of defined attributes showing congruence with the ICZ principles, including co-design and development with industry partners	Sept 2017
Deliverable 6	We will create and recruit to 50 graduate/ student internships to opportunities across the University community	Sept 2017
Deliverable 7	Each ICZ to establish fully accessible and resourced discovery/test zones and 'Maker Spaces'	Jan 2018
Deliverable 8	A 'Salford as an Entrepreneurial University' Strategy becomes a Key Functional Strategy of the University	Mar 2018
Deliverable 9	Establish a globally accessible contemporary virtual learning environment and infrastructure	Sept 2018
Deliverable 10	All programmes to include compulsory Integrated Work Based Learning that are fully supported across all University systems including QA & reporting	Sept 2018

3.3.7: Project Timeline 2016 - 2018

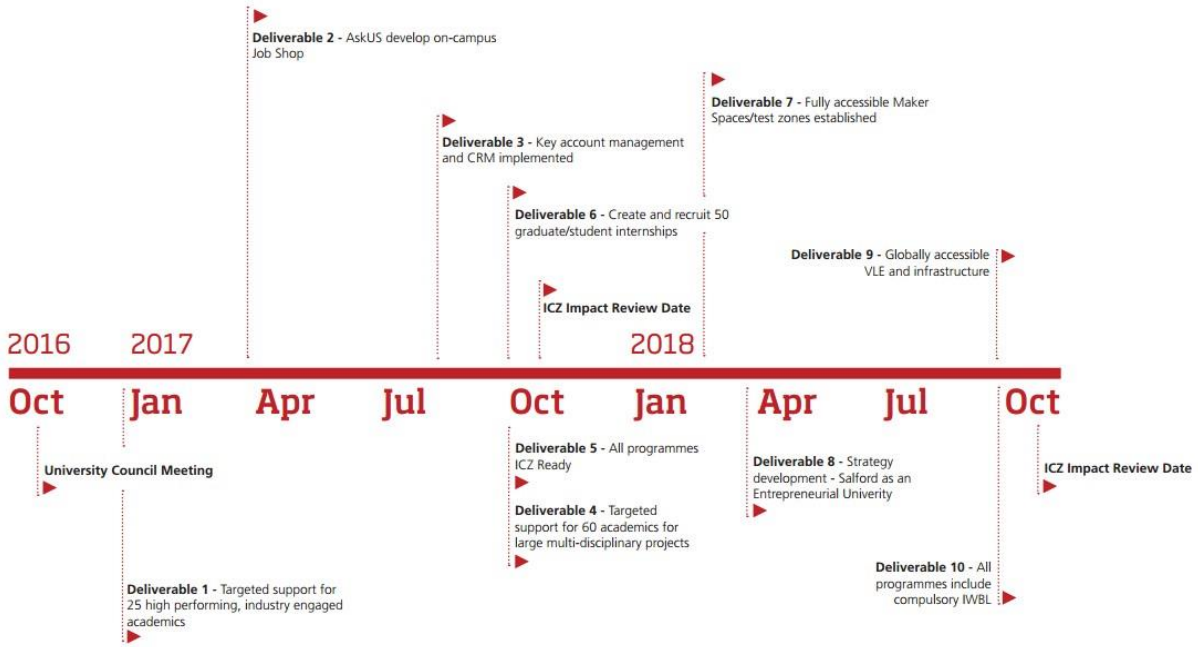


Figure 3.3: 2-year Project Timeline

The project will fall away over 2 years once the university infrastructure is in place and the principles are embedded as 'business as usual' and all activity across the university is assessed against 'ICZ readiness'(see figure 3.3). The overall focus, scope and ambition of the ICZs are to ensure that by 2021, the ICZs will ensure the following 5 statement of intents:

- Every Student has the opportunity for an integrated work-based learning experience
- Every programme is co-created with industry, and delivered with the maximum flexibility of time, place and method
- Research and enterprise activities are grounded in the needs of industry and contribute to meeting a range of global challenges
- The University community enacts the ICZ principles in all its activities, ensuring the maximum cross University contribution is made to all four ICZs

- The University is the destination of choice for high-quality students whose fit with industry as the future workforce ensures high levels of employability.

3.3.8: Key Performance Indicators

It is important to show how the output and outcomes of the ICZ project effectively contribute to the achievements of the existing the university KPIs as new KPIs were not developed to measure the impact of the ICZ project. A two-stranded approach was developed to measure outcomes. These include the Logic Model and the Impact Framework. The logic model provides a mechanism for describing the scope and parameters of a particular project and or relationship, while the impact framework enables the evaluation and performance monitoring of the outcomes and outputs of each project and or relationship. The five statements of intent and their deliverables are mapped/aligned to the university's KPI's as shown below:

Statement intent 1:

Mapped to the following University KPIs – Highly skilled graduates; Graduate prospects; and Assessment and Feedback

Mapped to ICZ project deliverables - Integrated work-based learning to improve employability; internship programme to provide work-based skills and experience; and onsite job shop – Unitemps to provide a facility for recruitment.

Statement intent 2:

Mapped to the following University KPIs – Highly Skilled Graduates; Internal Student Survey.

Teaching on my course; Continuation

Mapped to ICZ project deliverables: Higher apprenticeships alongside the ICZ programme readiness approach led by QEO and strategic industry partnerships Statement intent 3:

Mapped to the following University KPIs – Income per academic, research-active staff; research outputs

Mapped to ICZ project deliverables: KTPs and Icases; Higher Education innovation funding (HEIF) designed to support the range of knowledge exchange activities and SPD Ltd Statement intent 4:

Mapped to the following University KPIs – Business engagement

Mapped to ICZ project deliverables: Personal ICZ readiness; recognition and reward; student experience /USSU/Team Salford Statement intent 5:

Mapped to the following University KPIs – Business Engagement

Mapped to ICZ project deliverables: Maker Space which contributes to providing opportunities for collaboration between students and academic staff from all disciplines; Facilities and Assets.

3.3.9: ICZ Programme Readiness and Personal ICZ Readiness

ICZ Programme Readiness

One key deliverable of the ICZ project was to prepare people to be in a state of ICZ readiness. The Quality and Enhancement Office worked towards transforming the curriculum at Salford to ensure that every programme was ICZ ready. ICZ ready means that a programme can describe how it incorporates all of the ten ICZ ready principles below:

- The programme is inclusive.
- The curriculum and delivery are co-created.
- Learning is active and collaborative.
- Learning is real-world and experiential.
- The programme is digitally fluent.
- Learners are autonomous.
- Assessment is authentic.

- Education is for ethical behaviour.
- The curriculum is research-informed.
- There is a clear path to professional

Every programme team in the University will work through a process with academic Developers from the Quality and Enhancement Office to bring the curriculum and the team to a point of ICZ readiness. At the heart of the process are curriculum workshops that are designed to support collaboration and the development of shared practice amongst programme teams, thus enhancing the student academic experience. The aim was that by September 2018, new students will be registering for study at Salford based on a prospectus that describes an ICZ ready curriculum.

Personal ICZ Readiness

Several strands of work were undertaken to ensure that the organisational culture of the university supports the development and delivery of the ICZs. At a local level, a series of events were developed to provide colleagues with support to build their personal ICZ readiness and increase their engagement with the ICZs. Also, work was undertaken with the Student Union officials to ensure students were involved in the development of each ICZ. Work was also undertaken to develop promotional materials for external industry contacts and policymakers.

3.3.10: Risk Management

The table below (Table 3.2) highlights several inherent risks that were considered during the development of the project delivery framework, as well as linkages to the corporate risk identified for the wider organisation.

Table 3.2: Inherent Risks Considered During the Development of the Project Delivery Framework

TYPE	INHERENT RISK	EXAMPLE CAUSE	LINKAGE TO CORPORATE RISK
READINESS	Implementation of the ICZ strategic priority is too slow to realise the benefits required by the university to achieve excellent ratings in TEF years 3/4	Failure to achieve the cultural change needed to kickstart delivery through inability to: • Prioritise ICZ actions • Integrate actions into 2016/17 delivery due to budget or planning inflexibility • Demonstrate effective interdisciplinary working	108 – ICZs 073- Teaching Quality 088 – Student Retention
ICZ	Major loss of momentum and competitive advantage if ICZ development leads or key academic staff leaves	Over-reliance on a small number of staff to develop vision, provide sector knowledge and provide sector contacts.	108 – ICZs 005 – attracting and retaining high calibre employees 080 - staff recruitment
ICZ	Failure to provide work-based learning/placements opportunities of sufficient quality and numbers threatens improvement in the student experience	Reduction in opportunities for partnerships due to increased demand with regional competitors Inability to identify sufficient new leads/grow more lucrative partnerships	108 – ICZs 088 – Student retention 109 – Retention /Progression
ICZ	Inability to achieve 'sector leadership' ambitions	League table and survey results are lower than competitors	108 - ICZs

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH PHILOSOPHICAL ASSUMPTIONS

4.1: Introduction to Chapter

This chapter presents and justifies the theoretical perspective that lies behind the methodology and the epistemology that informs this perspective. The researcher also discusses alternative theoretical perspectives to highlight how the decision to use the method for the study was made. The researcher hopes that justifying these choices will illuminate the researcher's assumptions about reality, the theoretical perspective that the researcher brings to the research, the understanding of what human knowledge entails through the eyes of the researcher, and the kind of knowledge that will be attained by the research.

4.2: Background

It is important to understand the philosophical assumptions made by researchers undertaking a study because these assumptions shape how the researcher formulates a research problem, what research questions to study and how information is sought in answering the questions (Huff, 2009). According to Cicmil & Hodgson (2006), the decision to study a management-related topic in a particular way involves a philosophical choice by the researcher about what is important. This choice is made simultaneously with the researcher's understanding of the phenomena or issues of interest, and the area of study within which it is situated. This conscious engagement with a certain set of assumptions is based on the premise that "what one decides to study, has methodological consequences" (Holstein & Gubrium, 1995, pg. 73).

Over the years, philosophical assumptions have been articulated using different terminologies. These include worldviews (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998); paradigms (Lincoln, Lynham & Guba, 2011; Mertens, 2010); epistemologies and ontologies (Crotty, 1998); research methodologies (Neuman, 2013) and alternative knowledge claims (Creswell, 2003). A clear theme from the debate on the different assumptions is the agreement that the choice of a philosophy is informed by understanding the ontological and epistemological boundaries of knowledge and the methodological boundaries for gathering the data that is needed to attain such knowledge (O'Donoghue, 2007). This chapter discusses these ontological and epistemological boundaries. The next chapter - Chapter 4, then discusses the methodological boundaries relating to this research including the strategy and methods for the study.

Researchers have suggested that the design of any research project depends on the consideration of several factors. For example, Denzin and Lincoln (1998) list four basic issues to consider in structuring the design of a research study. These include the paradigm or worldview that informs the study design; who/what will be studied; the research strategies that would be used; and the research methods/tools needed to collect and analyse data. Synonymously, Crotty (1998) suggests four questions that should be considered in designing a research:

- The epistemology or the theory of knowledge embedded in the research and whether it is objective, subjective or constructionist.
- The theoretical perspective or paradigm addresses the philosophical stances that lie behind the methodology in question and whether it is positivism, post-positivism, interpretivist or critical.
- What methodology, strategy or plan of action links the methods to the desired outcome (e.g., experimental research, case study, survey research, ethnography or phenomenology)
- The methods, techniques and procedures and whether it involves questionnaires, interviews, focus groups, etc. for data collection and analyses.

The researcher considers and answers these questions; the sum of the decisions resulting in a case study design.

4.3: Project Management Philosophical Approaches

In considering the philosophical approach for the research, the researcher was interested in exploring other philosophies that have been used in project management literature. The literature cites the use of post-positivist (Davis, 2016; Joslin & Müller, 2015), interpretivist (Chen & Partington, 2004; Di Maddaloni & Davis, 2018; Partington, Pellegrinelli, & Young, 2005) and critical realist approaches (Pilkienė, Alonderienė, Chmieliauskas, Simkonis, & Müller, 2018) in carrying out project management research. The following section outlines three of these

post-positivist approaches, one critical realist approach and four interpretivist approaches, as well as their respective methods.

The post-positivist perspective, in combination with a critical multiplist approach, was adopted by Davis (2016) in understanding how certain stakeholder groups such as senior management, project core team and project recipients perceive project success. The study also used an inductive thematic analysis to analyse the data and found two major themes: one related to the multiple stakeholders involved in a project and the other to project structure. As part of a mixed-methods study, Joslin & Müller (2015) also adopted a post-positivist perspective in investigating the effect of governance on the relationship between a project management methodology (PMM) and project success, and the impact of project governance context on this relationship. Using a deductive approach and cross-sectional questionnaire to validate their model, they explored the relationship between project governance and project success from an agency and stewardship theory perspective (Joslin & Müller, 2015). Basu (2014) adopted a mixed methods approach in examining the role of quality in the 'iron triangle'. The study, which examines key stakeholders, found that project quality was defined by achieving customer requirements and "quality of the product, the quality of management processes, and the quality of the organisation" (p. 185). The study collected data using two case studies, semi-structured interviews and questionnaires to achieve the research aim.

A different approach was adopted by Pilkienė et al. (2018) who took the stance of a critical realist in studying the governance of horizontal leaders in projects. They collected qualitative data from six case studies in Lithuania in their investigation of the nature of governance of temporary horizontal leaders in projects through contextual enablers, mechanisms, structures, practices and processes.

Di Maddaloni & Davis (2018) adopted an interpretivist stance in investigating the concept of the local community in stakeholder management of major public infrastructure and construction (MPIC) projects. The exploratory study investigated how the local communities' stakeholder is perceived, defined and categorised by project managers, and how their involvement can improve the performance of the projects. Chen & Partington (2004) used in-depth open-ended interviews in a phenomenological interpretivist approach to compare matched samples of Chinese and Western construction project managers' conceptions of their

work. Their study highlights fundamental differences in the conception of the meaning and significance of different forms of relationships in construction project management work. Partington et al. (2005) also adopted an interpretivist perspective in studying competence in programme management using in-depth interviews and observation methods. In producing a framework of 17 essential attributes of programme management work, they imply that the fundamental consequence of adopting an interpretivist approach is the inseparability of the individual and the work that they do. In justifying the approach, they stress that a researcher cannot try to understand an attribute such as competence through objectivist means using a list of work activities or training manuals. This can only be achieved through subjective meanings that the work takes on for the individual in their lived experience of it (Partington et. al., 2005).

The interpretivist perspectives highlighted here are all synonymous with the philosophical stance adopted by the researcher in understanding what stakeholders conceive, through the meanings that the stakeholders ascribe to a project in their lived experiences of it. Furthermore, the researcher responds to the call by Drouin, Müller & Sankaran (2013, pg. 24) for more research that investigates the lived experiences of actors and their roles in projects. The different approaches reviewed raise important ontological and epistemological issues. The following section discusses these issues in relation to this study.

4.4: Ontology and Epistemology

Grix (2002) explains ontology as the starting point of all research, which is then followed by the consideration of a researcher's epistemological position. Ontology is concerned with 'what is', with the nature of existence, and as such, with the structure of reality. Gauthier & Ika (2012) define ontology through the lens of project management as claims and assumptions that are made about the nature of project reality, claims about what the project is and whether it exists, what it looks like, what units make it up, and how these units interact with each other. It is important to understand the ontological assumptions underlying research as humans have different views of the world as well as different perceptions of what reality is, and these can co-exist (Grix, 2002). The role of a qualitative researcher, hence, is to embrace these different realities, as do the people being studied, together with the readers and evaluators of the research.

According to Edirisingha (2018), epistemology is considered as acceptable knowledge and aims to comprehend how people know what they know, and the process supporting that knowledge. Bryman & Bell (2011, pg.29) believe that the application of epistemology allows the researcher to be mindful of the research orientation adopted for the study and provides a philosophical ground for the researcher to decide on the kinds of knowledge that are possible and how to ensure that they are legitimate and adequate. Ontological and epistemological issues tend to emerge together because each theoretical perspective embodies a certain way of understanding 'what is' (ontology) as well as a certain way of understanding 'what it means to know (epistemology).

Table 4.1 illustrates Crotty (2003) classification of philosophical assumptions based on different epistemological assumptions embedded in research as well as theoretical perspectives, which the author also refers to as paradigms.

Table 4.1: Philosophical assumptions based on different epistemological assumptions

Epistemological assumptions	Theoretical perspectives/paradigms
Objectivism Subjectivism Social Constructionism (and their variants)	Positivism Post-positivism Interpretivism Critical realism Postmodernism (and others)

Source: Adapted from Crotty (2003)

The discussion of this section is structured based on Crotty's (2003) classification. It starts by explaining three of Crotty's epistemological assumptions - Objectivism; Subjectivism; Social Constructivism - and how they relate to this research. It then discusses three theoretical perspectives/paradigms – Interpretivism; Positivism; and Critical Research. Subsequently, it presents a justification for the researcher's choice. It is important to point out that this classification differs according to the authors. For example, Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill & Wang

(2009, pg. 110) classify ontologies as objectivism and subjectivism; and epistemologies as interpretivism, positivism, realism.

4.5: Epistemological Assumptions

4.5.1: Objectivism

Crotty (2003) explains objectivism to be the understanding of knowledge, which holds that meaningful reality exists separately from the operation of any consciousness. In this view, social phenomena and their meanings have an existence that is independent of social actors (Grix, 2002). For this reason, the objectivist view is considered not suitable for this research as the nature of the phenomenon of this study – project success - is not considered to be an objective truth that can be identified either through precision or through certitude. Neither is 'understanding the perception of success of a project' independent of its social actors, which in this case includes the researcher, the participants of the research as well as the different views, gathered from the review of the literature.

4.5.2: Subjectivism

Subjectivism maintains that social phenomena are created from the perceptions and consequent actions of social actors concerned with their existence (Saunders et. al , 2015). It regards such actors as deliberately creating the interactions from their own perspective. Although several literature sources highlight subjectivism to be the same with constructionism, Crotty (2003) explains subjectivism differently and maintains that subjectivism is the understanding of knowledge that holds that meaning does not come out of an interplay between the subject and the object but is imposed on the object by the subject. The object, as such, does not contribute to the generation of meaning. The author argues that humans are not creative in making meanings out of nothing as is suggestive of subjectivism. Rather, meanings are imported from elsewhere and even if it is not from the interaction between human beings and the world, there is interaction through elements such as dreams, the primordial archetypes in human's collective unconscious, or religious beliefs. Creswell (2013, pg. 25) highlights that these meanings are not simply imprinted on individuals but are formed

through interaction with others, historical and cultural norms that operate in their individual lives.

Following Crotty's (2003) argument, this research holds that the making of the meaning of success by different stakeholders is not a subjective act that is carried out by the researcher independent of the project, or surroundings or past knowledge. Neither does the research require the stakeholders to conjure up a list of meanings of what success means to them without interacting with the project in question. Therefore, subjectivism is considered not to be an appropriate epistemology for this research. Rather the researcher, through interactions with the participants and the project, constructs meaning from the views expressed about success from the participants. The meanings emerge as the researcher interacts with the participants' views of success of the project; the participants also interact with the topic thereby helping the researcher answer the research questions and ultimately achieve the aim of the research.

4.5.3: Social Constructivism and Social Constructionism

Crotty (2003) defines constructionism as the view that 'all knowledge, and therefore all meaningful reality as such, are contingent upon human practices being constructed in and out of the interaction between human beings and their world, developed and transmitted within an essentially social context'. It assumes that there is no objective truth waiting to be discovered but that truth, or meaning, comes into existence in and out of our engagement with the realities in the world. As there is no meaning without a mind, meaning, therefore, cannot be discovered but only constructed.

It is important to distinguish at this point social constructionism from social constructivism. Social constructionism is not the same as social constructivism. Crotty (2003, pg. 57) explains that constructivism is an individualistic understanding of the constructionist position. It is an epistemological consideration that focuses exclusively on 'the meaning-making activity of the individual mind' while constructionism focuses on 'collective generation of meaning'. Constructivism points to the unique experience of each of us and suggests that each one's way of making sense of the world is as valid and worthy of respect as any other. On the other hand, social constructionism emphasises the hold culture has on us and shapes the way we see things

giving us a quite definite view of the world. Constructivism describes humans individually engaging with objects in the world and making sense of them. Constructionism, on the other hand, suggests that from the first instance, each of us is introduced to a whole world of meaning.

The researcher believes that the social world is already interpreted before she or the participants arrive; culture informs and shapes their meaning of the phenomenon of success. The focus of the research is to uncover the individual meaning of success to the participants as they engage in a meaning-making activity of the individual mind. The researcher and participant individually engage with the ICZ project to make sense of it and then together construct the meaning of what success means. Put succinctly, in understanding the perception of different stakeholders in relation to success, meaning can only be generated as participants interact with the subject of success and the project and relate to it. By interviewing participants, the researcher interacts with the participants who in turn interact with these concepts and together they construct an understanding of what their perception of success is. Therefore, both a constructionist and constructivist epistemology inform the research. For clarity in understanding the report, the researcher refers to both terms as 'constructivism' from this point on in the thesis.

The researcher assumes that there will be multiple realities that the different stakeholders construct based on their value systems and that there will also be multiple interpretations of these perspectives based on the constructions of the stakeholders as well as those of the researcher. Therefore, social constructivism is the most appropriate epistemology to adopt for the study.

4.6: Theoretical Perspective/Paradigm

Before looking at the question of what research methods to employ for this research, it is important to first consider the theoretical perspective or paradigm that applies to this research. Saunders et. al (2015) states that questions of which paradigm to employ are of primary importance to questions of research methods. Paradigms facilitate an understanding of the underlying assumptions characteristic of the method used as well as the validity of the research. They represent the researcher's particular way of thinking about their subject

matter (Kakulu, 2014). It is important to understand the paradigms that lie behind the researcher's method because the researcher's choice to conduct a qualitative or quantitative research depends on the underlying philosophical assumptions of the researcher. A researcher is required to choose and understand the paradigm within which they will be working and document the choice in their writing (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delport, 2011, p. 41). The following section presents different theoretical perspectives and then discusses the researcher's choice as well as justification for the choice.

4.6.1: Positivism

Positivism is often identified as the dominant underlying research paradigm for published studies in project management research (e.g., Bredillet, Turner & Anbari 2008; Smyth and Morris, 2007). The positivist paradigm prefers to accept social realities that are observable with research (Remenyi, Williams, Money and Swartz, 1999). Existing theory is used to develop hypotheses, which are then tested and lead to the further development of theory, which then may be tested by further research. Positivist research has the following characteristics - evidence of formal propositions, measures of variables that are quantifiable, testing of hypothesis, and the drawing of inferences from a representative sample to a stated population (Orlikowski and Baroudi 1991). Hudson and Ozanne (1988) suggest that positivists tend to take a realist position and assume that a single, objective reality exists independently of what individuals perceive; the researcher and his subjects do not influence each other. In its view, the social world exists independently of individuals' perceptions as a real, concrete, and unchanging structure, which is composed of relationships among its parts, is divisible and fragmentable; therefore, it is possible to precisely and accurately measure observations of the world (Bagozzi 1980; Morgan and Smircich 1980).

Positivists maintain distance and remain detached from the participants of a research to maintain emotional neutrality to make clear distinctions between reason and feelings, personal experience and fact and value judgement. This detached stance is necessary to maintain objectivity, which is a prerequisite for reasonable knowledge (Bredo and Feinberg 1982). Thus, positivists assume that a privileged vantage point exists from which researchers can view their subjects (Hudson and Ozanne, 1988).

The main aim of this research study is to 'understand' stakeholders' perception. The positivist stance, therefore, is not suitable for this research, as the researcher builds rapport with the subjects to discover the meaning they make of the world around them. According to Hudson and Ozanne (1988), the primary goal of research for the interpretivist is 'understanding' behaviour not predicting it, as is characteristic of the positivist view. While the positivist might view 'understanding' as an end product, the researcher views it as a process, a never-ending one - a hermeneutic circle where what was interpreted enters into current interpretations, just as the current interpretations will influence future interpretations. (Hudson and Ozanne, 1988). Therefore, interpretations are always incomplete. Denzin (1990) puts it this way – 'one never achieves the understanding; one achieves an understanding'.

The literature cites several criticisms of the positivist stance. It is important to note, however, at this point Hudson and Ozanne's (1988) comment that the many criticisms of different stances arise from judging one approach based on the criteria of another. For example, the approaches employed by interpretivists may seem vague to positivists, but these are consistent with the flexible, adaptive nature of the interpretivist research process. Likewise, to the interpretivists, the positivist's approach may seem rigid but are consistent with the positivist's goal of identifying general laws. One of such criticisms is that though positivists assume a secure observational base from which objective observations are made, Peter & Olson (1983) draw attention to the value-laden, theory-laden, and interpreted nature of these observations. Another criticism is that positivists focus on the content of truth. However, as Peter & Olson (1983) point out, there is no defensible method for establishing the existence of truth.

4.6.2: Critical Realism

Research is said to be critical when it involves social critique and brings restrictive and alienating conditions to light. Critical theory aims to help eradicate the causes of these unwarranted alienating and dominating conditions, thereby enhancing the opportunities for realising human potential (Hirschheim and Klein 1994). It assumes that people can consciously act to change their social and economic conditions to achieve this. Critical theorists, however, recognise that the ability of humans to improve these conditions is constrained by various forms of social, cultural, and political domination as well as natural laws and limitations in

resources. Realism is a philosophical stance that assumes that what the senses show us as reality is the truth; that objects exist independent of the human mind. Saunders et al. (2015) highlight two types of realism- critical and direct. Realism is similar to positivism in that it assumes a scientific approach to the development of knowledge. It is opposed to idealism – the theory that only the mind and its contents exist.

In critical realism, researchers agree on the existence of a phenomenon, and claim that the findings identified through the study are one possibility, but not necessarily the only possible explanation of the phenomenon (Pilkienė et al, 2018). For a critical realist, knowledge of reality is a result of social conditioning and cannot be understood independently of the social actors involved in the knowledge derivation process (Dobson, 2002). Critical realists recognise social constructions but outline them in an objective manner while maintaining a middle ground between positivism and interpretivism. They emphasise that an objective reality exists independent of the researcher's descriptions and ideas (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009). Critical realism emphasises the need to critically evaluate objects to understand social phenomena and acknowledges that complex social phenomena cannot be explained by solely looking at mechanisms and processes that operate on purely one level (Wikgren, 2005). Rather, entities can be analysed at different aggregation levels, with some emerging from lower levels (Easton, 2010).

This stance is not suitable for this research, as outlining social constructions of success in an objectivist manner would make the researcher lose insight into the complexity of subjective realities, as it would attempt to reduce this complexity to a series of law-like generalisations.

4.6.3: Post Positivism

Post-positivism assumes that an objective and extrinsic reality (facts and laws) exists (Tekin & Kotaman, 2013). However, the perspective of post-positivist research is not to establish generalizations about the phenomenon under observation, but rather to focus on "meaning and understanding of the situation or phenomenon under examination" (Crossan, 2003, p. 54). Post-positivists assume that the world is mainly driven by generalizable (natural) laws, but their application and results depend on the situation. Post-positivist researchers, therefore, identify trends, that is, theories that hold in certain situations, but cannot be generalized (Biedenbach

and Müller, 2011). Tashakkori & Teddlie (2009, p. 87) suggest that "post-positivists prefer using either quantitatively oriented experimental or survey research to assess relationships among variables and to explain those relationships statistically". Post-positivism aims for objectivity as an ideal but is aware of the subjectivity stemming from the subjects targeted for data collection. While positivists assume independence between the researcher and the object of study, the post-positivist accepts that the researcher's values, background and prior knowledge can influence what is observed. They pursue objectivity by recognising the possible effects of bias. The researcher believes that the phenomenon of success and human factors are constructive and so cannot be measured or explained statistically as is the aim of the post-positivist view. For this reason, the post-positivist stance is not suitable for the research.

4.6.4: Interpretivism – Researcher's Philosophical Stance

The philosophical stance that this study belongs to is interpretivism. As Soderland and Maylor (2012, pg.689) argue, the interpretivist stance allows us to uncover human factors involved in projects, it facilitates working with and through people, in addition to handling the human factors that are associated with these people. Lincoln and Guba (1985) argue that to understand individuals or groups' perceptions, the individuals must be involved in creating the research process. Thus, the individual who is being studied becomes a participant in the study, guides the research as well as supplies information. The interpretivist philosophy depicts that social actors place different meanings on the situations in which they find themselves as a consequence of their own view of the world (Hennik, Hutter & Bailey 2020). Project success means different things to different people; therefore, an understanding of meanings from the actors is required. This suggests that interpretivist researchers are not rigid in their approach to seeking answers but rather, approach reality through the perceptions and experiences of participants of the research (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). This supports the researcher's intention to use the experiences of stakeholders to construct and interpret an understanding of success and the influence of human factors.

The decision to adopt this stance is supported by Ballesteros and Chavarria (2016) who draw attention to the observation of reality in project management, stating that the discourse around project management is volatile, ever-changing and controversial and that understanding such a field will affect the way reality is observed; as such, they consider

interpretivism to be the more favoured philosophical stance for project management studies. Research can be classified as interpretivist if we assume that our knowledge of reality is derived from social constructions such as shared meanings, consciousness, and language (Klein and Myers, 1999). Interpretivism suggests that people do not absorb the environment as pure truth but build it in a subjective manner via their own interpretations, and phenomena are understood through the meanings that people assign to them (Blackmon & Maylor, 2005). The researcher is a social constructivist, as has been discussed previously. The Interpretivist stance focuses on the details of a situation, as well as the reality behind these details, and interprets the reality within the context of the situation. Therefore, the knowledge of something comprises of multiple sets of interpretations that are part of the social and cultural context in which it occurs.

Interpretivists view the world as complex and continually changing (Lincoln and Guba 1985). This complexity is further heightened by the receptivity to an array of influences due to research findings being context-based. As a result, truth for the interpretivist is manifested through multiple interpretations because phenomena occur in different ways, in different places and different times. It is difficult to interpret these multiple realities when viewed from the lenses of fixed realities, as is the case with objective reality, therefore, an interpretivist paradigm is most suitable for this research (Neuman, 2013, Hudson and Ozanne, 1988).

In considering the use of the interpretivist stance for this research, the researcher recognises that there are aspects of interpretivism that the researcher needs to consider. These include the argument that researchers or participants cannot separate biases and social/cultural backgrounds from the study. For example, Kim (2003) argues that bias can arise in the research conclusions as a result of the reflection of the researcher's views on the research. Bias can also arise from the participant's expectations of the researcher, or the intentional misleading of a researcher by a participant. Klein and Myers (1999) also argue that the interaction between the researcher and participants can alter participants' views.

In reaction to the criticism of the influence of the researcher's social/cultural background, the researcher considers this as a strength rather than a flaw. As discussed earlier, the stance of a social constructivist suggests that one's social background would play a role in the construction

of knowledge; this knowledge is constructed together with the participants who also have social/historical backgrounds. Creswell (2013, pg. 25) advocates for social constructivist researchers to position themselves in the research to acknowledge that their own personal, cultural and historical experiences and background shape their interpretation of what they find. The researcher has a background in project management, has worked for years as a project manager and so is entering the field with the prior insight of the research context. This suggests that the interpretivist, social constructivist stance of this research is suitable as the researcher's background and experiences shape the interpretation of the data.

In reaction to the criticism of bias, the researcher does not allow personal bias to influence the data being collected. Yilmaz (2013) suggests that a researcher takes a "neutral" stance during the data collection and analysis processes, to ensure that the researcher's personal biases or preconceptions do not taint the nature of subjective inferences derived from interpretivist research. The author stresses that researchers should overtly reveal the biases they bring to the study and discuss how their background such as gender, ethnicity, disciplinary orientation and ideological viewpoint affects the interpretation of the findings. The researcher reveals that she is a student at the University of Salford and so has some affiliation with the university. She has, over time, developed relationships with certain members of staff and students. The researcher, however, is not aware of any beneficiary links with any member of staff involved with either the project delivery or benefit in any way from the project other than that which is intended in the original scope of the project as it relates to any member of staff or students at the university.

As proposed by Davis (2016), the disadvantages of a particular method can be dealt with thorough justification and documentation of the methods selected. Oates (2006) draws attention to the importance of systematically reporting all evidence for the reader to confirm whether the findings flow from the data and experiences rather than from the bias and subjectivity of the researcher. The researcher maintains that she has done this extensively. Though the arguments against interpretivism exist, Walsham (2014) maintains that interpretivist research is still critical and credible. The research is focused on understanding the perception of success among stakeholders and to what extent the perception is influenced by the management of the project. The choice of interpretivism as the philosophical paradigm

for this research provides the flexibility for the researcher to explore other issues that could arise from the research findings, which may not have been within the original boundaries of the research.

Arguments for positivism over interpretivism identify that there is a level of independence for the researcher who neither is affected nor affects the subject of the research (Remenyi, Williams et al. 1999). However, in the researcher's view, adopting the interpretivist position for the research would reduce the distance between the researcher and the participants and in so doing, aid the researcher to gain a rich understanding of the key issues on the phenomenon and ultimately answer the research questions and achieve the research aim. The main differences between positivism and interpretivism that have been discussed are illustrated in Table 4.2 below. Pizam and Mansfed's (2009) work is referenced. Table 4.2 highlights the main issues raised in the section and why interpretivism is the most appropriate philosophical stance for the research.

Table 4.2: Main differences between positivism and interpretivism

ASSUMPTIONS	POSITIVISM	INTERPRETIVISM
Nature of Reality	Single; objective	Socially constructed, multiple interpretations, complex
Goal of Research	Explanation, strong prediction	Understanding of phenomenon
Focus of interest	General Representative	Unique Specific
Knowledge generated	Laws Absolute knowledge (time, context and value free)	Meanings, Different perspectives Relative knowledge (time, context, culture, value bound)
Subject/Researcher relationship	Separation between researcher and subject	Interactive, Cooperative relationship between researcher and subject
Desired Information	Numbers; statistics of a specific thing	Feelings, perspectives, problems people are confronted with.

Source: Adapted from Pizam and Mansfed (2009)

It can be surmised from the arguments in this section that positivists seek to derive a generalizing law from objective observations. This is not the intention or purpose of this study. The research intends, as an outcome, to develop a framework that will synthesise different aspects of theory using the case study as a strategy. The nature of the phenomenon – success, is one that is complex and can have multiple perspectives. Therefore, a positivist approach is not suitable for such contextual work rich in meaning. An attempt to quantify such data can easily result in the loss of social and cultural context and make the results of the study less relevant.

The researcher intends to explore the subjective meanings that the stakeholders of the project ascribe to the project. By forging an interactive relationship with the participants rather than an objective stance, the researcher achieves this. Together, they construct and interpret an understanding of the phenomena – the different perceptions of success among stakeholders of the project. The adoption of an interpretivist philosophical stance does this.

4.7: Summary of Chapter

This chapter has discussed the ontological, epistemological, and philosophical choices made by the researcher for this qualitative research. It presented a review of the literature on current philosophical positions in project management research that informed the researcher's stance. It discussed different philosophical stances and the preferred adoption of the social constructivist epistemology and the interpretivist philosophical stance for the research. It also discussed the researcher's justification for the choices made.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHOD

5.1: Introduction to Chapter

Researchers have suggested that the design of any research project depends on the consideration of several elements. It must include the consideration of who/what will be studied; the research strategies that would be used; and the research methods/tools needed to collect and analyse the data. This chapter discusses these elements; the sum of the decisions resulting in a case study design. It presents and justifies the use of a qualitative methodological approach adopted for the research. It outlines and explains the methodology governing the choice and use of methods. The researcher also discusses alternatives to highlight how the decision to use the method for the study was made.

5.2: Qualitative and Quantitative Research Methods

For several decades, many researchers have believed that the interpretivist philosophical stance predominantly supports the use of qualitative methods while the positivist stance supports the use of quantitative methods (Thomas, 2003; Nind &Todd, 2011, Willis, 2007). However, Hudson & Ozanne (1988) highlight that many techniques can be and are used by both approaches. The author argues that merely looking at data-gathering techniques to know what methodological orientation is held is wrong; instead, we must examine the assumptions, the aims, and the research process. Moreover, even though different research approaches may study the same phenomenon, the phenomenon of inquiry changes when approached from a different perspective. The nature of the study on understanding stakeholder perceptions demands that a qualitative research method is used for the study. This is further justified when considering the intention of the study to explore the meanings that stakeholders ascribe to success and factors that influence their perceptions about projects. The following section discusses the quantitative and qualitative methods and the justification for the adoption of a qualitative research approach for the research.

5.2.1: Quantitative Research Method

In quantitative research, knowledge is assumed to be objective as most people experience the external world in the same way. Any changes that are observed in experiments (for example) are assumed to be due to changes in variables rather than from individual experiences of the external world. This allows for generalisation and drawing of inferences about a general population out of a selected sample (Creswell, 2005).

Quantitative research explains phenomena according to numerical values. A theory consisting of variables is tested and measured with numbers and analysed with statistics to determine if the theory explains or predicts the phenomena of interest (Gay & Airasian, 2000). Studies involving quantitative methods are focused on outcomes, predictions, generalisations, and cause-effect relationships through deductive reasoning.

A quantitative approach supports the view that psychological and social phenomena have an objective reality that is independent of the subjects being studied. The researcher places distance between themselves and the object of study to ensure objectivity. The approach seeks to develop explanatory universal laws in social behaviours through statistical measurements assumed to be a static reality. It underlines the measurement and analysis of causal relationships between isolated variables; this is done within a framework that is value-free, logical, reductionist, and deterministic (Yilmaz, 2013).

Quantitative methods and procedures allow the researchers to obtain a broad and generalisable set of findings. However, because they require a deductive approach and predetermined sets of standardised responses based on theory, they fail to provide insight into the participants' individual or personal experiences. As such, the use of quantitative methods does not allow the participants to describe feelings, experiences, thoughts, or make frames of references with their own words. The meaning that participants assign to the phenomenon is largely ignored (Patton, 2005). Therefore, this is not an appropriate method for the researcher to use for the current study.

5.2.2: Qualitative Research Method

Creswell (2005) defines qualitative research as 'a type of educational research in which the researcher relies on the view of participants, asks broad, general questions, collects data consisting largely of words (or texts) from participants, describes and analyses these words for themes, and conducts the inquiry in a subjective, biased manner' (p. 39). The 'bias' stems from the researcher not being separated from the process.

According to Yimaz (2013), qualitative research is an emergent, inductive, interpretivist and naturalistic approach to the study of people, cases, phenomena, social situations and processes in their natural settings to reveal in descriptive terms the meanings that people attach to their experiences of the world. Qualitative researchers attempt to make sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011, p.3). Qualitative methods rely on words, which convey feelings, perceptions, beliefs and expectations rather than numbers. Subjects can express themselves and convey their feelings and this can be recognised, and structured through qualitative methods (Dalcher, 2004). The qualitative approach assumes that knowledge is not independent of the knower, but is socially constructed through a framework, which is flexible, value-laden, context-sensitive, descriptive, and holistic (Yilmax, 2013). It assumes that each individual has a different view of the world. Therefore, it is difficult to generalise findings and draw inferences from qualitative research.

Qualitative methods are predominantly employed in carrying out interpretivist research. Denzin & Lincoln (2005) highlight that qualitative research is not based on a single methodology but draws on philosophical ideas in phenomenology, symbolic interactionism, hermeneutics and other traditions to support the attention on "quality" rather than "quantity". Qualitative researchers gather information from individuals to identify themes, which allow them to develop theories inductively. Having considered the debate on the quantitative and qualitative research methods, the following section discusses the justification for the qualitative approach adopted by the researcher.

5.2.3: Justification for Qualitative Research Approach

A qualitative approach is the most suitable approach for this study due to the following considerations discussed below.

The research aims to collect rich data in order to explore the context of project success through the perspectives of stakeholders. In Davis' (2017) view, a qualitative approach can help unravel the richness and view of a project as it impacts stakeholders. Thus, a qualitative approach is essential for providing the rich context required for the study. A qualitative approach is also suitable for this research because according to Yilmax (2013), the qualitative paradigm is based on a constructivist epistemology. Through the in-depth description of the phenomenon from the perspectives of the people involved, the researcher understands how social experience is created and given meaning by gaining insight into the stakeholders' perceptions and experiences (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013). The qualitative research approach allows the researcher to do this, therefore, it is the most appropriate research approach for the study.

Dalcher (2004) noted that a qualitative approach is better suited to understanding studies on project failures as it enables the researcher to take account of context, perspective and intention. As the focus of the study is on success (or failure), this is synonymous with Dalcher's argument. According to McLeod, Doolin & MacDonell (2012), qualitative research provides a richness of data that would go unrepresented in a quantitative counterpart.

Creswell (2013, pg. 48) highlighted that a qualitative approach is used in the following scenarios:

- when the researcher intends to obtain a complex, detailed understanding of the issue which can only be achieved by speaking directly with people in the field and allowing them to speak of their experiences unencumbered by what we expect to find or what the literature says;
- when there is a need to empower individuals to share their stories and minimise the power relationships that often exist between a researcher and participants in a study;
- to understand the contexts in which participants in a study address a problem or an issue;

- to help explain the mechanisms and linkages in causal theories or models which do not explain the processes that people experience, why they responded as they did, the context in which they responded, and their deeper thoughts and behaviours that governed their responses.

The researcher has considered these arguments and believes that they closely fit within the scope of the research and the aim of the researcher to collect data from stakeholders about their perceptions of a live project. Based on the arguments and evidence put forward, the researcher considers that these substantiate the researcher's justification for adopting the use of a qualitative approach, as well as a social constructivist epistemology and an interpretivist philosophical stance for the study.

5.3: Nature of Research

It is important at this point to highlight Saunders et al.'s (2012) suggestion that how a researcher asks research questions would determine if the research is an exploratory, descriptive or explanatory study (Saunders et al. (2012, pg. 170). An exploratory study can be described as a valuable way to find out what is happening, gain new insights, ask questions and assess phenomena in a new light. Its flexibility and adaptability to change are one of its advantages. The researcher is willing to change direction as a result of data that occurs with new insights. The focus of the research is broad initially but then progressively becomes narrower as it progresses. The researcher recognises that other themes may emerge as the research develops. Given this, the literature review and direction of the research will be revised accordingly, as is the case with interpretivist research.

While a descriptive study seeks to represent an accurate profile of situations, events, or persons through descriptions of the data (Robson, 2002, pg. 59), an explanatory study examines a situation or problem to explain the causal relationships between variables. This study is exploratory; the researcher conducts the research through a review of the literature; the interviewing of stakeholders of the project and analysis of documentation using a case study research strategy. Scholz and Tietje (2002) argued that an exploratory study helps the

researcher to understand the structure of a phenomenon to develop theories, hypotheses, or models. This is in line with the inductive approach of this study (as discussed in the next section 4.4) as well as the proposed outcome of the research of developing a framework to synthesise different aspects of theory.

5.4: Inductive and Deductive Approaches

A research approach can be referred to as the totality of plans and procedures for research, which involves the method of data collection, analysis and interpretation. There are two main research approaches; deductive and inductive (Bryan & Bell, 2015; Collin & Hussey, 2013). The researcher describes these approaches in this section and then summarises with what it means for the current study.

According to Bernard (2012), an inductive approach searches for patterns through observation and thus develops an explanatory theory for these patterns, while a deductive approach involves working from a general or broad perspective to a more specific hypothesis, observations and conclusion. The main difference between an inductive and a deductive approach is that whilst a deductive approach is aimed at testing theory, an inductive approach is concerned with the generation of new theory emerging from the data. Deductive research works from the more general to the more specific, while inductive research works from observations that are more specific to more general theories. The emphasis on deductive approaches is generally on causality, while inductive approaches are usually focused on exploring new phenomena or looking at previously phenomena from a different perspective (Gabriel, 2018).

The application of an inductive approach is associated with qualitative methods of data collection and data analysis, while a deductive approach is perceived to be related to quantitative methods (Dudovskiy, 2018). Table 5.1 highlights concepts that are believed to be associated with quantitative and qualitative methods.

Table 5.1: Concepts associated with Quantitative and Qualitative Methods

	Concepts associated with quantitative methods	Concepts associated with qualitative methods
Types of Reasoning	Deduction Objectivity Causation	Induction Subjectivity Meaning
Types of Questions	Pre-specified Outcome-oriented	Open-ended Process-oriented
Types of Analysis	Numerical estimation Statistical influence	Narrative Description Constant comparison

Source: Dudovskiy (2018)

5.4.1: Inductive Approach

An inductive approach is a research approach that is done from the ground up, rather than handed down from a theory or perspectives of the inquirer (Creswell, 2013, pg. 22). It is open-ended and exploratory and begins by detecting patterns and regularities within specific observations and measures (Goddard and Melville 2004), and then formulates some tentative hypothesis that can be explored, and finally develops some general conclusions or theories from the results found (Kakulu, 2014). The process is illustrated in Figure 5.0.

An inductive approach aims to generate meanings from the data set collected to identify patterns and relationships to build a theory. However, it does not exclude using existing theory to formulate the research questions to be explored. The researcher starts the research with no restrictions in determining the course of the research. There are also no assumptions about the nature of findings until the research is completed. The researcher makes and uses these to construct an abstract or to describe the circumstances being studied. (Lodico et al., 2010).

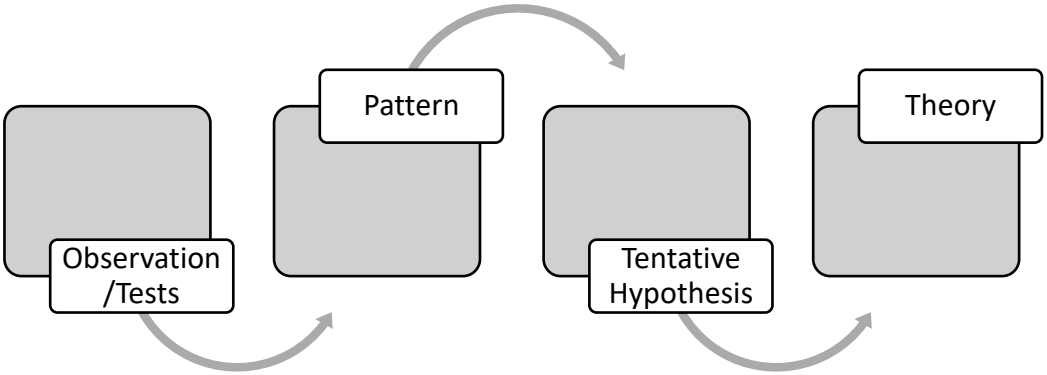


Figure 5.0: Inductive reasoning process
Source: Dudovskiy (2018)

5.4.2: Deductive Approach

A deductive approach, on the other hand, involves the development of a theory or hypothesis that is subjected to a rigorous test. A research strategy is then designed to test this theory/hypothesis. The hypothesis is deduced from the theory and then expressed in operational terms, which propose a relationship between two specific concepts or variables. The operational hypothesis is then tested, and the specific outcome is examined and modified in light of the findings. The revised theory can then be verified by repeating the process. This ultimately leads to the ability to test the hypotheses with specific data and confirm or deny the original theory. Major differences between deductive and inductive approaches are highlighted in Table 5.2 below:

Table 5.2: Major differences between deductive and inductive approaches to research

Deduction Emphasises	Induction Emphasises
• Scientific principles • Moving from theory to data • The need to explain causal relationships between variables • The collection of quantitative data	• Gaining an understanding of the meanings human attach to events • A close understanding of the research context • The collection of qualitative data

• The application of controls to ensure validity of data • The operationalisation of concepts to ensure clarity of definition • A highly structured approach • Researcher independence of what is being researched • The necessity to select samples of sufficient size to generalise conclusions	• A more flexible structure to permit changes of research emphasis as the research progresses • A realisation that the researcher is part of the research process • Less concern with the need to generalise

Source: Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill (2012)

Having discussed inductive and deductive approaches, below is a description of what this means for the study.

The researcher, who is a social constructivist and interpretivist (as justified in previous sections), conducts the research to induct theory from the data collected. It is the nature of social constructivist and interpretivist researchers to conduct research to see what theory arises while objectivist and positivist researchers start with a theory and then conduct research with the intention of testing the theory. This has been well documented in the previous section.

Although the researcher is interpretivist and intends to induct theory, the challenge is that she has not started the research with no idea of theory as is suggestive of the inductive approach. Rather, she has conducted an extensive review of literature and theories in advance of the study (documented in Chapter 2), has designed interview questions and followed a case study design based on this prior knowledge. Evidently, this is the reason for the research. As Eisenhardt (1989) concedes, it is impossible for researchers to start with a clean theoretical slate, and it is "impossible to embark upon research without some idea of what one is looking for" (Wolcott, 1994, p. 157). The research is aimed at understanding the perception of stakeholders on success in project management. Therefore, the researcher reviewed the literature on the current issues in defining and measuring project success as well as studies already carried out on stakeholder perception and change management in order to generate

the research aim, objectives and questions that would frame the research and contribute to existing knowledge.

The submissions above do not preclude the researcher from being an interpretivist or conducting inductive research. The researcher is still open to new theory being developed from the study and does not intend to test the hypothesis as is the case with a deductive approach. However, it is untrue to assume that the study does not start with any theory at the beginning of the research. It is safe to say, therefore, that the research is grounded in existing theory, which informs the interview questions as well as the research aim and objectives. The study can be seen as having elements in common with both a deductive and an inductive approach.

5.5: Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis is the major entity that is being analysed in a research paper. According to Bryman (2008), this is the single most important element in social research. It is the 'what' and 'who' that is being studied (Yin 2014). Some units of study used in social research are groups, individuals, organisations, social interactions etc. For this study, the unit of analysis is the stakeholder who is taken as an individual in isolation. The researcher aims to investigate how this individual perception of the stakeholder is shaped. This suggests that the focus of the research is a psychologically based approach which is cognitively built into stakeholders' perceptions through factors such as cultural or organisational background.

5.6: Research Strategies

A research strategy explains how the researcher plans to go about answering the research questions to meet the research aim and objectives. Adopting a clear research strategy is important because it helps the researcher to respond to specific research questions and assemble the study's objective (Saunders et al. 2012). According to Myers and Avison (2002), the selection of a research strategy depends on factors such as the nature and current knowledge on the topic.

Creswell (2013, pg. 102) identified five strategies for conducting qualitative research namely narrative research, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnographic research, and case study research. Saunders et al. (2009), on the other hand, considers experiment, survey, case study, action research, grounded theory, ethnography and archival research as research strategies. Both authors point out that these different strategies are not mutually exclusive, and one can be used as part of another. The strategies have similar data collection processes such as interviews, observation, documents and audio-visual materials. The differences, however, is the consideration of the type of data to be collected and analysed. To collect data in line with the phenomenon, the researcher identifies that the use of a case study provides opportunities and the criteria to gain a rich understanding of the context of the research and the processes being endorsed to bridge the research gap.

After carefully considering the aim and objectives of the research as well as the overall research focus which is to understand how project stakeholders judge a project within an organizational context, the researcher, in a bid to secure depth in the study findings, adopted the case study as the most suitable research strategy for the study. The following section discusses the prior use of case studies in project management research and justifies the choice of a case study as the preferred research strategy for the study.

5.6.1: Project Management Case Studies

For decades, project management researchers have advocated for the use of a case study as a research strategy for examining project management matters (Barrett and Sutrisna, 2009; Flyvberg, 2011b; Shenhar and Dvir, 2008; Shi, 2014). According to Shi (2014),the advantages of the case study strategy have led to its application in many project management studies. Shenhar and Dvir (2008) drew attention to the need to provide case studies for projects as "only 2% of the 7000 Harvard Business School case study collection mention projects and only a few dozen actually deal with project management issues" (p. 96). Flyvberg (2006) also pointed out that human relation studies produce context-dependent knowledge that lies in the centre of the case study as a research method. This rule out the possibility that social science can emulate natural science in developing theory that is explanatory and predictive.

The reason for adopting the case study strategy for this research also stems from its adoption and verification by other researchers who have used it to carry out similar project management studies (Aaltonen, Kujala, Havela, & Savage, 2015; Eskerod and Vaagaasar, 2014; Yang, 2014). For example, Aaltonen et al.'s (2015) study examine stakeholder dynamics during the project front-end stage using two case studies related to nuclear waste repository projects in Finland and the US in order to improve our understanding of stakeholder dynamics during the project's front-end stage. Both cases show that in scenarios with multiple and contradictory goals, it is critical that all interests and claims are taken into account by a flexible stakeholder management process.

Eskerod and Vaagaasar (2014) use an in-depth longitudinal case study to show how a project management team of a complex development project worked with its stakeholder relationships to make two stakeholder groups contribute sufficiently to the project. They revealed how stakeholder management practices emerged as embedded actions and interpretations related to perceptions of the stakeholder's potential to harm and help the project.

Yang (2014) uses two case studies, one regional renewal project and the other an infrastructure project to verify that the best way to analyse stakeholders is through the application of both empirical and rationalistic analysis perspectives and the comparison of the results of analysis when necessary.

Bryde, Unterhitzenberger, & Joby (2018) also use case studies to analyse the impact of Earned Value Analysis on the levels of success of two projects through the prism of agency and organizational justice theories. The authors propose a framework which is used to develop testable propositions that can guide further research into the effects of EVA-based systems on the creation of agency-related characteristics in the project environment that are conducive to project success.

The following section discusses the justification for the researcher's choice in selecting the case.

5.6.2: Justification for Case Study Strategy

The nature of the research requires that diverse groups of stakeholder views are collected. The use of a case study strategy allows for this to happen. Yin (2009) defines a case study as the study of a case within a real-life, contemporary context or setting. It studies a phenomenon, person, event, place, or other unit of analysis in order to understand key themes and results that help in predicting future trends, explore issues that are previously hidden and that can be applied to practice, and/or provide a means for understanding a research problem with greater clarity (Swanborn, 2010).

On evaluating the research issue, a case study strategy was deemed appropriate because the researcher sought to gain an understanding of the context in which project stakeholders perceive project success, an issue that is important and significant. According to Yin (1994, pp. 13), a case study is suitable when the contextual conditions are pertinent to the phenomenon of the inquiry. The phenomenon of inquiry in this study is the stakeholder perception of success and how the management of a project can influence this perception. Thus, the researcher sought to understand the context in which project stakeholders perceive the success of projects. Every project has a unique context which includes elements such as the context of the natural and social environment of the organisation, the context of the stakeholders involved in the project and their characteristics, as well as the context of the organisational cultural characteristics.

The purpose of a case study is to provide a holistic description and analysis of a single unit situated in a specific context to provide insight into real-life situations (Merriam & Merriam, 2009; Pickard, 2013). Its capability to incorporate a range of multiple data sources e.g., interviews, documentation, and observation is a rare strength of the case study strategy; this can aid in addressing the problem of validity as the sources provide multiple ranges of the same construct (Yin, 2014). Another strength of the case study is the ability to establish rapport with research subjects (Mouton, 2001), to obtain rich descriptions that can be transferred to similar situations (Merriam & Merriam, 2009) and, ultimately, in-depth insight. Barrett and Sutrisna (2009), for example, showed how the case study strategy is reliable for capturing rich information for a study.

Myers (2009) and Yin (2014) both suggest that a case study is useful for asking how and why questions. For this research, there are two how questions. The how questions are: How do stakeholders perceive the success of projects within the organisational context? and how does project management and change management influence the stakeholders' views of success? These questions are considered suitable for adequately understanding stakeholders' perception of success.

According to Saunders et al. (2012, p. 179), the case study strategy should also be employed when the research problem under investigation is exploratory. The research, by its very nature, is exploratory (as discussed in section 4.3) therefore, the use of a case study allows the researcher to explore the interplay of all elements of stakeholder perception.

The use of a case study strategy is useful for theory building (Yin, 2009). According to Mouton (2001, p. 150), case studies are useful in building theory where existing theoretical and conceptual frameworks are inadequate. The insights arising from case-based theory-building research can be used as hypotheses or propositions in further research. Case study research, therefore, plays an important role in advancing a field's body of knowledge (Merriam & Merriam, 2009).

The use of a case study strategy also has the advantage of allowing multiple data collection sources to be used to obtain rich data regarding the specific research issue, as well as the contextual complexity. This is effective for triangulation and validation of the researchers' conclusions. Yin (2014) suggests that the following sources of evidence work well with case studies:

- Documentation – written material such as memoranda, newspaper clippings, formal reports
- Archival records – organisational charts, service records, personal, financial records
- Interviews – open-ended or focused
- Direct/participant observation – Absorbing facts, activities or intricacies of the field environment
- Physical artefacts – devices, tools, outputs

According to Gioia, Corley, & Hamilton (2013), the use of more than one data source combined with an engagement with the field contributes to insightful inductive theory building. This is in line with the inductive approach employed by this study. In order to meet the objectives of this study and to answer the research questions, the research selected the use of semi-structured interviews and documentation methods to collect data for the study.

Though the use of case studies is regarded as important and quite popular in many fields of study, there have been a number of criticisms about the use of the case study (Robson, 2002). For example, Yin (2013) considers the analysis of case study evidence to be difficult. One of the reasons for this is due to the reduction of data. Data reduction is a process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting and transforming the data that appear from (interview) transcription. It is an integral part of the analysis of qualitative data that occurs continually throughout the life of any qualitative investigation. While attempting to shorten, sort, focus, discard or organize data during and/or before the analysis, data reduction may cause dilution of certain parts of the data.

5.6.3: Preliminary Study for Case Selection

The justification for this study follows on from preliminary work done by the researcher in understanding current issues project practitioners face in carrying out their duties. The preliminary work involved the observation of groups of project practitioners discussing current issues they face in managing projects. The researcher attended three workshops. These are discussed below:

Workshop 1

On the 18th of January 2017, the researcher attended 1 day out of a 2-day Professional Development workshop on Project Management led by a Senior Lecturer of the Salford Business School. The workshop was facilitated as a highly interactive focus group where participants freely discussed the issues they faced daily in managing projects. The participants comprised of 18 employees from different divisions of a government council including 3 corporate leads, 5 project managers, 1 program manager, 3 engineers, 1 architect, 1 site officer, 2 building surveyors and 2 procurement officers.

The workshop was scheduled as a result of the council's need for a forum to formally train staff that had project management duties or interfaces on key tools and techniques for managing projects successfully. Some of the learning outcomes include:

- Improved knowledge and understanding of project management principle
- Developed strategies to deal with and minimise potential conflict
- Learnt through discussions with fellow delegates

The researcher was present as a participant-observer and took notes on vital points raised and discussed. As the researcher was in the process of identifying research questions, the workshop served as a feasibility study to achieve that aim.

Workshop 2

The second workshop that the researcher attended was on 23/01/17 and followed the same focus group format with the first workshop attended. The participants comprised of 15 employees from the Marketing Department of the University of Salford with responsibilities for managing different aspects of marketing projects. They included 6 marketing managers, 5 marketing officers, 2 digital communications officers, 1 copywriter, and 1 intern.

In this workshop, one of the case studies raised for discussion was the Industry Collaboration Zones (ICZ) project of the university. The researcher observed that though all the participants were familiar with the project, there appeared to be some level of confusion around its objectives, who the project/programme manager was, or what phase the project was at presently. This, in the opinion of some participants, would lead to its failure.

Workshop 3

The third workshop was attended by the researcher on 31/07/18 and was Day 2 of the workshop for the same marketing group participants. The workshop was also facilitated as a highly interactive focus group. Compared to the first workshop, observing project managers from the marketing team had its sets of benefits. The group was comprised of a different category of project managers who were tasked with project management duties on a smaller scale. The participants were also members of the same marketing team, which gave the researcher a different outlook of dynamics in smaller project teams.

On attending the 3 workshops, the researcher's observation was that the majority of the issues raised by the participants were human issues including communication issues, poor decision-

making, lack of stakeholder buy-in, lack of support from sponsor, unreliable suppliers, poor leadership, unnecessary bureaucratic processes that demotivated project staff as well as issues with resistance to cultural changes. The preliminary findings presented a strong case for exploring stakeholders' perception of project success.

5.6.4: Case Selection Criteria

According to Yin (2014), the selection of a case study needs to be justified and well documented to an audience in order to provide the context for judging the selection of the case. Yin (2014) is of the view that a case study strategy is suitable when the focus of the study is not a historical phenomenon but a contemporary one. It was important, therefore, for the researcher to select a case that was contemporary.

It was also important for the researcher to consider the criteria of a case that had the potentiality of creating insight into the research problem, as well as time and access to information. Seawright and Gerring (2008) argue that practical considerations such as time and access to information can influence case selection, but these issues should not be the sole factors used in describing the methodological justification for identifying a particular case to study. Such considerations should include: if the case provides important insight or illuminates a previously hidden problem; or if it offers a new direction for future research. According to Eisenhardt (1989, pg. 537), "the random selection of cases is neither necessary, nor even preferable". The criterion for selecting a case should be its relevance to the study's research questions rather than representativeness (Carson, Gilmore, Perry, & Gronhaug, 2001).

As highlighted in the discussions on the preliminary studies carried out by the researcher, participants from the workshop mentioned the ICZ project in their discussions. The richness and diversity of opinions from the participants regarding the ICZ project sparked the researcher's interest in using the project as a possible case to investigate the project management issues that were emerging from the researcher's preliminary studies. Having considered many other cases to select, the researcher finally decided on selecting the ICZ project because it met all the criteria discussed above including relevance of the case to the

research, the focus of research, the research questions as well as access to information. More so, the ICZ project was considered to be a good case. According to Kardos and Smith (1979), a good case has the following features:

1) It is taken from real life.
2) It is composed of many parts, with each part ending with points for discussion.
3) It includes sufficient information for the reader to treat problems and issues.
4) The case is believable for the reader – it contains the setting, personalities, sequence of events, problems and conflicts required to understand the phenomena.

The researcher carefully considered each feature thus:

(1) The ICZ project is a real-life case. It is a project chosen from the researcher's own educational institution. Creswell suggests that in choosing to select one's own institution or place of work, that multiple strategies of validation be used to ensure that the account is accurate and insightful (pg. 151). Validation strategies used by the researcher are discussed later.

(2) The ICZ project is a project consisting of many parts. It represents the active participation of a wide range of internal and external stakeholders comprising of the project team, different schools, academic and non-academic staff, industry partners. These stakeholder groups each have their own motivations and goals, and thus their own criteria for success.

(3) The ICZ project includes sufficient information to treat problems and issues. The project appears to have a high level of complexity due to the diverse stakeholder interests, power and relationships. This suggests that the case would include information on the management of the issues that come with the stakeholder groups.

(4) The ICZ project is believable. As part of feasibility studies, the researcher met with her supervisor, members of staff as well as the project team of the ICZ to discuss the viability of the case for study. This included meetings with two members of the ICZ project office, one workstream lead, and two managers of the implementation team. Therefore, based on the feasibility analysis and justifications presented above, the researcher considered the ICZ project as a good case.

5.6.5: Justification for Single Case

The ICZ project used as a case study for the research is a single case. In this section, the researcher discusses the justification for the use of a single case for the study.

According to Shakir (2002), the strength of the single case is in its descriptive power and attention to context. Yin (2014), synonymously, suggested that a single case study is useful for familiarising the researcher with the context of the phenomenon as well as in deciding on a suitable unit of analysis. Creswell (2013, pg. 101) justified the use of a single case by pointing out that the study of more than one case dilutes the overall case analysis and that the more cases a person studies, the less depth that will be attained. Bearing this in mind, the researcher selected the ICZ project to take advantage of the richness in the depth of the case.

Ragin (1992, p. 225) suggested that criticising single-case studies for being inferior to multiple case studies was wrong since even single-case studies "are multiple in most research efforts because ideas and evidence may be linked in many different ways". Dyer & Wilkins (1991) argued that single cases are superior to multiple cases for creating a high-quality theory. In highlighting the usefulness of a single case in theory building, the authors cite important classical single case studies in social science that have advanced the knowledge of organisations and social systems and continue to impact on the field of management. The authors criticise Eisenhardt's (1989) argument for multiple cases, stating that Eisenhardt had lost sight of the essence of the case study approach – "the careful study of a single case that leads researchers to see new theoretical relationships and questions old ones". They argued that the more contexts a researcher investigate, the more constrained they were by the number of cases to study and the less contextual insight they can communicate.

According to Dyer & Wilkins (1991), the number of cases or the length of conducting a research is not the key issue. The key issue, rather, is if the researcher is capable of understanding and describing the context of the social dynamics of the phenomena in question so well that the reader can understand the context, and theory is produced in line with that context. Dyer and Wilkins further argued that it is not a guarantee that a single case study will generate rich theoretical insights when studied in detail, neither is it a guarantee that multiple case studies will produce this kind of insight.

Another justification for the use of single case study is that the single case study is more economical in terms of resources of money, manpower, time and effort while multiple case studies can be expensive and time-intensive to implement (Baxter and Jack, 2008). It is important to note that the findings from the case study research are expected to develop a framework that will synthesise different aspects of theory using the case study as a vehicle. This will be discussed in the findings and limitations section of the study.

In addition to the arguments raised and to further substantiate the use of the single case for this study, the following discussions present three (3) examples of project management studies that employed the use of the 'single case' strategy.

Synonymous with the present research, Zerjav, Edkins, & Davies (2018) carried out an inductive, interpretivist, social constructivist research based on a single case - the project handover and operational delivery of London Heathrow Terminal 2 (T2). The study was aimed at understanding the role of project capabilities for the delivery of project outcomes and their transition into long-term business operations. Data was collected using semi-structured interviews with members of the project leadership, through internal documents as well as through publicly available data. The outcome of the research was the identification of three key capability-enabling mechanisms that help explain the genesis of project capabilities in inter-organisational settings: (1) reconfiguring project capabilities, (2) adapting project capabilities and (3) maintaining project capabilities.

Their justification for the 'single case' was the choice of a case that would enable a revelatory, yet rigorous analysis of the phenomenon as suggested by Gioia, Corley & Hamilton (2013) and supported by Eisenhardt, Graebner & Sonenshein (2016). This brings to mind Yin's four strategies for selecting a single case design. Table 5.3 below presents these strategies while relating each strategy to the purpose it best serves.

Table 5.3: Four strategies for selecting a single case design

Selection strategies for single case design
Critical - Testing a well-formulated theory

Extreme or unique - Documentation and analysis of a rare case
Revelatory case - Observation and analysis of a phenomenon inaccessible to scientific investigation
Prelude case - Exploratory, e.g., the first phase of a multiple case study research

Source: Adapted from Yin (1994)

As seen from Yin's (1994, pg. 38-41) table, analysing a phenomenon that is inaccessible to scientific investigation, can be a reason to study a single case (revelatory). The researcher has in the previous section presented arguments for the phenomenon being a social construction of the human actors under study and so not suited to scientific investigation. The current study follows the design adopted by Zerjav, Hartmann, & Van Amstel (2014) who co-constructed descriptions of the project leadership' meanings and definitions of the project situation to achieve the research aim.

A second example is the research of Smyth, Lecoeuvre and Vaesken (2018) who also employed the use of a single case study - UK-French Hinkley Point C Nuclear Power Station - to explain how value can be co-created or co-destroyed in the front end of a megaproject, and, specifically, how it influences the decision-making process. They use a new interpretative methodological approach for examining project research known as Service-dominant logic (SDL). SDL supports a greater examination and understanding of sponsors and users to co-create value propositions that scope the potential for value realization.

Finally, Beldi, Cheffi and Dey (2010) conducted an in-depth case study of the "Firm-Clients Branch" of a large telecommunications company in France. The findings show that to manage CRM implementation projects successfully, an integrated and balanced approach is required.

As the ICZ project is in the context of a higher institution (University of Salford), the researcher conducted a review of literature on case studies involving projects in higher institutions and found the research of Tellis (1997) and Levy (1988) who both use an in-depth single-case study to investigate the nature and impact of information technology acquisition projects at the

University of Fairfield and University of Arizona respectively. Both researchers adopted the use of a case study design proposed by Yin (1994) and confirmed by Feagin, Orum, and Sjoberg (1991). The case study design of Tellis (1997) and Levy (1988) discussed above follows the procedure: design the case study; conduct the case study; analyse case study evidence; develop conclusions, recommendations, and implications based on the evidence. The researcher adopted this recommended procedure for the study.

5.6.6: Case Study Design

The first stage in the design of the case study was to determine the required skills. Yin (2014) suggested that the researcher must possess or acquire the ability to ask good questions and to interpret the responses, be a good listener, be adaptive and flexible so as to react to various situations, have a firm grasp of issues being studied, and be unbiased by preconceived notions. This researcher has had several years of experience in both academia and industry, and so has developed the essential skills to carry out the investigation. In addition, the researcher has extensively studied relevant literature on case studies to develop her understanding and prepare for the data collection process.

The second stage was to develop and review the design. This included elements such as field procedures, preparing questions to keep in mind during data collection to impose discipline on the researcher. The researcher, therefore, prepared questions as well as conducted preliminary studies to adequately develop and review the design.

The stages involved in conducting the case study were preparing for data collection and collecting the data. As part of feasibility studies, the researcher made initial contact with the project team of the ICZ project to ascertain the viability of the case for study. The researcher then proceeded to formally seek for consent from the university to use the ICZ project as a case study. This included permission to approach students, staff, as well as industry partners of the University for interviews.

5.6.7 Conducting the Case Study

It was important that the researcher gained the cooperation of members of staff and the project team before conducting the study. As part of feasibility studies, the researcher met with senior members of the university as well as project staff to ask for preliminary meetings. At these meetings, the researcher explained the aim of the research and her approach to the study and asked for their views on the intended research and suggestions on the best people to interview for the study. In the researcher's view, these preliminary meetings were successful as they served as a means to gain background information about the case as well as established the beginning of a constructivist relationship with some research participants. The discussions also further convinced the researcher of the viability of the case in achieving the research aims and objectives.

To gain cooperation for a case study, Myers and Avison (2002) suggested that the researcher provides assurance of confidentiality to the organisation as well as the benefits of the research to the organisation. Examples of such benefits include learning more about the organisation; getting feedback and new insights from the researcher; the opportunity to contribute to knowledge and business research, and the benefit of recognition and publicity (if the organisation wishes to be identified when the research is published). The researcher believes that these meetings led to a high level of cooperation from the organisation. This cooperation was evident as members of the project team shared project documentation with the researcher at this stage, as well as subsequently during actual interviews. These were shared in order to provide the researcher with background information on the project and the project work that had already been done. The documentation was analysed extensively and have been discussed in Section 4.9 of this report.

Following the preliminary meetings, the researcher sent out formal invitation letters via email to identified research subjects, formally requesting their participation in the study. An information request form, as well as a consent form, was also attached to each invitation letter. A sample of the invitation letter, information sheet and consent form are included in Appendix 1.

In the communication documentation, participants were assured of the anonymity of their involvement in the study in line with the University's ethical requirements. They were also advised that their participation was voluntary and that they had the right to accept or refuse to participate in the research. They were also free to give and withhold as much information as they wished at the interviews. Research participants with easily identifiable characteristics or positions within the university were, however, reminded that it might be difficult to disguise their identities totally without distorting the data.

Themes for the discussions, and in some cases, actual interview questions, were emailed to the participants a week before the interviews to allow them to prepare in advance and to ensure that the interview process was efficient and effective. The researcher then proceeded to conduct the interviews. The following section discusses the data collection methods of interview and documentation used for the research. The section also discusses the processes followed by the researcher in obtaining the data.

5.7: Interview Data Collection

A research interview is a discussion between two or more people, with a purpose. It requires that the interviewer asks concise and unambiguous questions and listen attentively as the interviewee responds (Saunders et al., 2012). Yin (2014) argues that the interview is the most important source of case study information. They are productive in generating data as they give the interviewer the opportunity to focus specifically on areas of concern that could lead to constructive suggestions that the interviewer can explore further. According to Du Toit and Mouton (2013), the interview method is most effective for assessing the needs and aspirations of stakeholders in a natural context.

Easterby-Smith, Antonacopoulou, Simm, & Lyles (2004) explained that qualitative interviews were conducted in order to understand how humans construct the reality of their situations. This reality is formed from the complex personal framework of beliefs and values, which have been developed through several events occurring in their world. As interviews occur in a natural setting and involve personal contact between the researcher and the interviewee, they enable the researcher to collect further explanations from the interviewee when contributions

are not understood (Robson, 2002). According to Ghauri & Gronhaug (2005), there are three types of qualitative interviews. These include structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews. The following section discusses each type of interview, and in the process, justifying the use of semi-structured interviews for the study.

In a structured interview, the respondent is required to reply to a standardised set of questions through a specified set of responses. It is similar to a questionnaire as it is generally used to obtain quantifiable data. Here, the interviewee does not have the flexibility of providing other views not included in the response set. On the other hand, an unstructured interview has no predetermined set of questions: both interviewer and interviewee interact freely. Here, the questions or responses are not specified, and the interviewee can express their views in a non-directive way.

5.7.1: Semi-Structured Interview Process

A semi-structured interview is one in which the researcher prepares a list of questions and topics that will be covered during the interview, to help organise the process (Collis and Hussey, 2013). However, the interviewer and participant may diverge from the prepared list of questions, which often give the participants the freedom to express views on their own terms. The interview questions and responses may vary from interview to interview. Its flexible nature makes the interviewer open to new themes and/or issues that may arise. Blumberg, Cooper, & Schindler (2011) stated that semi-structured interviews provide rich data collection, allow for clarification and expansion of questions and answers during the interview, therefore increasing internal validity. The nature of the study required the probing of participants about their views and in the course, modifying questions based on responses while still maintaining a structure. This was necessary to ensure that predetermined research areas were addressed.

In this study, the participants are seen as sources of knowledge about their “reality,” which can be transmitted to the researcher through a carefully thought-out process of asking questions and interpreting answers. The researcher formulated questions and provided an atmosphere conducive to open communication between the interviewer and the participant.

In consideration of the phenomenon under study, the researcher recognised that the use of semi-structured interviews had the advantages of enhancing the collection of rich and detailed information as well as providing the flexibility needed to explore new themes and areas that were arising in the course of the study. It also facilitated an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under investigation.

During the interviews, the researcher asked participants about their views as stakeholders impacting/ being impacted by the ICZ project and how they perceived the success of the project based on its management. The questions were aimed at gaining a holistic picture of the thinking of all parties involved as it related to the success of the project. The researcher also aimed to collect specific information, which could be compared and contrasted with information gained in other interviews. The researcher was, however, mindful of the need to remain flexible in order to allow room for other important information to come to light.

It is important to mention that the researcher made an effort to build rapport with each participant. According to Roller and Lavrakas (2015) "rapport building is mainly about trust, and helps participants feel comfortable with the interviewer thereby allowing them to open up to and give their honest opinion about the phenomenon being studied." This was achieved through a preliminary conversation with the participants before the interview. As the interview was semi-structured, the researcher asked a combination of open-ended and closed-ended questions, which were carried out in a conversational style. Creswell (2013, pg. 25) states that the more open-ended the questioning, the better, as the researcher can listen carefully to what the people are saying or doing in their live setting. Open-ended responses let the researcher understand and present the world as it is seen and experienced by the participants without predetermining those standpoints.

The general strategy for the interviews was to start with set questions and follow on from the interviewee's responses, to capture and avoid imposing meanings on the interviewee. All interviews were tape-recorded (with the prior approval of the participants, bearing in mind the ethical considerations of the university) and subsequently transcribed. The interviews varied in length from 20 minutes to 1 hour per interview.

The interview and documentation data were gathered for a year and a half (the researcher completed 37 semi-structured interviews between November 2017 and May 2019). This provided time and freedom to openly explore questions that were arising and appeared to be important in the course of the study. The interviews were conducted until the researcher reached a saturation point.

Though the advantages of the interview method are well highlighted, disadvantages also exist: interviews can be time-consuming and expensive compared to other methods (Hair et al 2011); interviewees may have concerns about anonymity, which could affect their contribution and openness; the experience, skill, and motivation of the interviewer could likely affect the interview process (Robson, 2002).

To address the identified limitations, the researcher attended a series of training on interview skills and studied relevant material on interview skills and protocol. The researcher also went into each interview with a list of themes and topics for discussion, which she shared with participants before the interview to save time and make the process effective. The researcher also reiterated the anonymity of the study and how the data would be reported, to each interviewee.

The interviews were recorded using a recorder as well as a mobile phone as a backup system. This proved effective as the researcher realised on one occasion too late that the recorder had reached full memory capacity. Without the use of a backup system, the data from the interview would have been lost. The interview recordings were then transferred to the university's hard drive system and password protected as a security step in line with the ethical requirements of the university.

5.8: Scope of Study

The scope of the study is within project management, stakeholder management and organizational change management. It is also positioned under benefit management – an area in project management research that considers how stakeholders perceive the benefits realised from projects. Kerzner (2013) indicates that a project is any series of activities and

tasks that has a specific objective to be completed within certain specifications; has a defined start and end date; has funding limits; consume money, people and equipment; and is multifunctional. The PMBOK (2013, p. 5) defines project management as "the application of knowledge, skills, tools, and techniques to project activities to meet project requirements". Kerzner (2012) also provides a definition of project management as "*the planning, scheduling, and controlling integrated tasks, in the best interest of project stakeholders, such that objectives of the project are achieved successfully".*

The role of a project manager is to coordinate the work of people from different disciplines in order to accomplish defined tasks while coping with the complexity, uncertainty and constraints inherent in projects. In achieving these, project managers find that they often must work to satisfy the needs of often choosy clients, work to tight deadlines, and manage limited resources to get the job done while guiding and motivating diverse personalities (Zielinski, 2006 pg. 18).

The study also involves success which is considered in terms of project management success and project success. Project management success is said to be success measured at project completion, based on project efficiency, and evaluated against the iron triangle (Cooke-Davies, 2002). On the other hand, Shenhar & Dvir (2007) and Williams (2011) refer to project success as when a project delivers intended values to stakeholders. Project failure refers to when deliverables do not provide the expected value to stakeholders or the inability of a project management team to achieve an acceptable level of completion compliance by meeting projects requirements as agreed with the project stakeholders (Toader, Brad, Adamov, Marin & Moisa, 2010). These definitions are reflective of the researcher's stance on viewing project management from stakeholders' point of view.

The case of study is the Industry Collaboration Zones (ICZ) project and focuses on different perceptions of success among three (3) stakeholder groups of the ICZ project. The stakeholder groups include group 1 - the project sponsor group, group 2 - project team group, and group 3 - project recipients' group. The researcher classifies stakeholders as either actors or beneficiaries. Actors are those directly involved in the project management processes and responsible for the output of the project while beneficiaries are those who receive something

or are impacted on by the project. The study further maps stakeholders using Davis (2016) stakeholder categorisation of senior management, project core team and project recipient.

Table 5.4: Classification of stakeholders

GROUP NUMBER	STAKEHOLDER GROUPING	PROJECT STAKEHOLDERS
Stakeholder Group 1	Project Sponsor Group	This group comprises of: • The VC's Executive team (VCET) including Deputy VC etc. • The Senior Leadership Team (SLT) including Deans of Schools etc. • ICD (ICZ Directors)
Stakeholder Group 2 (Project Team Group)	Project team group	This group comprises of: • the core project team PCT (2A) • workstream team PWT (2B)
Stakeholder Group 3	Project recipients	Students (3A)
		Industry partners (3B)
Stakeholder Group 4		University Academic Staff (3C)
		University Non -Academic Staff (3D)

As highlighted in the stakeholder grouping (Table 5.4), the project managers, as well as workstream teams of the ICZ project, are within the scope of the study. These stakeholder groups are considered representative of stakeholders of the ICZ project as adopted from the PMI (2013) definition of a project stakeholder as "an individual, group, or organisation, who may affect, be affected by, or perceive itself to be affected by a decision, activity, or outcome of a project" (Project Management Institute, 2013). According to Littau et. al (2010) who conducted a meta-analysis study on stakeholder theory in the project management discipline,

the PMBOK guide definition has become the dominant stakeholder definition for the field of project management as of 2006 onwards. The researcher has adopted the PMI definition on this basis.

The position of the stakeholders on the life cycle of the project is equally an important factor for this research as several authors advocate the need to work with stakeholders to define project objectives, needs, and expectations throughout the life cycle of the project e.g., (Valkenburg, Lenferink, Nijsten & Arts, 2008; Aapaoja, Haapasalo, & Soderstrom, 2013). The current research explores the research issue with a focus on the execution, monitoring and controlling and closure phases of the project life cycle as seen in Figure 5.1.

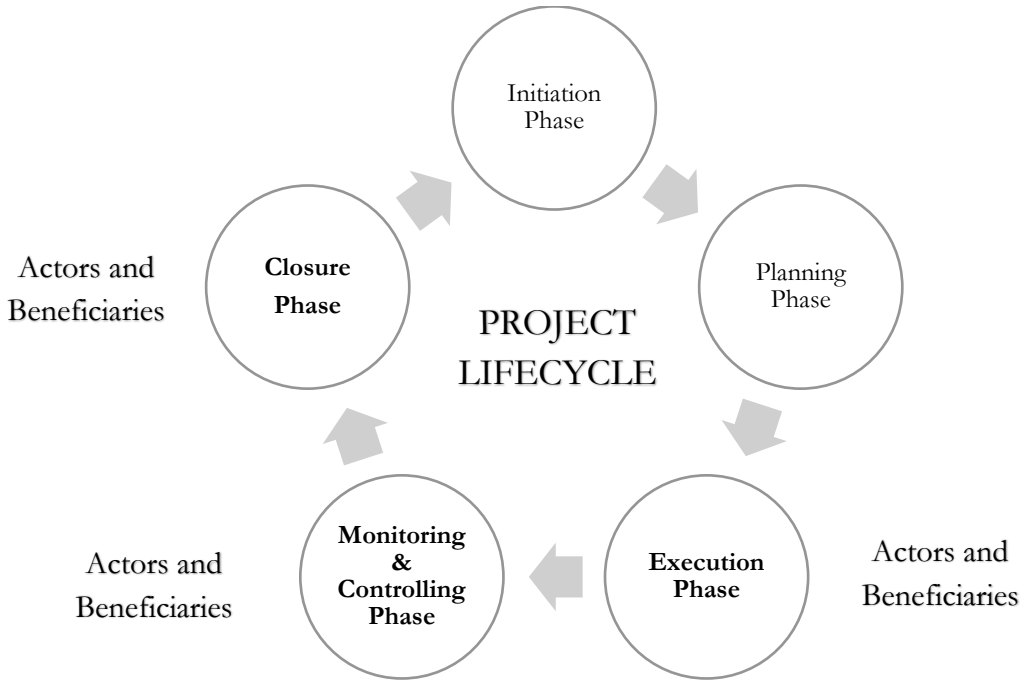


Figure 5.1: Scope of research along Execution, Monitoring and Controlling and Closure Phases of Project

5.9: Interview Questions

The general strategy used by the researcher was to vary the interview questions depending on the class of stakeholders that was being interviewed. For example, participants from Group 2 were asked questions based on their capacity and involvement in the management and implementation of the project. Such questions were not asked Group 3 or Group 4 participants as they would not have any knowledge or perception of the running of the project. Rather,

questions asked them were on their perception as beneficiaries impacting /or how the project had impacted on them. Likewise, questions posed to Group 1 participants were in their capacity as senior management of the university. Such questions were not asked Group 2, Group 3 or Group 4 participants. This style was maintained by the researcher throughout the interview process. The questions were also modified as the interviews progressed based on the responses received. Full interview questions are contained in the Section 4.10.3.

It was also important for the researcher to differentiate between the context of the ICZ project and the ICZ strategy in general in asking these questions because it was observed that questions posed about the project were generally confused with the perception that these referred to the totality of the ICZ strategy and its present 'business as usual' status. The researcher ensured that she clarified the differences at the start of the interview as well as reminded the participant during the interview what she meant by each question and checking that the participant understood the questions. The researcher also went into the interview with an outline of the 2-year plan of the project (See Appendix 5) which she showed to participants to help them recollect the activities that were carried out in the course of the project and to enable them to reflect on how these activities fitted in with the project plan in their responses.

5.9.1: Group 2 (PCT and PWT) Questions

The questions for Group 2 participants were grouped into four (4) categories for easy analysis. The following is a categorisation of questions as well as the responses from the participants.

- Category 1 Questions

The first category of questions was to understand the background of the participants and their experience in project management. This also included the role they played in the delivery of the project as well as their understanding of its aims and objectives as well as the programme as a whole.

- Category 2 Questions (To investigate RQ 3 and RQ 4)

The second category of questions was to understand the management of the project in terms of the strategies employed by the team as well as the skills they found useful in implementing the project. The researcher also asked the participants about the importance they ascribed to technical versus interpersonal skills.

- Category 3 Questions (To investigate RQ 1 and RQ 5)

The third category of questions was to understand how important it was for stakeholders to regard the project as a success. The researcher asked the participants about their views on the importance of stakeholder perception, how important some stakeholders were in relation to others, and if they did anything to influence stakeholder perception and what these were.

- Category 4 Questions (To investigate RQ 2)

The final category of questions was to discuss participants' perception of the success of the project. The researcher asked if they believed the project was a success and reasons for their responses. Questions were also asked about the strategies for success employed by the team, barriers faced, what worked well, what did not, and lessons learnt from the project.

5.9.2: Group 3 (Project Beneficiary) Questions

Group 3A, 3C and 3D Questions

Group 3A, 3C and 3D questions were also grouped into four (4) categories for easy analysis. The following is a categorisation of the questions asked. Group 3B questions varied from these and are discussed subsequently.

- Category 1 and 2 Questions (To investigate RQ 1)

The first category of questions was on understanding what the stakeholders perceived to be their role in relation to the delivery of the project and the objectives of the project.

The second category of questions was on stakeholder perception and if they considered themselves as stakeholders of the project, the reasons for their responses if they believed some stakeholders were more important than others, and if they thought, it was important for stakeholders to regard the project as a success.

- Category 3 Questions (To investigate RQ 3)

The third category of questions was in finding out their view on the management of the project and what aspects they considered important that contributed to their view of the project.

- Category 4 Questions (To investigate RQ 2 and RQ 5)

The final category of questions was on finding out the extent to which they believed the project was successful and if the management of the project had anything to do with their perception of its success.

- Additional Questions

As the deliverables of the project were handed over to an operations team, it was important to get the views of both groups of stakeholders. Questions asked of the operations team were slightly different as this related to their involvement from the hand over phase of the project. The researcher asked for their understanding of their role and that of the project that was handed over to them. The researcher also asked about the perception of the success of the project and other stakeholders view of the project. They were asked about their priorities going forward and what they found successful as strategies and skills in going about the project.

Group 3B (Industry Partner) Questions

Due to the different class of participants in this group, the participants were asked the following questions:

- What is your name, designation and what company do you work for?
- What is the nature of your engagement with the university?
- Are you familiar with the Industry Collaboration Zones (ICZ) project of the university?
- If yes, what is your understanding of the project and to what extent do you consider the project to have been successful?

- If no, how successful do you consider your engagement with the university to have been?

- What is your view on industry collaborations with the university and how important do you think this is?

The researcher took into consideration that the IP group participants were external stakeholders and not likely to understand the terminologies of the ICZ. Majority of them did not have much time to spare which led to three of the participants being interviewed at a Creative Entrepreneur event while the remaining 7 interviews were conducted via phone conversations and lasted an average of between 15 to 30 minutes. All participants were informed that the phone conversations were being recorded and all consented to this by signing consent forms before the interviews started. The transcripts are also included in Appendix 4.

Due to the composition of participants in the Industry partner (IP) group, the participants in the group were asked about the nature of their engagement with the university; if they were familiar with the ICZ project, if yes - what their understanding of the project was and to what extent they considered the project to have been successful - and if no - how successful they considered their engagement with the university to have been; finally they were asked their views on industry collaborations with the university and how important they thought this was.

This strategy was employed because the researcher took into consideration that the IP group participants were external stakeholders and not likely to understand the terminologies of the ICZ project. Majority of them did not have much time to spare which led to three of the participants being interviewed at a Creative Entrepreneur event while the remaining interviews were conducted via telephone and lasted an average of between 15 to 40 minutes. All participants were informed that the phone conversations were being recorded and all signed consent forms before the interviews started.

5.9.3: Research Interview Questions

The following table 5.5 highlights the interview questions that were taken into each interview session and used as a guide to structure the interviews.

Table 5.5: Semi-structured Interview Questions

Stakeholder Group	Question grouping	Semi-structured interview questions
Staff	Role	1. State your name and designation 2. What is your view in terms of the role you play in the delivery of the ICZ project? (What does the ICZ delivery project mean to you?) 3. In your understanding, what are the objectives of the ICZ project? And the ICZ programme as a whole?
	Stakeholder Perception	4. Do you consider yourself to be a stakeholder of the ICZ project? Why? 5. Do you think some of these stakeholders are more important than others? In terms of power and influence on the project. 6. Do you think it is important that all of those stakeholders regard the project as a success?
	Project Management	7. What is your understanding of the project management of the ICZ project (i.e., how the project was managed by the project team – communication, leadership, motivation) Give examples. 8. What are the main skills you consider important for the project manager/project team to have in delivering a project?

		9. How important do you think interpersonal skills are in the management of a project/success of a project? 10. Can you give me examples of where these skills you mentioned where exhibited in the ICZ project? And by who?
	Success and Failure	11. What has worked well so far in the delivery of the ICZ project? 12. What has not? 13. Would you say the project was a success? Why do you think so? 14. Do you believe these skills you mentioned earlier were present in the management of the project? 15. Do you believe these skills had anything to do with your perception of the project's success? Why? 16. Do you have any suggestions or recommendations on how the project could have been delivered better?
Project Team and Project Sponsor Group	Role	1. State your designation and department 2. What is your background and experience in project management? 3. What role did you play in the delivery of the ICZ project? 4. What would you say are the objectives of the project? And the ICZ programme as a whole?

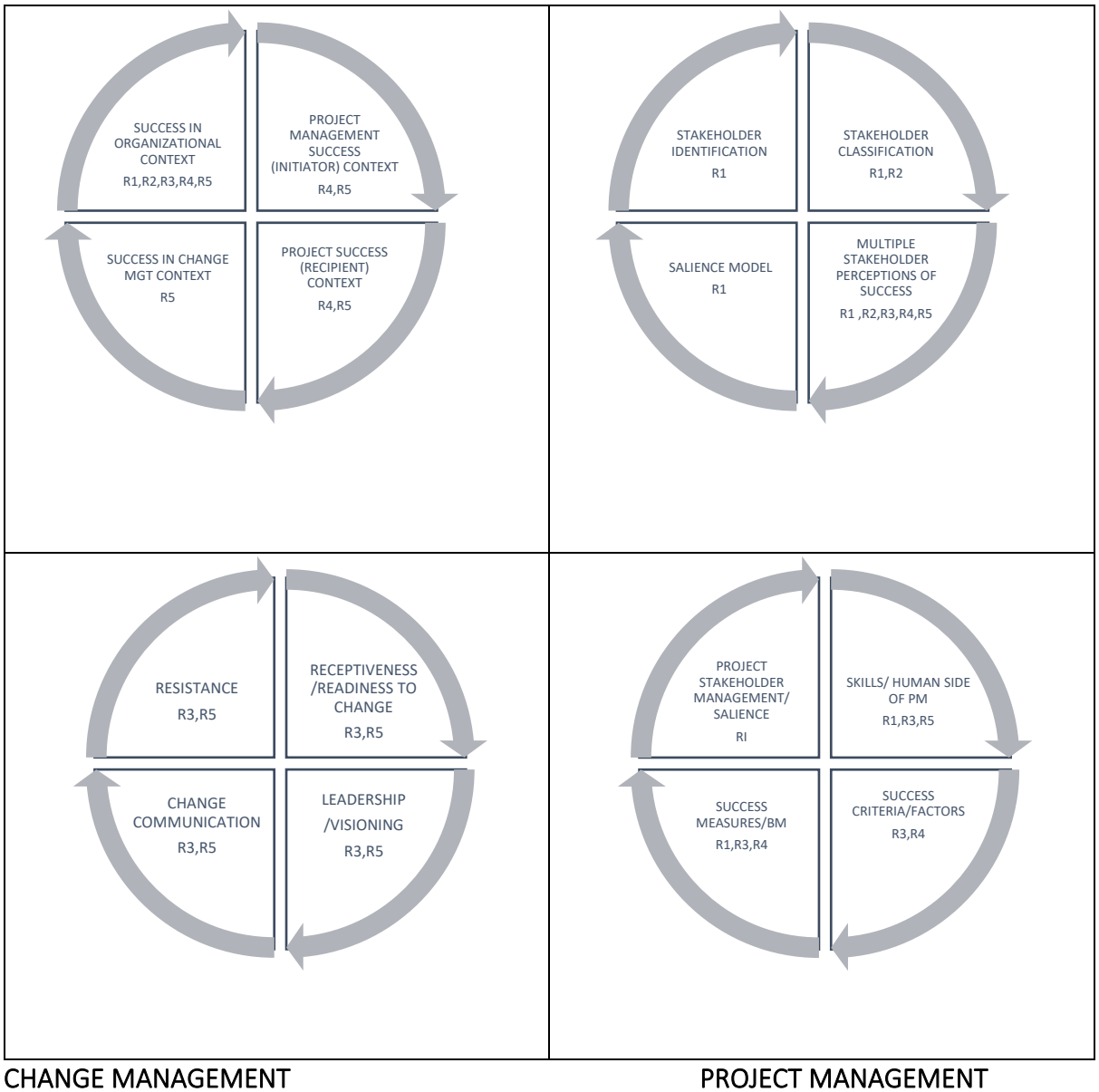
	Project Management	5. What project management strategies or tools would you say you used personally in managing the project. 6. What are the main skills you consider important for the project manager/project team to have in delivering a project? 7. Do you believe these skills were present in the management of the project? 8. How important do you consider technical skills to be in the success of a project? 9. How important do you think interpersonal skills are in the management of a project? 10. Can you give me examples of where these skills you mentioned were exhibited in the ICZ project? And by whom?
	Stakeholder Perception	11. Who would you say were your stakeholders? 12. Do you think some of these stakeholders are more important than others? In terms of power and influence on the project. 13. Do you think it is important that all of those stakeholders regard the project as a success? 14. Do you believe that the interpersonal skills of the project manager have anything to do with perception of the project's success? Why? 15. Did you do anything to influence stakeholders' perception of success? If yes - What did you do? If no, why not?
	Success and Failure	16. Were there any barriers you encountered in delivering the project? What were they?

		17. What has worked well so far in the delivery of the ICZ project? 18. What has not? 19. Would you say the project was a success? Why do you think so? 20. What would you do differently next time if given the chance?
Student Stakeholders		1. Are you familiar with what Salford University is doing with industry collaboration zones (ICZ)? 2. What do you understand about that? 3. How important do you think this is? 4. Do you consider yourself to be a stakeholder of the ICZ project? Why? 5. How involved do you feel you have been in the project? 6. To what extent do you consider the project to be successful? Why?
Industry Partner Questions		1. What is your name, designation and what company do you work for? 2. What is the nature of your engagement with the university? 3. Are you familiar with the Industry Collaboration Zones (ICZ) project of the university? 4. If yes, what is your understanding of the project and to what extent do you consider the project to have been successful? 5. If no, how successful do you consider your engagement with the university to have been?

		6. What is your view on industry collaborations with the university and how important do you think this is?

The following diagram (figure 5.2) shows how the following 5 research questions map on to 16 elements.

Figure 5.2: Research Questions mapping on to the Conceptual Framework



- RQ 1: Which ICZ stakeholders are the most important based on different stakeholder perceptions of success?
- RQ 2: Is stakeholder classification related to the stakeholders' understanding of projects?
- RQ 3: What are the challenges of successful project delivery within an academic organisational context.
- RQ 4: How do stakeholders judge the success of the selected project within the organisation and what criteria do they base their judgement on?
- RQ 5: What project management aspects have impacted on stakeholders' views of the ICZ project?

The following table 5.6 highlights how the interview questions are aligned to the 5 research questions.

Table 5.6: Alignment of Interview Questions to Research Questions

		INTERVIEW QUESTIONS			
STAKEHOLDER GROUPING	PROJECT STAKEHOLDERS	Role in project R1, R2	Stakeholder perception R1,R2,R3,R4,R5	Project management R3, R4, R5	Success and Failure R1,R3,R4,R5
Stakeholder Group 1 (Project Sponsor Group)	• The VC's Executive team (VCET) including Deputy VC etc. • The Senior Leadership Team (SLT) including Deans of Schools etc. • ICD (ICZ Directors)	✓	✓	✓	✓
Stakeholder Group 2	• the core project team PCT (2A)	✓	✓	✓	✓

(Project Team Group)	• workstream team PWT (2B)	✓	✓	✓	✓
Stakeholder Group 3 (Recipients)	Students (3A)	✓	✓		✓
	Industry partners (3B)	✓	✓		✓
Stakeholder Group 4 (Recipients)	University Academic Staff (3C)	✓	✓	✓	✓
	University Non - Academic Staff (3D)	✓	✓	✓	✓

5.9.4: Location of Interviews

All the interviews were carried out within the confines of the university. The interviews with staff members that owned their own offices were conveniently held within the offices, for other participants who preferred other venues, the researcher ensured that interview rooms were booked through the university room booking system. The meeting venues and times were agreed with the participants well before the interviews. Majority of the interviews with the industry partners were carried out through telephone interviews, therefore, the researcher downloaded a call recorder to enable the recording of the telephone interviews. All the participants were also asked to complete consent forms and reminded in advance of the recordings of the conversation in advance.

5.9.5: Transcription

The researcher spent a considerable time transcribing all the interviews, with each taking an average of between 30mins to 8 hours depending on the length and volume of the interview. A playback method was used to transcribe the interview. A first manuscript was produced which contained the actual words, exclamations, sighs and unrelated communications from

the researcher or participant during the interview. These were later cleaned up and edited. An electronic copy of all the transcripts has been included with the thesis. In presenting the information, the researcher anonymised the contents by using code names where actual names or recognisable information was evident, in line with the university's ethical requirements.

5.10: Selection of Interviewees

In deciding on the selection of interviewees, it was important for the researcher to seek out a broad range of views, as this was a fundamental aspect identified in the literature reviewed. The researcher chose to adopt the purposive and snowball selection techniques to identify participants for the interviews. The selection techniques are discussed in the following section.

5.10.1: Purposive Selection

The purposive selection method involved the use of the researcher's own judgement, with the assistance and guidance of her supervisor, and members of the ICZ project and workstream team to select participants that were particularly informative and relevant to the phenomenon of study (Creswell, 2013, pg. 156). Purposive selection enables researchers to meet the goals defined by the research aim as well as control the level of variation among the interviewees (Bazeley, 2013). By purposely selecting the interviewees, the researcher intended to capture a wide range of perspectives, as well as variations in perspectives on the subject area. Ochieng and Price (2010) recommend a healthy variation in the selection size to make meaningful comparisons.

The use of the purposive selection method also enabled the researcher to identify common themes that were evident across the selection size. The technique was feasible due to the affiliation of the researcher with the university, students and a number of staff members. The goal of the researcher was not to randomly select units from a population but to focus on particular characteristics of the population that was of interest, and best enabled the researcher to answer the research questions. For example, in the study, the researcher selected key informants based on the following:

- because of their leadership position in the organisation (project sponsor)
- those affected by the changes from the project (recipients)
- the initiators of the change (project team)
- different interest groups internal and external to the organisation (industry partners)

A disadvantage of the selection method, however, is that it limits the possibility of generalising research findings to other settings or situations (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998; Patton, 2005; Wolcott, 1994). In response to this, the researcher proposes as an outcome of the research, a framework that attempts to synthesise different aspects of theory using the case study as a vehicle.

5.10.2: Snowball Selection

The snowball selection method was also used to identify project team members and other stakeholders in the university. The snowball sampling is a technique where existing subjects recruit future subjects from among their acquaintances. Thus, the sample group is said to grow like a rolling snowball. As the sample builds up, useful data are gathered for the research. In snowball sampling, the researcher makes initial contact with participants and then asks them to identify further participants, who then identify further participants, and so the size snowballs. This selection technique is often used in populations that are difficult for researchers to access.

Johnson (2018) stated that the snowball technique is useful for building networks and increasing participants' size. However, its success depends greatly on the initial contacts and connections made. Thus, it is important to connect with participants who have a credible reputation to create more opportunities to grow the participants' size.

The researcher also selected participants based on their willingness to be involved in the study. According to Simms and Rogers (2006), this approach increases the richness of the data due to the commitment of interviewees.

In selecting research participants, Lagreca (2018) suggested using a methodical and logical approach to ensure that project stakeholders are not omitted. According to the author, the selection approach should involve:

- Identifying stakeholders by looking at stakeholders organizationally, geographically, or by involvement with various project phases or outcomes.
- Identifying stakeholders who are directly and indirectly affected by the project

The outcome for identifying stakeholders is a project stakeholder register, which comprises of all the names, contact information, titles, and other pertinent information of all stakeholders of the project. Due to the need to maintain the anonymity of the participants, the researcher has not shared this information in the thesis.

5.10.3: Classification of Participants

The following table highlights the grouping of participants and the composition of each stakeholder grouping. Participants have been grouped into six (7) categories namely: Group 1, 2A, 2B, 3A, 3B, 3C, and 3D highlighted in Table 5.7. The grouping was done by the researcher.

Table 5.7: Classification of participants

STAKEHOLDER GROUPING	PROJECT STAKEHOLDERS
Stakeholder Group 1 (Project Sponsor Group)	This group comprises of: • The VC's Executive team (VCET) including Deputy VC etc. • The Senior Leadership Team (SLT) including Deans of Schools etc. • ICD (ICZ Directors)
Stakeholder Group 2 (Project Team Group)	This group comprises of: • the core project team PCT (2A) • workstream team PWT (2B)
	Students (3A)
	Industry partners

Stakeholder Group 3	(3B)
Stakeholder Group 4	University Academic Staff (3C)
	University Non -Academic Staff (3D)

5.10.4: Selection Criteria & Justification for Number of Participants That Took Part in Interviews

The criteria for the selection and justification for the number of participants that took part in the interviews are discussed in this section. The main aim of this research was to investigate the view of stakeholders on success in project management and how to influence these stakeholder views. The researcher interviewed 37 members from different stakeholder groups of the project including 3 project sponsor group members, 2 core project team group members, 4 workstream team members, 9 academic staff members, 4 non-academic staff members, 4 student union members and 11 industry partners. The researcher also conducted a focus group with 32 students in attendance.

Sargeant (2012) highlighted that participant size is not generally predetermined in qualitative research; the size depends on the number required to inform fully all the important elements of the phenomenon being studied. The author suggested that to determine when data saturation occurs, the analysis of the data should occur concurrently with a collection of data in an iterative cycle. The researcher employed this approach and, after interviewing 37 participants and concurrently analysing the data, believed that a saturation status had been reached. In justifying the number of participants for a research, Saunders & Townsend (2016) suggested that the researcher must explain explicitly how the selected participants enable the research purpose to be met. As discussed in the 'selection of interviewees' section of the Methods chapter, it was important for the researcher to seek out a broad range of views, as this was a fundamental issue identified in the literature reviewed. In section 4.11.4 (selection criteria), the researcher discusses the justification for selecting each group composition and the participants for the research. Lincoln, Lynham and Guba (2011) argue that reporting the precise number of participants, their characteristics and those of the population from which

they are chosen allow readers to understand more fully how the research was undertaken, forming an opinion regarding their authenticity and credibility and, where appropriate, the transferability of findings to other contexts.

Group 1 (Project Sponsor Group)

The justification for considering participants from the project sponsor group for this research is as a result of the importance of top management support in a project as has been linked to success in the literature.

A key theme that was discussed in the literature in Chapter 2 was the influence of contextual issues in influencing the progress and outcomes of projects, and a key factor that emerged was the importance of top management support for project success. Therefore, understanding the view of the project sponsor is important. The APM defines the project sponsor as a role that is central to governance and is responsible for the continuing validity of a project's business case throughout the chosen life cycle. It precedes and supersedes that of the project or programme manager (APM, 7th Edition). The role is responsible for overseeing the project and is accountable for ensuring the realisation of the specified benefits over time. Several studies have linked project sponsorship to project success (Bryde, 2008; Cooke-Davies, 2005; Crawford et al., 2008; Hall, Holt, & Purchase, 2003; Helm & Remington, 2005; Kloppenborg et al., 2006; Lechler & Cohen, 2009; Sense, 2013). The significance of the project sponsor, especially in relation to how top management support has been linked to project success in the literature is therefore is central to the research purpose of understanding the view of stakeholders and how to influence such stakeholders for success.

For the ICZ project, the project sponsor is represented by Group 1 stakeholders which is comprised of three categories of participants – the VC's Executive team (VCET), the Senior Leadership Team (SLT) and the Industry Collaboration Zone (ICD) team.

VC's Executive team (VCET):

The Vice-Chancellor's Executive Team (VCET) is made up of senior academic and professional service leaders, with the Deans of Schools and other Directors attending to support the Vice-Chancellor in the effective delivery of the university's strategic objectives. Its composition includes the Vice Chancellor (VC), the Deputy VC, Pro Vice-chancellor and other senior

members of the university team. The team's purpose is to provide advice to the Vice-Chancellor's capacity as Chief Executive as well as oversee the running of the university. The Vice Chancellor leads the VCET while the Deputy VC has responsibility for the strategic leadership of the University's academic portfolio, the seven Deans of School, the Dean of Research, the Associate Director of Enterprise, as well as the four Industry Collaboration Zones Directors.

Senior Leadership Team (SLT)

The SLT is comprised of senior university team members such as different school deans, the VCET, and the university registrar. The VC leads the development and delivery of the university's vision and strategy through the SLT, in conjunction with the VCET. Each Dean of Schools at the University is a member of the SLT and is considered to have significant authority over specific academic units in the university. Hence, this leadership team are considered representative of the project sponsor group.

Industry Collaboration Zone (ICD) team:

The ICD comprises of the four (4) ICZ Directors who have responsibility for driving the ICZ project's strategy over coming years. They were appointed between the periods of October 2017 and January 2018. The Directors work in partnership with the Deans of Schools as the ICZ strategy continues to develop.

Group 2 (PCT and PWT)

Group 2 is known as the Project Team Group and comprises of members of the project core team (PCT) as well as the workstream teams (PWT) responsible for delivering the ICZ project. The justification for considering participants from the project team and work stream team stems from their function as the project custodians, a role that has been explored in the literature extensively and has also been linked to success. The following section discusses the composition and function of the teams to the ICZ project.

Group 2A - Project Core Team (PCT)

The project core team are tasked with the responsibility of implementing the 2-year project of delivering the ICZ to become 'business as usual' as well as the administration around that

implementation. The researcher selected participants from the team based on their role in the project. The participants all demonstrated that they had a project management background and a good understanding of the workings of the project. They were also considered to have hands-on experience in the management of the project.

Group 2B - Work Stream Team (PWT)

This group is representative of the scaffolding that was required to ensure the delivery of the project objectives. It was important, therefore, to obtain the view representation. The members were selected due to their track record in working across the University community and/or because of their organisational knowledge and presence. The participants were members of the different workstreams, development leads, HR, and marketing and external relations department, who all had some involvement with the project implementation.

Group 3 (Project Recipients)

Group 3 is known as the project recipient group and comprises of the 3A Student Group (SUR and STM), 3B Industry Partner Group (IP), 3C University Academic Staff Group (UAS), and 3D University Non-academic Staff Group (UNS). The justification for considering project recipients participants for the research was as a result of the business case of the project to directly impact on them and the benefits to be derived from the project as was stated in the business case (See Chapter 3). Their views of the project are central to the backbone of this research. According to Jarocki (2014), project recipients represent the group of stakeholders responsible for utilising and creating value from the outputs of the project. They may include employees, end-users and customers whose needs and expectations need to be proactively identified and addressed. Mirza, Pourzolfaghar & Shahnazari (2013) consider customers and users as some of the most important stakeholders. Therefore, it was vital that their views be investigated for the research. The following sub-section discusses the classification:

GROUP 3A – Student Group (SUR and STM)

Group 3A participants are known as the student group. The group comprised of student representatives of the student union of the university. The participants were selected based on the researcher's viewpoint that the union members were representative of a wider range of student views by virtue of their positions. This is evident from the words of a participant

(SUR3) – *"my role as a student representative is as liaison between students of the school and the lecturers and dean of the school. We have the responsibility of collecting student opinions which we pass on to the dean and the school lecturers and we also make sure that students are as comfortable as possible, and things are running smoothly".* The group also comprised of students selected from five (5) schools of the university.

GROUP 3B – Industry Partners Group (IP)

Group 3B participants are known as the industry partners group. The group comprised of external industry partners as well as employers of university students working with the university on the project. Industry partnership is at the core of the ICZ project vision and strategy, and so, it was vital that the researcher select representatives from this group of stakeholders.

GROUP 3C - University Academic Staff Group (UAS)

Group 3C participants are known as the university academic staff group. This group is representative of members of the university academic staff from different schools of the university. These members were comprised of the teaching staff of the university, who are responsible for planning, directing and undertaking academic teaching and research within the university.

GROUP 3D – University Non-academic Staff Group (UNS)

Group 3D participants are known as the University's non-academic staff. They comprise of staff who do not have an academic employment function but play a big part in providing operational support to the university. The members were selected from the university's internal communications, marketing, quality enhancement office and partnership office to get a different range of perspectives on the project. The non-academic staff play a big part in terms of the administrative support of the university. The members were selected from the university's professional services team, quality enhancement office and partnership office to get a different range of perspectives on the project.

The researcher included the ICZ operations team into this group due to the team's operational capacity. At the time of collecting data, the team was composed of an operations manager and

two administrators who provided administrative support for ICZ meetings, projects and account development work with key business partners. The team also had responsibility for administrating the industry partnering account development strategy and reporting of the process. As the deliverables of the project were handed over to the operations team, it was important to get the views from this group of stakeholders. The researcher considered their role as a continuation of the running of the project in its early stages of 'business as usual'.

5.10.5: Proportion of Sample Size to People That Did Not Participate in the Research

According to Lincoln, Lynham and Guba (2011), reporting the precise number of participants, their characteristics and those of the population from which they are chosen allows readers to understand more fully how the research was undertaken, forming an opinion regarding their authenticity and credibility and, where appropriate, the transferability of findings to other contexts. The researcher does this - There are 21,500 students at the University of Salford comprising of 17,325 undergraduates and 4,175 postgraduate students (21,316 quoted by the Social Impact report), 2781 University Academic and Non-academic staff (2,660 quoted by the Social Impact report). Table 5.8 below shows the proportion of sample size to people that did not participate in research.

Table 5.8: Proportion of Sample Size to People That Did Not Participate In Research

STAKEHOLDER GROUPING	PROJECT STAKEHOLDERS	ESTIMATE OF TOTAL STAKEHOLDER SIZE	PARTICIPANTS OF RESEARCH	PROPORTION OF SAMPLE TO PEOPLE THAT DID NOT PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH
Stakeholder Group 1 (Project Sponsor Group)	The VC's Executive team (VCET) including Deputy VC etc.	13	1	1/12
	The Senior Leadership Team (SLT) including Deans of Schools etc.	13	1	1/12
	ICD (ICZ Directors)	4	1	1/3

Stakeholder Group 2 (Project Team Group)	This group comprises of: • the core project team PCT (2A)	3	2	2/1
	• Workstream team PWT (2B)		4	
Stakeholder Group 3	Student (3A)	21,316 (obtained from Social Impact report, pg.5)	4 (Student Union representatives) + 32 students from focus group = 36	36/21280
	Industry partners (3B)	2,056 (Consultancy contracts 2014-2017 comprised of SMEs, public and third sector and other businesses) (obtained from Social Impact report, pg.15)	11	11/2045
Stakeholder Group 4	University Academic Staff (3C)	2,660 (obtained from Social Impact report, pg.5)	9	13/2647
	University Non - Academic Staff (3D)		4	
		TOTAL	37	

5.10.6: Participation Bias

Participant bias is referred to as when participants second guess what the researcher needs from them, or change their answers or behaviours in different ways, depending on the experiment or environment (McCambridge, de Bruin & Witton, 2012). It can have a huge impact on research findings as it has the potential to add a sizable amount of error to it. It occurs due to the participant reacting purely to what they think the researcher desires

(Greenberg, Abul-Ela, Simmons & Horvitz 1969). For a research to be successful, it is important for the researcher to be aware of participant bias and to control its effects from the start.

To mitigate the effects of participant bias from participants of the research, I took the following steps:

1. I ensured that the participants knew that their data was truly confidential for them to more likely reveal the truth.
2. I ensured that the information presented to participants was in a non-judgemental manner, starting from the advertisement for the study, the formulation of the questions, and the way in which the information was treated afterwards.
3. I avoided shaping participants' ideas or experiences before the interviews by providing the participant with only the information that they needed for the interviews, as well as avoiding extraneous detail.
4. I ensured that the interview questions were not phrased in such a manner as to make the participants think that they had a social responsibility to answer in a certain way. I also ensured the phrasing was balanced and that I didn't ask leading questions.
5. I ensured I did not ask too many questions and that the interview process was not lengthy because too many questions increase the chance of inducing participant fatigue, leading to answers that are given without considered thought.

5.10.7: Coding of Participants

The participants' details were coded within the research to ensure anonymity. The coding of participants is presented in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9: Coding of Participants

S/N	Stakeholder	Stakeholder Group	Code Name
1	VC's Executive team	1	VCET1
2	Senior Leadership Team	1	SLT1

3	ICZ Board	1	ICD1
4	Project Core team	2A	PCT1
5	Project Core team	2A	PCT2
6	Work Stream team	2B	PWS1
7	Work Stream team	2B	PWS2
8	Work Stream team	2B	PWS3
9	Work Stream team	2B	PWS4
10	Student Rep	3A	SUR1
11	Student Rep	3A	SUR2
12	Student Rep	3A	SUR3
13	Student Rep	3A	SUR4
14	Industry Partner	3B	IP1
15	Industry Partner	3B	IP2
16	Industry Partner	3B	IP3
17	Industry Partner	3B	IP4
18	Industry Partner	3B	IP5
19	Industry Partner	3B	IP6
20	Industry Partner	3B	IP7
21	Industry Partner	3B	IP8
22	Industry Partner	3B	IP9
23	Industry Partner	3B	IP10
24	Industry Partner	3B	IP11
25	University Academic Staff	4A	UAS1
26	University Academic Staff	4A	UAS2
27	University Academic Staff	4A	UAS3
28	University Academic Staff	4A	UAS4
29	University Academic Staff	4A	UAS5
30	University Academic Staff	4A	UAS6
31	University Academic Staff	4A	UAS7
32	University Academic Staff	4A	UAS8

33	University Academic Staff	4A	UAS9
34	University Academic Staff	4A	UAS10
35	University Non-Academic Staff	4B	UNS1
36	University Non-Academic Staff	4B	UNS2
37	University Non-Academic Staff	4B	UNS3

5.10.8: Interviewee Size

According to Mason (2010), the size of a data sample is irrelevant. According to the author, the value of a qualitative research study is based on the quality of data and not the size of data. The researcher aimed to conduct sufficient interviews to establish themes for analysis. Sargeant (2012) highlighted that participant size is not generally predetermined in qualitative research; the size depends on the number required to inform fully all the important elements of the phenomenon being studied. The number of participants is sufficient when the study reaches 'data saturation'. This means that additional interviews do not result in the identification of new concepts. Sargeant (2012) suggested that to determine when data saturation occurs, the analysis of the data should occur concurrently with a collection of data in an iterative cycle. The researcher employed this approach and, after interviewing 37 participants, believed that a saturation status had been reached.

5.11: Focus Group

In addition to semi-structured interviews, the researcher will use focus groups to collect data. The focus group technique is a method of interviewing that involves more than one interviewee. Bryman (2008) suggests that the use of focus groups may help seek for a wide variety of views on a particular issue. The use of focus groups allows important issues that the

participants deem to be important to surface. Individuals will argue with each other often challenging views, which will allow the researcher to find out what people really think. It is instrumental to the interpretivist position of the researcher in reflecting the processes through which meaning is constructed through interaction and discussion between people (Bryman 2008). The literature suggests an ideal focus group size of six to eight (Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls & Ormston 2013), and six to 12 (Bryman and Bell 2015). Focus groups facilitate the in-depth exploration of a specific theme to gauge people's responses to each other's views, building a view of the group interaction (Bryman and Bell 2015). Disadvantages cited in the literature include a lack of applicability compared to methods such as experiments and surveys and lack of consistency/confirmability with interpretation of transcripts, and in-depth interviews are preferable to focus groups, as it is easier to probe issues further (Ritchie, Lewis et al. 2013). This method will be employed in addition to interviews, which minimises the disadvantages.

The researcher will convene the focus groups, which will comprise of a selection of different stakeholder groups relevant to the research area of study. The focus groups would be highly interactive with participants freely discussing their viewpoints on soft skills of the project management team as it relates to the perception of project success. This method will serve to provide valuable insight and collect additional data for the study.

The focus group will allow for a specific theme or topic to be explored in depth. The researcher is particularly interested in the way in which individuals discuss the research issue as members of a group rather than individually, how they respond to each other's views and build up a view out of the interaction that takes place. The researcher will be the moderator of the focus groups. The focus group technique also allows the researcher to develop an understanding of why people feel the way they do. The approach enables people to probe each other's reasons for holding a certain view.

5.12: Documentation

The researcher employed, additionally, the use of the documentation method to collect data for the research. The use of ICZ project documentation for the research helped to validate the evidence gathered from the interviews conducted as well as aided the researcher in suggesting interview questions that were not initially considered. Bowen (2009) stated that

documentation is appropriate for providing supplementary data, tracking change and development, and verifying findings from other data sources. The author pointed out that the use of documentation for gathering data is most effective when events can no longer be observed or when informants have forgotten the details.

According to Bowen (2009), information and insight from documents can help a researcher understand the historical roots of specific issues as well as indicate the conditions affecting the phenomena under study. Data drawn from documents can also be used to contextualise data collected during interviews. The data can also suggest questions that need to be asked and situations that need to be observed. The use of documentation is well emphasised in Goldstein & Reiboldt's (2004) research. The authors explain how interview data helped focus specific observation activities, document analysis helped generate new interview questions, and observation at community events provided opportunities to collect documents" (p. 246).

The literature records the over-reliance of case studies on documentary evidence. Yin (2014) argued that this could happen if the researcher does not have adequate experience and could lead to the mistaking of some types of documents for unmitigated truth. To mitigate against this, the researcher proceeded to determine the existence, accessibility, legitimacy and usefulness of documents of the ICZ project by asking several members of staff including members of the project and workstream teams for documents they had in their possession that could be shared with the researcher. In reviewing the documents, it was important for the researcher to take into account the original purpose of each document, the context in which it was produced, and the intended audience. Some of the documents were also accessed through the ICZ website as well as on the university main website. The different forms of ICZ project documentation that are evaluated include:

- University Strategy 2016 – 2021
- The ICZ Brief
- The ICZ Development Framework
- The ICZ Development Framework Synopsis
- Responding to the Industrial Strategy

- Industry Collaboration Zones
- ICZ Annual Reports
- ICZ Ready Framework and Principles
- The ICZ Ready Curriculum Design Process
- ICZ Project Readiness Slides from Quality and Enhancement Office

Other documents evaluated include documents assessed on the ICZ website, blogs and social media links. Some of these sources include:

https://www.salford.ac.uk/icz

https://www.salford.ac.uk/qeo/iczready

http://staff.salford.ac.uk/newsitem/5602

https://iczsalford.wordpress.com/

https://twitter.com/iczuos?lang=en

http://staff.salford.ac.uk/page/strategic-priorities

The analysis of the documents collected will be presented in the analysis chapter of the thesis.

5.13: Ethical Approval

With reference to the University of Salford's rules and regulations and the guidelines of the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC), the researcher obtained ethical approval (see Appendix 2) from the university ethics committee before proceeding with data collection. All participants were given a copy of the information sheet and consent form to read and sign before each interview (See Appendix 1). Participants were also assured that their information would be kept confidential, and the data anonymised in line with ethical guidelines.

5.14: Strategies to Increase Research Validity

5.14.1 Data Triangulation

The researcher employed the documentation method as a valuable way of triangulating qualitative data collected from the semi-structured interviews. As proposed by Yilmax (2013), this is necessary to overcome the weakness of using one method for the research.

In a bid to develop a rationale for the validity and reliability of data collection, Grima-Farrell (2016) stressed on the importance of using triangulation methods. Triangulation involves a combination of multiple data collection methods to study the same setting, issue, or programme, and has the benefit of overcoming different weaknesses inherent in individual methods, as well as increase the credibility of the findings. It does this by reducing or eliminating errors that are linked to a particular method.

It is important to mention that the initial intent of the researcher in designing the research was to include the use of non-participant observation (direct observation) as an additional triangulation method. The researcher planned to attend ICZ workshops and meetings to observe participants directly in their natural environments as an opportunity for greater involvement with the research participants, to check definitions of terms that participants used at interviews, and to observe situations that participants had described in interviews. These sessions were believed to insightfully inform the research.

However, this did not happen as anticipated due to limitations posed by the timing of the study as well as difficulty in successfully attending the events. Two (2) workshops that the researcher was scheduled to attend were both cancelled due to a poor number of attendees. In the course of the research, the researcher attended 'The Creative Entrepreneur' event with the hopes of engaging with industry partners to get a feel for their perception about the project. This resulted in the interview of 3 key industry partners (included in the interview data). However, the researcher did not consider this event as a sufficient means of observing ICZ stakeholders or project activities and so decided not to include the observation data in the study.

More so, the commencement of data collection for the research was at a period of the project closure and handover phases of the project. This period saw the disbanding of the project office and replacement with an operations office and recruitment of operations team personnel to carry on the project deliverables as 'business as usual'. Therefore, the timing was not adequate as a majority of project-related events had already been completed. This left the researcher with the alternative of attending monitoring and evaluation events as well as events that came up in implementing the ICZ strategy. The researcher maintained close links with schedulers of these events to gain first-hand information about any events that came up. The researcher also continually researched the events section of the university's advantage site in order not to miss any events, which could potentially be sources of observation data.

5.14.2: Reliability and Validity

The concept of validity in qualitative study suggests that the study findings are accurate or true from the standpoint of the researcher as well as from participants and the readers of the study (Creswell & Miller, 2000). The concept of reliability suggests that the process of the study is consistent over time and across different researchers and different methods or projects (Gibbs, 2007; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Several researchers have discussed criteria for the concepts of reliability and validity in qualitative research (Adler, Faraone, Spencer, Michelson, Reimherr, Glatt & Biederman (2008). One of such criteria, and adopted by this study, is Lincoln and Guba's (1985) parallel criteria of reliability and validity to assess the rigour of qualitative research - the concepts of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability express the quantitative concepts of internal validity, external validity (generalisability), reliability, and objectivity respectively. The table below (Table 5.10) illustrates Lincoln and Guba (1985) criteria for judging the quality of a qualitative versus quantitative research study based on the parallel criteria.

Table 5.10: Criteria for Judging the Quality of a Research Study: Quantitative vs. Qualitative Terms

Aspect	Quantitative terms	Qualitative terms
Truth value	Internal validity	Credibility
Applicability	External validity or generalizability	Transferability
Consistency	Reliability	Dependability
Neutrality	Objectivity	Confirmability

Source: Adapted from Lincoln and Guba (1985)

These qualitative criteria highlighted in Table 5.10 are explained as follows:

- Credibility means that the participants involved in the study find the results of the study true or credible. It refers to how well the researcher's portrayal of participants matches the participant's perceptions (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008).
- Transferability is the degree to which the study has made it possible for the reader to apply the findings in the situations investigated to such other similar situations (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). It is achieved if the findings of a qualitative study are transferable to other similar settings. A thick description of the setting, context, people, actions, and events studied is needed to ensure transferability.
- Dependability is based on the quality of the data collection and analysis (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) and is assessed by explaining that the research systematically studied what it claimed to study (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The study has dependability if the process of selecting, justifying and applying research strategies, procedures and methods is clearly explained and its effectiveness evaluated by the researcher and confirmed by an auditor of the study.
- Confirmability is ensured when research findings are based on the analysis of the collected data and examined via an auditing process i.e., the auditor confirms that the study findings are grounded in the data and inferences based on the data are logical and have clarity, high utility or explanatory power.

In addition to the above criteria, Oates (2006) added that paying attention to trustworthiness criteria when planning, conducting, and documenting research is vital to convincing readers and, in particular, examiners that the research is of high quality.

These quality considerations, in relation to this study, are discussed in the Analysis chapter of the thesis.

5.15: Analyse Case Study Evidence

The following section details the ideas that the researcher has about analysing the data collected. The researcher recognises the need to have a strategy to analyse the data collected for the study, and in so doing, achieve the research aims, objectives as well as answer the research questions. Yin (2014) suggested that having an analytic strategy guides the decision of what will be analysed and the reason for the analysis. As a strategy, the researcher plans to rely on an analysis of the data based on the theoretical propositions that led to the use of the case study. Due to the qualitative method of data collection adopted for this research, the data collected will be analysed using a qualitative thematic analysis.

The qualitative thematic analysis approach supports the inductive nature of this research by allowing themes to emerge directly from the data in a bid to induct theory. Boyatzis (1998, pg. 1) defined a theme as "a pattern in the information that, at a minimum, describes and organises the possible observations, and at maximum, interprets aspects of the phenomenon" (p. 161). The process of thematic analysis involves the searching for themes that emerge as being important to the description of the phenomenon under study, comparison of these themes, interpretation of the data and presentation of what has been learnt in answering the research questions (Patton, 2005; Bryman and Bell 2015). It also involves a careful review of the data to perform coding and category construction, based on the data characteristics (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006). Coding involves recognising something important, encoding it by organising the data to identify and develop themes from it and then interpreting what it all means. Boyatzis (1998, pg. 1) stated that a "good code" is one that captures the qualitative richness of the phenomenon.

Braun and Clarke's (2012) suggested a six-phase process for presenting themes in conducting thematic analysis which includes: familiarisation with the data; generating initial codes; searching for themes; reviewing potential themes; defining and naming themes; and producing the report. After defining and naming these themes, they are then matched to themes from the literature review for comparison, contrasting and similarities (Bazeley and Richards, 2000). Rather than use a manual process to conduct the thematic analysis, the researcher employed the use of the Nvivo 11 software to carry out the thematic analysis of the data. The following section discusses the process employed by the researcher.

5.16: Themes Development using Nvivo

The researcher employed the use of Nvivo 11 application to carry out a thematic analysis of the data. Nvivo is a sophisticated computer software package suitable for a deep level of qualitative data analysis on small or large volumes of data to organise and keep track of many messy records (Bazeley and Jackson, 2013). The use of the application enabled the researcher to work more efficiently as it facilitated the storage, organisation and retrieval of interview data through an iterative process of exploring, coding, reflecting, creating memos and then recoding, querying and so on. Figure 5.3 highlights the path taken by the researcher in identifying and investigating the themes with Nvivo. An example of the 'ambitious scope of the project' code is used to demonstrate the path.

The transcripts were imported into Nvivo 11 as source materials. The researcher then defined a node structure and coded the source materials into existing nodes. These nodes are termed as sub-themes for the purpose of discussion in the Findings chapter. The researcher carefully read and reread through the 37 interview transcripts several times. According to Rice & Ezzy, (1999, p. 258), familiarisation of the data is conducted through "careful reading and re-reading of the data. In doing this, the researcher found that the participants repeatedly referred to certain items and, in some cases, used the same terms several times, for example – ambitious nature of the project (sub-theme 2). These repetitions indicated to the researcher that these items were important and recurring themes in the data. The researcher displayed the relationships among these ideas by writing the ideas down and connecting them with lines and

explanations. The researcher was careful not to allow the data to be overly influenced by her own stance in order to avoid important data being lost. The next chapter (Chapter 6) presents each of these themes with evidence of participants' comments that correspond to the themes.

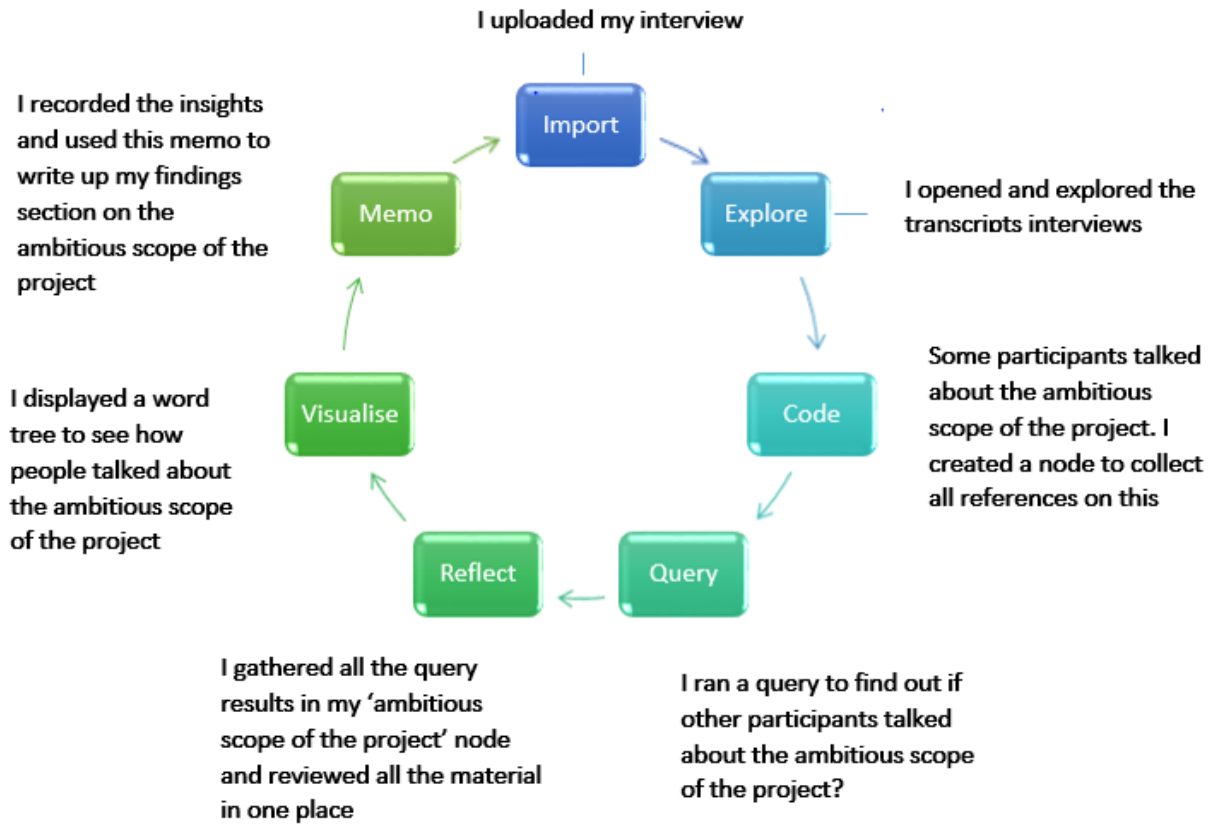


Figure 5.3: Themes Development illustrated for Theme 4- Ambitious scope of project

5.17: Summary of Chapter

In summarising the chapter, the researcher presents the outline methodological framework that was introduced in Chapter 1 (Figure 5.4).

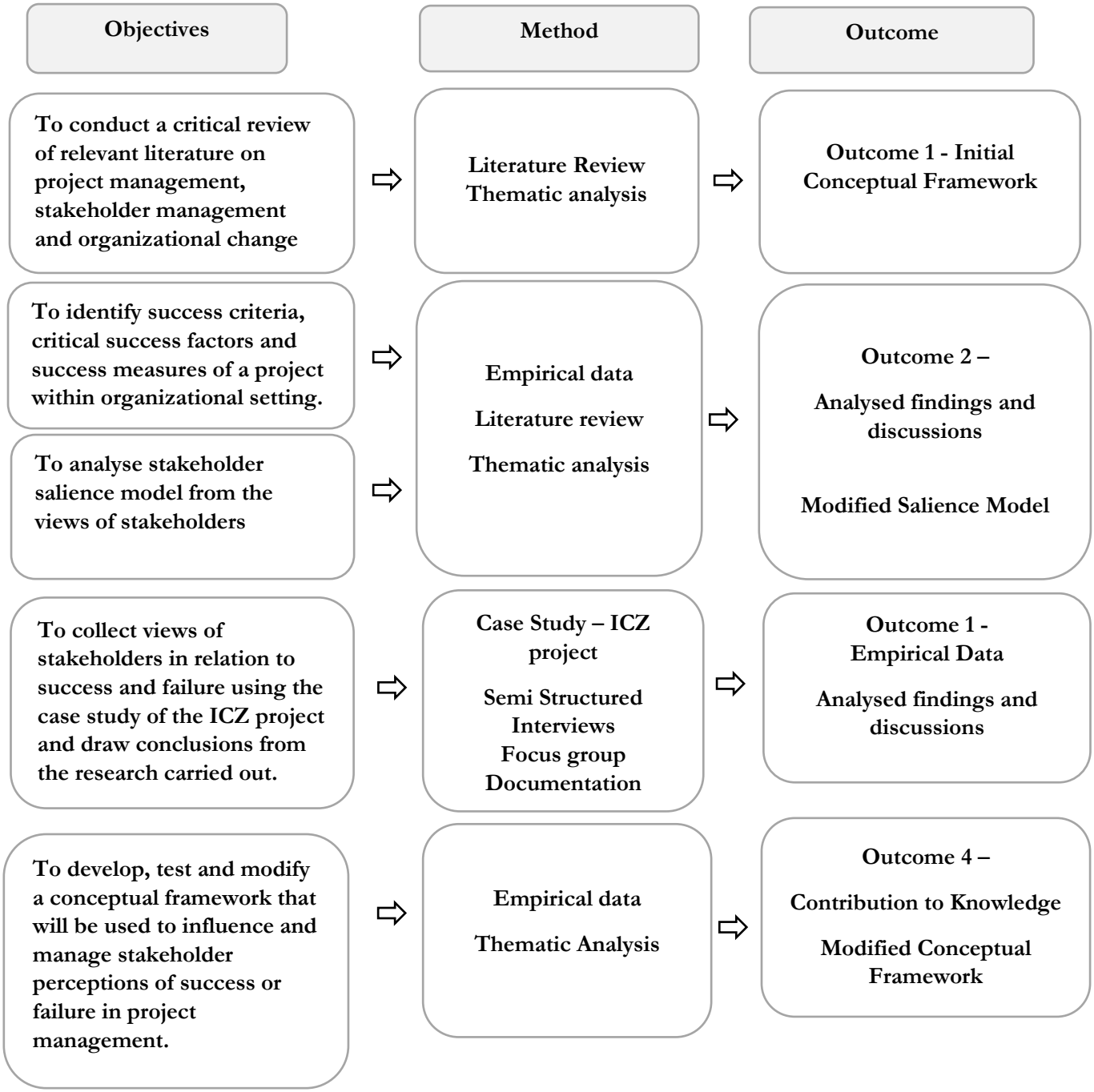


Figure 5.4: Outline methodological framework designed by the researcher

The framework represents the research process, from how the different elements of the research and the discussions of this report fit together - from the identification of the research aim and questions to the researcher's choice of a social constructivist and interpretivist research paradigm, to the qualitative approach adopted, to the case study strategy that was

derived from the approach, to the interview and documentation data collection methods, and thematic analysis for the research.

This chapter has discussed the research approach and methodological choices made for this qualitative research. It discussed the case study strategy employed, explaining in detail the justification for the use of a single case, which was primarily due to the revelatory nature of the case and the need to gain rich and in-depth information from participants. It discussed the design for carrying out the case study, highlighted the selection criteria and techniques employed by the researcher as well as justification for the choices. It discussed the semi-structured interview and documentation methods of data collection used as well as the ethical considerations employed by the researcher. Finally, it discussed the strategy for analysing the data collected. The next chapter discusses the findings of the research.

CHAPTER 6: FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

6.1: Introduction to Chapter

The previous chapter discussed in detail the research method used for the study. It highlighted the strategy behind the interview questions and how the researcher developed themes from the transcripts of 37 interviews conducted with the aid of the Nvivo software. This chapter presents the findings of the study. The researcher draws from the comments made by the participants using the transcripts of the recorded interviews. A copy of one of the transcripts has been attached in Appendix 4 and transcripts from other interviews are available electronically. In this chapter, the researcher attempts to construct an understanding of the phenomenon by asking participants questions that have been drafted from the five research questions; the answers to these are used in verbatim. The researcher has structured the discussion based on the themes that arise based on each research question. The themes emerged from issues raised across the different stakeholder groups and are classified according to the research questions that they correspond with. The research questions and scope of the research were continually modified to fit with the data that was emerging from the research, as is characteristic of interpretivist study.

The first research question **RQ 1: Which stakeholders are the most important based on different stakeholder perceptions of success**? - was aimed at gaining an understanding of project stakeholder salience (importance) from different stakeholder perceptions and how this could benefit project management. Participants were asked if they considered themselves to be stakeholders of the project and how important they believed stakeholders were in relation to others. In coding the participants' responses, the "stakeholder definitions", and "measures of stakeholder importance" themes emerged.

The second research question **RQ 2: Is stakeholder classification related to the stakeholders' understanding of projects? –** was aimed at finding out if stakeholder classification was related to stakeholders' understanding of the project. Participants were asked about their understanding of the project. In coding the participants' responses, the "different strengths of project understanding" theme emerged.

The third research question **RQ 3: What are the challenges of successful project delivery within an academic organisational context?** - was aimed at understanding the challenges of project implementation within an organisational context. The researcher asked the participants about the barriers and challenges faced during the project as well as the lessons learnt from the implementation of the project. In coding the participants' responses, the following 8 themes emerged: ambiguity and lack of clarity of project goals; ambitious scope of project; lack of structures for account management; resourcing and time constraints; confusing zone terminology in project name; resistance to project as a label; attainment of 'business as usual'; organisational environment impact on project.

The fourth research question **RQ 4: How do stakeholders judge the success of the project within the organisation and what criteria do they base their judgement on?** - was aimed at understanding how stakeholders judged the success of a project, the criteria that they based their judgements on and the critical success factors in implementing the project. Participants were asked the extent to which they believed the project was successful and the reasons for their responses. In coding the participants' responses, the following seven themes emerged: judging success based on project visibility and awareness; judging success based on stakeholder engagement; judging success based on communication; different perception levels of success; culture change takes time; benefits realisation takes time; what success looks like

The fifth research question **RQ 5: What project management aspects have impacted on stakeholders' views of the ICZ project? -** was aimed at understanding how participants viewed the management of the project and what aspects they considered important that contributed to their views of the project. Participants were asked about skills they considered important in delivering the project and aspects of the management of the project that contributed to their views. The project team and workstream team were also asked if they did anything to influence stakeholder perception and what these were. In coding the participants' responses, the following theme emerged as a result: soft project management skills.

The following table 6.1 illustrates the nineteen themes classified according to the research questions that they correspond with

Table 6.1: Nineteen themes classified according to corresponding research questions

Research Questions	Researcher's Aim	Themes
RQ 1: Which stakeholders are the most important based on different stakeholder perceptions of success?	• To understand project stakeholder salience (importance) from different stakeholder perceptions and how this could benefit project management.	Theme 1: Stakeholder definitions Theme 2: Measures of stakeholder importance
RQ 2: Is stakeholder classification related to the stakeholders' understanding of projects?	• Is stakeholder classification related to stakeholders' understanding of the project?	Theme 3: Different strengths of project understanding
RQ 3: What are the challenges of successful project delivery within an academic organisational context.	• What are the lessons to be learnt from implementing projects within organisations? • What organisational factors influence project management?	Theme 4: Ambiguity and non-clarity of project goals Theme 5: Ambitious scope of project Theme 6: Lack of structures for account management Theme 7: Resourcing and time constraints Theme 8: Confusing zone terminology in the project name Theme 9: Resistance to project as a label

		Theme 10: Attainment of 'business as usual' Theme 11: Organisational environment impact on project
RQ 4: How do stakeholders judge the success of the selected project within the organisation and what criteria do they base their judgement on?	• To what extent do stakeholders believe the project to have been successful? • What are their criteria for judging success? • What are the critical success factors in implementing the ICZ project?	Theme 12: Judging success based on project visibility and awareness Theme 13: Judging success based on stakeholder engagement Theme 14: Judging success based on communication Theme 15: Different perception levels of success Theme 16: Culture change takes time! Theme 17: Benefits realisation takes time! Theme 18: What success looks like
RQ 5: What project management aspects have impacted on stakeholders' views of the ICZ project?	• What project management skills are considered important in delivering the project • What aspects of the management of the project most contributed to these views?	Theme 19: Soft project management skills

The thirty-seven interviews conducted resulted in over 200,000 words of transcribed interview data. In preparing the chapter, the researcher was inundated with a high word count that exceeded the limit for the thesis. The researcher proceeded to bring this down by only using extracts that corresponded with each theme in this chapter (detailed transcripts are contained in Appendix 4). This was done to simplify the findings chapter for discussion purposes. The extracts are signposted accordingly.

The researcher discussed the strategy of identifying and developing themes using the NVivo software in the previous chapter. This chapter discusses each theme, explaining the extent to which the themes relate to the five research questions. Some of the themes overlap. The chapter concludes with a summary of the important issues discussed. The following table 6.2 highlights the participants whose transcripts were used in preparing the chapter.

Table 6.2: Participants' transcripts used for findings chapter

S/N	Stakeholder	Stakeholder Group	Code Name
1	VC's Executive team	1	VCET1
2	Senior Leadership Team	1	SLT1
3	ICZ Board	1	ICD1
4	Project Core team	2A	PCT1
5	Project Core team	2A	PCT2
6	Work Stream team	2B	PWS1
7	Work Stream team	2B	PWS2
8	Work Stream team	2B	PWS3
9	Work Stream team	2B	PWS4
10	Student Rep	3A	SUR1
11	Student Rep	3A	SUR2
12	Student Rep	3A	SUR3

13	Student Rep	3A	SUR4
14	Industry Partner	3B	IP1
15	Industry Partner	3B	IP2
16	Industry Partner	3B	IP3
17	Industry Partner	3B	IP4
18	Industry Partner	3B	IP5
19	Industry Partner	3B	IP6
20	Industry Partner	3B	IP7
21	Industry Partner	3B	IP8
22	Industry Partner	3B	IP9
23	Industry Partner	3B	IP10
24	Industry Partner	3B	IP11
25	University Academic Staff	4A	UAS1
26	University Academic Staff	4A	UAS2
27	University Academic Staff	4A	UAS3
28	University Academic Staff	4A	UAS4
29	University Academic Staff	4A	UAS5
30	University Academic Staff	4A	UAS6
31	University Academic Staff	4A	UAS7
32	University Academic Staff	4A	UAS8
33	University Academic Staff	4A	UAS9
34	University Academic Staff	4A	UAS10
35	University Non-Academic Staff	4B	UNS1

36	University Non-Academic Staff	4B	UNS2
37	University Non-Academic Staff	4B	UNS3

The following section is a summary of the findings grouped under nineteen themes. This resulted from the 37 interviews and students focus group conducted by the researcher across the different stakeholder groups. Supporting evidence of the participants' comments for each theme are contained in Appendix 6.

RQ 1: Which stakeholders are the most important based on different stakeholder perceptions of success?

The first research question was aimed at gaining an understanding of stakeholder salience (importance) in project management from the perception of different stakeholders. Participants were asked if they considered themselves to be stakeholders of the project and how important they believed stakeholders were in relation to others. In coding the participants' responses, the "stakeholder definitions", and "measures of stakeholder importance" themes emerged. The following sections discuss these themes.

6.2: Theme 1: Stakeholder Definitions

In exploring all 37 transcripts, the researcher found that all participants in Group 1 and Group 2 considered themselves to be stakeholders of the project. While some members of Group 3 believed that they were stakeholders, other members were not sure if they were stakeholders or not. For example, all Group 4 stakeholders believed that they were stakeholders by virtue of being members of staff of the university.

The findings from this theme suggest that the position of a stakeholder is out of choice. People are not asked if they choose to be a stakeholder of a project or not, they simply are or are not. Whether someone is a stakeholder or not, therefore, depends on how we define who a stakeholder is. It was necessary to further explore what the different stakeholder groups perceived to be the aims and objectives of the project as a first step in ascertaining if the stakeholders believed that the project achieved these objectives or not. Full evidence of comments highlighting this theme are contained in Appendix 6.

6.3: Theme 2: Measures of Stakeholder Importance

When asked about which stakeholder group was considered to be more important in the view of the participants, some participants suggested that students were more important while others said they believed that the industry partners were more important. The reason given for believing that students and industry partners were more important was the consideration of the central aim and vision of the project.

Some other stakeholders had different views about the importance of stakeholders, stating that this was dependent on different stages of the project while others believed that stakeholders balanced each other out. The responses suggest that the participants' perceptions varied on their measures of different levels of stakeholder importance. It appeared that participants placed value on other stakeholders based on the aim of the project and what they believed the project was trying to achieve.

RQ 2: Is stakeholder classification related to the stakeholders' understanding of projects?

The second research question was aimed at finding out if stakeholder classification was related to stakeholders' understanding of the project. Participants were asked about their understanding of the project. In coding the participants' responses, the "different strengths of project understanding" theme emerged. The following is a discussion of these themes.

6.4: Theme 3: Different Strengths of Project Understanding

This section discusses comments highlighting the different levels of project understanding across the different stakeholder groups. It was clear from the data that different participants had different levels of understanding of the project. This is discussed categorically in the section.

Group 1 and 2

Group 1 (VCET, ICD and SLT) participants demonstrated that they had a good understanding of the objectives of the project as well as the wider organisational strategy in initiating the project. Group 2 participants also demonstrated that they had a good understanding of the objectives of the project as well as hands-on experience in its management and implementation. The responses also showed that Group 2 participants had a good understanding of their roles going into the project and each related to the project in their own way.

Group 3 – SUR

In contrary to other groups, the responses from Group 3 members revealed that the majority of student union representatives (SUR) had not heard about the ICZ project with the exception of one student (SUR1) who showed a good understanding of the project. The researcher was forced to explain the project to the other SUR participants, together with its aims and objectives. After explaining the project to the members, the researcher found that all the participants expressed positive views about the project's mission. One student (SUR4) saw a positive link between the project and their personal aspirations for attending the university.

Group 3 – IP

A majority of the industry partners (IP) stated that they did not know about the project. The participants, rather, had views about their experiences collaborating with the university as industry partners. The participants' views suggested that they were working in one way or another in a capacity related to the project. The researcher considered these views as reflective of the IPs' perception of the project and was supported by comments from some participants who realised that they had been part of the ICZ project without being aware.

The consensus among the IP participants was that it was massively important for the university to be involved in the ICZ project and industry collaborations in general. Some participants including IP2, IP7, IP1, IP6, IP11, IP9, IP10, IP4, commended the University for initiating the project and acknowledged that it was one of mutual benefit. IP11, however, did not believe they were part of the project. In IP10's view, the project would be beneficial in creating the much-needed structure in future engagements with the university rather than the norm of contacting the university as and when students were needed.

Group 4 - UAS and UNS

The responses suggest that staff members, both academic and non-academic staff, had a good understanding of the ICZ project. SLT1 was certain that everyone in the organisation knew about the project. This comment from SLT was found to be disproved by students and industry partners as a majority said they did not know about the project. An interesting find was that

while staff members seemed to agree on knowing about the project, it was evident that some of the same participants did not clearly understand the project.

PWS1 agreed with this view and PWS4 was convinced that a better understanding would develop over time. Other UAS and UNS participants, however, stated that they understood the project and what it was trying to achieve.

As can be seen with this theme, the level of understanding of the project varied according to the groups that the participants belonged to. Participants in Groups 1 and 2 showed that they had a clear understanding of the project while participants in Group 3 showed that they had a weaker understanding of the project. While Group 4 participants said they knew about the project, some of the participants did not fully understand it. There is clearly a difference between the knowledge of a project and a full understanding of it. While some stakeholders showed that they had a good understanding of the project, this was not the case across board. This was particularly relevant to the majority of SUR and IP stakeholders who said they did not know or understand the project.

RQ 3: What are the challenges of successful project delivery within an academic organisational context?

Research question three (3) was aimed at understanding the challenges of project delivery within an organisational context. The researcher asked the participants about the barriers and challenges faced during the project as well as the lessons learnt from the implementation of the project. In coding the participants' responses, the following 8 themes emerged: ambiguity and lack of clarity of project goals; ambitious scope of project; lack of structures for account management; resourcing and time constraints; confusing zone terminology in project name; resistance to project as a label; attainment of 'business as usual'; organisational environment impact on project. The following sections discuss these themes.

6.5: Theme 4: Ambiguity and Lack of Clarity of Project Goals

A theme that emerged was the ambiguity and lack of clarity of project goals in the perception of the participants. This theme was found to overlap with theme 2 - different strengths of

understanding of the project – and quite significantly with theme 13 – judging success based on communications.

The majority of the participants agreed that the goals of the project were not always clear and remained ambiguous throughout the lifecycle of the project. For example, despite displaying a good understanding of the project goals, objectives and roles, PCT2 conflicted their comments when asked about challenges of implementing the project. According to PCT2, it would have been easier to have aids such as creatives for direction in implementing the project. UAS7 echoed this view.

Another issue raised was the lack of clarity of the project's strategy itself. It was suggested that the agility of the project delivery, in addition to the lack of clarity about the aims of the project, led to more questions than answers. A reason suggested for the ambiguity of the project was not having enough consultation with stakeholders that had 'power' prior to the project. This, in PCT2's view, would have helped the team better understand the challenges that they were up against and be more prepared to face them. PWS2 agreed with this view.

As seen, the comments of the participants suggested that there was a general feeling of lack of clarity in project goals, objectives and activities. Even participants that were found to display a good understanding of the strategy behind the project suggested that it was not always clear to them what the 2-year project was trying to achieve. This, according to the participants, impacted on their view of the success of the project. This suggests that there was an issue with the clarity of project goals across the stakeholder groups and that project goals and objectives should automatically not be assumed to be clear or realistic, even if the project has been implemented for some time. While some goals and objectives remain constant throughout the life of a project, others may evolve or need to be redefined periodically. In practice, goals and objectives often need to be clarified or sharpened in response to the requirements of the organisation.

6.6: Theme 5: Ambitious Scope of Project

The findings suggest that most participants were concerned that the project was overly ambitious. Some participants including the project team, workstream team, academic and

non-academic staff said so and agreed on the ambitious nature of the work that was required in the 2-year timeframe set to deliver the project. For example, five out of the thirty-seven participants referred to the term 'ambitious' in describing the scope of the project. Other participants repeatedly referred to ideas associated with the project being overly ambitious. These repetitions indicated to the researcher that these ideas were important and a recurring theme from the findings.

The researcher found that this theme relates back to participants' understanding of the scope of the project. Whether the project is ambitious or not depends on what stakeholders believe to be the scope of it. It is important, hence, to understand the scope of a project in order to judge whether the project has delivered on that scope or not.

6.7: Theme 6: Lack of Structures for Account Management

This theme relates to account management, which was evidently an important issue to the participants, as eight out of thirty-seven participants raised the issue of account management when discussing barriers and challenges in implementing the project. Account management, in the context of the project, is the management of the different accounts that existing and potential industry partners bring to the university including placements, live briefs, internships, KTPS, sponsorship of master's and PhD studies, guest lectures, and the use of facilities. The management of the accounts requires processes and structures in place as well as time to manage the accounts. A core project team (PCT) participant noted that most of the challenges arose from the realisation that changes needed to be made across different departments and schools as well as ask people to work in a different way without a corresponding alignment of existing university systems and structures with the changes required for the new industry structures.

In summarising the views, it was clear that the project strategy was centred on industry partnerships. Therefore, a key deliverable of the strategy and the project was the establishment of proper structures and roles in place to support a different way of working with industry. This was suggested to be achievable through effective account management. The project also required that changes be made across different departments and schools with the expectation that people would adjust their work patterns in line with the changes required.

However, many participants were concerned that the project did not have the necessary structures for managing partnerships in place. This, in their views, set the project up for failure.

6.8: Theme 7: Resourcing and Time Constraints

Out of the thirty-seven participants, twelve raised issues relating to the time and resource constraints of the project. These issues were suggested to contribute to the project not attaining the level of success that it could have reached.

The project team members described the project as enjoying a high level of senior management buy-in because of it being a strategic priority for the organisation. PCT1, however, commented that a barrier was spending too much time reporting upwards. A workstream team member PWS2 raised the issue of not having enough time to commit to workstream activities. The issue of resources was also raised as a constraint for the project. PWS1 commented that apart from the core project team that was working to deliver the project as full-time roles, every other resource on the project were seconded to the project or an add-on to the project and so had restrictions in terms of the time they could commit to the project in addition to their daily roles.

UAS6 related the time constraints experienced by staff to leadership, stating that the university and project leadership did not utilise its staff resource as it could have. PWS4 reflected the same view and in UAS9's view, the project required much more time than it was given. Some participants also raised the issue of the time it took for the project to properly kick-off. This, in their views, impacted on a buy-in for the project, and negatively on the project. UAS1 believed that activities could have been made to run concurrently to meet up with the timeframe of the project. PWS1 believed that more engagement with staff could have been achieved if more workshops had been organised and attributed this to resourcing and timing issues.

This theme suggests that there were significant issues with timing and resourcing, both in staff not having enough time to commit to project activities, as well as the constraints imposed on the 2-year timeframe for project activities to be completed. The relationship between timing and resource is apparent in the sense that the lack of adequate resources for project activities

impacted on existing staff being able to tackle the workload and at the same time meet up with project deliverables.

6.9: Theme 8: Confusing Zone Terminology in Project Name

The comments from participants suggested that the terminology of the project name impacted on stakeholders' perception of the project. The terminology was said to be confusing for some to understand especially as it denoted that there was a physical space (zone) where project affairs were expected to happen. This perception was reflected across all the groups of participants.

Some participants described the zone as being 'handed down' to them to work with without consultation or engagement of the name. PWS2 mirrored this view in his statement describing the zones as a limiting factor while PCT2 stated emphatically that the project name was a barrier as it meant that there were difficulties in being able to develop a collective understanding with stakeholders, which led to push backs from stakeholders. Not having a clear idea of the terminology in UAS8's view was a communication and leadership issue.

This theme suggests that there was an issue with the terminologies used in communicating the project's message to stakeholders, which impacted on the buy-in for the project. The term 'zone' gave the notion of a physical space, which was confusing for stakeholders and inevitably limited buy-in for the project. An important issue here is the implication that different stakeholders had different understandings of the term 'zone' in the project name. This theme can be seen to overlap with Theme 2, as it is an illustration of the different understanding of people on the project and its objectives. Though there appeared to be an issue with the terminologies used in communicating the project, the fundamental issue is that different stakeholders had different understandings of the project and its objectives. This suggests that a collective understanding or agreement of the project may have had a different impact on the project.

6.10: Theme 9: Resistance to Project as a Label

Similar to the previous theme, this theme discusses the perception of the project as a label, which led to a resistance to buy-in. A majority of the participants believed that the project was merely a label for activities that were already being carried out by staff members with their individual partners. According to a majority of the participants, there was a feeling among staff members that they were already espousing the principles of the project in their daily work activities, therefore, the project was unnecessary. In UAS3's opinion, for example, the project had not made any difference to industry partners. One participant (UAS3) also referred to the project as common sense and a product from consultants.

In UNS3's view, a clear message of how the project was different would have helped mitigate the problem of perceiving it as a label. In response to the argument that the project activities were already being carried out by staff and that the project was another label, some participants justified the need for the project and its approach. When asked what could have been done better with the project, PWS1 suggested that the project's message could have been simpler.

The findings from this theme suggest that there was some confusion about the project in terms of what was different from what the university was already doing and had been doing since the inception of the university. A clearer communication in the message of the project in terms of how the project was different might have helped mitigate the risk of resistance to the project and led to much greater buy-in. Again, this is another illustration of the perception of different levels of understanding of the project and its objectives from stakeholders.

6.11: Theme 10: Attainment of 'Business as Usual'

A terminology that was used a lot by most of the participants was the phrase or slogan - 'business as usual". It was suggested to mean the achievement of an operationalised setting at the end of the 2-year project – a deliverable where industry becomes ingrained in the heart of the university. The theme resulted from views participants had on the project not having reached its objectives of operationalising the project within the university. Some participants

(e.g. PWS2) suggested that the business as usual status should be seen only as a beginning of the change needed at the university. However, other participants like UAS3 was sceptical about the project delivering any sort of change.

The 'business as usual' state would mean that the project's strategy was now embedded in the day to day running of the organisation and the culture was seen to have changed. A majority of the participants did not believe that such a state had been achieved. One participant was particularly sceptical of the project and didn't believe anything would change and referred to the project as a PR stunt. Some participants opined that the university should have adopted the use of models that were already seen to be working as a way forward for the project.

6.12: Theme 11: Organisational Environment Impact on Project

The 'organisational environment impact on project' theme highlights participants' views on the organisational context that instituted the project environment. These consisted of views on pressures of work, existing silos, organisational politics and rigid organisational structures that were characteristic of the working environment of the university. The majority of the participants were of the view that these factors impeded on the delivery of the project.

The recurrent issue raised was that people from different areas of the university appeared to be working with the same industry partners without sharing information with other members of staff. This led to the duplicity of efforts, not working 'smart' and the perception that the university was not coordinated in its dealings with industry partners. For example, some participants raised the issue of silo working as a characteristic prevalent within the university. The comments suggested that there was an existing issue with internal staff not talking to one another in managing accounts with outside partners. Several comments suggested that the project team felt constrained because of the structures in the university. The physical location of the offices of the project team was also raised as a constraint. Another constraint raised was the setup of the project governance structure, which, in some participants view, impacted on the implementation of the project. This inadvertently encouraged the silo working that the project was aiming to eradicate.

In the views of the participants, the issues raised, which were characteristic of the contextual environment that the project was being implemented in, impeded the delivery of the project. The rigidity of the systems, as well as the setup of the project governance structure, were perceived to have encouraged the silo working that the project was aiming to eradicate.

RQ 4: How do stakeholders judge the success of the project within the organisation?

Research question four (4) was aimed at understanding how stakeholders judged the success of a project, the criteria that they based their judgements on and the critical success factors in implementing the project. Participants were asked the extent to which they believed the project was successful and the reasons for their responses. In coding the participants' responses, the following seven themes emerged: judging success based on project visibility and awareness; judging success based on stakeholder engagement; judging success based on communication; different perception levels of success; culture change takes time; benefits realisation takes time; what success looks like. These themes are discussed in the following sections.

6.13: Theme 12: Judging Success Based on Project Visibility and Awareness

The 'judging success based on project visibility and awareness' theme discusses participants' perception of the visibility of the project among stakeholders as well as their awareness of the project. It was apparent from the findings that the project's visibility and awareness within the organisation played a big role in shaping stakeholders' views about the project. Some participants believed that the project had done what it set out to do which was to embed the message of the project in the university. It had also made people start to think about how the project interacted with their role within the university. These stakeholders believed the project had been successful judging by this single criterion.

While some believed that the project had been visible enough and considered it to be a success based on this criterion, others suggested that more marketing of the project would have influenced their views of success of the project. The fundamental issue observed from the discussions on this theme again is the recurring relevance of participants' understanding of the aim of the project and its objectives. The comments from participants have shown that project

visibility and awareness were significant criteria for success for staff and student participants. IP participants were reluctant to judge the success of the project, rather, they spoke of their good working relationship with the organisation. All members of the project team, workstream team, academic and non-academic staff participants believed that the project had successfully entered into the consciousness of the university. These views were conflicted by student stakeholders as the majority of the students interviewed said that they did not know about the project and, on this basis, did not consider it successful. Participants disagreed on the need for students to know about the project. These findings further highlight the differences in views between the participants.

6.14: Theme 13: Judging Success Based on Stakeholder Engagement

This theme discusses stakeholder engagement across the different stakeholder groups. Like the 'project visibility and awareness' theme, it was apparent that 'stakeholder engagement' was another criterion that participants based their perceptions of the project on. In the project sponsor and project team's view, the project was well promoted and visible to the participants. However, from the perception of other participants, it was apparent that there were issues with staff engagement. It was found that stakeholder engagement was an important factor in the participants' perceptions about the project. Some participants believed that engagement from senior management was lacking. For example, when asked about stakeholder engagement for the project, SLT1 stated that there was a shortfall in engagement and that the project had concentrated on planning and not engagement.

From the responses, the researcher gathered that the project team, as part of the workstreams, organised workshops, as part of the project implementation, to communicate the project's message as well as other events to prepare staff for the impact of project. They were avenues for people to come together to see how they could work together with the change project. A majority of the staff members said they could only assess the success of the project based on their perception of the workshops, as these were the only point of touch for most of them. Some participants, however, described the information they were given at the workshops as dissemination information rather than proper consultation and engagement with staff. Others believed that while the project team had tried to engage with staff through

the workshops and events, there were time constraints as a result of the workload of the participants. Some of the industry partner (IP) stakeholders agreed that they had good communication links with their university contacts while some stated that the communication had only started to improve.

6.15: Theme 14: Judging Success Based on Communication

This theme highlights discussions of the project's strategy of communicating the project to stakeholders, which was one of the main workstreams of the project. The section also discussed the views of stakeholders on different communication strategies. It was found that all participants made mention of their views on communication regarding the project. An issue of importance for the project team was the need for a communication strategy for stakeholders. According to the project team, communicating the project strategy to stakeholders was facilitated through a good working relationship with other communication teams within the university such as marketing, external relations, and internal communications team. The use of adequate language that was accessible to people was also highlighted as important. It was also important for the team to make use of ambassadors to influence and communicate the strategy to other stakeholders.

One student (SUR3) stated that lecturers were the biggest links to students, therefore having lecturers carry the message of the project to students would have been the best and surest way to get students engaged with the project. In some students' views (e.g., SUR3 and SUR2) the project was not successful due to it failing to achieve effective communication to the students. Another common theme that was linked to communication was the need for communication to be as simple as possible and of interest to the stakeholders.

In summarising the views on this theme, it was clear that this was a strong theme that overlapped with all other themes discussed by the participants. Different aspects related to communication came up several times from discussions with participants. The discussions highlighted that the use of ambassadors, different communication channels and project sponsor support was necessary in communicating the project strategy.

6.16: Theme 15: Different Perception Levels of Success

The preceding section on 'different levels of project understanding' showed that different groups of stakeholders had different levels of understanding of the project. This theme additionally highlights different views from different stakeholders in relation to the success of the project. Pursuant to **RQ 4: How do stakeholders judge the success of the project within the organisation?** this theme was developed from responses to questions on the extent to which stakeholders believed the project to have been successful and their criteria for judging success.

It was found that there were mixed views from the participants. Some participants described aspects of the project that they found successful and gave justifications for their answers. Other participants answered the question less directly. The consensus among the project team, however, was that the team had achieved what they set out to achieve, therefore, it was a success in their eyes. Other participants, however, were sceptical about the achievements of the project and put this down to having wrong expectations about the project.

The fundamental issue observed from the discussions on this theme, again, is the recurring relevance of the discussions to participants' understanding of the aim of the project and its objectives. One participant measured the success of the project on whether the strategy had changed in the 2 years and because it had not, thought it was a success. Whereas another participant believed it was not a success because it had not changed anything at all. It appears that the perception of success or failure of the project is dependent on what the participants believed that the project was trying to achieve. For example, the perception that the project was aimed at changing the culture of the university was met with responses of it being a failure as this had not been achievable in the 2 years. The perception that the project was aimed at communicating the project strategy to stakeholders was met with responses of success (with the exception of student stakeholders) as the majority of participants believed this had been achieved. The subsequent sections on 'Culture Change Takes Time' and 'Benefits Realisation Takes Time' discusses different views in relation to time on the success of the project.

6.17: Theme 16: Culture Change Takes Time

This theme represents the perception of stakeholders on the culture change that was characteristic of the project and its relation to timing. This follows on from the previous theme of the strengths of understanding of the project. The findings suggest that the participants understood that the project would be about changing the current practices of the university but had concerns about being able to achieve this within 2 years. This was evident from the finding as seven of the 37 participants raised issues on whether the culture change could be achieved in the 2-year timeframe of the project. The issue of timeframes have come up previously in the 'resourcing and time constraints' theme. In this theme's context, the focus is on the concerns of participants on the achievement of culture change within 2 years.

The findings suggest that the project team realised that there was a need to understand and prepare for the culture change required and the manner that people adopted change differently. However, there was no evidence to suggest that this was sufficiently done. The culture change referred to by PCT1 was a departure from traditional structures and working practices of staff in the university as well as models of learning for students. This related back to a change in silo working, the alignment of rigid structures with the industry structures and new ways of working in line with the change. From the views of the participants, these were not achieved in the 2-year project period. Some participants believed that culture change could not be rushed and that it would take time for the changes to be seen in the organisation. This prevented them from outrightly declaring the project to be successful or a failure. This suggests that time is a factor in the perception of success.

The findings also illuminated a resistance to change of some staff members who preferred old ways of doing things. While a member of the project team believed that culture change could not be managed with the use of project management methodology (such as Prince 2), the researcher's opinion, however, is that the culture change required in an organisation can indeed be set up as a project. For any project, deliverables need to be measurable. In the case of the ICZ project, behaviours and visible changes can be measured through metrics for culture change such as assessments, surveys, business indicators, and financial metrics.

6.18: Theme 17: Benefits Realisation Takes Time

This theme overlaps with the previous theme – 'Culture change takes time'. It discusses the views of participants on the implications of time for the realisation of wider benefits of the project. When asked about the success of the project, several participants commented that success should be measured based on benefits to the stakeholders. When asked if the project was a success, some participants were of the impression that it was too early to say. For example, UAS5 stated, *"I think it is too early to say if it has been a success. It's too early and that's my view".* UAS6 said successful was an extreme word, *"Successful is probably an extreme word. I think there is still work to be done. And I think with things like culture change, I think with these things, it takes time to shift over".*

When asked what hadn't worked with the project, UNS2 had this to say*, "Nothing really. It's too new, isn't it? To be able to say. So, the whole point is industrial collaboration. And they are not really doing much industrial collaboration yet, so it would be too early to say this has been a great success"*

In summarising the views from this theme, majority of the participants agreed that the measurement of the success of the project would take time. This suggests that the measurement of success might be dependent on benefits that take time to be realised. An important observation from the interviews as highlighted in the methods chapter was that participants based their views on the totality of the wider organisational strategy and the project becoming 'business as usual'. Though the researcher made clarifications about these to the participants and provided each participant at the interview with an outline of the 2-year plan of the project (See Appendix 5), it was difficult for the participants to separate their views on the two. What this implies is that the stakeholders of the project were measuring success based on tangible outcomes that are associated with the wider ICZ strategy rather than a list of project deliverables that contributed to the organisational strategy.

6.19: Theme 18: What Success Looks Like

This theme discusses the perception of what success looked like to the participants. The participants were asked what they considered as success and what they would like to see to consider the project as a success. The theme is related quite significantly to the preceding 'Benefits Realisation Takes Time' theme because it was apparent from the views that the participants measured success based on tangible outcomes that were associated with the wider ICZ strategy and the impacts that could be felt from the project. Impacts are related to benefits as have been discussed in the literature in Chapter 2.

Some participants gave examples of what had been expected to happen for the project to have been considered a success and stated that success would be the attainment of business-as-usual status as well as exceptional partnerships. For ICD1, success meant that students could communicate what the ICZ project meant to them. For UAS1, it would mean the involvement of partners because partnership was fundamental to the project's strategy.

From the discussions from this theme, one participant believed that while there was synergy at the top policy level of the university, the project had not delivered on the lower practical day-to-day level of the university. Such deliverables, according to the participants, should be tangible outcomes that would show that the university was serious about the project's strategy. Some of the tangible outcomes suggested included having infrastructures and systems in place for account management and industry partnerships, and effective sponsorships resulting from the partnerships. It was suggested that these infrastructures be put in place to showcase the achievements of the strategy. Some participants commented on having a commonality of understanding of the ICZs to get the leverage that was needed. It was suggested that the work that had been done in the 2 years of implementing the project needed to be communicated better and the messaging of the project made clearer. A participant also stressed on the importance of demonstrating success of the project to attract potential partners.

RQ 5: What Project Management Aspects Have Impacted On Stakeholders' Views of the ICZ project?

The fifth research question **RQ 5: What project management aspects have impacted on stakeholders' views of the ICZ project?** was aimed at understanding how participants viewed the management of the project and what aspects they considered most important that contributed to their views of the project. The project and workstream team participants were asked to discuss the skills that they considered important in the day-to-day running of the project. Participants were also asked how important they considered technical skills in relation to interpersonal skills in implementing the project. Other participants were asked about skills they considered important in delivering the project and aspects of the management of the project that contributed to their views. The project team and workstream team were also asked if they did anything to influence stakeholder perception and what these were. In coding the participants' responses, the following theme emerged as a result: soft project management skills. The following section discusses the themes.

6.20: Theme 19: Soft Project Management Skills

From the discussions, the researcher found that most of the skills mentioned by the participants were soft skills. These included the ability to communicate across the different stakeholder groups, ability to listen to what stakeholders had to say, being approachable and the ability to relate well with others, leadership skills, as well as being personable and approachable. Therefore, comments from this theme suggest that the project and workstream team participants believed that soft skills were useful in implementing the project. Some other important skills discussed include leadership, motivation, decision-making, and communication skills. The ability to manage stakeholders was also an important issue raised by the participants. The importance of decision-making was also mentioned by some participants who believed that good decisions could only be made by good leaders which impacted on the project. While a member of the project team stressed on the importance of being transparent and inclusive in the approach to engage stakeholders, others raised an issue

with not having any women in the earlier selection of development leads. This, in their view, was the team not practising what they preached.

While some raised the importance of having a balance of soft and hard skills, others believed soft skills were more useful in securing the buy-in of stakeholders. Participants' comments seemed to suggest that hard project management skills such as creating work breakdown structures, earned value assessments and critical path diagrams were not as useful as soft skills in getting things done. According to one participant, understanding and using a project management methodology such as Prince 2 made things easier. However, they believed that project management was more about common sense and good manners, and there was a lot of that throughout the project. Therefore, having those 'soft' attributes was more useful in activities such as securing the buy-in of the project sponsor (university management), than adopting the use of a technicality such as a project management methodology.

Except for one participant who believed that managing the project required a balance of hard and soft skills, the other participants suggested that the softer skills had been more useful with the project. The evidence is presented in Appendix 6.

6.21: Findings from Focus Group

On 30/04/19, the researcher organised and conducted a focus group with 32 Masters students of the University of Salford. The aim of the researcher in conducting the focus group was to find out the perception of the students on the project after it had been closed and handed over to the operations team. The researcher proceeded to ask the participants about their knowledge of the project and their perceptions about its success.

At the beginning of the session, the researcher asked the students if they knew about the ICZ project and what they knew about the project. From the responses, the researcher gathered that none of the 32 students had any knowledge of the project. Infact, all the students initially responded that they had not heard about the project or been impacted by the project deliverables. The researcher then explained the project to them and asked what criteria the

students would use to judge the project to be successful, based on the information that the researcher had given the students.

Some of the responses recorded from the students included the following:

“successful implementation of the project”

“improvement of student dealings with industry”

“change in the university with relation to the achievements of the project”

“a situation where students are satisfied with industrial placements and the companies, on the other hand, are satisfied with the students”

“every time the industry is looking at Salford, they have hope that whoever is coming out will be able to fit into the industry”

The students agreed that the vision of the ICZ project was beneficiary to students. Even though all the students did not know about the project, they appreciated the benefits of the project and how that would impact students in general. Most of the responses indicated that the impact of the project would be better felt if the project could lead to students being engaged with the industry. It was the students’ view that if this was achieved, the project would be relevant to them. One of the students stated that they considered the project to be partially successful because they did not know about the project. Others emphatically stated that it was not successful based on this single criterion.

Some discussions with the students also highlighted students’ views on the relationship of the project to one ICP model. One student explained that a platform known as Salford Advantage had likely come out of the ICP model, from where the university would provide job opportunities for students. While some of the jobs were casual, others were said to be related to placements. In their view, this would have been a product of the ICZ project.

Another student said they believed that the project was successful because of the strategy behind the project and that they believed that some students may have taken advantage of the opportunity to get involved. Some others disputed on the project being successful considering that they had not heard about the project prior to the focus group.

The students all agreed that it was important to them that they knew about the project. When they were asked if they would rather experience the outcome of the project than know about it, many of the students disagreed about this.

Another student commented on the difference between the university and other universities and gave examples of the engagement methods of teaching at the university compared to other universities. In the student's view, the project was a success based on the overall view of its past and future impacts on students.

Another point raised by the students was the importance of knowing what criteria the project team was using to measure the success of the project. This, in their view, would help them better judge if the project had succeeded or not.

6.22: Summary of Chapter

This chapter has presented the findings of the 37 interviews conducted by the researcher in relation to five research questions. Nineteen themes have emerged from the findings. The chapter has summarised each theme in this chapter. Detailed evidence supporting the themes are presented in Appendix 6. The decision to move detailed extracts of the evidence supporting the themes was taken to ensure that the chapter was not cumbersome, and that the reader would not get overwhelmed with the wealth of information from the findings. Additional evidence of the detailed extracts supporting the themes are provided in the Appendices section. The following table 6.3 highlights the main themes categorised by stakeholder groups.

Table 6.3: Main themes grouped by stakeholder groups

STAKEHOLDER GROUP	MAIN THEMES GROUPED BY STAKEHOLDER GROUPS
Stakeholder Group 1 Project sponsor group (Actors)	<u>Stakeholder Definition:</u> All participants in Group 1 considered themselves to be stakeholders of the project. <u>Different Strengths of Project Understanding</u> Group 1 participants demonstrated that they had a good understanding of the objectives of the project as well as the organisational strategy.

	Soft Project Management Skills From the discussions, the researcher found that most of the skills mentioned by the participants were soft skills. These included the ability to communicate across the different stakeholder groups, ability to listen to what stakeholders had to say, being approachable and the ability to relate well with others, leadership skills, as well as being personable and approachable Organisational Environment Impact on Project Group 2 members displayed a high level of awareness and understanding of contextual issues relating to the project and described how they worked around these to achieve the project goals. Judging Success Based on Project Visibility and Awareness All members of the project team, workstream team, academic and non-academic staff participants believed that the project had successfully entered into the consciousness of the university. Judging Success Based on Stakeholder Engagement In the project sponsor and project team's view, the project was well promoted and visible to the participants.
Stakeholder Group 2 Project team group (Actors)	Stakeholder Definition: All participants in Group 2 considered themselves to be stakeholders of the project. Different Strengths of Project Understanding Group 2 participants also demonstrated that they had a good understanding of the objectives of the project as well as hands-on experience in its management and implementation. They stated that they had a good understanding of their roles going into the project and each related to the project in their own way. Judging Success Based on Project Visibility and Awareness

	All members of the project team, workstream team, academic and non-academic staff participants believed that the project had successfully entered into the consciousness of the university. Judging Success Based on Stakeholder Engagement In the project sponsor and project team's view, the project was well promoted and visible to the participants. Different Perception Levels of Success The consensus among the project team was that the team had achieved what they set out to achieve, therefore, it was a success in their eyes.
Stakeholder Group 3 Project Recipients Students	Stakeholder Definition: Students, as well as industry partners, were considered by most to be more important in the view of the participants, some participants suggested that students were more important while others said they believed that the industry partners were more important. Different Strengths of Project Understanding Group 3 showed that they had a weaker understanding of the project and the majority said they had not heard about the ICZ project. It was clear from the findings that the majority of the students did not know about the project. This was evident as only one of the four participants (SUR1) stated that they knew about the project. Judging Success Based on Project Visibility and Awareness It was clear from the findings that the majority of the students did not know about the project. As evidenced from statements by the majority of the student stakeholders on their knowledge of the project, the visibility of the project to student stakeholders was weak. This was found to influence the perception of many students

Stakeholder Group 3 Project Recipients Industry Partners	Stakeholder Definition: Industry partners were considered to be equally as important as students. Different Strengths of Project Understanding A majority of the industry partners (IP) stated that they did not know about the project. The participants, rather, had views about their experiences collaborating with the university as industry partners. Judging Success Based on Project Visibility and Awareness It was clear from the findings that, like the student participants, there was a weak awareness of the project among IP participants. IP participants were reluctant to judge the success of the project, rather, they spoke of their good working relationship with the organisation. Judging Success Based on Stakeholder Engagement it is evident that a majority of the industry partner stakeholders believed that the strategy of the project was a good one and mutually beneficial for all parties. Some of the participants agreed that they had good communication links with their university contacts while some stated that the communication had only started to improve.
Stakeholder Group 4 Project Recipients (Beneficiaries) University Academic Staff (3C) University Non - Academic Staff (3D)	Stakeholder Definition: All Group 4 stakeholders believed that they were stakeholders by virtue of being members of staff of the university. Different Strengths of Project Understanding While Group 4 participants said they knew about the project, some of the participants did not fully understand it. Judging Success Based on Project Visibility and Awareness From the comments, it was found that visibility was a criterion that many of the staff members used to judge the project by. While some believed that the

	project had been visible enough and considered it to be a success based on this criterion, others suggested that more marketing of the project would have influenced their views of success of the project. Judging Success Based on Stakeholder Engagement A majority of staff members believed there were issues with staff engagement. Some participants also believed that engagement from senior management was lacking. This section discusses the participants' comments categorised according to different stakeholder groups

The following table 6.4 categorises the different themes and how they address the five research questions, and fundamentally the aim of the research.

Table 6.4: Main Themes grouped by research questions

Theme	Theme title	Research Questions
Theme 1	Stakeholder definitions	RQ 1: Which stakeholders are the most important based on different stakeholder perceptions of success?
Theme 2	Measures of stakeholder importance	
Theme 3	Different strengths of project understanding	RQ 2: Is stakeholder classification related to the stakeholders' understanding of projects?
Theme 4	Ambiguity and non-clarity of project goals	RQ 3: What are the challenges of successful project delivery within an academic organisational context.
Theme 5	Ambitious scope of project	
Theme 6	Lack of structures for account management	

Theme 7	Resourcing and time constraints	
Theme 8	Confusing zone terminology in project name	
Theme 9	Resistance to project as a label	
Theme 10	Attainment of 'business as usual'	
Theme 11	Organisational environment impact on project	
Theme 12	Judging success based on project visibility and awareness	RQ 4: How do stakeholders judge the success of the selected project within the organisation and what criteria do they base their judgement on?
Theme 13	Judging success based on stakeholder engagement	
Theme 14	Judging success based on communication	
Theme 15	Different perception levels of success	
Theme 16	Culture change takes time!	
Theme 17	Benefits realisation takes time!	
Theme 18	What success looks like	
Theme 19	Soft project management skills	RQ 5: What project management aspects have impacted on stakeholders' views of the ICZ project?

The chapter has discussed the following key issues:

Theme 1 – Stakeholder definitions and Theme 2 – Measures of stakeholder importance address RQ 1: Which stakeholders are the most important based on different stakeholder perceptions of success? It was found that participants measured their level of importance based on the overall aim of the project. Students and industry partners were cited as the most important stakeholders of the project from the view of most participants. This highlights the measure of "say" that stakeholders have in influencing how a project is viewed. It was essential, hence, to further analyse the role of the stakeholder in a project.

Theme 3 - Different strengths of project understanding addresses RQ 2 in understanding the relationship between different stakeholder classes and their understanding of the project. The findings highlight that stakeholders had different levels of understanding of the project. The project team and project sponsor team had a good understanding of the project's aim and objectives. The academic and non-academic staff admitted that the project was visible and well known to the staff members, but the majority stated that they did not clearly understand the project or what it was trying to achieve. Interestingly, though the student and industry partners were cited as the most important out of all the stakeholders of the project as discussed in theme 1, they were found to also be the stakeholders that showed the least knowledge or understanding of the project. These different levels of understanding of the project were found to influence how these stakeholders viewed the project.

The following Themes 4 – 11 addressed RQ 3 in understanding the challenges of the project.

- In Theme 4 - Ambiguity and lack of clarity of project goals, the findings suggest that there was an issue with the clarity of project goals across the stakeholder groups. This highlights that project goals and objectives should not automatically be assumed to be clear or realistic, even if the project has been implemented for some time.
- In Theme 5 – Ambitious Scope of the project, it was seen that a majority of the participants agreed on the ambitious nature of the scope of the work that was required in the 2-year timeframe set to deliver the project. This theme was found to overlap with theme 2 - Different strengths of project understanding.
- In Theme 6 - Lack of structures for account management, the findings suggest that the necessary structures and mechanisms for account management were not in place at the end of the 2-year time frame of the project. A majority of the staff participants

based their judgements of the project on the establishment of these structures. This was found to influence their perceptions of the project.

- In Theme 7 - Resourcing and time constraints, the findings revealed that there were significant issues with timing and resourcing, both in staff not having enough time to commit to project activities, as well as the constraints imposed on the 2-year timeframe scheduled for project activities to be achieved.
- In Theme 8 - Confusing Zone terminology in Project name, the findings suggest that the ICZ terminology potentially impacted negatively on the perceived success of the project.
- In Theme 9 - Resistance to Project as a Label, the findings suggest that there were issues with the terminologies used in communicating the project message to stakeholders, which impacted on the buy-in for the project.
- In Theme 10 - Attainment of 'Business as Usual', the findings suggest that there were issues with the terminologies used in communicating the project message to stakeholders, which impacted on the buy-in for the project.
- In Theme 11 - Organisational Environment Impact on Project, the findings suggest that factors relating to existing silos, organisational politics and rigid structures, which were characteristic of the working environment of the university, impacted on the implementation of the project.

Together, these themes illuminate the challenges of the project and in so doing addresses RQ 4: What are the challenges of implementing the project within an organisational context?

The following Themes 12 – 18 were found to address RQ 4 in understanding how stakeholders judged the success of the project within the organisation and the criteria that they based their judgements on. These are summarised as follows:

- In Theme 12 - Judging Success Based on Project Visibility and Awareness, the findings show that stakeholders based their judgements of success on the visibility of the project as well as the awareness of the project among stakeholders. Most of the students interviewed said they did not know about the project and so did not consider it successful. The participants disagreed on the need for students to know about the project. Though the industry partner participants admitted to not knowing about the

project, most of them believed that the strategy of the project was good and mutually beneficial for all parties. The industry partners were reluctant to judge the project as a success or a failure, but the majority spoke of their good working relationship with the organisation.

- In Theme 13 - Judging Success Based on Stakeholder Engagement, the findings show that participants also measured the success of the project based on their level of engagement with the project team and university management. The project was argued by the project and project sponsor team to be well-promoted and visible to staff. However, it was apparent that there were issues with actual engagement with staff and students.
- In Theme 14 - Judging Success Based on Communication, the findings revealed that all participants discussed issues relating to communication in their views about the project. It is clear that communication is a strong theme that overlaps with all other themes discussed by the participants.
- In Theme 15 - Different Perception Levels of Success, the findings revealed that there were mixed views from participants on the success of the project. It was clear that the project had varying levels of success among different stakeholders and stakeholder groups. For example, some staff members were more inclined to describe the aspects of the projects that they found successful rather than state emphatically that the project was a success or a failure.
- In Theme 16 – Culture Change takes time; the findings suggest that the participants understood the project would be about changing the university's current practices but also had concerns about being able to achieve this within 2 years. Participants noted that culture change could not be rushed and would take some time to be achieved.
- In Theme 17 – Benefits Realisation takes time; the findings suggest that some participants including students and staff members believed that it was difficult to measure the success of the project when the benefits had not actualised. This suggests that time is a factor in the perception of the project's success.
- In Theme 18 – What Success looks like; the findings suggest that it is important for some stakeholders to see tangible outcomes from the project before they can confidently say that the project was a success. Other participants such as the project

team and workstream teams believed that they had achieved what they set out to achieve and that the project was a success based on their achievements of the project deliverables.

Theme 19 – Soft Project Management Skills, was found to address RQ 5 in understanding what project management skills were considered important in delivering the project and what aspects stakeholders considered important that contributed to their views of the project. The findings suggest that many of the highlighted skills that influenced the perception of the project were soft skills. It was clear from the comments that the management style of the project team impacted on how stakeholders viewed the project.

Figure 6.0 is the researcher's representation of the research findings displayed in a pictorial format. The discussions of the elements of figure 6.0 are discussed in the next chapter. In summary, all the themes overlap in one way or another. The totality of the data presented here have answered the five research questions and addressed the central aim of the research. The findings, hence, suggest that there is sufficient information to meet the overall aim of the research. The next chapter will discuss the research findings in relation to the literature and identify the extent to which the findings support or disagree with the literature.

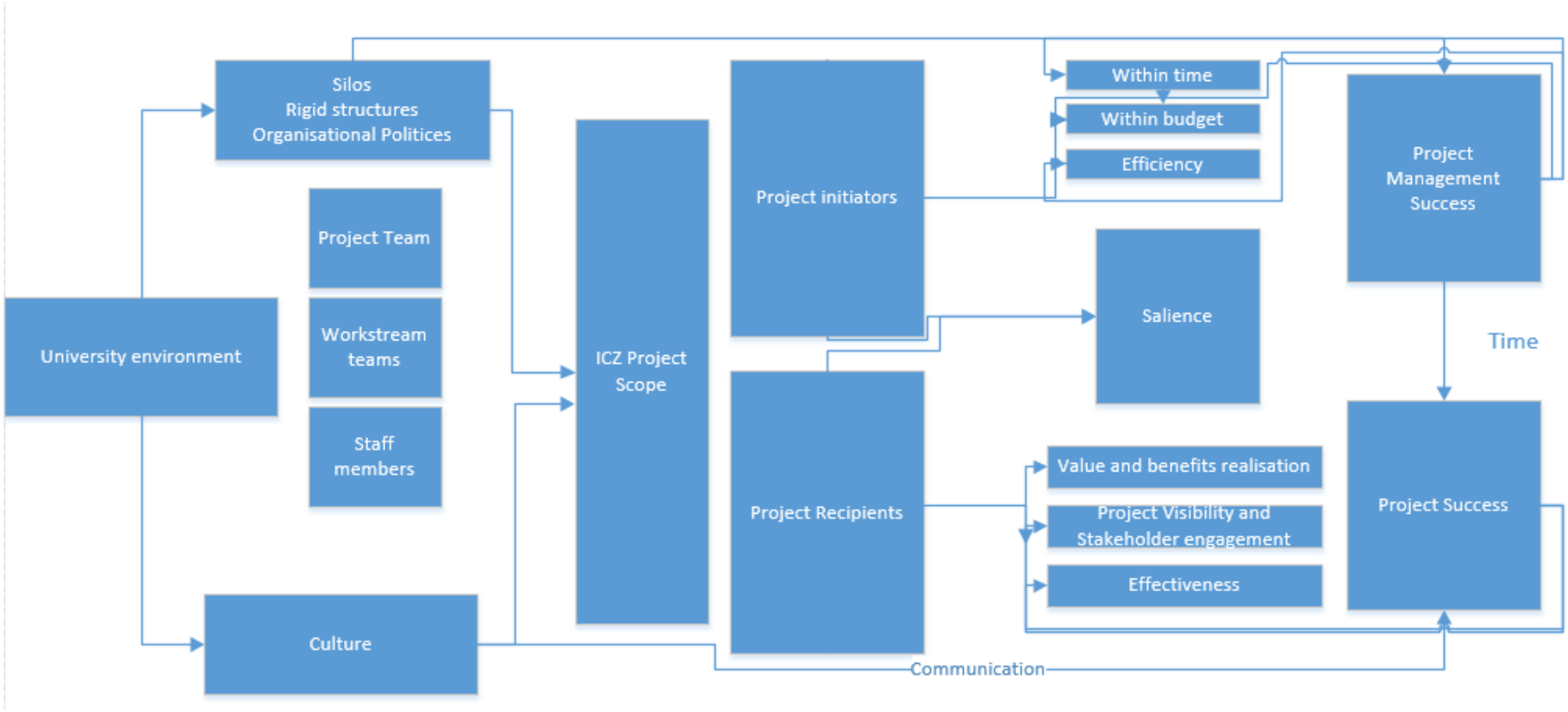


Figure 6.0: Representation of findings of data gathered from participants' perceptions of the case study
Source: Kelechi Chuku

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION

7.1 Introduction to Chapter

The previous chapter presented the findings from the Industry Collaboration Zones (ICZ) project based on thirty-seven interviews conducted by the researcher. The nineteen themes that emerged from five research questions were discussed and evidence supporting the themes was provided. The chapter also showed how the nineteen themes mapped on to five main findings. This chapter discusses these research findings with regard to the relevant literature (presented in Chapter 2). This entails cross-referencing main issues with corresponding literature with the aim of finding similarities and differences.

7.2: Conclusion of the ICZ project findings from the Perspectives of Stakeholders Interviewed

It is important to highlight the overall research outcome of the project stakeholders interviewed, to help readers of the thesis conclude on if the project was a success or not. The general conclusion was twofold. The project initiators (project management team) believed that the project resulted in a positive outcome and therefore was a success. The project was, therefore, approved and signed off to be closed at the end of the 2 years as the project sponsor was satisfied that the project had been delivered and the objectives met. However, the project beneficiaries disagreed as they believed that the project was not a success. The reason for the differences in view was that the different stakeholders had different criteria for measuring the success of the project. Therefore, it was found that the perceptions of the stakeholders interviewed did not coincide with the final outcome of the project.

The findings suggest that there was a high resistance to change from most of the staff members including resistance to the language and terminologies of how the project was communicated. It is believed that effective preparation and planning using change management initiatives and processes as discussed in the literature chapter by both the project sponsor and project management team would have led to a more successful project and influenced the perception of the stakeholders. Evaluation of the context features would have impacted the message

coding and decoding and led to a more responsive design of the message content and channels.

According to the findings, the focus of the ICZ project manager and project management team was on the delivery of project objectives. They, however, failed to manage the change issues raised which led to resistance and negative perception from many stakeholders, particularly the staff members. As is part of the organisational context, resistance can set in for people who are not willing to change or understand the need for change, or to accept new processes. The project manager would need to understand resistance, pervading cultures and the change engagement strategies required to change people's perceptions.

An important observation from the findings is the differences in opinions of stakeholder views. This chapter illustrates these differences in views categorically as project initiators and recipients. While the initiators judge the project based on project management success, the recipients judge the project based on project success. The chapter explains the categorisation, discussing the different views and how they are manifested in relation to the literature.

The chapter presents different streams of literature that fit in with the project management versus project success argument including value, benefits realisation, and timed factor of success. It highlights different angles of the argument including the issue of communication, stakeholder engagement, and scope. It also discusses other relevant findings including stakeholder importance and culture change. Finally, it concludes by presenting a framework in Figure 8.5 - a representation of how the different streams of literature interrelate with the central research finding. The framework from Chapter 1 was modified and expanded to show how the findings informed the framework. The discussion here validates the framework and research findings. For simplicity of discussion, this chapter breaks down the new framework into four elements - stakeholder theory, project management, change management and success, discussing each element as it relates to the literature.

7.3: Stakeholder Theory Construct

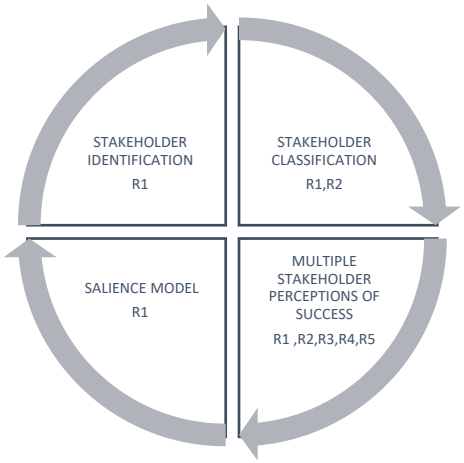


Figure 7.0: Stakeholder theory element of the conceptual framework

7.3.1: Stakeholder Theory (Stakeholder Identification and Classification)

Figure 7.0 highlights the stakeholder theory element of the conceptual framework. Project managers need to identify key stakeholders of a project to effectively manage the stakeholders' knowledge, interests, positions, alliances, and importance. As discussed in Chapter 1, the participants of the study were considered to be stakeholders based on the PMI definition of a project stakeholder as "an individual, group, or organisation, who may affect, be affected by, or perceive itself to be affected by a decision, activity, or outcome of a project" (Project Management Institute, 2013). As can be seen from the findings, the stakeholders were either directly or indirectly involved in the project and therefore, were in one way or another affected by the project's decision, activity, or outcomes. They perceived themselves to be affected by the ICZ's project decisions, deliverables, and the project team. Each stakeholder had a perception of what they believed the outcome of the project was which either satisfied personal or strategic business objectives.

In an analysis, the researcher categorises stakeholders into two main groups - project initiators and project recipients (Table 7.1). The project initiators comprise the project team, workstream team and project sponsor team while the project recipients comprise the students, academic staff, non - academic staff and industry partner participants. This

categorisation allows for a more concise representation of the findings from different stakeholders of the project.

Table 7.1: Categorisation of stakeholders from findings

Stakeholder Group	Stakeholders
Project Initiators	Project Sponsor Project Team Workstream team
Project Recipients	Students Staff Industry partners

The first categorisation of stakeholders is termed project initiators. Traditionally, in project management, a project initiator is a particular person or persons responsible for the starting up of a project. They are responsible for choosing a project manager and giving authority to the project manager to deliver the project. The project initiator funds the project consumption of resources before the project is officially initiated and together with other stakeholders, gather all the required information for a project into a project charter. The PMBOK (2013), particularly, refers to the project initiator as the person within the financially responsible organisation who contacts the project management organisation to kick off a project. For the case under study, this responsibility falls on the project sponsor group. A project sponsor is a person or group that makes resources available and are accountable for enabling success and supporting the project (PMBok). From the findings, it is observed that the project sponsor group (Group 1) comprises three categories of participants – the VC's Executive team (VCET), the Senior Leadership Team (SLT) and the Industry Collaboration Zone (ICD) team. The researcher interviewed one member from each of the three teams. The terminology – project initiators, however here, is used to represent the groups of stakeholders responsible for not

only kicking off the project but also for delivering the project. The project initiators, therefore, comprise members of the project sponsor team, the project team, and the workstream team.

The second categorisation of stakeholders is termed project recipients. Project recipients represent the group of stakeholders responsible for utilising and creating value from the outputs of the project. According to Jarocki (2014), project recipients may include employees, end-users and customers whose needs and expectations need to be proactively identified and addressed. Mirza, Pourzolfaghar & Shahnazari (2013) consider customers and users as some of the most important stakeholders. Therefore, it is vital that their needs are adequately identified in the development of the project scope. The project recipient classification is also justified by Davis's (2014) categorisation of stakeholders into three groups - senior management, project core team and project recipients. Davis (2014) categorises project recipients as clients, consumers, customers, end-users, and users. Also, in the author's study on measuring the beliefs of stakeholders and their reasons for adopting project management practices, Burgan (2014) categorises stakeholders as change recipients. In the same vein, the researcher categorises students, academic and non-academic staff members and industry partners as project recipients.

7.3.2: Stakeholder Theory (Stakeholder Importance & Salience)

The literature has emphasised the importance of the stakeholder perspective. Eskerod, Huemann and Savage (2015), for example, consider the relationship between project management and stakeholders to be an indispensable area for the proper development of any project, whereby success is meaningless without the satisfaction of stakeholders. Brunges and Foley-Brinza (2014) also stated that a project is more likely to fail if stakeholders are pushed to adhere to strict project management procedures without considering the unique perspective of each stakeholder. Similarly, in Hughes, Dwivedi, and Simintiras's (2016) view, project failure is linked to a diminished understanding of stakeholder perspective. Case (2017) also stressed that exploring stakeholder perspectives illuminate events that contribute to project failures.

The findings from the research have equally emphasised the importance of the stakeholder perspective. The preceding sections have shown that different groups of stakeholders had a different understanding of the purpose of the project. There appears to be a significant issue

here as what emerged from the findings was the significant difference in opinions in what the project was aimed at achieving in the 2 years and what is achieved in the view of the stakeholders (both initiators and recipients). Some participants believed that the 2-year project was to change the culture of the university, others believed it was to achieve a list of set out deliverables such as setting up structures for account management, preparing the organisation for the change, or communicating the change to the organisation.

When different stakeholders have different understandings of a project, it is important to consider which stakeholders' views are more important in the perception of the project. This suggests that salience is a measure to aid decision making for the project. The majority of the project recipients viewed students and industry partner stakeholders as the most important stakeholders of the project. These participants measured the importance of stakeholders based on their understanding of the overall aim of the project. From the findings, the importance of a stakeholder, whether it be the way they see themselves or how others see them, emerged as an important theme in the delivery of the project. This illuminates that stakeholders do have a "say" in influencing how a project is perceived and the importance of analysing stakeholders based on salience.

Another factor that came up from the findings related to salience was the difference in the levels of importance of different stakeholder groups in the project. The majority of project recipients, when asked which stakeholders they believed to be the most important, cited students and industry partners as the most important stakeholders. Their justification was the premise that the project was aimed at delivering the most value for students and industry partners had a key role to play in achieving this. This is reflective of Jugdev and Muller's (2005) suggestion that those who make use of a system (users, clients, customers) are considered as having an impact on the perceived success of a project.

When the project initiators, on the other hand, were asked who the most important stakeholders in their view were, the majority of them did not believe that some stakeholders were more important than others. For example, a project team member stated that different stakeholders were important depending on the phase the project was in. One project sponsor stakeholder stated that the stakeholders all balanced each other out. This view, again, highlights the differences in perceptions between project initiators and recipients.

Though the comments of the project team in suggesting that no stakeholder was more important than the other suggest that efforts were made to address all stakeholders' needs, the efforts of the project initiators were found to be largely targeted at university staff members. This suggests that project initiators considered staff members to be more important than other stakeholders in delivering on the scope of communicating the project's strategy, as the most focus to achieve this was targeted at university staff stakeholders.

From the findings, the project initiators were responsible for making decisions regarding stakeholder management. In their view, the students did not need to know about the project. However, in the view of the student participants, ignoring them led the students to perceive the project to be unsuccessful. This finding, therefore, agrees with the study of Butt, Naaranoja & Savolainen (2016), who cite Kangas' (2011) argument in stating that ignoring stakeholders may become the main reason for project failure. In their study, they argue that project success and its criteria must encompass "the perceptions of multiple stakeholders" as "inappropriate evaluation of the success criteria of an existing project could misdirect the project's decision making, demotivate employees and establish an unproductive organisational culture" (p. 13).

It was important for the researcher to consider stakeholder salience as a measure of stakeholder importance because a project can comprise a myriad of stakeholders which can be challenging for the project manager as different stakeholders have different requirements and needs. The issue of decision-making is, therefore, important in stakeholder management. In Chapter 2, stakeholder salience is defined as the "degree to which managers give priority to competing stakeholders' claims in their decision-making process" (Mitchell et. al, 1997, p.854). The authors demonstrated how the identification typology enables forecasts to be made as to managerial behaviour regarding each stakeholder class, as well as predictions as to how stakeholders may change from one class to another and the consequences for management.

The salience model displays three advantages: it is political (considering the organisation as the result of conflicting and unequal interests), it is operationally practical (qualifying the stakeholders), and it is dynamic (considers changes in interests over social space and time) (Mainardes, Alves & Raposo, 2012). It is a useful tool for stakeholder classification where stakeholders are assigned three attributes - power, urgency, and legitimacy – and classified based on these attributes. According to Friedman and Miles (2006), the stakeholder salience

model includes stakeholder powers of negotiation, their relational legitimacy with the organisation, and the urgency in attending to stakeholder requirements. The more attributes a stakeholder is perceived to have, the higher their salience. In other words, the greatest priority will be given to stakeholders who have power, legitimacy and urgency. Hence, stakeholder salience is decided by the assessment of these variables.

In relating the issue of salience back to the findings, it is seen that the project initiators had a different view of the salience of student stakeholders from the project recipients. Both initiators and recipients gave justifications for which stakeholders' interests should be given priority over the other. This indicates that project management involves the consideration of sometimes-conflicting views or interests of stakeholders whose interests vary and may not necessarily be in the interest of the project or the organisation.

In determining the salience of each stakeholder of the ICZ project, it would have been up to the project initiators to decide the weight of salience attributed to each stakeholder, which would have, for example, resulted in the decision to engage or not engage the students' stakeholders. Student stakeholders, on the other hand, believed that they were key stakeholders with relatively high salience yet felt that they had not been engaged as they should have been if they had been considered as highly salient stakeholders. This heavily impacted on their perception of the project and should have been a criterion for success.

As has been suggested by the literature, it is the responsibility of the project manager to manage the different expectations of stakeholders by identifying the stakeholders and classifying them into groups to better manage their expectations. The project manager makes the decision to attribute salience to different stakeholders. This responsibility is dependent on the interpersonal (leadership and decision-making) skills of the project manager. The researcher considers this a weakness of the model and has conducted a dynamic analysis of the model (project stakeholder salience model) based on different stakeholder perceptions. This has been informed by the empirical data.

In the dynamic analysis of the salience model, the project manager must give the highest priority to definitive stakeholders because they possess all the salient attributes, i.e., power, urgency and legitimacy. The next highest priority should be given to dominant, dangerous and

dependent stakeholders because they have a mix of any two attributes. Finally, the lowest priority group comprises of discretionary, demanding and dormant stakeholders because they have only one attribute associated with them. The project manager must, however, be aware of the dynamic nature of stakeholder salience as a group of stakeholders can traverse into another group with time. The project manager, therefore, needs to still satisfy their needs.

In analysing the salience model using the findings from the case study, the researcher has, instead, classified the stakeholders according to their attributes based on the different perceptions from the findings. As can be seen from the findings, the different stakeholders had different understanding and expectations about the project. Table 7.2 below classifies stakeholders based on the 3 attributes of power, urgency and legitimacy.

Table 7.2: Salience Classification of research participants

Group	Role	Code	Power	Legitimacy	Urgency	Salience Level	Salience Category
1	Senior management team	PS	Y	Y	Y	Definitive	Definitive
2	Project Core Team PCT	PCT	N	Y	Y	Expectant	Dependent
2	Work Stream team	PWS	N	Y	Y	Expectant	Dependent
3	Academic Staff	UAS	Y	Y	N	Expectant	Dominant
3	Non academic staff	UNS	N	Y	N	Latent	Discretionary
3	Students	SUR	N	N	Y	Latent	Demanding
3	Industry partners	IP	Y	Y	N	Expectant	Dominant
4	Media	MD	Y	N	Y	Expectant	Dangerous
4	Local government	LC	Y	N	N	Latent	Dormant
4	Alumni	AM	N	N	N	Non-stakeholder	Non-stakeholder

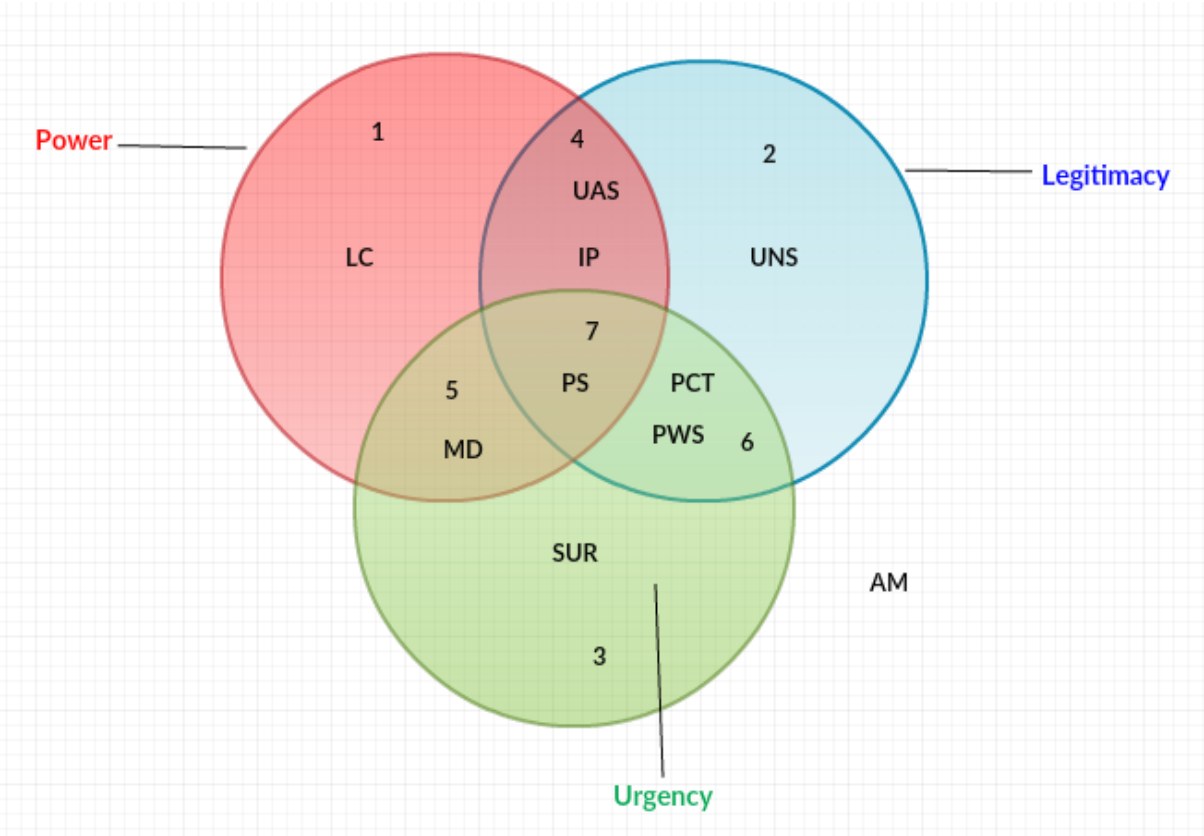


Figure 7.1: Salience model representation of findings from researcher's analysis

7.3.3: Project Stakeholder Salience (from Success Construct)

Figure 7.1 highlights the salience model representation of the findings. Below is a discussion of the analysis of the salience attributes done by the researcher based on the data collected from the participants.

- Dormant stakeholders:

The researcher has not considered including this class of stakeholders in her investigation due to their dormancy. An example of dormant stakeholders for the ICZ project case study is the Salford city council (local government). The lesson to be learnt from managing dormant stakeholders is that the project manager does not need to initiate major communications or involvement with them but must be aware of them.

- Discretionary stakeholders:

The non-academic staff in the project are considered to be discretionary stakeholders. This is because they were considered to have legitimate claims but did not have the power to influence decisions or the urgency for change on the project. From the findings, the university staff stated that they were inundated with communications about the project but considered this as dissemination rather than proper engagement of the stakeholders. On the other hand, the students complained of not receiving information about the project which influenced their perception of it. The staff members concerns were that they needed specific details such as more clarity of the project's aims and objectives and an understanding of what was different about the project from what the university currently did. They suggested that they would have welcomed regular project updates with proper engagement from the project team and sponsors rather than the tonnes of information that was overwhelming for most. In managing them, the project manager should have considered their communication needs and attended to these accordingly. In their views, this would have influenced their perception of the project.

- Demanding stakeholders:

The students here are considered to be demanding stakeholders. This is because they are a class of stakeholders that believe that their claims need immediate attention. The project manager needs to keep demanding stakeholders informed but be mindful of the time spent on these stakeholders as the mileage of the project may be affected if too much time and effort is expended on such stakeholders.

- Dominant stakeholders:

The academic staff and industry partners are considered dominant stakeholders. In this case, power and legitimacy overlap as the dominant stakeholders have legitimate claims to the project and the authority to enforce their authority. The project manager must take into account their communication needs and endeavour to take their involvement needs into account at all times.

- Dangerous stakeholders:

In this case, the media are considered as examples of dangerous stakeholders because they have a dangerous combination of power and urgency of claims. This makes them play a critical

role in the success of the project. Though they are not directly involved in the project, the project manager, in managing their needs, must always keep them engaged and satisfied.

- Dependent stakeholders:

The project core team and workstream team are considered dependent stakeholders. This is because they have legitimate claims to the project and the urgency to act but do not possess proportionate power. The researcher has considered that the project manager is part of the project core team and therefore also a stakeholder themselves, However, this research aims to understand how project managers can influence stakeholder perceptions for success. The role of the project manager in managing the project is to keep the dependent stakeholders informed. This class of stakeholders can be of help when the project manager needs to leverage their strengths to navigate complexities in the organisation or project.

- Definitive stakeholders:

This is the most important area in the model. Definitive stakeholders are a class of stakeholders in which power, urgency and legitimacy converge. From the definitions of the model and consideration of the attributes, the project sponsor team are ideally to be considered as the definitive stakeholders. However, in the view of the participants, the student and industry partners should be the definitive stakeholders. In their view, they are the most critical category of stakeholders which is always to be kept informed, satisfied and involved. A project manager needs to provide focused attention to these stakeholders.

Reflection of Using the Salience Model

The salience model has been useful in this analysis of stakeholder classification. It has provided the researcher with a better understanding of the stakeholders of the project and the impact that they could potentially have on the project. This would be useful for both the project management team and the organisation.

The researcher believes that the model is helpful in the case of the ICZ project because it allows the project manager to stay focused on the successful delivery of the project. It also allows for the elimination of stakeholders that do not have an attribute. This has the advantage of allowing the project manager to only focus on stakeholders with legitimacy, urgency and

power. It is also beneficial in helping to reduce the noise in the system and guides the project manager on the best way to save resources, time and effort. As has been discussed under project management success, delivering the project on time, budget and scope with little barriers achieve project management success.

However, it is important to consider the limitations of the salience model. In the view of the researcher, the use of the salience model requires a sizable degree of time and effort to master and manage continuously. Stakeholders have a dynamic nature and can easily change attributes, therefore, there needs to be continuous attention to and management of the process. There is also a high level of subjectivity in ascribing attributes to stakeholders as has been done by the researcher therefore, there is a potential of bias in the classification.

7.3.4: Multiple Stakeholder Perceptions of Success Criteria

The importance of the stakeholder in defining success criteria from the beginning of a project is addressed in the literature. Meredith and Mantel (2011), for example, stressed that failing to address this from the beginning will lead to a project manager striving to meet goals that were never intended by the stakeholders. An important finding was that different stakeholders that participated in the research had different criteria for measuring the success of the project. The project team, for example, measured the success of the project based on their deliverables of the objectives within the 2-year project schedule - a tick box approach. The project team believed that these objectives were met and therefore deemed the project a success. Some of the activities that the project team and workstream teams delivered included events and workshops to communicate the project's message and prepare staff for the impact of the new strategy, as well as workshops to get people to understand and articulate what the strategy meant for teaching curriculum.

Some participants such as the project team, workstream teams and a few staff participants believed that the project had done what it set out to do which was to embed the message of the project in the university. It had also made people start to think about how the project interacted with their role within the university. These participants believed the project had

been successful judging by this criterion. Other participants including staff, students, and industry partners, however, were found to have alternative views. The majority of these participants said they did not feel ICZ ready and still did not clearly understand the project and what it was trying to achieve. They believed that the message was still not clear, and the project was not visible enough. These stakeholders measured the success of the project based on their awareness and understanding of the project.

The findings revealed that participants also measured the success of the project based on their level of engagement with the project team and university management driving the project. It was apparent that there were issues with actual engagement with staff and students. It is important to note at this point the selection of participants for the research discussed in the methods chapter (Section 4.8). The participants, including staff, students and industry partners are not a random sample but are based on participants who have a willingness to be involved in the study. They are people who one would expect to be more engaged in university life and were interested in discussing issues relating to the university.

7.3.5: Different Understanding of Project Aims and Objectives

The participants' understanding of the project was an important issue that ran through all the other themes discussed. The findings suggest that there were different levels of understanding of the aims and objectives of the project among stakeholders. This was found to impact stakeholder views of the project. There was an issue with the terminologies used in communicating the project message to stakeholders. The term 'zone' gave the notion of a physical space, which was confusing for stakeholders and inevitably limited buy-in for the project. The participants also suggested that they did not fully understand what the project was about or how the strategy was different from what the university was already practising. As the university was already known for industry collaborations, there was also a feeling among staff members that they were already espousing the ICZ principles in their daily work activities therefore, the ICZ label was unnecessary. A 'business as usual' status for the project would mean that the ICZ strategy was beginning to embed itself in the day to day running of the organisation, the structures were in place and the culture was seen to be changing. At the time

of the interviews for this research, the majority of the participants, with the exclusion of the project team, did not believe that such a state had been achieved. This suggests that a collective understanding of the project may have had a different impact on stakeholder views. A clearer communication in the message of the project, particularly in how the project was different from what the university was already doing, could have helped mitigate the resistance to the project and led to further buy-in.

In analysing the views across different stakeholder groups, it was found that participants in Groups 1 and 2, which comprised of the university management, core project team and workstream teams were found to have a clearer understanding of the project including the project's aim and objectives while participants in Group 3 (students and industry partners) had a weaker understanding of the project. Interestingly, though the two stakeholder groups are perceived by the project recipients as the most important, the two groups were found to display the least knowledge or understanding of the project. While Group 4 participants (academic and non-academic) staff said they knew about the project, the majority of the participants did not fully understand its aims and objectives or what it was trying to achieve. This suggests that the initiators of the project - the project team, workstream team and university leadership had a different understanding from the recipients of the project – the students, staff and industry partners.

While some argued that students did not need to know about the project, it is apparent that the students did not view the project as a success. The different levels of understanding of the project among the stakeholders affected how these stakeholders viewed the project outcomes. The perception of the project was dependent on what the participants believed the project was trying to achieve. For example, the perception that the project was aimed at changing the culture of the university was met with responses of failure, and that this was not achievable in 2 years. The perception that the project was aimed at communicating the project strategy to stakeholders was met with responses of success (with the exception of student stakeholders) as the majority of participants believed this had been achieved.

7.4: Project Management Construct

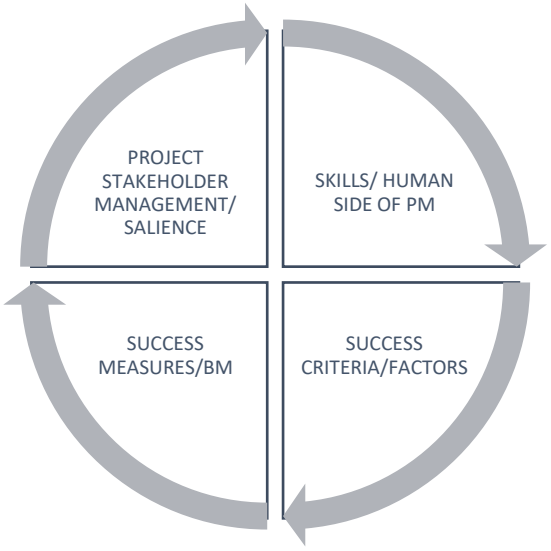


Figure 7.2: Project management element of the conceptual framework

7.4.1: Project Management Construct (Success Criteria / Factors and Skills / Human Side of Project Management)

The project management construct (figure 7.2) is informed by the literature on the human side of project management with regards to the role of the project manager in managing the project for success. The researcher identifies with the school of thought that suggests that the common element between a failed project and a successful one is people and how those people are led. The researcher's preliminary research also found that most of the recurring problems in projects are people-based. The literature here is focused on a synthesis of success criteria, success factors and measures in project management, including the concepts of project management success and project success, as well as effectiveness and efficiency, and benefits management and value. Finally, the project stakeholder salience here serves as a tool to define and analyse stakeholders for projects.

7.4.1.1: Success Criteria/Factors

The fourth research question was aimed at understanding how stakeholders judged the success of the project within the organisation and the criteria that they based their judgement on. Success criteria in this context refer to the factors against which the overall success or

failure of the project was evaluated. As discussed in the findings chapter, the success factors cited by the participants include the delivery of the project objectives to time, to scope, and a quality fit for purpose observed through project visibility and awareness, communication and stakeholder engagement, value and benefits realisation, and tangibility of outcomes. The following section discusses these issues in relation to the stakeholder views and literature that they relate to.

It was apparent that the different stakeholders judged the project based on different success criteria. This is supported by Muller, Sato and Chagas (2014) who argue that stakeholders should be allowed to apply whatever success criteria that are relevant for them in terms of utility at that moment in time (p. 633). The researcher also found that there were mixed responses from both the project initiators and recipients on the levels of success of the project. For some, the project was successful, for others, it was not, and for yet others, it was not as simple as saying that it was a success or failure. Some stakeholders were more comfortable with describing the aspects of the projects that they found successful rather than stating that the project was a success or a failure.

According to Ika (2009), stakeholder perception may vary both in terms of important criteria and actual project performance such that a project can be considered a success even if it does not meet up with cost, time, and quality criteria as assessed using the iron triangle, and a failure even if it has met all these criteria. This is because a project could be seen as successful as a whole but could have failed at various points through the process. Meredith and Mantel (2011) argued that what is realised as failure in a certain project can be perceived as a success in another. It is possible to have a project that is viewed as a success due to it achieving higher and long-term goals but have unsuccessful project management, and vice versa, therefore, projects can be successful despite unsuccessful project management. The moment that the management of the project stops, the narrow project management subset can be unsuccessful, but long-term outcomes can be successful because a wider set of goals are satisfied. For example, Heathrow Terminal 5 was regarded as largely successful, but commissioning issues to do with flight cancellations resulting from a lack of sufficient testing of the baggage system, leaving passengers unable to check in oversized bags were perceived by the public and, ultimately the customer, to constitute a failure (Brady and Davies 2010). In

other words, the project was regarded as largely successful by the project sponsor and team while the key beneficiaries of the project – the public, regarded certain aspects of the project as failures.

Davis (2016) considers success criteria in her study on the interpretations of success criteria and factors (deemed as success dimensions) from the viewpoint of multiple stakeholder groups. The author's research explores the perspectives of multiple stakeholder groups in judging success and failure and identifies which stakeholder perspectives are considered important and which are not. Davis (2014) found that there was a lack of agreement on the perceptions of project success factors between different stakeholder groups. The author argued that a common understanding by multiple stakeholder groups, as opposed to a selected few, is critical to the perception of project success. In the same vein, Turner's (2008) suggested that it was important to achieve a compromise between different stakeholder views, to achieve an overall balanced view of success (p. 48). According to Turner (2014), failure to evaluate success criteria with each stakeholder group could lead to poor decision-making, demotivation of employees, and an unproductive organisational culture or failure.

The literature also clearly documents the importance of agreeing success criteria not just at the end of the project but from the onset of the project. For example, Turner (2004 p. 350) suggests that success criteria should be agreed upon with stakeholders before the start of the project and repeatedly at intervals throughout the project. The author discussed four necessary conditions for project success (based on the work of two doctoral students, Wateridge (1995) and Müller (2003). In Wateridge's (1995) view, stakeholders may not share a common view about what the project is doing if the success criteria are not agreed upon beforehand. The author also stressed the need to continue to remind oneself and other stakeholders what the success criteria are and to agree on any changes, at configuration review points throughout the project.

The ICZ documentation reviewed by the researcher explains that the project had six objectives which were focused on enabling the university to fundamentally refocus its organisational culture and structure; its physical and virtual environments; the student experience; the experience of people and how the university was perceived externally. These objectives formed the basis of seven workstreams which were recognised as being essential to the

effective delivery of the project. The workstreams were made up of multi-disciplinary teams, working to agreed frameworks to meet the project objectives. According to the documentation on stakeholder benefits, benefits to stakeholders was articulated as follows: benefits to students - through “enhanced life opportunities through high quality, digitally enabled and industry engaged learning”. Benefits to staff through “enhanced professional opportunities through developing and applying skills; recognition and reward from shared success”. Benefits to industry partners through “access to ‘work-ready graduates and global thought leadership; opportunities to innovate and experiment”.

Although these objectives and benefits appear to be clearly documented and planned for, there is no evidence from the findings to support or show that the set of objectives, benefits or success criteria were agreed with all stakeholders from the onset or at the end of the project. This possibly explains the differences in views on success criteria by the different stakeholders.

7.4.1.2: Project Scope

The preceding sections have discussed how the project initiators’ views were heavily dependent on the deliverables of the project within the scope of a 2-year timeframe. It was important for the researcher, therefore, to look at the views of stakeholders on the scope of the project. According to the PMBOK (2013), a project scope outlines the objectives of a project and the goals that need to be met to achieve a satisfactory result. It is a description of the boundaries and limits of the project and defines what the project will deliver and what it will not deliver. At the project initiation phase, the first step towards establishing a project timeline is defining what is needed, setting up project goals and allocating project resources. These steps help to define the project scope. Defining the project scope is identifying all the work that the project will accomplish to achieve its final goal. The use of a project scope statement in this instance is useful for developing and confirming a common understanding of the project scope among key project stakeholders. According to PMBOK (2013), the scope statement should include the project justification, a brief description of the project outputs and their intended benefits, a summary of the project major constraints, assumptions and dependencies with other projects or external initiatives and a statement of what constitutes project success.

Once the scope is defined, tasks can be allocated, and the team is given the direction needed to deliver the project on time and budget. The work and resources that go into the creation of the product or service are therefore what frames the scope of the project (Mirza et al., 2013). Scope Management is explained by Murugesan (2012) to include "the processes required to ensure that the project includes all the work required, and only the work required, to complete the project successfully" (p. 329). Poor scope definition has been linked to project failure (Mirza, Pourzolfaghar & Shahnazari, 2013; Chen, Law, and Yang, 2009). Therefore, it is essential to clearly define and document the scope of each project so that the project can move forward in a coordinated manner and requirements can be written. The Chaos Report observed that projects with well documented specific objectives & proper scope management recorded successes while incomplete requirements, changing requirements, and unclear objectives were amongst the chief reasons behind project failures. According to Mirza et al. (2013), scope and objectives are the guiding principles that direct the efforts of the project team. They determine a project's success or failure. Without a well-defined scope, the objectives of information system development can be vague, and people may start to lose sight of what they are trying to develop.

As highlighted in the extract of the project plan in Appendix 5, the establishment of structures for account management was one of the four main deliverables of the project to be completed in the 2-year lifecycle of the project. The university's strategy was centred on industry partnerships and the project as a means to achieve an alignment of the university's current working practices into a more industry-aligned focus. However, the researcher observed that both initiators and recipients disagreed on account management being part of the scope of the project. Some project initiators suggested that the project was to prepare the organisation by communicating the message of the project to stakeholders which did not include the establishment of structures for account management. A majority of the project recipients, on the other hand, assumed that this was within the scope of the project. In their view, the necessary structures and mechanisms were not defined, planned for, or allocated tasks at any point in the project. These included proper staffing and roles as well as structures and processes for identifying key partners, developing new partnerships, managing partnerships, and growing partnerships, among others. The project also required that changes be made across different departments and schools with the expectation that people would understand

the changes and adjust their work patterns to reflect these in their daily lives. The findings, however, suggest that there were no structures or mechanisms to support the alignment of existing university systems and structures with the new industry structures. This, in the recipient's views, set the project up for failure.

The literature suggests that projects do not achieve much success because of a lack of a clear definition for project and product scope as well as improper control of them. According to Mirza et al. (2013), a project scope with clearly defined goals and objectives has been verified as a dimension for project success. One of the leading causes for project failures is poor management of the project scope, either because the project manager did not spend enough time defining the work, there was no agreement on the scope by stakeholders, or there was inadequate scope management resulting in scope creep. Collins & Baccarini (2004) consider a rigorous scope to be a factor that is necessary for meeting project needs and thus achieving success. A superior quality scope is said to dictate boundaries within the scope of work which in turn acts as alerts in the event of added works.

According to Mirza, Pourzolfaghar & Shahnazari (2013), it is vitally important that key stakeholders are identified during the development of the project scope because of the real contribution they can make to the scope document, which helps to increase buy-in and commitment, and cement relationships. Again, the question that arises for the researcher is who the key stakeholders of the project are and what steps or measures did the project team employ in identifying and managing the stakeholders to increase buy-in for the project.

What the findings illuminate is that different stakeholders had different understandings of the scope and objectives of the project which impacted on their perception of the project and led to many viewing the project as unsuccessful. According to Heagney (2016), the success or failure of a project is dependent upon customer satisfaction, which is dependent upon well-defined and agreed-upon requirements of scope, schedule, and cost. The issue of well-defined and agreed-upon requirements of scope is relative to the findings on the stakeholders' understanding of the project. It was clear that the perceptions of both the initiators and recipients were dependent on what they believed that the project was trying to achieve. Atkinson, Crawford & Ward (2006) argue that the scope of a project must be well defined and understood by all stakeholders, who have to make decisions throughout the project. However,

Maylor & Turner (2017) disagree with this position, as cited by Svejvig, Geraldi, and Grex (2019). In their view, managing projects with a predefined scope in mind is problematic, as the scope needs to develop with the project not prior to it. Kreiner (1995) also opposes having a pre-defined scope in the context of drifting projects and argues that a change of scope can keep a project relevant.

Not having a pre-defined scope in the perception of the ICZ project is an important consideration from the findings related to project scope. Both initiators and recipients believed the project to be ambitious in the 2-year timeframe set to deliver the project. One project initiator, for example, suggested that the project should not have tried to do too much at a time. This illuminates that communication and scope are interrelated. In the researcher's view, whether the project is ambitious or not depends on what stakeholders believe to be the scope of it. It is important to understand the scope of the project to judge whether the project has delivered on that scope or not. The project failed to clarify the scope of the project to the project recipients. This led to varying perceptions about the views of the project's success.

7.4.2: Skills / Human Side of Project Management

7.4.2.1: Communication and Stakeholder Engagement

As discussed in the previous sections, a theme that was dominant across the findings was the perception of a lack of clarity of the project scope, aims and objectives. The majority of the project recipients stated that they did not fully understand what the project was about or how the strategy was different from what the university was already practising. There was also an issue with the terminologies used in communicating the project's message to stakeholders. The term 'zone' gave the notion of a physical space, which was confusing for recipients and inevitably limited buy-in for the project.

As the project is considered to be a change project, it was necessary for the researcher to explore the literature on success in change initiatives. Authors such as Georgalis, Samaratunge, Kimberley, & Lu (2015) and Marinova, Peng, Lorinkova, Dyne, & Chiaburu (2015) have stressed on effective communication being crucial for the success of change initiatives. In managing

change initiatives, the literature highlights that communication can involve announcing and explaining the change, creating awareness of the need for change, increasing understanding of the proposed change, and minimising the uncertainty likely to be experienced by change targets (Cullen, Edwards, Casper & Gue 2014; Genkova & Geher, 2016).

The findings suggest that there was an issue with the terminologies used in communicating the project to stakeholders. The fundamental issue was the lack of project clarity and understanding across the different stakeholder groups. A lack of clarity would suggest an issue with communication. The literature emphasises the importance of effective communication in stakeholder management and relationships in projects (Feige, Wallbaum, & Krank, 2011; Lizarralde, 2011) suggesting that a lack of communication is a critical factor that can hinder project success. The literature suggests that communication must be clear, concise, well understood, and free flowing between leaders, team members, and stakeholders, while fostering a spirit of cooperation. According to Bansal (2009), the objective of the project manager is to make sure that each team member and stakeholder has a clear understanding of the project or program and its requirements. As highlighted in the findings chapter, while project initiators appeared to have a good understanding of the aims and objectives and scope of the project, the recipients were found to have a weaker understanding of the project. While some initiators said they knew about the project, the majority of them said they did not fully understand it. Some staff member recipients stated that it was not always clear to them what the project was trying to achieve. This, according to the recipients, impacted on their view of the success of the project. The project initiators' views were seen to deviate from Bansal's (2009) view as some project initiators disagreed on the need for one group of project recipients i.e., student stakeholders - to even know about the project. One project sponsor, in particular, stated that the project was not a student concept and what should concern the students was that the university was giving them a high-quality experience that had industry at the heart of it.

As discussed in the previous chapter, the project recipients' level of engagement with the project initiators played a big role in shaping stakeholders' views on the success of the project. It was apparent that there were issues with actual engagement between the project initiators and project recipients to a certain degree as the majority of project recipients said that they

did not feel engaged in the 2 years. Some staff members specifically mentioned that the lack of engagement was from senior management. In project stakeholder management, a project is explicitly described in terms of the individuals and institutions that have a stake or an interest in the project. Whatever the nature of the project, researchers such as Achterkamp and Vos (2008) and Brown and Jones (1998) have acknowledged that project failure is generally not the result of lacking or ineffective project management practices, but of inappropriate social interactions between the project stakeholders.

According to Mok et al. (2015), realistic stakeholder expectations can be spotted through effective communication routines. Therefore, a project manager can only truly engage with the stakeholder by effectively communicating with them. As Missonier & Loufrani-Fedida (2014) puts it, stakeholder engagement includes communicating with, involving and developing relationships with stakeholders. However, as seen from the findings, one project recipient described the communication from the university as dissemination information rather than proper consultation and engagement with staff. The findings suggest that while the project team had tried to engage with staff through workshops and ICZ events, these attempts were resisted by the majority of staff members, evident in the poor attendance recorded. As noted by Yang, Shen, Ho, Drew, & Xue (2011), stakeholders should be engaged as early as possible as early engagement is essential for stakeholder analysis and decision-making. This is reflective of the statement of one project initiator who suggested that consultation with stakeholders would have helped the project team better understand the challenges that they were up against and be more prepared to face them.

The communication of the project to stakeholders was a success measure as highlighted from the findings. Members of the project team stated that they communicated frequently with the project sponsor and provided reports frequently as well as organised workshops to communicate the project strategy to staff members. They, however, admitted that student stakeholders were left out in the communication strategy except for provisions made to engage student union representatives at the beginning of the project. It was the view of the project team that the students did not need to be kept informed as long as they felt the impact of the project. This was also the view of a member of the project sponsor group who also opined that the students did not need to know about the project. However, the lack of visibility

of the project among the student stakeholders was found to influence the perception of student stakeholders to be negative. As a majority of them did not know about the project, they believed the project to be a failure.

The significant question here is if it is relevant for all stakeholders to know about the project. Which stakeholders are the most important? Who decides? And what parameters are used to make the decisions? One issue that has concerned field research from the outset is how to deal with all stakeholders simultaneously. According to Mainardes, Alves & Raposo (2011), this is simply not possible, and the utilisation of criteria prioritising stakeholders has always been a theoretical requirement. While meeting every need is not always feasible, there is the necessity of paying greater attention to certain specific groups to the detriment of others. Therefore, the question remains: where should organisations pay the greatest attention? Are they targeting their efforts correctly or does there need to be some kind of restructuring to best satisfy the demands of those important to sustainable survival and success (Mainardes, Alves & Raposo, 2012) This issue of salience arises and is addressed in section 7.3.3.

7.4.3: Success Measures / Benefit Management

Following on from the differences in views on success criteria, an underlying factor from the findings is the realisation that project initiators measured the project according to project management success while project recipients measured the project according to project success. Authors like Cooke-Davies (2002), Serrador (2013) and Serra & Kunc (2015) have differentiated between project management success and project success. Project management success, also referred to as project efficiency, is success measured at project completion, and evaluated based on budget, schedule and requirements goals. Project success, on the other hand, also referred to as project effectiveness, evaluates how well the project creates value and delivers benefits, and whether the project outcomes meet the strategic objectives of the investing organisation (Cooke-Davies, 2002, Serrador, 2013).

The literature suggests that the criteria used to measure project performance are dominated by the delivery of outputs to agreed quality, on time and within budget (i.e., project

management success) (Narayanan, Balasubramanian and Swaminathan, 2011). As a result, efficiency of process (e.g., completion on time) rather than effectiveness of investment (by generating organisational benefits) is seen as the dominating performance metric. Dvir and Lechler (2004) relate this outputs-based measurement of success to the iron triangle. The 'iron triangle' was a term coined in 1969 by Martin Barnes, former Executive Director of the Major Projects Association (MPA), to demonstrate the relationship between time, cost and project specification adherence in assessing the success of projects upon completion (Dimitriou, Ward & Wright (2013). Thus, project management success is said to be success measured at project completion, based on project efficiency, and evaluated against the iron triangle.

In line with the literature, it was found that the project initiators based their judgements on project management success rather than project success. This was evidenced by comments from a majority of the initiators who believed that they had achieved what they had set out to achieve, that the project had delivered on time and within the scope of its deliverables. These project initiators believed that the message of the project had now been embedded within the university and that staff member had started to adopt new ways of working; therefore, they considered the project to be a success. The researcher, therefore, classifies the initiators' beliefs as based on project management success rather than project success.

The researcher further links the views of the project initiators and recipients to the measurements of project efficiency and effectiveness. The literature in Chapter 2 has highlighted that efficiency measures are based on cost, time, and scope, and effectiveness measures relative to broader outcomes such as the wider organisation value that projects aim to deliver. While efficiency is considered as the measurement of process – (doing something right), effectiveness is the measurement of outcomes (getting something right) (Jugdev and Müller 2005). Efficiency is also maximisation of project input to achieve a given level of output, while effectiveness considers achieving wider goals and objectives of projects.

As the project initiators based their views on outputs of project management success, the researcher found that they were measuring project efficiency; the project recipients, on the other hand, based their judgements on outcomes associated with the wider ICZ strategy (project success) and showed less concern for the list of deliverables that were ticked off by the project and workstream teams. In line with the literature, these project recipients based

their judgements on project success. As the project team was put together to deliver the project in the 2 years, the project and workstream team can argue a justification for delivering to the project outputs rather than the wider outcomes of the project strategy. Turner (2014), after all, points out that the reward system in organisations encourages the project manager to focus solely on project efficiency rather than project effectiveness.

The literature suggests that project management is applied to projects to optimise efficiency and effectiveness. However, in Lloyd-Walker and Walker's (2011) view, measuring project management success by efficiency and not effectiveness is an insufficient measure for the long-term sustainability of a business. The authors further argue that the use of specific criteria to measure success does not allow for other factors such as the resultant system and organisational benefits to be considered. The author stressed that project sponsors must move away from measuring efficiency (measurement of process – doing something right) to effectiveness (getting something right).

The differences in views between the initiators of the project and the recipients can be explained as truth not being an absolute thing because different people see different versions of the truth. Duffy and Jonassen (2013) shed more light on differences in views in their argument that knowledge and truth are constructed by people and do not exist outside the human mind. Therefore, truth can be one thing to one person and another thing to someone else. The argument is in line with the researcher's constructivist philosophical position as well as views of authors like Ika (2009) and Mcleod et al. (2012) who suggest that the judgment of success or failure is taken from a situational or subjective viewpoint such that evaluators of a project, though using the same criteria, can have different perspectives of a project as a success and as a failure. On the other hand, a set of criteria can be suitable for some perspectives but unsuitable for others. It is important to reiterate that the researcher's aim is not to find out if the project was a success or a failure. Rather, the aim of the research is to find out the views of stakeholders on the project and the reasons for their views.

7.4.4: Value Creation and Benefits Realisation

According to Ward and Daniel, 2012; Serra and Kunc, 2015; and Ul Musawir, Serra, Zwikael, & Ali (2017) benefits management implies that organisational processes and project governance

structures are set up toward the delivery of planned benefits. The literature suggests that benefits management is aimed at ensuring that the strategic goals of a project are translated into benefits.

An important observation from the interviews, as highlighted in the methods chapter, was that some participants based their views from the inception of the project up until the date of the interview. This would include their views on the 2-year project as well as the wider ICZ strategy from the initiation of the project up until its current status. Though the researcher made clarifications that the scope of the research was on the 2-year project and provided each participant with an outline of the 2-year plan of the project at the start of the interview (See Appendix 5), it was apparent that such participants were unwilling to separate their views on the two. Their views were simply on their perception of the "ICZ" and the impact it had (or not had) on them. What this implies is that such stakeholders were measuring the impact of the project based on outcomes that are associated with the wider ICZ strategy rather than a list of project deliverables that could or could not necessarily contribute to the strategy.

The university developed a strategy to span 5 years (2016-2021). The strategy was to make industry partnerships the heart of everything that the university did going forward. To achieve that strategy, the university came up with the concept of the development of four collaboration zones. A project was initiated in Jan 2016 to embed and enable the creation of these 4 zones and address the culture change that was required to achieve the strategy. This would mean a change in people's current working practices and the establishment of proper structures and roles in place to support a different way of working. Hence, the establishment of structures for account management was a key deliverable of the project. However, some participants believed that the necessary structures and mechanisms for account management were not in place for the project to be considered successful.

While the members of the project and workstream team believed that the project was successful, other stakeholders disputed the project's success. In their views, the organisation was still not ICZ ready and there were no real changes to how things were being done before the project was initiated. The significant question here is if the success of the project should be measured when the benefits have not actualised.

In line with the views on project success, an important consideration is that different stakeholders perceived the project based on the different measures of value that they placed on the project and its aims and objectives. According to Derakhshan, Turner & Mancini (2019), the goal of project deployment is to create value for the organisation and society. Shenhar, Dvir, Levy & Maltz (2001) also stress on the importance of value delivered by a project to an organisation, rather than how well a project is managed. It was found that a majority of the project recipients placed value on tangible outcomes from the project. It was not enough that the university had communicated the project's strategy to the stakeholders. In the recipients' views, tangible outcomes would demonstrate that the project was successful and prove to them that the university was serious about the project.

Some of the tangible outcomes that were suggested included having infrastructures and systems in place for account management and industry partnerships, and effective sponsorships resulting from the partnerships. These infrastructures would have showcased the achievements of the project to its stakeholders and potentially attracted potential partners. Some project recipients also placed value on stakeholders having a commonality of understanding of the wider organisational strategy and the project as a whole. This in their view would have given the project the leverage it needed to be successful. The different values that stakeholders ascribe to a project resonate with Eskerod, Huemann and Savage's (2015) study on identifying ways to understand, classify, and express stakeholder value. Their study acknowledges that different types of stakeholders may relate to different kinds of values and as a result place emphasis on different consequences of a project at hand.

The literature in Chapter 2 has highlighted the call for project studies to focus more on projects as a value creation process (Winter et al., 2006), as well as alternative management practices to deliver value (Kreiner, 1995). These practices are grouped around a stream of literature called benefits management, with the argument that delivering value requires a different management approach than delivering predefined output (Ward and Daniel, 2012; Laursen and Svejvig, 2016). According to Serra & Kunc (2015), a complete evaluation of success requires the component of value and benefits (Kerzner, 2013), which is focused on the project's contribution to the business strategy (Patanakul and Shenhar, 2012) and the creation of shareholder value (Ika, 2009, Levine, 2005). The benefits related component assesses success

based on the delivery of benefits to the business, clients and stakeholders which is primarily based on value.

Serrador (2013) suggests that the delivery of benefits to stakeholders has to be related to business strategies and the achievement of wider business objectives, especially by the financial perspective. This view was reflected by a majority of the project recipients who suggested that the success of the project needed to be measured based on benefits to the stakeholders. For example, as PWS4 commented, *"It can't be about establishing 4 ICZs, it has to be about bringing benefit to the university, bringing benefit to our students, to our staff as well. It needs to be fundamentally that it gives staff and students opportunities to work, to achieve, to gain more…"* Lloyd-Walker and Walker (2011) correctly put this in perspective when they identified that how the project affects customers and other stakeholders as well as how the business benefits from projects are important in assessing if the project has succeeded or failed.

Another important observation from the findings is that the project team maintained that they had delivered on the project after ticking off a list of project deliverables. When asked about the engagement of student stakeholders, according to a project team recipient, engaging students was not one of those deliverables. Therefore, they maintained that the project was successful despite the views of student stakeholders. However, student stakeholders had alternative views. In the students' view, the project could not be considered successful unless they at least knew about the project and they had been engaged from the beginning of the project. It implies that this set of stakeholders measured success based on outcomes that were associated with the wider ICZ strategy rather than a list of deliverables that the project team had achieved at the end of the 2 years.

This view is synonymous with Martinsuo, Klakegg, & Van Marrewijk's (2019) argument in an IJPM 2019 special issue editorial that suggests that success cannot be assessed merely in terms of goals reached at the time of project completion but should also be in terms of benefits compared to costs and value achieved over the project lifecycle compared to original value expectations of various stakeholders. Turner and Zolin (2012), in their study, also argued that project success is not just related to the completion of a project's scope of work, but also to the achievement of business objectives (i.e., the project delivers the desired outputs,

outcomes, and impacts). The question then is if project management success is an acceptable measure for the success of a project? Atkinson (1999), Cooke-Davis (2002) and Dweiri and Kablan (2006) all show that project management activities using only time, cost or quality measures (iron triangle) as the criterion of success is not optimal. Particularly, Atkinson (1999) demonstrates that the iron triangle is not relevant to control errors which translate into results not being as good as they could be. Consequently, the performance of a project should be measured through the overall objectives of the project and not only through the traditional measures of cost, time and quality.

Dimitriou, Ward & Wright (2015) look at the argument from a different angle. The authors suggest that while in certain circumstances criticisms of project performance against 'iron triangle' criteria may be justified, too often the prevailing negative narrative regarding project delivery and the 'iron-triangle' framing of project 'success' fail to provide a holistic assessment of the true value of such projects, particularly as regards to their potential role as 'agents of change' and impacts on urban agglomeration. They contend that the focus on project delivery can omit the long and broad view of project outcomes and related impacts.

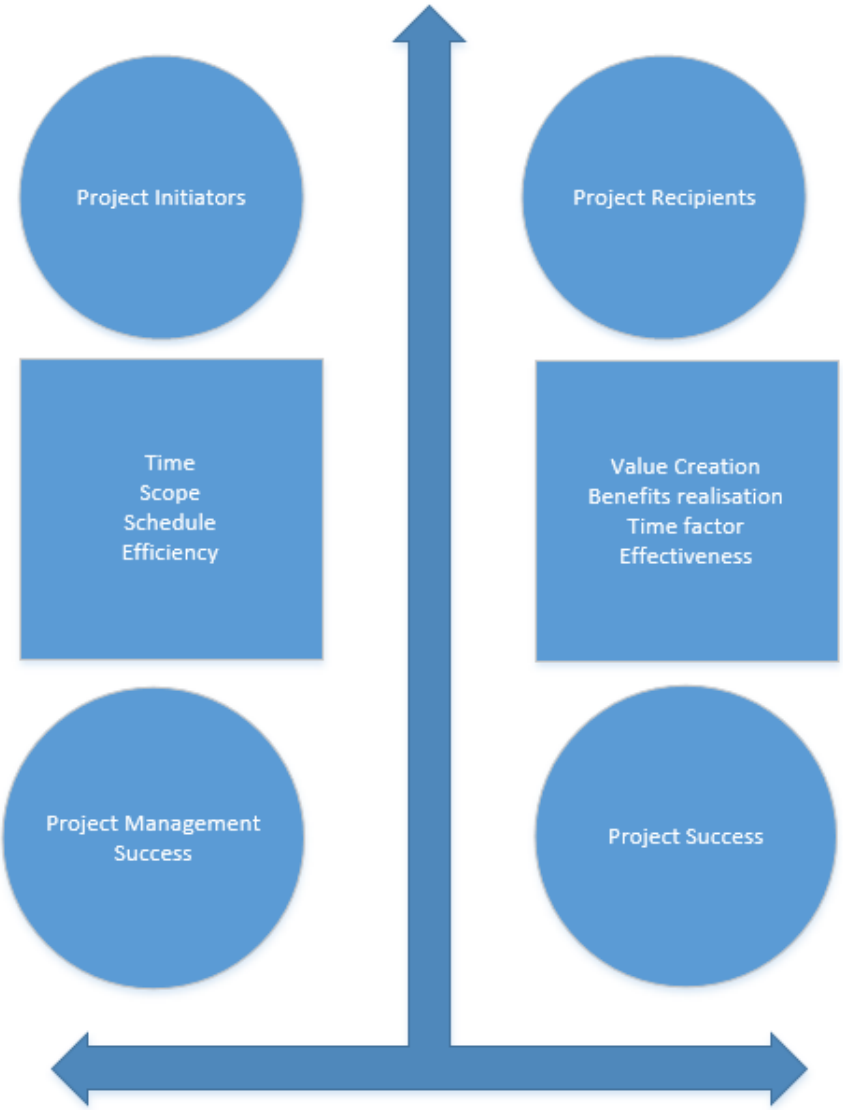


Figure 7.3: Representation of Project initiator /recipients categorisation from findings

As highlighted in Figure 7.3, what is apparent from the findings is that the interests of project initiators on project management success are manifested through a focus on the technical requirements of time and scope. On the other hand, the interest of project recipients on project success is manifested through a focus on benefits and the longer-lasting value of the project to recipients. The reference to the 2 years in the decision to close the project suggests that time was a factor in the perception of the project initiators and the recipients. The following section discusses the time factor of success from the findings.

7.4.5 Time Factor of Success

The findings suggest that members of the academic and non-academic staff understood that the project would be about changing the current practices of the university but had concerns about being able to achieve this within the 2 years. As discussed in the preceding sections, it was found that the project initiators based their judgements of success on achievements within the 2-year time frame of the project. The majority of project recipients, on the other hand, considered the measurement of success to include the period from the initiation of the project until its current status (at the time of the interview). It was apparent that the project recipients were unwilling to separate their views of the 2-year project from the period after handover – their views were simply on the "ICZ" and the impact it had (or not had) on the organisation.

The significant question then is - should success be measured when the benefits of the project have not been actualised? This became apparent from suggestions by most of the project recipients that their perceptions could change once they started to see the benefits of the project. When asked if the project was a success, some project recipients were of the impression that it was too early to say. This viewpoint is supported by researchers like Bannerman (2008) and Jugdev & Müller (2005) who argue that the success or failure of a product becomes more significant as it is used; while the success or failure in terms of business and strategic benefits are significant over longer time frames (Turner and Zolin, 2012). The time point used to analyse success, therefore, could change the outcome from perceived success to perceived failure, and vice versa.

Examples of projects that were delivered late and over budget but were later perceived to be successful are the Sydney Opera House and Thames Barrier (Morris & Hough 1987). Furthermore, other projects have been completed on time and at cost but have left their investors dissatisfied because they failed to deliver the desired benefits, such as the Sydney Cross-City Tunnel for road traffic. Five years after the London 2012 Olympics, the benefits that were thought to have been realised from the legacy of the Olympic is being questioned due to a failure of the project to regenerate parts of the city as planned – a justification for the infrastructure and new sports arenas and stadia was to provide a backdrop for a glorious future of sporting glories for the UK. Much of the infrastructure has been dismantled including the

Olympic Stadium in Stratford which is being turned into a 54,000-seater new home for West Ham United (The Sentinel 2014).

The findings are also reflective of Turner's (2009) work that identifies different stakeholders to perceive project success differently over different timescales. In the author's research, stakeholders such as the project manager, the project team, and suppliers judge success based on completion of the project. The operators of the project's output and the consumers of the product judge success in the months following the end of the project and how well it achieves its immediate business objectives. The investors or financiers of the project judge success in the years following the end of the project based on how well it achieves corporate strategy and delivers desired business development. Ika (2009) and Fahri, Biesenthal, Pollack, & Sankaran (2015) also emphasise that project success criteria such as the satisfaction of clients, end-users, and other stakeholders, as well as the strategic objectives of the client organisation, can only be understood a long time after the project has been finalised. As a solution to changing perceptions of projects over time, Jugdev and Müller (2005) and Khang and Moe (2008) suggest carrying out several evaluations for various reasons at different points in the lifecycle of the project. According to Eskerod, Huemann and Savage (2015), project success needs to be considered as an ongoing and long-term process of value creation in contrast to the traditional output measures of cost, time, quality, or financial value returns.

Sato and Chagas (2014) also raise similar arguments, acknowledging that projects can impact a society decades after project completion. They suggest that the measurement of project success should incorporate the time between the initial idea of the project and the time when success is being assessed. The time after project completion is also in focus in Fahri, Biesenthal Pollack & Sankaran's (2015) suggestion that a project's close-out phase (i.e., the stage when project outputs have been delivered) should be included when assessing project impact. Zwikael & Smyrk (2012) also suggested that a project's life should be extended (beyond execution) to accommodate outcome realisation and measurement. Outcome realisation is an additional phase of a project whereby, through a programme of appropriate intervention, attempts are made to secure the flow of target outcomes within an acceptable period. Priemus (2010) proposed a life cycle model for projects different from the classical project life cycle. An advantage of this model is that it includes the time after completion, whereas the classical

project life cycle “fails to capture the longer-term effects that projects usually produce” (Muller, Sato & Chagas, 2014, p. 625).

Svejvig, Geraldi, & Grex (2019) investigated the possibilities of accelerating the value delivery process of projects. Accelerating projects refers to increasing the speed of the progress of a project in relation to a similar project. They find that accelerating time to benefit and feel the project’s impact requires an organisation’s commitment to speed. They propose a conceptual model for accelerating time to impact consisting of ‘valuing time to impact,’ ‘institutionalising time to impact,’ and ‘managing time to impact.’

A commitment to speed can be seen in the decision to accelerate the ICZ project closure. According to a member of the project sponsor team, the decision was made as soon as the project sponsor was satisfied with the progress that had been achieved at the end of the 2 years. This, again, underlines the focus of the project initiators on project management success. The literature suggests that accelerating projects can have both positive and/or negative effects (Ellwood, Grimshaw & Pandza , 2017) and that success in one dimension in terms of timing does not imply success in another (Cankurtaran Langerak & Griffin, 2013). Svejvig, Geraldi, & Grex (2019) cite an example of a telecommunications infrastructure project solved in three months compared to two years for a comparable project showing short-term success with a financial upside, but with negative consequences such as safety breaches and other client projects suffering because of this project (Zidane & Andersen, 2018). Furthermore, quantitative cross-sectoral studies question the positive impact of acceleration on success.

7.5: Change Management Construct

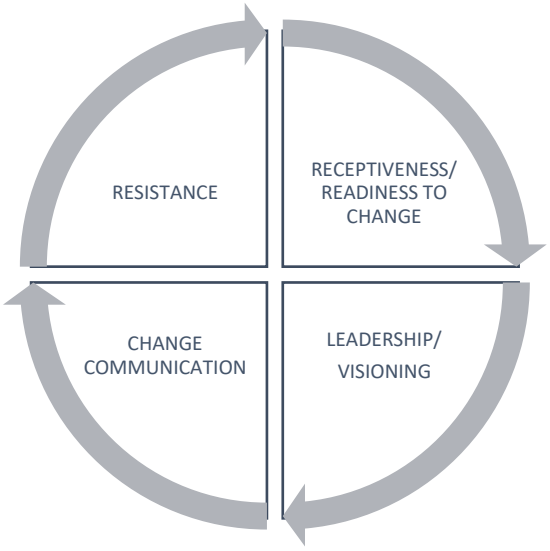


Figure 7.4: Change Management Element of the conceptual framework

Fig 7.4 highlights the change management element of the conceptual framework. The change management construct has been informed by the literature on receptiveness/ readiness to change, leadership/visioning, change communication, and resistance within the organizational change management literature. As the research is set within the organizational context, and projects are change agents, here, the researcher examines adopting change management with project-based initiatives as levers for influencing perceptions of success. The researcher embraces the argument that project success involves the question of whether or not employees of the organization adopt the changes that projects bring as well as measures such as visioning/leadership, organizational resistance, culture matching, and communication.

No evidence suggests that the project management team's achievement of the deliverables of the project contributed to the change in the culture of the organisation. The cultural change required to implement project management within an organisation is identified to be a major barrier to successful project implementation (Bredillet, Yatim, & Ruiz, 2010; Kwak & Anbari, 2009). This was also found to be an issue in the implementation of the ICZ project. It was clear from the findings that delivering the university project came with its associated challenges and barriers. Organisational politics, silo working, and rigid structures were frequently cited as characteristics prevalent within the culture of the university. The majority of the project initiators, as well as recipients, were of the view that these issues impeded the delivery of the

project. Synonymously, the literature suggests that project implementation can be slow or downright fail as a result of organisational culture (Christensen, Marx, & Stevenson, 2006; Kwak & Anbari, 2009).

Comments from both project recipients and initiators suggested that there was a recurrent issue of silo working where staff members and departments in different areas of the university appeared to be working with the same industry partners without liaising with one another and sharing information with other members of staff/departments. This frequently led to the duplicity of efforts, not working 'smart' and the perception that the university was not coordinated in its dealings with industry partners. The rigidity of the university's structures and the lack of control of staff members in manoeuvring existing structures surrounding the project were also cited as challenges that project initiators experienced working on the ICZ project. For example, according to an SLT project initiator, the setup of the project governance structure was outside the academic structure of the university and project plans that were written under the development leads were written without consultation with the schools. The governance structure, inadvertently, encouraged the silo working that the project was aiming to eradicate.

Adopting a new management approach is associated with a myriad of risks resulting from factors such as organisational resistance, communication breakdown, and insufficient time devoted to trainings. Organisational resistance and communication breakdown were evident from the findings. The organisational resistance was displayed by staff members who preferred old ways of doing things. A majority of them believed that the project was a label for activities that staff members were already espousing in their daily work activities with industry partners and had been doing for many years. To them, the project label was unnecessary.

Numerous studies on organisational change (for example, by Marinova, Peng, Lorinkova, Dyne, & Chiaburu, 2015) have found that the disposition of individuals to change influences their perceptions of a change initiative. Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, and Welbourne (1999) concluded that the success of a change initiative lies "within the psychological predispositions of individuals experiencing the change". Thus, the different innate inclinations of individuals to adopt change has strong potentials to predict their attitudes towards specific change. The change literature identifies that personality traits such as optimism, altruism, tolerance for

ambiguity, psychological resilience, and routine/sensation seeking, can influence specific change-related behaviours (Holt, Armenakis, Field, & Harris, 2007; Oreg, Vakola, & Armenakis, 2011).

The literature suggests that most change initiatives are unsuccessful due to a lack of readiness for change. The problem stems from a focus of organisational leaders more on tangible aspects of organisational change delivery such as scope, cost, and time required to implement change (Burgan and Burgan, 2014), rather than on the intangible aspects of considering the beliefs of change recipients, which can facilitate or hinder the implementation of organisational change. According to Oreg, Vakola, & Armenakis (2011), most of the research on organisational change has focused on how organisations prepare for, implement, and react to organisational change.

It has been therefore advocated that change needs to be planned for to effectively manage the change process, as well as improve the adoption and sustainability of the change initiative. Some strategies to create readiness have been suggested by change management experts (Weiner, 2020; Armenakis, Harris, Cole, Fillmer & Self (2007); Burgan and Burgan 2014). These include highlighting the inconsistency between current and desired performance levels, creating a vision of a future state, and fostering confidence that this future state can be achieved (Weiner, 2020).

In line with the literature, it was found that the staff members from the case perceived the project's title to be an unnecessary label for activities already being carried out within the university. This led to resistance in its buy-in. While this suggests a communication issue as discussed earlier, in the researcher's view, the resistance to the 'label' perception could have been overcome by clarity in the messaging of the project.

The literature clearly shows that managing perceptions of stakeholders is considered an important aspect of managing change projects. According to Dibella (2007), people's perceptions of change are more critical to successful change implementation than the nature of the change itself. Without the willing or active involvement of participants, change initiatives do not succeed, or they may lead to unintended or counter-productive consequences. Therefore, managing participants' perceptions is a fundamental element of managing the change itself (Fontes, Rodrigues & Craig, 2016). The question, then, is if the project initiators

made adequate efforts to manage the perceptions of the project recipients. This question was raised during the interviewing of project initiators; project recipients were also asked if they believed their perceptions had been managed. The findings revealed that the efforts of the project initiators at managing perception were in communicating the project strategy through workshops and events, and in employing different communication channels to ensure project visibility. However, these were largely targeted at staff members, while no such efforts were directed to other stakeholders.

7.6: Success Construct

Figure 7.5: Success element of the conceptual framework

This construct as illustrated in Figure 7.5 represents the eventual aim of the research to investigate the view of stakeholders (both initiators and beneficiaries) on success in project management within the organisational context and how project change management can influence stakeholders' views of success. The success construct illuminates the organisational context and lessons to be learnt from a synthesis of all the other constructs. The framework proposes as an outcome, key elements to improve the performance of projects and hence create value for organisations. It also presents the challenges of identifying success in the organizational change context and lessons learnt from the synthesis of the four constructs.

As has been seen from the findings, the perception of success goes beyond meeting schedule, budget and scope goals, it includes delivering the benefits, adding value and meeting the various expectations of stakeholders. Defining dimensions of success can be difficult because time is a factor; some of these dimensions can only be evaluated sometime after the project has been completed. Therefore, to help project managers and organisations assess the level of success of projects, there must be a differentiation between project management success and project success. The project can only be perceived to be successful if the criteria for success is adequately defined from the beginning, whether it be project management success or project success. As was seen from the findings, the initiators of the project measured the project's success based on the level of efficiency that the project reached its objectives. However, the project recipients measured success based on the level of effectiveness i.e., the extent to which the ultimate objectives were attained.

In terms of efficiency (output criteria level), success is defined by a measure of the completion of the project while addressing constraints of scope, schedule, budget and quality. The measurement here is how best the project team were able to use the resources to deliver the project outputs. In terms of effectiveness (organisational criteria level), success is defined by the criteria by which the users consider that the project has been beneficiary and the project delivers value to all stakeholders – both initiators and recipients. How it contributes to the overall organisational strategy and at the same time brings value to the recipients and initiators. In the case of the project, this is considered in terms of the project impact which would be measured once the stakeholders begin to enjoy the project benefits and impacts over a defined period.

7.7: Summary

This chapter has discussed streams of literature from different angles of the project management versus project success argument in the view of project initiators and recipients. This has included a discussion on different success criteria, the time factor of success, communications and stakeholder engagement, project scope, stakeholder importance, and culture change. It has shown how all the different areas and issues are related to the central issue of success.

The chapter established a clear distinction between project initiators and project recipients, with the researcher's classification developed with reference to literature. The different views on project management and project success were discussed in relation to what success looks like based on the stakeholders' criteria for success. It is clear from the findings that the project initiators were more interested in project management success whilst the recipients were more interested in project success. Project management success criteria relate more to achievements of the project to time, scope and efficiency whilst project success is related to benefits realisation and value creation. Other findings then fit into this.

The discussions are all interrelated with the central issue of project success and project management success. The discussions on scope are closely related to the central finding as different stakeholders had different understandings of the scope and objectives of the project which impacted their perception of the project. The discussions on communication and stakeholder engagement are also closely related to the discussion on stakeholder importance and clearly fits in with the central issue on project success and project management success. By the level of salience that the project initiators gave different stakeholders, decisions were made on which stakeholders to engage closely. Criteria such as student engagement had low salience as the focus of the project initiators was more on project management success than on project success (their concerns were largely with delivering to the time, budget and scope of the project. Other criteria like lasting value and benefits realisation of stakeholders that did not fall within their tick list of project management success criteria took a back seat. If success included criteria such as stakeholder satisfaction and engagement, these would have been ascribed higher levels of salience and would have possibly resulted in alternative perception levels of success from the stakeholders who judged that the project had not been successful.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

The effective management and engagement of stakeholders is recognised by academics and project management practitioners as a main critical success factor for projects. However, there are still accounts of many projects that are faced with issues and challenges in managing internal and external stakeholders, leading to a higher perception of project failures. This results in damaging consequences for both the projects, stakeholders and the business in general.

The research was focused on stakeholder perceptions to investigate the views of stakeholders on success in project management and how project change management can influence stakeholders' views of success. The research examined existing research, ideas and concepts of project management, stakeholder management and organizational change, and developed a conceptual framework to build on current theory development and practice.

The research found that to manage the perception of stakeholders, it is important to make decisions based on lessons from stakeholder management (such as to conduct a dynamic analysis salience) as well as understand the organisational characteristics influencing a project and in turn manage these factors for success. Ample time needs to be devoted to stakeholder management and capturing what each stakeholder group wants and needs. Consequently, project managers need to assess stakeholders, find their allies, find their champions, and work on more consistent, agile approaches to managing stakeholders rather than communicating with them only at the outset of the project. Hence, it is crucial to set proper communication channels and establish what the client's expectations are.

The researcher interviewed 37 members from different stakeholder groups of the project including 3 project sponsor team members, 2 core project team members, 4 workstream team members, 9 academic staff members, 4 non-academic staff members, 4 student union members and 11 industry partners. The researcher also conducted a focus group with 32 students in attendance. As discussed in the 'selection of interviewees' section of the Methods chapter, it was important for the researcher to seek out a broad range of views, as this was a

fundamental issue identified in the literature reviewed. Therefore, the researcher selected participants who potentially had different views of the project.

This chapter of the thesis presents a summary of the work carried out in the investigation of stakeholders' perceptions of the ICZ project within an organisational context. It provides an overview of all the other chapters, discussing how the research aim and objectives have been achieved, the limitations of the study, recommendations and suggested areas for further research. The chapter begins by highlighting the aims and objectives of the research as outlined in the introductory chapter. It goes on to discuss how these have been met by discussing the findings under each of the 5 research questions. Later sections of the chapter present the research implications, research recommendations, research limitations, and areas for future research.

8.2: A Brief Synopsis of the Thesis

This study set out to develop our understanding of stakeholder perception as a critical ingredient of project success. To achieve its aim, it adopted a robust approach by first understanding literature on key dimensions of success, stakeholder theory, project management human factors, and organisational change. This process illuminated the research gaps. The research objectives presented in Chapter 1 are reproduced hereunder for reference purposes.

- To conduct a critical review of relevant literature on project management, stakeholder management and organizational change theories in relation to project success.
- To identify success criteria, critical success factors and success measures of a selected project within an organizational setting.
- To analyse salience based on the perceptions of stakeholders on the selected case.

- To collect views of stakeholders in relation to success using the ICZ case study in order to obtain a better understanding of stakeholder perceptions and how stakeholder perceptions can be influenced for success.
- To develop and modify a conceptual framework that will be used to influence and manage stakeholder perceptions of success or failure in project management.

8.3: Key Research Findings

Given the conceptual framework of this research, three theoretical views were relied upon, e.g., stakeholder theory, project management and organisational change. These theories are the most commonly applied theories within the literature and are considered the most appropriate theories suitable for the context of the study. The research has shown sufficient evidence in answering the five research questions and addressed the overall aim of the research. This has helped to gain a better understanding of the different interpretations of how stakeholders judge a project that is being developed and how project managers can better influence a successful project view to stakeholders. The following section further discusses how the research aims and objectives have been achieved by discussing the findings under the 5 research questions.

8.3.1: Research Question RQ 1

The first research question **RQ 1**: **Which stakeholders are the most important based on different stakeholder perceptions of success?** was aimed at gaining an understanding of project stakeholder salience (importance) from different stakeholder perceptions and how this could benefit project management. The themes, stakeholder definitions and measures of stakeholder importance addressed this research question.

- The importance of a stakeholder emerged as an important theme in the delivery of the project. The majority of the project recipients viewed students and industry partner

stakeholders as the most important stakeholders of the project. These participants measured importance based on their understanding of the overall aim of the project. Their justification was that the project was aimed at delivering the most value to students and that industry partners had a key role to play in achieving this.

- The findings emphasise the importance of salience as a tool to aid decision making in project management, especially when stakeholders have different understandings and expectations about the project. It was seen that the project initiators had a different view of the salience of student stakeholders from the project recipients. Both initiators and recipients gave justifications for which stakeholders' interests should be given priority over the other. This indicates that project management involves the consideration of sometimes-conflicting views or interests of stakeholders whose interests vary and may not necessarily be in the interest of the project or the organisation. As can be seen from the findings, the different stakeholders had different understanding and expectations about the project.
- In determining the salience of each stakeholder of the ICZ project, it would have been up to the project initiators to decide the weight of salience attributed to each stakeholder, which would have, for example, resulted in the decision to engage or not engage the students' stakeholders. Student stakeholders, on the other hand, believed that they were key stakeholders with relatively high salience yet felt that they had not been engaged as they should have been if they had been considered as highly salient stakeholders. This heavily impacted on their perception of the project and should have been a criterion for success.
- The responsibility to attribute salience to stakeholders is dependent on the interpersonal (leadership and decision-making) skills of the project manager. The project manager must be aware of the dynamic nature of stakeholder salience as a group of stakeholders can traverse into another group with time.

8.3.2: Research Question RQ 2

The second research question **RQ 2: Is stakeholder classification related to the stakeholders' understanding of projects? –** was aimed at finding out if stakeholders' understanding of a

project is dependent on stakeholder classification. The 'Different strengths of project understanding' theme addressed this research question. This finding is relevant to the classification of stakeholders into project initiators and recipients. The fundamental issue from the findings was that the majority of project recipients - the students, staff and industry partners, had a different understanding of the project and its objectives from the project initiators - the project team, workstream team and senior management. As highlighted in the findings chapter, while project initiators appeared to have a good understanding of the aims and objectives and scope of the project, the recipients were found to have a weaker understanding of the project. While some initiators said they knew about the project, the majority of them said they did not fully understand it. This was particularly relevant to the majority of SUR and IP stakeholders who said they did not know or understand the project. Therefore, it was found that the level of understanding of the project varied according to the groups that the participants belonged to.

The research found that the different levels of project understanding influenced how these stakeholders viewed the project. The knowledge of a project does not equate to the understanding of it or automatic buy-in into it. Synonymously, Davis (2014) found that there was a lack of agreement on the perceptions of project success factors between different stakeholder groups. The author argued that a common understanding by multiple stakeholder groups, as opposed to a selected few, is critical to the perception of project success. A collective understanding of the project by stakeholders would have had a different impact on stakeholder views. Similar to Davis (2014), the current study has added to the academic literature by providing further understanding of the dimensions used to identify project success and supporting the view that reconciliation of stakeholder views throughout the project lifecycle might well influence the final project outcome. The researcher's framework, therefore, supports the work of Davis (2015) and also extends it by illuminating the additional dimensions of 'project understanding using the project initiator and project recipient classification'.

8.3.3: Research Question RQ 3

The third research question **RQ 3: What are the challenges of successful project delivery within an academic organisational context?** - was aimed at understanding the challenges of project delivery within an organisational context. It was clear from the findings that delivering the project within the university came with associated challenges and barriers. Organisational politics, silo working, and rigid structures were characteristics cited as prevalent within the culture of the university that contributed to the resistance to the project. The majority of the project initiators, as well as recipients, were of the view that these organisational characteristics impeded the delivery of the project.

Without the willing or active involvement of participants, change initiatives do not succeed, or they may lead to unintended or counter-productive consequences. Therefore, managing participants' perceptions is a fundamental element of managing the change itself (Fontes, Rodrigues & Craig, 2016). The question then is if the project initiators made efforts to manage the perceptions of the project recipients. This question was raised during the interviewing of project initiators; project recipients were also asked if they believed their perceptions had been managed. The findings revealed that the efforts of the project initiators at managing perception were in communicating the project strategy through workshops and events, and in employing different communication channels to ensure project visibility. However, these were largely targeted at staff members and not students. A more holistic stakeholder management in line with effective change management initiatives and processes could have led to more buy-in and a greater perception of success from stakeholders.

There appeared to be an issue with the clarity of the terminologies used in communicating the project to stakeholders. A lack of clarity would, again, suggest an issue with communication. Some staff member recipients stated that it was not always clear to them what the project was trying to achieve. This, according to the recipients, impacted their view of the success of the project. In the researcher's view, the resistance to the 'label' perception could have been overcome by clarity in the messaging of the project. A clearer communication of the message of the project in terms of how the ICZ project was different from what the university was already doing could have also influenced the project's perception. The findings also illuminated

that communication must be clear, concise, well understood, and free-flowing between leaders, team members, and stakeholders, while fostering a spirit of cooperation.

8.3.4: How Do We Manage Stakeholder Complexity in the Context of the ICZ Project?

This research has explored multiple stakeholder perceptions of a project within the organisational context by building on a stream of research that gets a better understanding of the complexity of stakeholders in project management (Rezvani, Chang, Wiewiora, Ashkanasy, Jordan & Zolin (2016). As seen from the discussion chapter, the stakeholders had different expectations and understanding of the project aims and objectives. These varied stakeholder expectations and understandings resulted in varied perceptions of success across the different stakeholders and stakeholder groups, resulting in increased stakeholder complexity.

A stakeholder is a "complex system" consisting of both, congruent and competing, influential interest groups (Aaltonen & Kujala, 2016). As the number of stakeholders within the project landscape increases, there is an increase in the time, resources, coordination costs and effort required to engage stakeholders as well as to balance acts between their needs, and to decide which stakeholders are salient, which will be included in engagement efforts and which will be dismissed. This responsibility falls on the project manager.

Managing stakeholder complexity, firstly, is about understanding stakeholder complexity and the influence of complexity on stakeholders' perceptions of success. This understanding will enable project managers to improve the decision-making process in their delivery of projects, as well as aid in preparing and planning for changes and variations throughout the project. Consequently, stakeholder management plays a critical role in improving stakeholder complexity (Beringer, Jonas & Gemünden, 2012).

The question, then, is how do we manage stakeholder complexity in the context of the ICZ project - a project that aims to bring academia and industry to work towards developing a robust teaching and learning platform. According to Deem (2004), applying project management to the academic environment is complicated because there is a general acceptance that academics are "trained as critical thinkers and can apply this to anyone trying to manage them". The research project life cycle is not straightforward, therefore,

implementing traditional management practices is problematic. Managing stakeholder complexity in a project like the ICZ requires a systematic approach and appropriate project management, stakeholder management and change management skills to obtain the best project outcomes. As proposed by the researcher in the modified conceptual framework, adopting change management with project-based initiatives as levers will aid in influencing stakeholders' perceptions of success. The elements prescribed by the conceptual framework are explained below in the management of stakeholder complexity.

The first thing to consider is the context of the organisational environment of the University of Salford. The contextual nature of projects is well emphasised in the literature. In the context of the ICZ project, Ernø-Jjølhede's (2000) analysis of the project management theory with the management of research projects can be adopted for the ICZ project. The analysis suggests that the project manager must consider the research and teaching environment of academia as well as that of the industry by addressing the following:

- the desire of academics to have autonomy over their work and consensus decision making versus project management control needs of meeting schedule and budgetary constraints.
- the conflicting needs of having joint project goals and competing for grants or publishing opportunities.
- The difficulty of interpreting progress on research projects versus the need to report to the client with certainty and the need to act as if there is a certainty when making management decisions.
- The lack of knowledge asymmetry between the project manager and the individual researcher, where often it is the latter who is better placed to make decisions regarding his or her work.
- The need to take risks to be innovative versus the need to reduce risks to ensure that a project is delivered on time and within budget.

Identifying and addressing these contextual factors influencing the research and teaching environment, as is present in the ICZ, is addressing the complexity of the stakeholders of the project. From the findings, it is seen that stakeholder complexity had a significant impact on the project. As a result, the project management team before starting the project should have

made sure that all the stakeholders communicated clearly their expectations and that these were incorporated into the project planning and delivery. The project manager must understand all influential stakeholders, in terms of who interacts with who to assimilate all the diverse opinions and avoid disappointments in the end.

In managing stakeholder complexity, the following strategies can be employed by the project manager. These include:

- Providing leadership and visioning, to support the development of commitment and a common goal that people believe in and for them to feel they have succeeded. This type of transformational leadership will drive the organizational change process. For the change to be successful, the co-create method discussed in the literature (see page 115) which sees senior leaders orchestrating developing a vision for the project is bound to make better visions and ensure change is successful.
- Effective change communication: As discussed in the literature, to manage a change project with diverse stakeholders, communication needs to be effective. The project manager must understand how to communicate effectively across the organisational chain to different audiences, and how to manage and influence people who may report to others. It is not enough to have a common language, for communication to be successful, receivers and transmitters must have the same frames of reference, as well as shared experience and understanding because decoding of messages can be affected by perceptual filters.

8.3.5: Research Question RQ 4

The fourth research question **RQ 4: How do stakeholders judge the success of the project within the organisation and what criteria do they base their judgement on?** - was aimed at understanding how stakeholders judged the success of a project, the criteria that they based their judgements on and the critical success factors in implementing the project.

Figure 8.1: Perception arrow showing perception for success

The 'perception' element in figure 8.1 represents the thought process of stakeholders in determining success (i.e., what they base their judgements on, and the criteria/factors and measures they use). The totality of the findings from the three constructs of the Stakeholder Theory, Project Management and Change management feed into the final construct of success. This success construct represents the aim of the research in understanding stakeholders' perceptions of success (both initiators and beneficiaries). It also presents the challenges of identifying success in the organizational change context and lessons learnt from the synthesis of the four constructs.

- An underlying factor from the findings was the realisation that project initiators measured the project according to project management success while project recipients measured the project according to project success. The researcher further linked the views of the project initiators and recipients to the measurements of project efficiency and effectiveness. Success criteria in this context refer to the factors against which the overall success or failure of the project was evaluated. It was apparent that the different stakeholders judged the project based on different success criteria. The researcher found that different success factors were cited by different stakeholders including the delivery of the project objectives to time, to scope, and a quality fit for purpose, project visibility and awareness, communication and stakeholder engagement, value and benefits realisation, and tangibility of outcomes.

- The visibility of the project and awareness among stakeholders was a success criterion from the findings. It was the view of the project team that the students did not need to be kept informed as long as they felt the impact of the project. However, the lack of visibility of the project among the student stakeholders was found to influence the perception of student stakeholders negatively. As most of them did not know about the project, their perception was that the project had failed.

- It was found that stakeholders measured success based on outcomes that were associated with the wider project strategy rather than a list of deliverables that the project team had achieved at the end of the 2 years. The significant question that arose from the research was if the success of the project should be measured when the benefits have not been actualised. This finding highlighted Turner and Zolin's (2012) study that states that project success is not just related to the completion of a project's scope of work, but also to the achievement of business objectives. What was apparent from the findings was that the interests of project initiators on project management success were manifested through a focus on the technical requirements of time and scope. On the other hand, the interest of project recipients in project success was manifested through a focus on benefits and the longer-lasting value of the project to recipients. In line with the views on project success, an important consideration is that different stakeholders also perceived the project based on the different measures of value that they placed on the project and its aims and objectives. In the recipient views, tangible outcomes would demonstrate that the project was successful and prove to them that the university was serious about the project.

- Time was found to be a success criterion in the perception of the success of a project. The issue of time is closely related to project success as the time point used to analyse success can change the outcome of a project from perceived failure to perceived success, and vice versa. The stakeholders that assumed that the project was an end in itself were more interested in project management success and therefore based their measurements of success on delivering to the project closeout stage. For example, in the case of the ICZ project, the project initiators were more concerned with delivering to the technical requirements of time, budget and scope. They believed that they had successfully achieved the project scope in the 2-year time frame slated for the project, therefore ticked the project off as a success. Whereas project recipients who viewed the project more as a means to an end were of the impression that it was too early to say if the project was a success or a failure. For them, the benefits of the project had not been realised and there was no significant difference between how things were

done before versus after the project. These stakeholders were inclined to measure the outcome at some time after the project end date. The focus on project management success meant that the project had to be delivered in the 2 years. Whereas the focus on project success meant that it didn't matter how long it took to happen.

8.3.6: How Constructive Relationships with Stakeholders can Integrate Their Expectations into A Business Strategy

An essential aspect of managing projects is to develop positive relationships with its stakeholders. By developing a deep understanding of project stakeholders, project managers can create sound plans to eliminate delays, mitigate risks, and better align projects with wider business goals. The present study has confirmed that the perception of stakeholders is important and has a significant influence on the success of the project. Stakeholders have the power to influence a project throughout the project life cycle, therefore, they need to be managed carefully and effectively. Sustaining stakeholder relationships must be the forefront in management's decision-making and the pillar of a more inclusive corporate strategy.

Effective communication leads to constructive stakeholder relationships, which will reduce conflicts between stakeholders and improve the chances of a successful project outcome. According to Wang, Kaplan & Abdelzaher (2014), the deterioration of relationships is a threat to project or program success. To prevent relationship deterioration, a project manager must communicate effectively with the project stakeholders.

This suggests that a constructive relationship with stakeholders is achievable only through effective communication which in turn reduces conflict. To develop constructive relationships with stakeholders, it is important to firstly understand the stakeholders, and then engage them to understand their position by listening and asking questions. Delivering projects having this constructive relationship with the stakeholders will result in projects that are aligned with the client's business strategy because the stakeholder expectations, needs and interests are worked into the planning and delivery of the project for the client.

Effective communication requires that the project manager fully understands the needs, expectations and interests of stakeholders and then build these into the planning and delivery

of the project to reduce conflict as much as possible. Organisations are advised to address the needs of most, if not all, of their deserving stakeholders (Boatright, 2002). As stakeholders' needs are diverse and often conflicting, organisations must balance the business needs with these stakeholder needs.

Conflict between project stakeholders is a common issue in projects, regardless of the project's delivery system (Khanzadi, Turskis, Ghodrati Amiri & Chalekaee, 2017). Thomson (2011) argued that the pluralistic nature of a multi-stakeholder client body often leads to conflict between client stakeholders. It involves a series of behaviours regarding the inconsistent interests among different stakeholders, with such behaviours being capable of influencing and affecting the other within a project. According to Wang, Jiang, & Pretorius (2016), conflict management skills have become one of the key competences for project managers because conflicts in projects can cause cost overrun, project delay, low productivity, profit loss, and damage business relationships (Jaffar, Tharim, & Shuib, 2011).

Engaging stakeholders is an important part of doing business because stakeholder perception is important. Effective engagement requires that the project manager focuses on understanding stakeholder perspectives and addressing these in order to achieve the intended outcomes. Putting in the effort to explore stakeholder points of view has the dual benefit of building an understanding of the stakeholder issues and building relationships. Ultimately, it is a company's stakeholders that give it legitimacy as a responsible enterprise. Even if a company believes it is acting responsibly, it will have little credibility and may suffer reputational damage if stakeholders do not perceive it to be acting responsibly. Through engagement, project managers can anticipate business opportunities and risks within a business which in turn gets incorporated into the strategy of the business. When stakeholders are engaged, their concerns and interests are taken into account which helps the business improve its relationships with the stakeholders. This makes it easier for the business to operate, leads to ideas for products or services that will address stakeholder needs and allows the organisation to reduce costs and maximize value.

A project manager must, therefore, be skilful in communication and relationship building because successful project management requires the ability to build long-term and trusting relationships with stakeholders. This is an essential element that defines the success of project

managers and leaders because project managers that can foster a deep level of connection with their stakeholders bring a significant competitive advantage to their businesses. By maintaining constructive relationships with stakeholders, the project manager lays a foundation to create an atmosphere of support and trust and establish a cooperation network. This enables the organization to anticipate potential problems and manage stakeholder expectations more effectively. Businesses must, therefore, develop critical strategies for building and strengthening relationships with stakeholders to solidify their long-term success. As seen from the findings of this research, better communication would have driven strategies to strengthen stakeholder relationships. Such strategies include:

Building trust: Building trust from stakeholder relationships is essential. A good relationship becomes ruined once the trust is breached, therefore the project manager must give stakeholders a reason to trust him/her by being open and honest, and using clear language that is not conflicting.

Listening: Another strategy is actively listening and engaging with stakeholders to gain a deep understanding of the position of stakeholders. A genuine show of interest in the stakeholders to understand their needs, interests and expectations will result in them being more open and interested in the message that the project is conveying. On the other hand, not listening and engaging with them will lead to misunderstandings, tense relationships and conflicts. This research has illuminated the mindset of stakeholders of the ICZ project which will help the organisation to understand the position of the stakeholders and why they think the way they do.

Being honest and open about project progress: If the managers of the project had taken responsibility for their actions and the issues encountered in delivering the project, they would have gained the respect of stakeholders. At the end of the project, the project managers insisted that the project had been a success contrary to the views of some other stakeholders who measured success based on other criteria as discussed earlier. In summary, effective communication is critical because it is the key to good understanding and trust between stakeholders and the project as well as the business.

8.3.7: Research Question RQ 5

The fifth research question RQ 5: What project management aspects have impacted on stakeholders' views of the ICZ project? - was aimed at understanding what project management skills are considered important in delivering the project and what aspects stakeholders considered important that contributed to their views of the project. It was clear from the comments that the management style of the project team impacted on how stakeholders viewed the project.

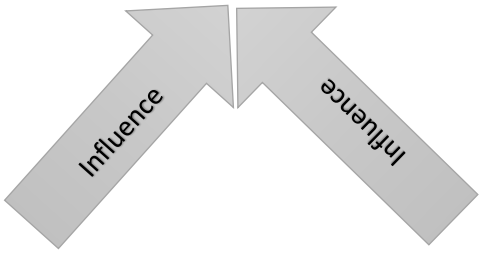


Figure 8.2: Influence arrow showing perception for success

The 'Influence' arrows on the modified framework signify the intentions of project management and change management to manage stakeholder perceptions for success.

- The findings suggest that many of the highlighted skills that influenced the perception of the project were soft skills. One of these soft skills that were found to run through all the other themes of the study was communication. The literature suggests that communication is an aspect that impacted on the stakeholder views of the project. Communication must be clear, concise, well understood, and free-flowing between leaders, team members, and stakeholders, while fostering a spirit of cooperation. According to Bansal (2009), the objective of the project manager is to make sure that each team member and stakeholder has a clear understanding of the project and its requirements. The project initiators' views were seen to deviate from Bansal's (2009) view as some project initiators disagreed on the need for one group of project recipients i.e., student stakeholders - to even know about the project. One project

sponsor, in particular, stated that the project was not a student concept and what should concern the students was that the university was giving them a high-quality experience that had industry at the heart of it.

- Change management literature suggests that managers should excel at communication, as the absence of communication is an essential factor that can hinder project success. In line with Whelan-Berry and Somerville (2010, p. 181) suggestion, there should have been a two-way communication that would regularly specify the initiative for change, its enactment, linked victories, issues and challenges and how these can be resolved. With two-way communication, the project management team could have worked better at influencing the perceptions of the stakeholders. As Christensen and Cornelissen (2011) noted, the communication of change is aimed at influencing the viewpoints of diverse internal and external stakeholders for an organisation. Therefore, this should have been the focal point for the project management team to influence the stakeholders' perceptions. In a two-way communication of change for an organisation, there is potential for greater engagement and understanding from employees, and an effective medium to address uncertainties and questions and potential obstacles. In designing a communication approach, managers are encouraged to evaluate how context features can affect message coding and decoding and accordingly design the message content and channels. Three challenges to consider in the design of change communications was highlighted by Nelson and Coxhead (1997) as overload, ambiguity, and distortion. As can be seen from the findings, these same challenges were emphasised by participants in one way or another. What was missing from the management of the project was an effective communication strategy to address these issues. In adopting lessons from change management, strategies to create readiness for change include highlighting the inconsistency between the current and desired performance levels, creating a vision of a future state and fostering confidence that such a future state can be achieved.

- The consideration of context features that affected the communication of the project to stakeholders is a major issue that was not considered in the case of the project. In

designing a communication approach, change management literature encourages managers to evaluate how context features can affect message coding and decoding and accordingly design the message content and channels. An important element of the literature is the importance of preparing for and managing 'organisational receptiveness for change' and 'individual readiness for change' to effect more successful change projects. The findings suggest that there was a high resistance to change from most of the staff members including resistance to the language and terminologies of how the project was communicated. It is believed that effective preparation and planning using change management initiatives and processes as discussed in the literature chapter by both the project sponsor and project management team would have led to a more successful project and influenced the perception of the stakeholders. Evaluation of the context features would have impacted on the message coding and decoding and led to a more responsive design of the message content and channels. According to Palmer, Dunford, & Akin (2016), strengthening conditions when receptiveness is low require specific actions such as making sure that people clearly understand and are strongly motivated for change; ensuring that the organisation defines a clear vision as well as its goals and benefits of change; implementing measures to build confidence to advance trust; making sure that high-performing individuals hold significant positions; ensuring that there are required capabilities to manage change; ensuring that satisfactory resources are available to support the proposed change; ensuring that performance management and reward systems are aligned with change goals; and developing a clear action plan.

8.4: How APM (Association of Project Management) and PMI (Project Management Institute) address the thesis RQs in their BoK (Body of Knowledge)?

The thesis research questions are as follows:

- RQ 1: Which ICZ stakeholders are the most important based on different stakeholder perceptions of success?
- RQ 2: Is stakeholder classification related to the stakeholders' understanding of projects?
- RQ 3: What are the challenges of successful project delivery within an academic organisational context.
- RQ 4: How do stakeholders judge the success of the selected project within the organisation and what criteria do they base their judgement on?
- RQ 5: What project management aspects have impacted on stakeholders' views of the ICZ project?

APM Body of Knowledge (APMBok)

The APM Body of Knowledge (APMBoK) 7th edition (APM, 2019) is a foundational resource providing the concepts, functions and activities that make up professional project management. It reflects the developing profession, recognising project-based working at all levels, and across all sectors for influencers, decision-makers, project professionals and their teams. The APMBok is complementary to the PMI's approach but takes a different approach as it is less prescriptive (APM 7th edition). The 'engaging stakeholders' section of Chapter 3 (people and behaviours) comprises five parts with four specific skillsets within the wider stakeholder engagement knowledge area: social context, engagement and influence, facilitation, conflict resolution. In the APMBok, stakeholder engagement differs from stakeholder management in that stakeholder management is described as a process, "the systematic identification, analysis, planning and implementation of actions designed to engage with stakeholders". By contrast, stakeholder engagement is the practice of influencing a variety of outcomes through consultation, communication, negotiation, compromise, and relationship building.

According to APMBok, stakeholder engagement and stakeholder management are arguably the most important ingredients for successful project delivery and yet are often regarded as a fringe activity or one that can be outsourced to business-as-usual functions. Project managers depend on people to respond to the outputs and benefits that they deliver. A project manager often has no formal power of authority and so has to rely on engagement to achieve his/her objectives as people will only respond if they are engaged. The APM-BoK (sixth edition) recognises that communication is fundamental to the project management environment and makes a very powerful statement: “None of the tools and techniques described in this body of knowledge will work without effective communication”. The similarity between the APMBok and the PMBOK, therefore, is that both standards consider the fundamental driver of success as identifying the important stakeholders in and around a project or program and then communicating effectively with each stakeholder.

The APMBok also addresses engaging and influencing stakeholders, forming, building and leading teams, and the generic skills and responsibilities of being a project professional to make it clear that all project-based work relies on the ability of people to work together. Stakeholders, those individuals or groups who have an interest or role in the project, programme or portfolio, or are impacted by it, cannot by definition be ‘managed’. Rather, depending on their stake, and the role that ideally, they will play, the people involved in the work, from sponsor to team member, are part of the effort to keep the stakeholder appropriately engaged and influenced to do the right things.

Chapter two of the APMbok (7th edition) is focused on ‘preparing for change’ which is considering practices in advance that are essential in early project life cycle shaping, mid-life cycle assurance, learning and maturity, and late life cycle transition into use. Translating strategic priorities into a justified business case for an investment in planned change leads to decisions about how to shape the particular project, programme or portfolio. Focusing on stakeholder needs and the organisation’s appetite for risk, early decisions can be made to inform detailed planning. Ultimately, the organisational return on investment from project-based working is accomplished when the project outputs are transformed into organisational outcomes of benefit to stakeholders. The approach adopted for the transition of project-based outcomes into use in business-as-usual is closely linked to the chosen life cycle, so many

variants are possible. In all cases, the ability of a temporary change team to influence the recipients of change in the permanent organisation.

Finally, the APMBok (7th edition) addresses the subject of influencing stakeholders by considering that effective engagement improves the chance of achieving objectives by having a positive influence on stakeholders' behaviours to use and sustain positive interest or minimise or remove negative interest. Influence relies on relationships being built and maintained. Relationships depend on factors such as respect, shared values and trust. To establish the best possible conditions to be influential, project professionals need:

- Contextual awareness: The ability to select the appropriate time, place and contributors.
- Cultural awareness: Understanding the background and values of both the organisation and the people involved (see APMBok, 7th edition, 3.2.5 and 3.2.6).
- Communication skills: Flexibility of medium used and clarity in the message (see 3.3.1).
- Conflict resolution skills: The ability to challenge neutrally and fairly, persuade and find mutually acceptable positions (see 3.1.5).

Influence can also be achieved through an understanding of relationships between stakeholders and the politics that shapes those alliances. Stakeholders who support the project can be used to influence stakeholders who do not.

Project Management Book of Knowledge (PMBOK)

The PMBOK is the Project Management Book of Knowledge which is a standard for project management that contains an entire collection of tools, techniques, methodologies, terminologies and best practices for project managers. It outlines a framework and best practices that project managers can employ to manage projects successfully. It was mainly focused on waterfall project management methodologies, however, this changed with the release of the PMBOK 7th edition in 2021. Previously, stakeholder management was one of ten knowledge areas (PMBok 6th edition) with four processes namely identify stakeholders, plan stakeholder engagement, manage stakeholder engagement, and monitor stakeholder engagement. However, in the 7th edition where there are no knowledge areas, stakeholders' performance domain is one of 8 project performance domains that are outcome-focused.

The PMBoK guide defines stakeholder management as processes required to identify people, groups, or organizations that could impact or be impacted by the project, to analyse the stakeholder expectations and their impact, and to develop appropriate management strategies for effectively engaging stakeholders. Stakeholder management is cited as an important area of project management in the PMBOK. According to PMBok, the ability of the project manager and team to correctly identify and engage all stakeholders in an appropriate way can mean the difference between project success and failure (PMI), 2017). To increase the chance of success, the process of stakeholder identification and engagement should commence as soon as possible after the project charter has been approved, the project manager has been assigned and the team begins to form. Stakeholder satisfaction should be identified and managed as a project objective. The key to effective stakeholder engagement is a focus on continuous communication with all stakeholders, including team members, to understand their needs and expectations, address issues as they occur, manage conflicting interests, and foster appropriate stakeholder engagement in project decisions and activities. The following points are key ways that the PMBOK addresses the present research questions.

- One emerging trend in project management is the concept of capturing the positive and negative value of effective stakeholder engagement. While positive value is based on considering benefits derived from higher levels of active support from stakeholders, particularly powerful stakeholders, a negative value is derived by measuring the true costs of not engaging stakeholders effectively, leading to product recalls or loss of organizational or project reputation (PMBok pg. 505).
- The PMBok suggests that the project manager tailor the way Project Stakeholder Management processes are applied due to each project being unique. When tailoring processes to each project, considerations should include a focus on stakeholder diversity, the complexity of stakeholder relationships and communication technology.
- The PMBok address the complexity of stakeholder relationships within the stakeholder community. It suggests that the more networks that a stakeholder or stakeholder group participates in, the more complex the networks of information and misinformation the stakeholder may receive.

- Agile/Adaptive Environments: Projects that involve a high degree of change require active engagement and participation with the project stakeholders. This can be facilitated through the use of adaptive teams that engage directly with the stakeholders rather than going through layers of management, thus ensuring that productive discussions and decisions are made promptly. Often the client, user, and developer exchange information in a dynamic co-creative process that leads to more stakeholder involvement and higher satisfaction.
- The benefits of regular interactions with the stakeholder community throughout the project are in risk mitigation, trust-building, and supporting adjustments early in the project cycle, thus reducing costs and increasing the likelihood of success for the project. To accelerate the sharing of information within and across the organization, agile methods promote aggressive transparency. The intent of inviting any stakeholders to project meetings and reviews or posting project artefacts in public spaces is to surface as quickly as possible any misalignment, dependency, or other issue related to the changing project.

Salience model: There is an adaptation of the salience model that substitutes proximity for legitimacy (applying to the team and measuring their level of involvement with the work of the project). The salience model is useful for large complex communities of stakeholders or where there are complex networks of relationships within the community. It is also useful in determining the relative importance of the identified stakeholders. To meet or exceed stakeholder needs and expectations, in other words, identified and unidentified requirements and to balance these among stakeholders if the requirements are competing, is a core task within project management (Project Management Institute [PMI], 2008)

8.5: Success in Project Management, Stakeholder Management, Change Management and Organisational Context

This section discusses the researcher's views on how project management and change management can work together in influencing stakeholder's perceptions for success. This is signified by the plus sign in the modified framework (figure 8.3). It indicates the intention to

combine lessons from project management and change management informed by the stakeholder theory, to equally influence the perception of the stakeholder for success.

Figure 8.3: Plus arrow showing combination of project management and change management

The literature reviewed in Chapter 2 demonstrates that effective change management and leadership significantly influence the successful implementation rates of organizational initiatives/projects (Gilley, Dixon & Gilley, 2008; Infoq, 2017; Turner and Müller, 2005). Success in the project change management context involves project management and change management working together to manage projects and their resulting changes, which is important for the success of organizations.

- The APM Body of Knowledge 7th Edition (APM, 2019) defines change management as the overarching approach taken in an organisation to move from the current to a future desirable state using a coordinated and structured approach in collaboration with stakeholders. It refers to tools and processes used to manage change within a project and its project team. Therefore, within the context of project management, change management has an impact on how stakeholders perceive project tasks, activities and the overall management of the project. The literature suggests that change management is management to derive the desired behavioural outcome from stakeholders being impacted by change. In the case of the ICZ project, many of the stakeholders stated that the culture of the university had still not changed. In the view of such stakeholders, the project would only be perceived as successful if the beneficiaries of the project accepted the change and engaged with it.
- The need for project managers to include the ability to guide organizational change projects as a competence in project teams was stressed by the literature. Horstein

(2015) argues for project management processes and the training of new project managers (PM) to consider the impact of organizational change on the success and failure of projects. The author makes a case for the requirement of project managers to be familiar with organizational change management (OCM). The literature suggests that the project management and change management teams must work together with clearly defined responsibilities between both teams. The project manager should become a change manager, understand the rationale behind the change and elements of change management that can enable the successful running of the project for success. The ICZ project did not have a change management team. Having considered the lessons from change management, the researcher believes that investing in building change management capabilities within the project team as a competence would have benefitted the team in synthesising the lessons from change management, which would have influenced the perception of stakeholders.

- The synthesis of change management with project management suggests great opportunities for the delivery of project outcomes and competencies that would embed change and enable the required project benefits. Because projects feed into the strategic objectives of an organisation and have a substantial and long-term impact on the business and its stakeholders, project and change managers must work together to ensure a project's long-term success. The project manager prepares, equips and supports team members and other stakeholders to adopt the change which drives the organisation's success. According to the findings, the focus of the ICZ project manager and project management team was on the delivery of project objectives. They, however, failed to manage the change issues raised which led to resistance and negative perception from many stakeholders, particularly the staff members. As is part of the organisational context, resistance can set in for people who are not willing to change or understand the need for change, or to accept new processes. The project manager would need to understand resistance, pervading cultures and the change engagement strategies required to change people's perceptions.
- The management of change success also involves the management of individual mindsets throughout the project lifecycle as well as the management of the organisational change mindset. In managing individual mindsets, the project manager

must first focus on the people as change is not possible without the people involved. There must also be a look at the right language to use to ensure people are welcome to change. If there is a need for training to help people with the transition, then this should be considered and provided. In managing the organisational change mindset, the project manager must identify the critical success factors and change success factors for the organisational change and then plan accordingly on how to address these factors.

- The benefits of synthesising project management and change management also lead to an increase in the efficiency of managing the project while working apart can lead to the redundancies and inefficiencies experienced in the project. The findings have shown that addressing change would mean attending to issues such as project visibility, stakeholder engagement, the use of appropriate language that will lead to stakeholder buy-in, and the effective use of the salience model from different stakeholder perceptions to correctly categorise and manage stakeholders. This should be done in line with other hard management activities required to deliver the project. Another benefit is the potential to apply change management mitigating strategies to project management risks, which may not be considered normally within project management. This includes the management of resistance from stakeholders and the identification of areas where there could be higher potentials for resistance. The lessons here will allow for a more effective planning for project delivery.

8.6: Research Contributions

Given the approaches used in this research, the contributions of this research are in multiple folds. For example, this research has made methodological contributions by using suitable and appropriate methods to collect and analyse the primary data collected. This research has also made empirical contributions through the collection of primary data from stakeholders of a case project. Finally, theoretical contributions to the existing project management, stakeholder management and change management literature have been made through the research findings as noted below. The field of stakeholder management is rich and cuts across the

boundaries of all business studies including project management, strategy, and ethics. However, the primary contribution of this study is made towards project stakeholder management research. The research builds on both the descriptive and instrumental perspectives of the stakeholder theory, describing project stakeholders and explaining elements that impact their perception of success and the effect of their perception on the project and ultimately the performance of the organisation. The research has filled a gap in the project stakeholder management literature, as well as brought up key gaps and areas for further research in project stakeholder management literature. This research has equally illuminated the mindsets of stakeholders of the ICZ project which will help the organisation to understand the position of the stakeholders and why they think the way they do.

8.6.1: Theoretical Contributions

The main theoretical contributions of this research are the collective findings of this research. This research has contributed to theory in the following ways:

- The study has added to the academic literature by providing further understanding of the dimensions used to identify project success and supported the view that reconciliation of stakeholder views throughout the project lifecycle might well influence the final project outcome. The researcher's framework, therefore, supports the work of Davis (2015) and also extends it by illuminating the additional dimensions of 'project understanding using the project initiator and project recipient classification'.
- A modified conceptual framework that is stakeholder centred has emerged from the current study. The researcher developed an integrated framework to synthesise the different constructs of success, stakeholder theory, project management, and change management, within an organisational context. The framework promotes a holistic approach to managing stakeholders' perceptions of success. It focuses on integrating all components of projects within the organisational context, as well as mapping the relationship between them. The integrated framework was chosen as a theoretical framework to develop and improve project management delivery within interrelated elements that is characteristic of any project delivered within an organisation. Hence, the framework brings together all elements to complement the other constructs and

so can be implemented by change management, project management, and/or stakeholder management practitioners to improve project delivery. In doing so, this research has demonstrated the relevance of project management fused with change management and stakeholder theories. Through the application of this framework, project managers can significantly reduce resistance from stakeholders, while identifying and exploiting the opportunities which present themselves in their engagement with the stakeholders. It also provides project owners, managers, planners, and executors with significant insight into how stakeholders can be properly managed and engaged.

- The study has used an alternative qualitative methodological approach to investigate the perception of stakeholders on success and failure in project management, contrary to the predominance of the objectivist approach of project management research. Hence, this research extends the methodological choices for the project management study.

- The researcher has responded to the criticism of the salience model by conducting a dynamic analysis of the model (project stakeholder salience model) based on different stakeholder perceptions informed by the empirical data. The model, which is stakeholder centred, allows differing views from different stakeholder groups to be included when formulating KPIs to ensure that success measures are met.

8.6.2: Contribution to Academia

- The scope of this research has credible potential for publication in reputable academic journals, while also providing a foundation for further research. For example, a section of the research has been published at the BAM 2019 conference: Understanding Stakeholder Views on Success in Project Management – An Industry Collaboration Zone Project Case Study.
- This research has enriched the stream of research of multiple stakeholders' perceptions in project management particularly within the organisational context, following on from studies of researchers like Davis (2017) and Googins & Rochlin (2000,

pg. 133-134) who investigated the perception of different stakeholder groups and proposed that a common understanding of project success by different stakeholders is pivotal for the success of a project.

8.6.3: Contribution to Industry

- The impact of the framework is to provide guidance and a better understanding to project practitioners and organizations in general on what contributes to success in projects to optimize the management of projects.
- Through a better understanding of the process by which perceptions of success are constructed by stakeholders, interventions might be conceived that increase perception of success or reduce perceptions of failure.
- It is expected that results from this study will help project executives, managers and personnel with project management and change management responsibilities to align the lessons from both disciplines within their sectors to attain organisational goals.

8.7: Managerial Implications

- The findings from the study, the modified framework and the dynamic model will be invaluable for project management personnel and practitioners as well as change managers and other managers with responsibilities for stakeholder management who are keen on improving their performance and success rates in projects. Through a synthesis of the different elements as well as the understanding of the success factors that influence stakeholder perceptions for success, lessons can be aligned within different sectors to attain organisational goals.
- The findings also provide useful insights to policymakers from different sectors on the impact of managing stakeholder perceptions to improve the success rates of projects. The findings may stimulate discussions that will lead to policy reviews in project management industries and other related bodies.

- Other possible audiences for this thesis are researchers who are interested in project management, change management, stakeholder managers, business managers, and other managerial responsibilities.

8.8: Research Limitations

Regardless of this study making several contributions to knowledge, there were some limitations.

- An obvious limitation is that the research employed a single case for the study. In consideration of this, the findings of the research are, therefore, not a depiction of the entire academical organisations in the UK. Future research could utilise a larger case selection size as the single case selection may have impacted on the research findings. This could be achieved by including other sectors and/or cases in assessing the relationships between the elements observed in the research.
- While the interview and focus group method of data collection used in this research underwent rigorous editing and vetting by professionals and researchers, the research recognises the drawbacks of bias associated with semi-structured interviews and focus groups. However, the researcher has taken steps to mitigate these bias as discussed in Chapter 3.
- The research was limited by time constraints and unpredicted organisational issues in collecting the data for the research. Several scheduled interviews were cancelled by participants. Initially, the researcher had planned to conduct several focus groups that would incorporate different stakeholder groups, but this was not feasible as participants were unreliable and kept cancelling due to schedule issues. Eventually, only one focus group could be conducted with 32 students in attendance.
- Another limitation was the period between the data collected and the submission of the thesis. The researcher had planned to conduct more interviews as a follow up to initial interviews, but difficulties of social distancing and other issues related to the COVID pandemic prevented this from happening. The researcher was forced to conclude the research with the analysis of the available data collected. To mitigate this

limitation, however, the trends from the analysis were discussed in light of newer and more contemporary literature that may have impacted the results.

- The semi-structured interviews conducted were thirty-seven (37). Though the researcher believed that she had reached data saturation, it would be interesting to see the impact of increasing this number by interviewing more stakeholders, as well as making use of more than one case study from other organisations.

8.9: Recommendation for Further Research

The study limitations leave a gap for future studies to be conducted. These are as follows:

- The study focused on one case study within an academic organisation. It would be interesting to test empirically if there are differences in findings in other sectors of activity as well as with multiple case studies to gain a broader picture of other emerging project management issues.

- Salience is considered in relative terms and perceived through the researcher's analysis, not as an absolute. This must be considered when interpreting the results. Salience can also be studied using a different context. It would be interesting to analyse the effect of stakeholder salience by using long periods to isolate temporary phenomena and circumstances that may distort the outcome. Also, further research is needed to develop a method to define required salience in the early phase of how to weigh stakeholders of a project. Further research and development could also improve the modified framework as a tool.

- There may be an extension of the literature review of this research to encompass a wider context of issues affecting project success, such as the emerging conceptualisations of projects as governance, corporate social responsibility, politics and changing forms of work organisation.

- There may be a comparison of the modified framework with other success and stakeholder frameworks as well as a closer exploration of the constructs contained in the conceptual framework. This will illuminate any differences in stakeholder views between different industries and give further empirical evidence that the findings from this research are definite. The elements used in the framework can also be scrutinised closely to eliminate possible overlap and ambiguity.

- The framework and model from this research can be applied to other project types. This might be resolved by using different methods such as surveys with stakeholders of more project types to see whether there are variations in the perception of success by project type.

8.10: Modified Conceptual Framework

In conclusion, a modified conceptual framework is introduced here. The framework from Chapter 1 was modified and expanded to show how the findings informed the framework. The discussion here validates the framework and the findings from this research. The four main elements that are represented in the framework are Success, Stakeholder Theory, Project Management, and Change Management, within an organizational change context. The arrows connecting the four constructs signify that it is a cyclic process. The discussions in the previous chapters have shown how the framework is validated and justified by the findings from the research.

To manage the perception of stakeholders, it is important to make decisions based on lessons from stakeholder management (such as to conduct a dynamic analysis salience) as well as understand the organisational characteristics influencing a project and in turn manage these factors for success. Ample time needs to be devoted to stakeholder management and capturing what each stakeholder group wants and needs. Consequently, project managers need to assess stakeholders, find their allies, find their champions, and work on a more consistent, agile approach to managing stakeholders rather than communicating with them only at the outset of the project. Hence, it is crucial to set proper communication channels and establish what the client's expectations are.

Figure 8.4: Visual 'Flow' – 'Process' Representation of Framework Showing Relationships between constructs.

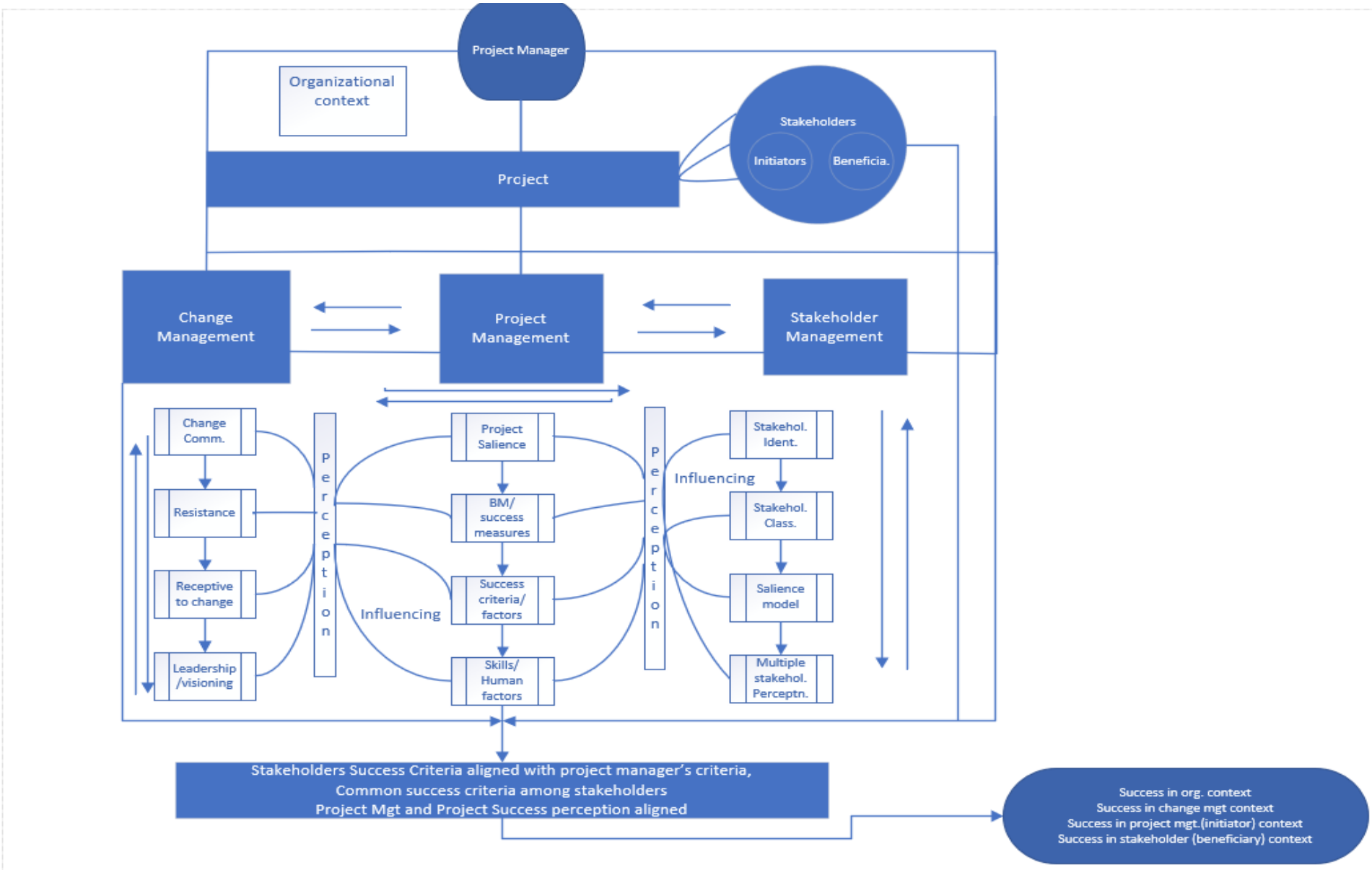
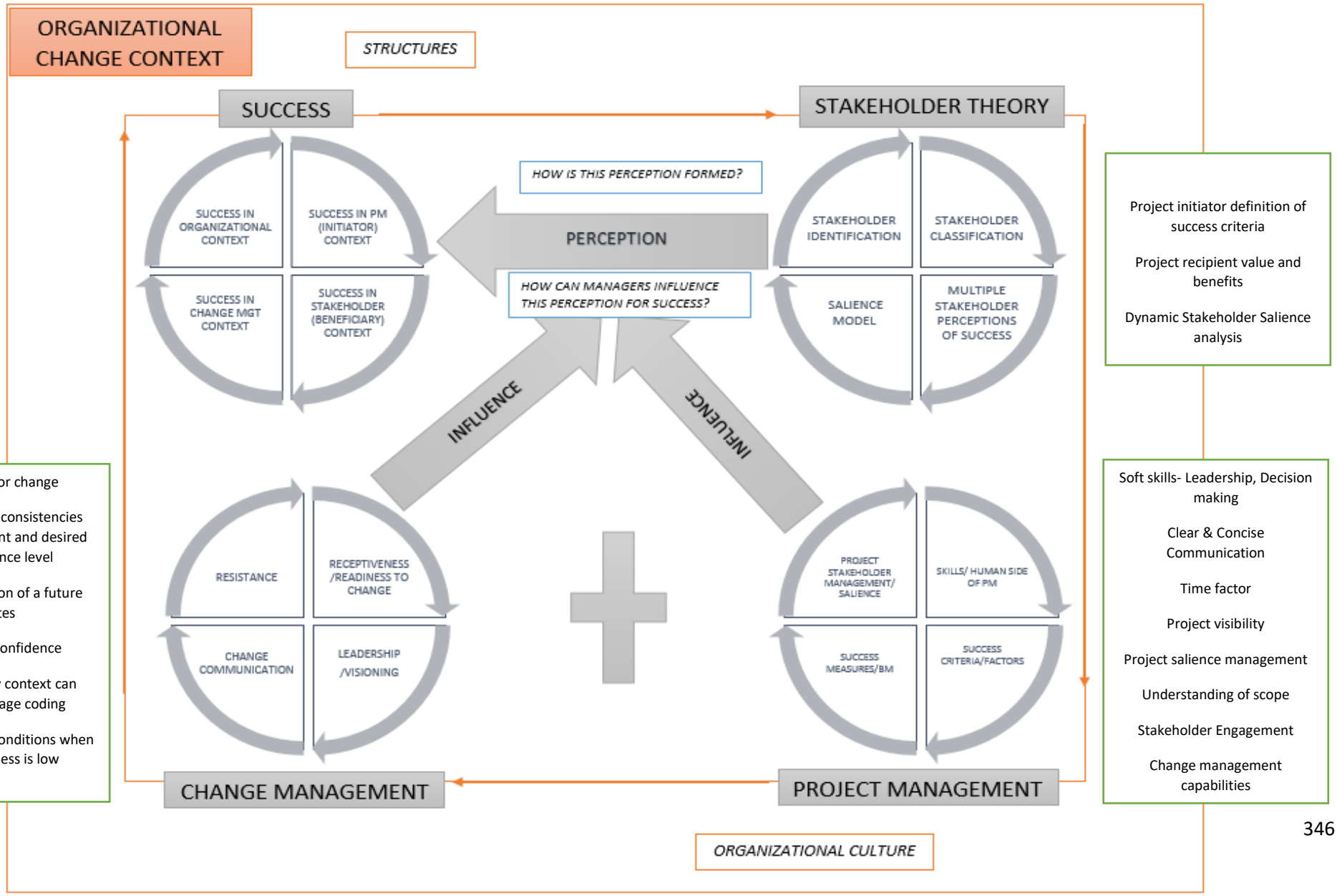

Project Manager
Organizational context
Stakeholders
Initiators
Beneficia.
Project
Change Management
Project Management
Stakeholder Management
Change Comm.
Resistance
Receptive to change
Leadership /visioning
Perception
Project Salience
BM/ success measures
Success criteria/ factors
Skills/ Human factors
Influencing
Perception
Stakehol. Ident.
Influencing
Stakehol. Class.
Salience model
Multiple stakehol. Perceptn.
Stakeholders Success Criteria aligned with project manager's criteria,
Common success criteria among stakeholders
Project Mgt and Project Success perception aligned
Success in org. context
Success in change mgt context
Success in project mgt.(initiator) context
Success in stakeholder (beneficiary) context

Figure 8.5: Expanded View of Conceptual framework



Project initiator definition of success criteria

Project recipient value and benefits

Dynamic Stakeholder Salience analysis

Planning for change

Highlighting inconsistencies between current and desired performance level

Creating a vision of a future states

Fostering confidence

Evaluate how context can affect message coding

Strengthening conditions when receptiveness is low

Soft skills- Leadership, Decision making

Clear & Concise Communication

Time factor

Project visibility

Project salience management

Understanding of scope

Stakeholder Engagement

Change management capabilities

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

- SAMPLE OF INVITATION LETTER
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APPENDIX 2

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APPENDIX 1

- **SAMPLE OF INVITATION LETTER**
- **SAMPLE OF INFORMATION SHEET -**

SAMPLE OF CONSENT FORM

-

University of Salford MANCHESTER
The Crescent,
Salford, M5 4WT,
United Kingdom
0161 295 5000
www.salford.ac.uk

Dear 'Insert name'

My name is Kelechi Chuku. This is an invitation to participate in some research as part of my PhD studies, I hope you will be able to help.

I am conducting research into the relationship between soft skills of a project management team and the perception of success or failure among stakeholders. I have chosen the Industry Collaboration Zones (ICZ) project of the University as a case study. The focus of the research is to find out your perception of the success of the ICZ project as well as your views on the soft skills of the project management team.

The ICZ project is the university's single strategic priority that underpins the University's vision to prepare students for life. The project is aimed at achieving the creation of 4 ICZs – Sport; Engineering and Environment; Creative and Digital; and Health, Wellbeing and Society, that will act as a focus of collaboration within and across the University with partners in different industry sectors.

I am interested in your views as students/staff who are being impacted on by the project. This is in the context of how you perceive the success of the project based on the management of the project. I hope that through your participation, I will be able to contribute to existing work on project management success and failure, which will lead to practical strategies for delivering more successful projects.

Should you accept this invitation you will be asked to participate in a semi-structured interview. The interview will be at mutually agreed dates and times and located on the university campus. The interview will last around 1 hour. The session will be audio recorded and notes will be taken by myself to guide the future development of my research data and results.

The data collected will be anonymised, this means removing anything that could identify a participant or anyone talked about in the data. As such, ANONYMITY and CONFIDENTIALTY ARE ASSURED throughout the research process, which is subject to ethical approval here at the University of Salford.

Thank you for your help with the research.

Signed

Name

INFORMATION SHEET FOR THE STUDY OF UNDERSTANDING STAKEHOLDER VIEWS ON SUCCESS IN PROJECT MANAGEMENT – AN INDUSTRY COLLABORATION ZONE PROJECT CASE STUDY

What is the research about?

I am conducting research into understanding the different perceptions of success among stakeholders and using the Industry Collaboration Zones (ICZ) project of the University as a case study. The focus of the research is to find out your perception of the project as well as your views on the interpersonal aspects of managing the project.

The ICZ project is the university's single strategic priority that underpins the University's vision to prepare students for life. The project is aimed at achieving the creation of 4 ICZs – Sport; Engineering and Environment; Creative and Digital; and Health, Wellbeing and Society, that will act as a focus of collaboration within and across the University with partners in different industry sectors.

I am interested in your views as stakeholders who are being impacted on by the ICZ project. This is in the context of how you perceive the success of the project based on the influence of interpersonal aspects of managing the project. I hope that through your participation, I will be able to contribute to existing work on project management success and failure which will lead to practical strategies for delivering more successful projects.

How will you be involved?

You will be asked to participate in an interview, which will be arranged at a mutually agreed time and location on the university campus.

You have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without prejudice and without providing a reason. If you have already participated in a focus group/interview related to the subject area, permission will be sought to retain and use any data collected as appropriate.

What information will be collected?

The interview will be audio recorded and the data collected will be analysed for the development of my thesis. There is a possibility that the results from the data will be published in journal papers. However, all participants' data will be anonymised as part of any form of dissemination, individuals will not be recognised in anyway. Data files securely stored, archived and only accessed by myself as the researcher for the duration of the PhD programme.

Consent Form for The Study of Understanding Stakeholder Views on Success in Project Management – An ICZ Project Case Study

Please tick the appropriate boxes	**Yes**	**No**
Taking Part		
I have read and understood the project information included within the email dated 06/07/2018.	☑	☐
I have been given the opportunity to ask questions about the project.	☑	☐
I agree to take part in the project. Taking part in the project will include being interviewed and recorded (audio).	☑	☐
I understand that my taking part is voluntary; I can withdraw from the study at any time and I do not have to give any reasons for why I no longer want to take part.	☑	☐
Use of the information I provide for this project only		
I understand my personal details such as my name and email-address will not be revealed to people outside the project.	☑	☐
I understand that I will maintain the confidentiality of the fellow participants in this research.	☑	☐
I understand that my words may be quoted in publications, reports, web pages, and other research outputs, provided they are anonymised.	☑	☐
Use of the information I provide beyond this project		
I agree for the data I provide to be transcribed and archived by the research and stored according to university procedures.	☑	☐
I understand that other genuine researchers may use my words in publications, reports, web pages, and other research outputs, only if they agree to preserve the confidentiality of the information as requested in this form.	☑	☐
So we can use the information you provide legally		
I agree to assign the copyright I hold in any materials related to this project to Kelechi Chuku.	☑	☐

Name of participant [printed] Signature Date

_____ _____ _____

Researcher [printed] Signature Date

Project contact details for further information:

Name:

Designation:

Organisation:

Email address:

Phone number:

Who is organising and sponsoring the study?

This study is organised and funded by Kelechi Chuku as a student at the University of Salford. I can be contacted as follows:

Office location: Room 208, Maxwell Building, University of Salford

Email: k.i.chuku@edu.salford.ac.uk

Phone: 07761309916

There is a separate consent form for you to complete and sign before the interview commences.

Thank-you for your participation.

Kelechi Chuku V1.2

APPENDIX 2

ETHICAL APPROVAL

Research, Innovation and Academic Engagement Ethical Approval Panel

Research Centres Support Team

G0.3 Joule HouseUniversity of Salford

M5 4WT

T +44(0)161 295 7012

www .salford.ac.uk/

27 July 2017

Dear Kelechi,

RE: ETHICS APPLICATION SBSR1617-29

A study of the relationship between leadership styles and perception of success among project stakeholders – A case study approach.

Based on the information that you provided, I am pleased to inform you that your application SBSR1617-29 has been approved.

If there are any changes to the project or its methodology, please inform the Panel as soon as possible by contacting SBS-ResearchEthics@salford.ac.uk.

Yours sincerely,

Professor David F. Percy
Chair of the Staff and Postgraduate Research Ethics Panel
Salford Business School

University of Salford MANCHESTER

Salford Business School Research, Enterprise and Engagement Ethical Approval Panel

Standard Response Form for PGR and Staff Applications

Ref No: SBSR1617-29 (R)

Application Form	Acceptable (no changes)	Minor Changes	Major Changes	Comments from the Chair
Title	✓			
Focus	✓			
Objectives	✓			
Research Strategy	✓			
Rationale	✓			
Organisational Agreement	✓			
Approaching Individuals	✓			
Informed Consent	✓			
Data Protection	✓			
Other Ethical Issues	✓			

Number of Subjects	✓			
Code of Ethics Used	✓			
Participant Information Letter	✓			
Consent Form	✓			
Recruitment Material	✓			
Research Instrument	✓			
Interview Guide	✓			
Other Comments	✓			

Recommendation:

Accept – no changes	✓
Accept subject to minor changes (approved by supervisor if PGR student)	
Accept subject to changes outlined above (to be approved by committee chair)	
Reject – address changes outlined above and resubmit	

APPENDIX 3

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT INTERVIEWS

APPENDIX 4

TRANSCRIPT - PCT1

Interview with XXX 09/01/2018

52:44mins

Q: For the record, can you state your name and your designation in relation to the ICZ?

A: Yes sure, I am XXX, I was the XXX from the inception of the programme which was in January 2016 till the end of programme stage of the ICZs. It's a 2-year programme so that ended the end of Dec 2017.

Q: And just getting to know you a bit, what is your experience in project management/what is your background in project management?

A: I have worked in higher education for all of my career. I am a qualified Prince 2 practitioner, I have worked in a range of roles – XXX all of which were project management driven, oh gosh for the last 28 years.

Q: Wow, lots of experience. And you were the XXX? what was that like? What was your role basically?

A: Probably the best thing is to give you a little background as to what led to the role. The university developed a new strategy, vision and mission over a 2 year period that placed exceptional industry partnerships at the heart of everything we do. In order to achieve that strategy, the concept of industry collaboration zones was developed and the development very specifically for industry collaboration zones within the university. The concept of the programme was then developed that would start embedding and enabling the creation of those 4 industry collaboration zones. But also address the culture change that was required across the university to enable industry to become the heart of everything we do. And when I say everything we do, it's about our student experience, industry involved in the development of our curriculum, informing the curriculum, helping to deliver the curriculum – so it's a very industry-driven curriculum. Industry provision of placements, live brief assessments of students, all our research-driven around industry, all our enterprise driven, so it's like bringing industry to every aspect of the university.

So 2-year programme was developed, we had XXXXXXX for 2 years as well. So of those 3 roles, the role of the project manager was really to start putting in place what we meant by Industry the collaboration so start putting some flesh in the bones. So we had a university strategy, we had the concept and the vision of exceptional industry partnerships but how would we do that? What would that look like? What governance was required to get that developed? How would we start, not only developing it, but making it become part of the university DNA as such.

As the XXXX, put the project management methodology around that and developed a range of work streams to get some infrastructure stuff built, managed a lot of the HR issues, a lot of the events, utilising my experience in higher education and my knowledge of the University of Salford specifically, looking at the best approaches we could take. So for example, we had 2 very specific streams about our people ICZ readiness XXX developed a work stream and XXX appointed an academic and professional services work stream lead to start developing a whole range of activities that will engage our people and raise our awareness of what ICZ meant, what it would mean for them, what we were looking for across the university, what changes would be required, so that was a work stream that lasted for a period of 12 months. It was heavily influenced and worked closely with our HR department, before it was handled over to HR to carry on as business as usual, ICZ portfolio readiness - working with our quality and enhancement office to develop a structure by which all of our programmes could be reviewed to assess their ICZ readiness.

We developed 10 criteria, 100% of the programmes went through the ICZ readiness review and all developed by an action plan table how closely we were to achieving ICZ readiness, so that again was the initial review which has then led to lots of further conversations between the program teams and industry partners. They have now been brought in to further develop the curriculum so lots... We called it a programme because there were lots of projects within it so the programme was the overall arch over all these individual projects. developing them through the 2-year phase.

XXXX

The ICZs are such a huge culture change programme across the university and culture change does not happen in 2 years. We are talking even, the ambition of the ICZ; you are looking at a 5 to 10-year activity anyway. The programme was a very specific 2 year fixed on - this is what we need to do to kick start it, to get it off the ground, to write the documentation, to start winning hearts and minds,

to get ICZ to people, to start raising awareness. What we then did very well the last 5-6 months of those 2 years is we started to embed the concept of ICZ across the university, so HR are responsible for ICZ readiness, marketing is not about, we had an ICZ website quite right said, people needed to go to a place to look at all the ICZ information. Over the next year, there will be one university website which is ICZ driven because we are who we are because of the ICZs. So the concept and the terminology of the ICZ will drop down in our language. So, going forward, it's about our student's employability because of the ICZs, it's our student's fitness for the workplace because of our ICZ, it's about our research, being an award-winning driven research because of the ICZs. So, whilst everything has been ICZ, ICZ that starts to drop down in our conversations as we go forward and the evidence and it becomes business as usual. The university is ICZ and ICZ is the university.

Q: Ok.

A: Does that make sense?

Q: Yes, yes, it does. It was such a big project like you said a big culture change. You can't get the university to change in 2 years. What strategies did you use (were they project management strategies?) to achieve what you did?

My personal opinion is XXX, XXX, I love project management methodology in terms of the start, the scope, in scope, out of scope, resources, borders, boundaries all the rest of it. Project Management methodology cannot simply be picked and applied to culture change. It is about working with people, project management can be used as a guide and my knowledge of project management support me using it in the background as a guide. XXX working with a 1000 people and therefore, it's about the fluidity, and the people adopt culture change, people adopt new concepts at different rates in different times in different ways. So our time frames varied because again the academic year is a very interesting concept and we were working with an academic year that is different for each of our 7 schools. So for example, the business school works to 3 semesters a year, the school of arts and media work to 2 semesters a year, our health schools were the students are out in practice 50% of their programmes work on continual sometimes they are in, sometimes they are out, so in terms of our academic professional services staff from the school's availability, it was very different. It's not like XXX captive audience for these XXX, XXX go out and do this. It was what was right and what was needed with different people at different times and different ways.

So in some ways, it's sort of looking at the communication strategy, it was utilising every type of communication that we could. So always in situations like this, we meet face to face is by far more effective. So we went out an awful lot. We had the website, we wrote blogs. Our blogs have been incredibly successful, written in a way that was sort of very accessible to people, not using academic language. Then we had the documentation that we wrote in very academic language because half of our community likes to read things in a very academic language, half of our community likes to read things in a very accessible language which is where the blogs came in . The websites was a combination XXXX. So it was about our deans being our ambassadors, and we also had what we called a thought leader group in the first 12 months of the programme and these were professors and people who were already working and already espousing the ICZ principles. They were already working across school, they were working with industry significantly. So it was recognising the people who could be our ambassadors across the university and then developing their own areas and their own thought leaders. Not only was it top-down because the strategy is the single strategic priority for the university, very much top down. For us, it was about getting in that bottom-up as well. So there was no one, this is what we were going to do and this was how we were going to do it, actually we are going to do it 50 times, in 50 different ways with 50 different sets of different people. XXXX and remembering that I should have done something so it's getting that balance, it's getting that balance.

Q: I am really looking at the people management aspect of project management. Would you say it was about the technical skills for the project? How important were the technical project management skills? How useful were those when you compare them to having those people management and leadership skills? Was it a balance of the skills that were needed?

A: It's an absolute balance. It's an absolute balance. I think what I probably have not been very explicit enough about, what I had probably eluded to in the conversation we had is in those 2 years we had to get from a starting point of nothing to a programme that was ready to happen, to be handed over to be business as usual. So we had quite a lot of stages we had to achieve within that, therefore, the boundaries with the different stages of the project, the timeframes and recognising the stakeholders, recognising what was in scope, what was out scope, all that project methodology was there, but then the leadership critical people skills were very much a balance.

I think one of the reasons XXX… that project management skill. It's just what I do, it's the way I do it and I have been doing it for so long which meant that I didn't have to focus on that I could focus on the leadership management skills of all the work I did was constantly underpinned by project management methodology, but in terms of what I hoped people saw was the leadership and people skills not the project management documentation, timeline, timeframes, there was just no need for them to see that, we were taking them on a journey which meant the less, the term we used was called hide the wiring.

Q: Hide the what?

A: Hide the wiring. The last thing we needed was our timeframe deteriorating. we needed to take them on a journey and for them to come on that journey with us to make it as simple as possible for people, if we start showing them project brief and the project documentation it would bore the life out of them, they would disconnect, some people like it, some people learn and develop that way but certainly not all

Q: And what specific skills were useful? What specific skills were important for you to be able to do your job basically? You mentioned communication but can you speak about any other skills, what was most important would you say?

A: Leadership, being visible, having that voice, having that recognition of our knowledge and experience as a team so therefore we developed the trust and respect of our colleagues to get on and deliver the programme, I guess it comes under that it's about stakeholder recognition, understanding and engagement because this wasn't about us as a programme team, this was about recognising our stakeholders, who they are, our academic and professional services team across the university, our current industry partners, our potential future industry partners, understanding the context of higher education in the wider educational environment in terms of the government industrial strategy, the position in terms of the government and its HE policies and how that was driving the whole funding aspects of HE so knowledge and constant horizon scanning.

Q: Horizon scanning? What's that? What do you mean?

A: Constantly looking to the horizon in terms of government policy drives, where education goes. What is happening in industry? Drives to see where education goes, in terms of what are the skills that our graduates need in 10 years' time, what are the jobs we are educating them to do? Do we know? Does industry even know? We have got technology and the digital world is coming on so rapidly. How can we ensure? If we are committed to ensuring that our curriculum is ICZ ready. We have got to know what it is ready for. So that's not just about the programme team's responsibility and I hope that our academics already have that mind-set. It's about leadership and leading by example, we needed to be constantly abreast and do our horizon scanning to inform them.

Q: Ok. You mentioned some stakeholders. Did you think some of the stakeholders were more important that others?

A: Well, they were more important than others at certain stages of the programme. Yes, absolutely. In terms of status, no, nobody is more important than anybody else but in certain stages of the programme, absolutely so in very early days, we spent a lot of time with our thought leaders because they would go and get 100 colleagues each and they would be our ambassadors and in the early stages, our thought leaders were our key stakeholders, the university council were always a stakeholder and that was sort of a constant because every quarter we would have to report to the university council on our progress and that would go to the vice chancellor executive team. Where they more important for our wider academic colleagues? No. because we would never be successful if we didn't have our wider community engaged so reporting is one thing but you can't report when you haven't actually done the job and that job was to work with our university community within there.

But for the programme journey, once we had student union representation, XXX met the SU team, not as frequently XXX wanted to, because of the issues with the student union last year, the president and the vice president, there was so much turmoil but their voice was definitely captured and included. It was never part of the programme to sort of say all of our students currently know of the ICZ because actually, they don't need to. Our prospective students need to know that we are an industry driven university because of the ICZs, they just need to know that they are guaranteed a placement, our existing students need to know that actually their course is so much better and more effective because industry are quite heavily engaged with them and they have got opportunities for placements and their employability at the end of it is so much more advanced, it comes back to hide

the wiring, they don't need to know necessarily detail and depth of our strategies .., they just need to know the impact on them.

Q: And what about the staff? Did they need to know?

A: Yes staff did. Absolutely staff needed to know, because we were dealing with a highly intelligent workforce, so absolutely they needed to know, that was something they needed to know, they didn't need to know down to the level of the project management paperwork, processes, but they needed to know all about the ICZ absolutely because it's a single strategic priority for the organisation, so they needed to know why, the what's and the whys and the wherefores. If they weren't interested, then you would query why they were academics in the first place.

Q: And looking back at the ICZ programme that you delivered. Would you say that those objectives were delivered?

A: The objectives for the ICZ are different from the objectives of the programme.

So in terms of the ICZ, we started off with a range of principles and we had 6 objectives that we wanted the ICZs to achieve, achieve and that was going to happen in the next 5-10 years. So in terms of the ICZ objectives, we are on a journey to achieving them. In terms of the objectives that were given to us as a programme team, in terms of getting the ICZs off the ground, start the development, I would say we actually achieved a hell of a lot, we were probably too ambitious, there were certainly some areas of infrastructure that I am really disappointed that we didn't make sufficient progress on as I would have liked us to but in the early days. So in the ICZ programme perspective, you can look at it in 2 ways - you have got the infrastructure stuff – the building the systems and everything across the university that was required to work multi - professionally work with industry, responsible to speeding quicker, enabling our schools, have to work across schools and our HR systems, our finance systems, enabling rather than blocking different ways of working. And the other side of the programme was to deliver the 4 individual ICZs so we appointed development leads for each of 4 ICZs initially from existing staff, and on time and on schedule within 18 months, we got out to have external 4 more directors to replace those development leads. As we are talking now, 3 of those 4 news posts, the 4th one starts at the beginning of March, and we developed.., it was an evolving governance structure, an operating model. It was evolving very much for the first 12

months. XXX… we implemented a more formal operating model that reflected the lessons learned and that was in place from September and so whereas we had steering groups which before ICZs, they became formal executives from September, the ICZ boards existed all along but we changed the terms of reference, we changed the membership to reflect where we were in the programme lifecycle and to reflect the lessons learned in terms of the programme.

Q: And the operating model. Would you be able to share it with me?

A: I haven't got access to it now. XXX have appointed an operations manager and 2 administrators who are now in post.

Q: Who is that?

A: XXX they now support the ICZ directors and deliver the committee servicing and the governance side and will continue and drive all the ICZ infrastructure work but that's as business as usual, that's not the programme.

Q: So looking at perception. In project management, there is a body of knowledge that believes that the perception of stakeholders is actually what determines if a project is successful or not. There is that argument that it's not really about the project was delivered on time, within budget, on scope, but it's actually what the stakeholders think. So looking at that body of thought, would you basically say the stakeholders perceived this ICZ project as a success? I am looking at all the stakeholders - the staff, the students, the industry partners. What do you think?

A: Well I would say if they were asked if the ICZ programme was a success, generally I would say yes. The university council in our final report to them came back and said great you have made fantastic progress, we are happy for the programme to be brought to closure now its fine so yeah, the vice chancellor, the executive team were exactly the same because we didn't have to close the programme after the 2 years you know we could have extended it by a further 6 or 12 months if we felt we hadn't made sufficient progress but because we had made the progress we wanted to, the university council one of our stakeholders were happy. The executive team and the university management team were happy to close the program subject to a number of infrastructure issues

that were outstanding in terms of HR and some financial systems but it would take years to change those systems, we would never have changed them immediately.

In terms of our deans of schools, they have become far more heavily involved in the operating model from September with the formal side of things, they seemed quite happy with where we were up to absolutely, I think the difference, you need to be careful in the difference of asking whether the programme was successful or whether the ICZs are being successful, in terms of the broader ICZs , I think you have to ask that question with a mixture of our staff you would probably get mixed response because it actually depends on how much they as individuals had chosen to engage with the project or how much they have been exposed. And you always tend to have 3 groups of people, those early adopters, and then those sort of larger middle group who are sort of interested but are not quite sure how it fits them and then the smaller group of people who would never be engaged.

Q: *Nods in agreement* - No matter what you do

A: Yes and that's not destructible, our focus was on that middle group, anyone who is involved in delivering a programme and the programme teams across the university has been involved everyone has been through the ICZ readiness. 10% of our staff attended the ICZ people readiness programmes, the schools, disseminating, getting engaged with, you know far more ICZ ready stuff, we utilised what we called our high funding pods last year and have 320 of our academics who are engaged in bidding for monies for ICZ projects and activities. All those people I would hope would turn around and say yeah actually, it's been great, we haven't reached, you can't possibly, with the size of the population, we haven't reached, you can't possibly reach every single individual, again it's a 5 to 10 year change so .. I can give you lots of examples of the engagement and point to the touch points of how things have changed as a result of the work we have done for 2 years, so yeah lots of good stuff, it would be a mixed picture.

Q: I was going to ask you if you did anything personally to influence that perception across the board. Would you say you did?

A: Oh God yeah, I was ICZ, from wearing a hoodie with ICZ on the back of it, like constantly, absolutely, absolutely. I was one of the keys, as you would expect, the ICZ team were the key ambassadors for it so I spoke ICZ everywhere I went and I wore my hoodie with pride and you know

and constantly went out and talked to school congresses, I talked at various different meetings, I turned up at different places even when I was not allowed to, I talked ICZ absolutely, you know for me if you are going to do something, you do it with passion or not at all so absolutely I think that is important, I think if you have as a XXX and you are not really that bothered with what you are doing, you are doomed to fail

Q: OK, interesting. Just going to the last section, I was going to ask you if there were any barriers that you encountered personally as well as in your office in the delivery of the programme, the 2year project. What barriers did you encounter?

A: The barriers we encountered were, and of course we did because there is always going to be barriers, there is nothing that is perfect, university and this is not just relevant to Salford, but it is actually relevant to any large organisation because we are a very large organisation, in order to operate, you have some structures, you have silos, so we have certain schools, we have however many numbers of professional services departments, we have that number of departments and quite naturally, each of those areas looks and works, has their own politics, has their own language almost, has their own way of working . We needed to work across all of those, You do hit different points where different people in different areas have different priorities have different deadlines to meet, have different things that they needed to do and we come along with this..oh can I speak to you?.. and so it's about winning hearts and minds, it's always about getting a win-win situation but some areas of work were far more smoother than other areas, you know sometimes you do feel like you are banging your head against a brick wall but you got to understand why, because it's not that the people didn't want to engage but it's because they had other pressures on them at that time of doing certain things. So it's about understanding what that was and what that looked like for them and how we could support them in achieving their work whilst getting them engaged in what we wanted them to do as well, so it's sort of quite significant potential blockers like that. And other things not perhaps moving as quickly as we would have wanted them to and again it was trying to understand the reasons for that, and it's often very good reasons for it.

Q: Like what? What kind of reasons?

A: I think one of the examples is we needed a school to get engaged and to get their programmes for the ICZ portfolio readiness and do it in a timely manner, and we were getting pushed back and when

we explored it more but they actually had major professional body reviews at the same time, so you know their site was over here because their professional body accreditation was really critical to their programmes and their students and they needed to achieve all of that before they could give us their time, energy and effort so first time it was like, no you can go away we are not doing it but actually when you get under the skin of it, and explored it a little bit more , there was actually a good reason for that actually happening and that is very much usually the way. I have never, I think it's very rare you come across people who are just blocking for the sake of blocking. But organisation politics do play a huge role in that.

Q: What is organisational politics here? What does that look like here?

I think that exactly the same as everywhere else, you have different layers in every organisation and each layer has different pressures and different requirements placed upon them and there is often the lack of transparency of what they are. So, people, you will sort of look at the next layer to understand why they are doing that because there is a lack of transparency or what have you but that's often a very very good reason for it. But it's classed as organisational politics because people are doing what they need to do to achieve their roles and other people can't see that. It's getting a balance between often confidentiality and strategy because the whole organisation does not need to see the strategy, often can't context around the strategy..oh why the hell are we doing that, but actually those people perhaps higher up see the bigger picture and see when people need to be fed it in chunks so they can digest and make sense to them rather than cast the big picture early on and that can often cause mistrust and lack of, so its real balance absolutely, a real balance you have to play in terms of exposing different people to different information at different points

Q: Did you have support from the programme sponsor which is the university?

Yes, absolutely he was the sponsor for the ICZs and ultimately the ICZ was the single strategy priority so from that perspective, yes, brilliant. Normally for the new programme or projects, you have to go get that senior management buy-in, but this came from the senior management so that was a strike straight away, so that was a huge bonus.

Q: What would you say worked well in the delivery of the programme?

Our commitment to fluidity and not expecting everything to be, I suppose it's about agile project management isn't it? It's your ability to be prepared to flex, and to change based on the pushbacks we were getting and all the knowledge we were gaining across the university. We had to be very careful that we weren't very focused inset, in our approaches and we were able to flex and be agile in our approaches depending on what different areas of the university it's required. So I would say that was probably our biggest strength – agility and fluidity from the beginning and listening was the other thing.

Q: Listening to who?

A: Everybody. You know really keeping your ears to the ground and actually listening. One of our schools has quite a lot of different professional areas within it and they are often seen as being really quite aggressive and closed and no one can get into work with them and to be honest, good luck with getting them on board. Actually, we just went in and sat spending loads of time just listening to them and all they wanted to do was to be listened to and they just opened up and we worked with them brilliantly. It is very much about listening. And making sure that once you've listened, you can reflect that group of colleagues, respective and approach you know it's a win-win situation so you have to listen.

Q: And that motivates them as well. Knowing that their voice is being heard?

A: Yea

Q: There is this viewpoint from some people that I have interviewed so far, not a lot, but that the ICZ **programme was something they were given extra to what they were already doing and they didn't feel it was resourced well. Like they didn't have the time. So hearing that. What's your reaction to that? Do you think that is justified?**

A: I think that is a very natural reaction but I think that was quite an initial reaction from people who didn't really understand what the concept of the ICZs was about. It's not about doing something new, it's about doing what we do but doing it differently. It wasn't about this is our day job and now we are doing this and we are here, it's about we need to do our day job differently to embed industry collaboration in the heart of everything that we do in order to survive as a university.

Q: Ok

A: So yeah it's quite like, I completely understand that reaction but it was really down to lack of understanding of what the ICZ strategy was about and like I said you are not going to win everybody over and in the beginning that was why we wanted the champions to then go out and usually in those situations you would only bring those people on board by evidencing and showing them and that takes time, that takes time.

Q: And there was also this viewpoint of the wording of what the programme was about. For example, the use of the term zones. It was believed that there was some confusion among the staff members for what zones meant, was it physical? So that was a bit confusing and it got a lot of people confused on what exactly it was.

A: Absolutely, I couldn't agree with you more. And when you talk about zone, people sort of envision it as a building, that this was going to be sports building and this was going to be, and again, that comes down to lack of knowledge and engagement of the context of the ICZs. We didn't have an option, when we came into post it was the ICZ, it was already there, the zone was already there, we didn't have an option, we didn't debate that. To the programme team, it was a given so it wasn't within our gift to change that. What it was we did was in our communications and the way we talked to people, just really sharing with them and actually it was a collective thing, because it wasn't about us as a programme team telling people so it was actually about us learning together , so asking what does zone actually mean to you? and some people got it, like our digital people, oh it's a virtual zone, absolutely its physical, its virtual but then the other thing that was really important – what was communicated around the ICZ was they are not. One of the first diagrams we used had the 4 zones at the top with dotted boxes around them because they are complete permeable because an awful lot of the sport relates to health and a lot of the health relates to sports and the digital health, in essence the digital and health bit sort of is, and engineering and environment and the environment was doing what the sport was doing, with the sport ICZ you know, so this wasn't four individual silos it wasn't about creating 4 new structures, it was about creating 4 new virtual zones that represent and reflect our key areas of expertise, it's almost a shut window for the external world. So yeah, absolutely, people got confused in the early days but again, hopefully, and gradually that clarity has come to light.

Q: OK, what would you say did not work well? Because you have talked about what worked well in the programme delivery. So what didn't?

A: I think because we adopted such an agile approach, when things weren't working well we could change them to make them work so there was nothing really that sort of didn't work because of the sort of approach we took, we would sort of change things so that really helped. I think the biggest frustration for me and you would have seen it from the brief XXX wanted 7 work streams to address 7 key areas of activity, infrastructure activity and it was felt that we didn't need all seven because some of the areas existing could take on and do that work as business and usual and XXX wasn't allowed all seven and some of the areas did do it as business as usual so for example partnerships, we didn't have a work stream for partnerships but the purpose of the work streams was to really kickstart and put pride in the work and just get people with dedicated time to focus and to do that bit of work.

If we just get people to pick stuff up as business as usual, it takes an awful lot longer so we are not where we need to be in terms of some partnership stuff, our CRMs, definitions of key account management and processes and who was doing what and stuff as we could have had if we had a work stream but it's always that balance between 'do you put resource to it' or because this is the strategy, it's got to permeate the whole organisation as it needs to be business as usual, do you want our people to just pick it up and develop it as it goes along? So both strategies can work, it's just the latter takes more time. And we didn't have the time. And therefore we had to fit it around the time we had.

Q: What would you do differently next time if you were given a project like this?

A: *Laughs out loud.* That's a good one.

Q: Would you do anything differently? Yea that's always a good one

A: Would I do anything differently? There just weren't enough hours in the day I suppose in many ways. If there was anything I would have done differently, I would have done less time reporting upwards and more time of actually doing. We spent a lot of times as programme team reporting to the vice chancellor, the executive team and to the university council and preparing documents like

that. I think if we would have done things differently, we would have preferred to have spent less time doing that and more time actually doing

Q: Would you say that was not useful?

A: It was useful, we didn't have sufficient resource to report on the frequency that they wanted

Q: Resource? You mean people?

A: Yes, ok.

Q: XXX

A: XXX

Q: XXX What was that relationship like?

A: Well, bringing the XXX We had a really, really good team, XXX. We had a really really good team. But XXX for years before because I was actually based over XXX I already worked in projects XXX So we already had an existing sort of working relationship that was really good but now we worked as a really, a really good team. We each had our own roles but we gelled incredibly well and we had complete respect for each other, XXX pretty collaborative, we challenge each other XX was open to us challenging XXX would challenge us all in a very positive way and I think the effectiveness of XX three, when you pull teams together, you have got to pay much attention to their individual attributes, ways of working, personalities as you do to their knowledge and skills because that team has to gel, if that team doesn't gel, then you got problems and to me that's really important and our approach is, it wasn't done, it just happened more by chance than planning but we were a really good team, but it did help XXX and I worked together previously.

Q: Ok. You know the work stream about the Impact evaluation, what happened with that?

A: It's still ongoing. It's really good. It's really good. They are doing a significant piece of work that's going to be used quite be used in the future. It's called continuity developing XXX. There was a bit of a sticking point when a new director of external relations was brought in and wanted to go down a different route and couple of months ago, actually no so whilst he got on board with what we had

done, so yea, it's still ongoing. The impact framework that they developed is fantastic and they are actually using that now in conjunction with the alliance universities which is fantastic and they are getting it top marked so they are pay credit as well so it's really good, that's a good piece of work. So that work stream, that's the only one that is ongoing still. **Q: You mentioned that there was an audit done.**

A: I was going to send it to you but it all went back to the audit team. The reason I couldn't find it is XXX. The university audit and compliance committee requested the audit to take place so they audited our governance and set up structure and it came out very well actually it was very very useful, XXX

Q: So if I needed to get it. What would I do?

A: You need to go to the Audit and Compliance Committee **Q:**

Can I check XXX works with the programme?

A: XXX

Q: XXX Is there anything else you would like to add, that I haven't asked you and you think would help me

A: No I don't think so, we pretty covered it all really

Q: Yes, ok that's everything. Down the line, maybe some months from now, I might need to do a follow-up. I might ask you then if you would be okay to do it. Do you think you would be okay to do it?

A: Yes

Q: Maybe just to round up and tell you everything that I have found out. Yea that's everything. Thank you so much for the opportunity. And if I have anything else to ask you that I forgot, can I send you an email? A: Of course you can.

APPENDIX 5

2 YEAR PROJECT PLAN

The ICZ Programme Structure

The ICZ Programme is structured around four project phases as outlined below. The phases will run concurrently, with phases 2, 3 and 4 having independencies and impact on each other.

Phase 1: Initiation

1.1 UMT/VCET approval and Council endorsement of the programme brief
1.2 Finalise programme governance
1.3 Begin strategy development
1.4 Benchmarking current best practice across the University
1.5 Formation of work streams

Phase 2: Preparing the Organisation

2.1 Work with colleagues to identify the culture change required
2.2 Review structure and organisation of the University and its programmes to achieve objectives

Phase 3: Forming the individual ICZs

3.1 Determining physical and virtual environments
3.2 Agreeing staff and facilities resourcing
3.3 Embedding zone governance and designing operational processes

Phase 4: Engaging our Partners

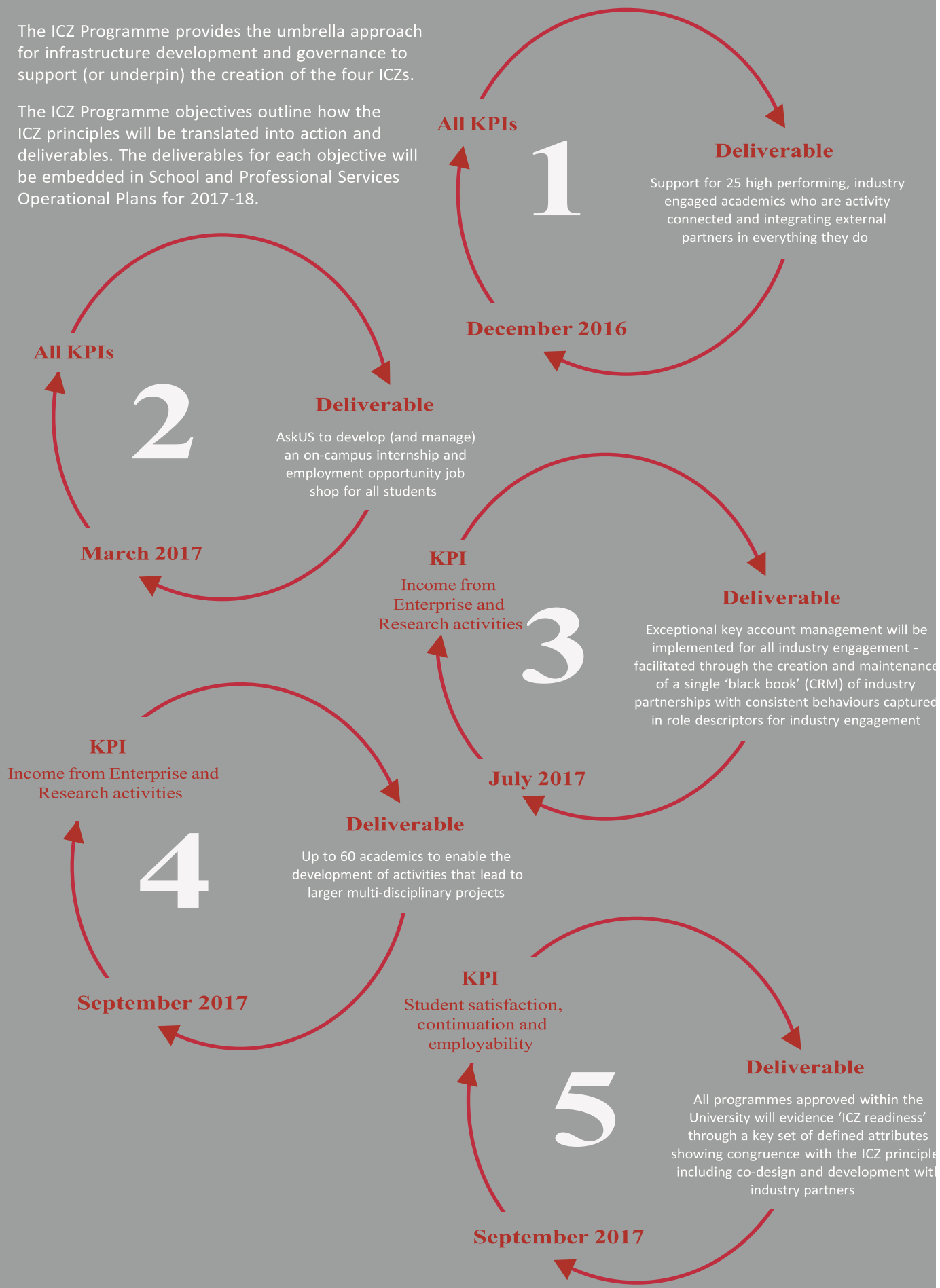
4.1 Finalising the organisational structure for partnership management
4.2 Embedding principles for Key Account Management
4.3 Implementation of data capture to inform and build on partner potential
4.4 Develop a clear view of the extent and depth of existing and desirable partners
4.5 Stimulate more interactions and measurably support regional economic development

Enabling Strategies Marketing and Communication/Our People/ Salford Curriculum +

The ICZ Programme

The ICZ Programme provides the umbrella approach for infrastructure development and governance to support (or underpin) the creation of the four ICZs.

The ICZ Programme objectives outline how the ICZ principles will be translated into action and deliverables. The deliverables for each objective will be embedded in School and Professional Services Operational Plans for 2017-18.



KPI
Student employability

6

Deliverable

We will create and recruit to 50 graduate/ student internships to opportunities across the University community

September 2017

KPI
Student and staff satisfaction

7

Deliverable

Each ICZ to establish fully accessible and resourced discovery/test zones and ‘Maker Spaces’

January 2018

All KPIs

8

Deliverable

A ‘Salford as an Entrepreneurial University’ Strategy becomes a Key Functional Strategy of the University

March 2018

KPI
Student continuation

9

Deliverable

Establish a globally accessible contemporary virtual learning environment and infrastructure

September 2018

KPI
Student numbers

10

Deliverable

All programmes to include compulsory Integrated Work Based Learning that are fully supported across all University systems including QA & reporting

September 2018

APPENDIX 6

DETAILED FINDINGS

The following section is a discussion of each of the themes with supporting evidence of participants' comments.

Theme 1: Stakeholder Definitions and Measures of Stakeholder Importance

In exploring all 36 transcripts, the researcher found that all participants in Group 1 and Group 2 considered themselves stakeholders of the project. While some members of Group 3 participants believed that they were stakeholders, others were not sure if they were stakeholders or not. For example, all Group 4 stakeholders believed that they were stakeholders by virtue of being members of staff of the university. The following are three examples of participant's comments evidencing this.

A Group 4 participant UAS6 when asked if she considered herself to be a stakeholder, stated, *"Yes, definitely, as an academic and someone who has applied for academic funding".*

Though UAS4 had the same view as UAS6, she did not feel like she had much power: *"…Do I feel like a stakeholder? Yes. But with all things with stakeholders, if I had said - Can we change A and B, it won't have been changed, would it?"*

UNS1 had this to say: "*In the sense that I am working for the university and that's the university's strategy yes, so yes. And in the sense that if we want to expand, we will have to do that within the ICZ strategy, so yes"*

However, when asked about the importance of certain stakeholders over others, while some participants suggested that students were more important, others believed that the industry partners were more important. For example, UAS6 stated, "I *think probably the students are the most important stakeholder in all of this. The students are the centre of what we are here for and why we are here".*

UAS3 also had this to say*, "Well, arguably if you look at what the whole project is about. It seems to me that the university would view the most important stakeholders as the employers because the whole thing is sort of designed to collaborate with external employers. And secondly the students. The students are ready to meet the needs of the employers and the ICZ makes them readier to meet the needs of employers than they were before"*

PCT1 believed that the importance of stakeholders was dependent on different stages of the project. As stated, *"They were more important than others at certain stages of the programme. Yes, absolutely. In terms of status, no, nobody is more important than anybody else but in certain stages of the programme, absolutely!"*

PWS4, on the other hand, believed that stakeholders balanced each other out: "*I wouldn't categorise them as being more important than others. They all have different roles, they are bringing different expertise and different experiences, but you can't take one of the strands away because it would all collapse."*

UAS5 mirrored this view, stating "*everyone should have a say in how things progress. So, I will not say that myself as a staff I am more important than some of the students that have been involved in the project. And again, without an external partner, it would be difficult to achieve a project. So, I think we are equally important in this equation".*

The findings suggest that the participants' perceptions varied on the measures of stakeholder importance. It appears that participants placed value on other stakeholders depending on the overall aim of the project and what they believed the project was trying to achieve. The position of a stakeholder is one that is not by choice. People are not asked if they choose to be a stakeholder of a project or not, they simply are. Whether someone is a stakeholder or not, therefore, depends on how we define who a stakeholder is. It was necessary to further explore what the different stakeholder groups perceived to be the aims and objectives of the project as a first step in ascertaining if the stakeholders believed that the project achieved these objectives or not.

Theme 2: Different Strengths of Project Understanding

This section discusses comments highlighting the different levels of project understanding across the different stakeholder groups. It was clear from the data that different participants had different levels of understanding of the project. This is discussed categorically in the section.

Group 1 and 2

Group 1 (ICD and SLT) participants demonstrated that they had a good understanding of the objectives of the project as well as the wider ICZ programme. For example, ICD1 stated, *"The ICZ strategy is to develop these exceptional partnerships with a specific goal of giving students real work or simulated work-based learning within their courses to better prepare them for future employment with respect to industries"*

SLT1 also had this to say, "*It's about being as close to industry as we possibly can in everything we do. So, XXXX talks a lot about the strategy and keeps making the point- it is our single strategic priority. Yeah, if we take that seriously, our research, our teaching and learning, our student engagement, our programmes, everything you should see industry through them".*

Group 2 participants also demonstrated that they had a good understanding of the objectives of the project as well as hands-on experience in its management and implementation. For example, when asked to explain the aims and objectives of the 2-year project, PCT1 stated, *"The University developed a new strategy, vision and mission over a 2-year period that placed exceptional industry partnerships at the heart of everything we do. In order to achieve that strategy, the concept of industry collaboration zones was developed and the development very specifically for industry collaboration zones within the university. The concept of the programme was then developed that would start embedding and enabling the creation of those four industry collaboration zones. But also address the culture change that was required across the university to enable industry to become the heart of everything we do".*

PCT2 also showed a clear understanding of the project's objective,

"The objective in my mind was that we, as a university, the thing that was going to differentiate us was going to be our partnerships and relationships with industry. So the point of the change was to make us attractive to potential students, that we had to have a focus on employability, and to do that we were well based really, given our history in the area, to build relationships with partners, industry partners and align our curriculum to make sure that we had employable students. So yeah, that was basically the goal of it".

The responses also revealed that Group 2 participants had a good understanding of their roles going into the project and each related to the project in their own way as evident from PCT2's comment, *"Our focus was really growing that focus and awareness internally with staff more than students to kind of get that buy-in from our academic community really".*

PWS4, a group 2 participant, had this to say about the project: "*I have been with the university for a number of years now and there have been times previously where I don't think we really understand what makes us different what makes us Salford. The ICZ, the notion of industry collaboration, for me, it encapsulates what is different about Salford what is distinctive about Salford which is very much from our heritage".*

PWS3 stated*, "We are defining what we are with this. I think it is a strong message of what Salford is about".*

PWS1 stated, "*We know we are never going to be Manchester University, we are never going to be able to compete with Manchester University so let's not try and be all things to all men. Let's look at what our unique selling point is as a university and Salford has always been known for engaging with industry. So let us make that part and parcel of the furniture, of the fabric, of the culture of what we do and let us be known as the university that engages with industry and gives industry what they want by default. It gives our students the skills and mindset so they are better prepared when they go out into the big wide world".*

Group 3 – SUR

The findings revealed that the majority of student union representatives (SUR) had not heard of the ICZ project. The researcher was forced to explain the aims and objectives of the project to the other participants and asked what they thought about the project. In response, participants all stated that it was a good idea.

For example, SUR2 stated, "*I think it is a good idea because you get to leave university when you have been exposed a bit to the industry rather than just leaving with physical knowledge, you get to see how the industry runs as part of your university experience".*

SUR4 was hopeful about the project and had this to say, *"This project could help me in moving forward with life. It prepares you, that's what I wanted and that's what I came to university for".*

SUR1 unlike other SUR participants showed a good understanding of the project and had this to say, "*The project itself is about establishing cooperation between our university, the University of Salford and different industry zones and companies, mainly based here in Manchester"* Group 3 – IP

A majority of the industry partners (IP) stated that they did not know about the project. However, the participants' views suggested that they were working in one way or another in a capacity related to the objectives of the project. The participants had views about their experiences collaborating with the university and such views were useful in gauging their perception of the project.

For example, IP6 commented that it seemed that they had been part of the ICZ project without knowing it, "*We interact with the university regularly. They check up on the interns. So, I think there has definitely been engagement with the university, engagement with this industry collaboration zone just without us realising it was under that umbrella".*

IP11, however, did not believe they were part of the project. As stated, *"We are not particularly partners of the ICZ project itself, but we are partners with the university in terms of other things"*

The consensus among the IP participants was that it was massively important for the university to be involved in the ICZ project and industry collaborations in general. Some participants commended the University for initiating the project and acknowledged that it was one of mutual benefit. Some of the responses were as follows:

IP2 stated, "*So, I think it is a massively important thing and there are lots of value on it"*

IP7 stated, "*It is a great opportunity for them because they get to learn from these young students who are very bright, they are new, they have a fresh mind, they want to try new things. So, it is a win-win situation. And for a student who has never had any experience, they can implement the theory they have learnt from the university into practice"*

IP1 stated, "*To be honest, I think it is very important because the students are well prepared before they join the industry. Instead of looking for a job, they know they are okay. They have made up their mind; they are prepared basically to face the industry"*

IP6 stated, "*I think it is incredibly important. You know, using the cheesy 1-10 scale, it is definitely a 10. Students need that exposure to real life, they need the exposure with working with an actual company, having that day to day job is incredibly important and I think universities need to be doing all they can to support students in that way".*

IP11 stated, "*100% without each other we wouldn't survive. We need each other to make sure the opportunities are there for the students of Salford and we also need to make sure that we have got the right people coming through to fill our positions as well"*

IP9 stated, "I am certainly familiar with the ICZ project and I have to applaud some of the vision from the university. The university is taking a very bold step. I think it is massively important. I couldn't stress enough, if universities in the present economic climate and the present technological – the advance of technology – and the information that is out there in a nonacademic world of technical expertise, the university would be really very remissive themselves if they were not to develop further the ICZ strategy. So, I have to applaud Salford"

IP10 stated, "So from my perspective I think that it is a great opportunity. So we have access to a lot of talents in the university, lots of talents in the individuals, we have been having access to those people, which is very important. We get an opportunity to innovate as well"

IP4 stated, *"I think it is really important. I think it really broadens the outlook for students. I*

think at the end of the day, life is about partnering with industry and I think it is really important that students get as much interaction with industry as they can"

In IP10's view, the project would be beneficial in creating the much-needed structure in future engagements with the university rather than the norm of contacting the university as and when students were needed.

Group 4 - UAS and UNS

The findings suggest that staff members, both academic and non-academic staff, knew about the ICZ project. Like SLT1 stated," *If anybody says they don't know about it, I would be amazed".*

However, this comment from SLT was disproved by students and industry partners who said that they did not know about the project. An interesting find was that while staff members seemed to agree on knowing about the project, it was evident that some of the same participants did not clearly understand the project. For example, in UAS8's view: *"I have some level of understanding but I don't think I have a complete understanding".*

PWS1 agreed with this view, "*I think some academics found it confusing".*

PWS4 was convinced that a better understanding would develop over time. As stated, *"So whilst over the last couple of years, colleagues have said – ICZ, I am not quite sure what ICZ means. It is also because we have also been developing our thinking as we have been moving*

along. I think, with the appointment of the ICZ directors, it is also getting clearer how they are going to work but it is a development, it is in progress".

UAS6 stressed on the importance of understanding the project: *"I think it is important that everybody understands it though, not just paying lip service to it but the idea that everything that they must be thought about in these terms. I have recently read the new research strategy, it really works around the ICZs, and I can see how the ICZs are important for directing the research strategy and the other strategies in the university. So, I think it is really important".*

Other participants in this academic and non-academic staff group said that they understood the project and what it was trying to achieve. For example, UAS10 had this to say, "*It was bold, it was daring, it was co-creating, it was enabling, it was adhering itself to the way that the world at the UK and globally is trying to move in that direction, so it is closely connected with all those different characteristics*"

UAS9 stated, "*And that is the whole point of the ICZ, isn't it? You want to ensure that the students when they go to industry, companies don't have to spend a lot of time and effort, making them ready and making a lot of money from them, if you like".*

As can be seen with this theme, the level of understanding of the project varied according to the groups that the participants belonged to. Participants in Groups 1 and 2 showed that they had a clear understanding of the project while participants in Group 3 showed that they had a weak understanding of the project. While Group 4 participants said they knew about the project, some of the participants did not fully understand it. There is clearly a difference between the knowledge of a project and a full understanding of it. While some stakeholders showed that they had a good understanding of the project, this was not the case across board. This was particularly relevant to the majority of SUR and IP stakeholders who did not know about or understand the project.

Theme 3: Ambiguity and Lack of Clarity of Project Goals

A theme that emerged from responses to the interview questions was the ambiguity and lack of clarity of project goals in the perception of the participants. This theme was found to overlap with theme 2 - different strengths of understanding of project – and quite significantly with theme 13 – judging success based on communications. The participants' comments in relation to this viewpoint are discussed in this section. The majority of the participants agreed that the goals of the project were not always clear and remained ambiguous throughout the lifecycle of the project. For example, despite displaying a good understanding of the project goals, objectives and roles, PCT2 conflicted her comments when asked about challenges of implementing the project. As stated, *"I think to start off with, if it would have been really hashed out what we wanted to do then it would have been easier to implement".*

According to PCT2, it would have been easier to have aids such as creatives for direction in implementing the project. UAS7 echoed this view in the statement, "*it would be useful to have it mapped out. So, where you sit, where everyone sits. So, you can actually see a broader understanding of what it's trying to achieve and what networks it is trying to build up".*

UNS3 when asked about challenges also raised the issue of clarity but related this to communication*, "Though the communication was good in terms of telling the story well, the communication was lacking in terms of not communicating what was different about the ICZ approach".* UAS8 had this to say, *"In my mind, I still don't actually know precisely what these ICZs are. I have a little bit of insight in terms of how they are structured, but I am still uncertain as to how you actually get involved? What can the ICZs do for me? That may be a product of lack of clarity at the beginning but it may also be a product of continuing lack of clarity"*

"So my broad interpretation of engaging with staff is that their understanding of what the ICZs are, how they operate, what services they might provide, what benefits they might provide to staff, what support they might provide is very vague. The understanding is limited and I have to say my understanding is limited. I mean what are they? What benefits do they bring? On top of everything that I am already doing? "

PWS4 had this to say about clarity: "*They hosted a number of developmental events about ICZ readiness, about ICZ personal readiness, internal comms, there were brochures managed. I think some greater clarity there would have been useful".*

Another issue raised was the lack of clarity of the ICZ strategy itself. As UAS8 stated, *"I don't think it is so clear where that enterprise element actually fits into the ICZ strategy itself…So, I think one side of it is explicit- the teaching, learning assessment, student experience but the side of it which is about academics interfacing with business without reference to teaching is less explicit or how that fits in".* UAS10 added: *"I think I would like to see a sort of discussion and clarification around - is the ICZ strategy now much more focused on a*

commercial outcome? Is it a financial outcome or not? And I guess if there is anything that is slightly fuzzy in my head, and it could be my fault, I might not be picking up the right messages but that I am not sure".

"So, is it about knowledge exchange but is also about financial exchange? So that is what I am not absolutely sure about".

UAS7 stated, "*Yes, obviously we do understand the importance, but I think it needs to be joined up rather than doing things individually, but I think it perhaps needs to be made a little bit clearer about where we sit within that and what the benefits are and how we can access these benefits"*

It was suggested that the agility of the project added to the lack of clarity of the goals of the project and led to more questions than answers. For example, UAS8 stated, "*there were some nice diagrams and graphics but no substance. So, no real substance because the important questions you asked in terms of how is it going to work, how is it going to be managed? How do you get involved? How do you align with this? They didn't know any of that. I almost feel that as this has developed, I almost feel like those questions are still not been able to be answered".*

PWS2 had this to say, *"So there is a limit to which you can sort of manipulate what it is but then XXX doesn't want to define what it is either. So there is sort of that gap between something that is well defined, that staff can take and run with and something that actually is quite nebulous.*

We are not quite sure what it is but we can take it and shape it into the way we want. So it is somewhere between those two, which I think is quite difficult to work with sometimes"

UAS7 also noted the lack of clarity in how to go about things: *"That's the problem and you have no way of knowing. And again, it's knowing if you want to do something or organise something. Do you go through ICZ first? Or do you contact whoever? I wouldn't even know who to. Or is it that you do something and then you tell them what you have done. So I guess it's from my perspective I am not 100% sure how it works or what the actual mechanism is. So I couldn't say as a definite what was the result of an ICZ. What was just something from someone's own back that just happened?"*

UAS2 brought up the workshops attended and stated that the expectations of staff were not met at the workshops, *" And I thought we were going to be taught about the ICZs but actually what they said was - Can you think of a good ICZ project and then we just sort of talked between ourselves in groups on what we thought would be a good ICZS project. So, it is almost like XXX has come up with this idea, it almost feels like it is XXXX's idea and then it is sort of like saying - off you go, you run with it as a university"*

A reason suggested for the ambiguity of the project was not having enough consultation with stakeholders that had 'power' prior to the project. This, in PCT2's view, would have helped the team better understand the challenges that they were up against and be more prepared to face them. PWS2 agreed with this view: *"And it did take a while for us to come to the realisation of what it was that we needed to be looking at and then getting the acceptance and buy-in from the rest of the University of what might constitute success and what might constitute the notion of the impact".*

As seen, the comments of the participants suggested that there was a general feeling of lack of clarity in project goals, objectives and activities. Even participants that were found to display a good understanding of the strategy behind the project suggested that it was not always clear to them what the 2-year project was trying to achieve. This, according to the participants, impacted on their view of the success of the project.

The findings clearly show that there was an issue with the clarity of project goals across the stakeholder groups. This suggests that project goals and objectives should automatically not be assumed to be clear or realistic, even if the project has been implemented for some time. While some goals and objectives remain constant throughout the life of a project, others may evolve or need to be redefined periodically. In practice, goals and objectives often need to be clarified or sharpened in response to the requirements of the organisation.

Theme 4: Ambitious Scope of Project

The participants seemed to agree on the ambitious nature of the work that was required in the 2-year timeframe set to deliver the project. Five out of the thirty-six participants referred to the term 'ambitious' in describing the scope of the project. Other participants repeatedly referred to ideas associated with the project being overly ambitious. These repetitions indicated to the researcher that these ideas were important and recurring themes in the data.

These comments are discussed in this section.

PCT2 had this to say about the project, "*It was and is an ambitious project, it still is"*

"I don't know if we were a bit kind of - our eyes bigger than our belly - when it came to what we could actually do in those 2 years "

UAS2 stated that he believed that the objective of the ICZ project was simple but that in trying to deliver it, people were being too ambitious.

PWS2 commented on some of the work streams not kicking off due to the ambitious nature of the project. According to him, "*As far as I can work out, some of those work streams never really started or ever really took off".* On the work streams, PWS2 added, *"it became quite clear that our work stream had the danger of trying to do everything which was impossible or arguably doing nothing because everything was impossible. But equally, it kind of needed to set out what the parameters of success were very early on which is something, in essence, we are still working on because it has kind of been an evolutionary thing".*

PCT1 stated, *"We were probably too ambitious; there were certainly some areas of infrastructure that I am really disappointed that we didn't make sufficient progress on as I would have liked us".* One industry partner IP3 suggested that the project should not have tried to do too much at a time. He put it thus: *"Don't try to do too much. Focus on doing one amazingly well and use that model to do the other three because trying to do four at the same time will be very very difficult".*

UAS8 raised the same issue in describing the scope of the ICZ strategy. He had this to say, *"I have to say I think 10 principles is probably too many because even I struggle to remember all 10 and if I want to do some engagement work, then I have to go and look them up".* Some participants brought up the issue of having other ambitious projects that were running concurrently with the ICZ project with no attendant resources provided. UAS2 stated, "*So, the university has got to be quite careful with its resources, it also has quite an ambitious project to develop the campus. So, these are grand ideas and I think at some level the grand ideas they are expecting additional staff to pick up on them, but they are not providing resources to actually make these ideas happen".*

As seen from the discussions, the findings suggest that the majority of participants were concerned that the project was overly ambitious. Some participants including the project team, work stream team, academic and non-academic staff believed the project to be ambitious. They seemed to agree on the ambitious nature of the work that was required in the 2-year timeframe set to deliver the project. The researcher found that this theme relates back to participants' understanding of the scope of the project. Whether the project is ambitious or not depends on what stakeholders believe to be the scope of it. It is important hence to understand the scope of a project in order to judge whether the project has delivered on that scope or not.

Theme 5: Lack of Structures for Account Management

This theme relates to account management, which was evidently an important issue to the participants, as 8 out of 37 participants raised the issue of account management when discussing barriers and challenges in implementing the project. Account management is the management of the different accounts that existing and potential industry partners bring to the university including placements, live briefs, internships, KTPS, sponsorship of Masters and PhD studies, guest lectures and use of facilities among others. The management of the accounts would require processes and structures in place as well as time to manage the accounts. According to UNS2, "to manage all of that would be a key account management role and I really haven't got time, you can only do that for 1 or 2 companies before your entire week is filled up". The participants suggested that the necessary structures and mechanisms for account management were not in place for such a project to be successful. Examples of such comments from participants are highlighted:

As UAS10 stated, "*but the mechanisms for making that happen are really not there yet".*

As SLT1 puts it, *"So the whole thing is focused on industry and industry outcomes without worrying about the mechanism of making that happen"*

PWS2 had this to say, "It was the fact that the strategy should have guided and allowed an evolution of thinking that was not already set out "

A core project team (PCT) participant noted that most of the challenges arose from the realisation that changes needed to be made across different departments and schools as well as ask people to work in a different way without a corresponding alignment of existing

university systems and structures with the changes required for the new industry structures. PCT2 had this to say, *"Not having clear structures for our key account management, not really knowing what an exceptional industry partnership is if we had those structures in place if we were clear about what was important to us and what would make a partnership exceptional. If we were really clear about what to start off with - it would have been easier; I think we could have gone further with it"*

Other participants also raised the issue of not having structures in place. For example, according to UAS1*, "We identified 2 years ago, didn't we? That we should be doing that. And 2 years later, we have made a bit of progress but nowhere near enough close. That should already all be in place, proper structures, people in proper staffing and roles, proper processes for doing it. How do you identify key partners, how do you then manage that relationship? How do you develop new partnerships? How do you take smaller partnerships and grow them? It's a whole bunch of stuff there around partnership working that we just don't have proper structures and roles in place to support that way of working. That is a key thing"*

UNS3 echoed this view: "*I don't know if anyone has talked to you about key account management but that is like the cornerstone of what the ICZs will be doing. It's a way of managing industry partnerships in a much more kind of hands-on way, it relies on having a process, and a model for doing it, which was not in place, and it also lies on having an infrastructure to support it. So things like CRM database. So none of that stuff was in place. And there is still nothing in place".*

UAS1 also had this to say*: "talking about key account management, so there has been a review of what partnerships we have got but how they are going to be managed going forward and how we are bringing in new partnerships and how we will manage those – there is no approach for that. There is no process if you like"*

UNS2 suggested that engagement with staff who were already skilled in account management would have been helpful for the project, *"So quite a lot of the university don't know how to go out and get a company and bring the company in and make something happen. It's not that easy to do. So you need people that have got that skillset and have been doing it and I think if they would have talked to us, they would have been able to have that skill set within."*

UAS1 insisted that there was still was no plan or structure to manage partnerships despite the business as usual status that the university believed it had achieved, "So*, I know there has been some new office set up, some central team set up to support the new ICZs, but the new roles - they don't include any staff from the enterprise. So that area about what that team of people are going to do to support the ICZs, not got to any sort of conclusion and as part of that - how are we going to manage partnerships?*

"we haven't fully identified the key partners although we have done some work on that and we certainly have not devised a scheme for managing partners and we have not reconfigured the enterprise team to support that ICZ way of working. There is also bits of enterprise and support if you like that comes out of XXXXX sort of AskUs and students and that doesn't seem to be meshed in if you like in a more strategic way"

According to UAS1, the answer to the problem of account management was with senior people, the project team, and the enterprise office: "*But that is where that triangle is – senior people, project team, enterprise office. Somewhere in there is the answer may be to what has gone on and why we don't have any proper arrangements yet for key account management and partnership working and so on".*

In summarising the views, it was clear that the project strategy was centred on industry partnerships. Therefore, a key deliverable of the strategy and the project was evidently the establishment of proper structures and roles in place to support a different way of working with industry. This was suggested to be achievable through effective account management. The project required that changes be made across different departments and schools with the expectation that people would adjust their work patterns in line with the changes required. However, many participants were concerned that the project did not have the necessary structures for managing partnerships in place. This, in their views, set the project up for failure.

Theme 6: Resourcing and Time Constraints

Out of 36 participants, 12 raised issues related to the time and resource constraints of the project. These issues were raised as contributing to the project not attaining the level of success that it could have had. The following are examples of comments highlighting these issues.

For example, PWS2 raised the issue of not having enough time to commit to workstream activities and had this to say, *"That's why I am self-critical of this because in a sense it was about how much time we could commit and XXXX obviously how much time she could commit to the project in terms of this work stream"*

PWS2 also had this to say, "*But in a way the work stream we had also was a massive task as well. So it is somewhere in between doing a day's job and you have to fit things in and I think we made a contribution…Like I said I still think it is an ongoing piece of work, the reason it hasn't got further is as a consequence of perhaps our own inability to commit time to it"*

PWS2 had this to say, "*So, perhaps if anything, that's about timeframes and about classic project management issues and about the scope of the work which I don't think we fully recognised at the beginning and the time frames of the work which were too tight. Because it is a process of change in terms of thinking, it is a cultural change which takes time".*

The project team members described the project as enjoying a high level of senior management buy-in because of it being a strategic priority for the organisation. PCT1, however, commented that a barrier was spending too much time reporting upwards. As stated, *"If there was anything I would have done differently, I would have done less time reporting upwards and more time of actually doing…. we would have preferred to have spent less time doing that and more time actually doing".*

The issue of resources was also raised as a constraint for the project. For example, UAS2 had this to say*, "Finalising organisational structure for partnership management, that needs to be resourced …I assume we are going to phase 4 now so it depends at this level what resource becomes available and whether it all gets spent on spaces and zones or people. It needs to be spent in my opinion on people, on staff that can deliver and help facilitate this growth of partnerships".* In UAS7's view, more resource was required for engagement. As stated, *"I think perhaps this is where you need to have a physical presence and maybe people going round and again its time, resource intensive, but I think if you want people to engage, you sometimes need to have that physical presence to kind of drive things and get people thinking about things and get people engaged".*

PCT2 stated, *"I don't think we got to the point where we properly externalised the strategy. So we would talk about it and what it was but was there understanding and real awareness of it? I don't think really in that 2-year period, I don't think there was resource in the team for that to happen"…"I think being a really small team was a bit of barrier as well. With more resource, then perhaps we probably could have done more"*

UAS2 also noted, *"it has not been resourced that well".* When asked what could have been done better to achieve success, UAS6 had this to say*, "Oh where do I begin, more staff? Certainly, more administrators, we never have enough administrators, we have got to do loads of paperwork ourselves. It could be done by administrators. You do something about the enormous amount of emails that keep coming into our inbox and grinding people down. That's a much bigger issue, you know other than the ICZs. I don't know how the university tackles that. Money?"* PCT1 also said, *"We didn't have sufficient resource to report on the frequency that they wanted".*

PWS1 commented that apart from the core project team that were working to deliver the project as full-time roles, every other resource on the project were seconded to the project or an add on to the project and so had restrictions in terms of the time they could commit to the project in addition to their daily roles. PWS1 had this to say, *"We were not told to do it, I was approached, and I was asked, and I did want to get involved which is fine but it was something else that had to be done. So, I think there were resource implications certainly when you already have a job. Like I have already got a very busy job so juggling 2 and splitting my time was challenging at times especially in the beginning".*

According to PWS1, *"So, there was certainly a disconnect between something that was so important to the university and the way to go and the resource that was assigned to it, really! I mean if it was that important, why not?….And the people that we want to deliver some of this stuff, give them time to do it rather than relying on goodwill"*

UAS6 reflected, *"I think people are so so busy. When you are too busy answering 50 emails a day, responding to student queries, you firefighting all the time, you haven't got time for new initiatives and new ideas. That's a big problem here. I don't think it's just here, it's all universities, people are just busy"*

"More information I don't think is necessarily the thing for me. The information is there; people just don't have time to access it and take it in"

UAS7 also raised the issue of having too many emails, *"that's the problem, your inbox gets filled with so many things and maybe you scan read and you just delete"*

UAS6 related the time constraints experienced by staff to leadership, stating that the university and project leadership did not utilise its staff resource as it could have. She had this to say about the project leadership "I *think they are invisible, to be honest"…"And I think that the leadership is not utilising its staff resource and interest and enthusiasm well and it's not as visible as it can be. I know that they have road shows and people can go along and sit and have a chat with them but again, it comes down to people being too busy to do that, to be honest. I don't really know what the answer is; perhaps they have to come down to people a bit more and come to staff meetings"*

PWS4 reflected the same view, "*I think personally, I would have produced fewer brochures and done more talking to people and more engagement earlier on".*

In UAS9's view, the project involved much more time than it was given, "*what you need to realise is that you need to spend a lot of time and effort talking to companies which takes time" …to set up such an assignment takes a lot of time and effort. I am not absolutely sure if they thought about how long it takes to do that"*

A group 2 participant, however, justified the closure of the project, stating that satisfaction with the project led to its closure. According to PCT1, *"Well I would say if they were asked if the ICZ programme was a success, generally I would say yes. The university council in our final report to them came back and said great you have made fantastic progress, we are happy for the programme to be brought to closure. We didn't have to close the project after the 2 years. You know we could have extended it by a further 6 or 12 months if we felt we hadn't made sufficient progress but because we had made the progress we wanted to, the university council, one of our stakeholders, was happy, the executive team and the university management team - were happy to close the program"*

However, a work stream participant PWS2 stated that this was not the right approach. PWS2 stated, "*I actually think that even if we were going to a business as usual at the 2 year point, there was some justification for extending the life of the actual project office for another 12 months, if not 2 years in the sense to continue doing some of the work in a lower key level. To continue pushing that change and being those agents for change sort of independent of schools or particular organisational units because the risk now is that those particular feelers that have gone out will wither because there is no one pushing it from behind"*

PWS2 also suggested that the 2-year delivery cut off point for the project could have been extended, "I *am not going to say that if XXXX has stayed on, that wouldn't have been different but if they had been prepared to replace XXXX that might have made a difference that might have been an argument to continue. …It was locked in from day 1 really …. But maybe that should have been reconsidered as we came to a conclusion because I don't think that was the right solution"*

An industry partner IP4 also spoke of the effect of personnel leaving affecting the outcome of project activities, "*So, I think it was a case of we had all these ideas and then the person that was leading on the partnership left the university and I think it was with people's time constraints as well. It just sort of all just got put to the wayside"*

"And if we don't start this at the start of Sept, you sort of miss because you sort of need to get infiltrated. The whole project was about getting it in at start of term, that got missed, and then like I said, the person leading on it left. So, it didn't just get kicked off the ground".

A number of participants raised the issue of the time it took for the project to properly kick off to have impacted on its buy-in for the project. In their views, this impacted negatively on the project. For example, PWS3 stated, *"it was launched very early on with a lot of fanfare and the work done early on was too theoretical, too flimsy. I think it was too long between introducing the idea and getting anything on the ground. And so, a lot of people thought oh it's the next thing, it will go away. It could have happened a bit quicker because when people hear about it, they say oh that sounds great and then 6 months later, it's like what is it? And no one knows still and 10 months later, it's like was is it? And no one knows still. It's taken a long time to hit the ground"*

UAS1 believed that activities could have been made to run concurrently to meet up with the timeframe of the project: "*But phase 4 is well behind schedule. I would have argued as well, if this was the order we would have done things, that really could have been started earlier, it didn't need to wait. From project management terms, there isn't a dependency…I think the first 2 phases were done in a reasonable timeframe but phase 3 took too long in my opinion and that had an impact on phase 4 as well".*

PWS1 believed that more engagement with staff could have been achieved if more workshops had been organised and attributed this to resourcing and timing issues:

"There are thousands of staff. That should have rolled out wider, much much wider I think. We could have been done better. Even if you couldn't attend a face to face workshop, could we have put something on blackboard, a bit of a video type, training development type thing that was almost compulsory, you have to go through it, almost like the health and safety kind of thing, you have got to go through it. And then you could have the questions etc. The resource that was put in that was too little. Those people that did go to the workshops, they were very well received so why did we not do more of it. I guess time was against us, I don't know"

As can be seen from this section, the findings revealed that there were significant issues with timing and resourcing, both in staff not having enough time to commit to project activities, as well as the constraints imposed on the 2-year timeframe scheduled for project activities to be achieved. The relationship between timing and resource is that a lack of adequate resources for project activities impacted on existing staff being able to tackle the workload and at the same time meet up with project deliverables.

Theme 7: Confusing Zone Terminology in Project Name

The comments from participants suggested that the terminology of the project name impacted on stakeholders' perception of the project. The terminology was said to be confusing for some to understand especially as it denoted that there was a physical space (zone) where ICZ affairs were expected to happen. This perception was reflected across all the groups of participants.

The following section discusses these comments. For example, PCT1 said,

"when you talk about zone, people sort of envision it as a building, that this was going to be sports building, and this was going to be…, and again, that comes down to lack of knowledge and engagement of the context of the ICZs"

"So yeah, absolutely, people got confused in the early days but again, hopefully, and gradually that clarity has come to light".

UAS1 stated, *"at the start when we first started off, I think people thought there would be a physical home for each of these and as time went on, that seemed to be less and less likely, but it is more a virtual arrangement rather than physical although there might well be some physical aspects to some of it"*

UNS2 had this to say, "*I think there is a possibility that people were a bit confused about what ICZ actually meant because the term zone feels like it should be a place so I think they perhaps could have been a bit maybe a bit better with the name and a bit clearer with the strategy in terms of… to be fair, I did understand the strategy but I have spoken to perhaps some academics where they thought what I would do now is write a report and just put ICZ and hand it in and everyone seems to be happy with it"*

PCT2 also said, *"I think the whole zone thing was a real issue because I think people when they think of zone, they think of a place and the ICZ was more of a concept and a way of working and a way of thinking and sort of like a cultural shift that we are going to celebrate our success with industry and in the areas that we are not working with industry, we are going to make our student more employable. We are up to date and relevant, and we are filling the skills gap and the need, those types of things would be quite easy to tell people about but kind of under the banner of the ICZ I think it was tricky. And I think that is probably still lingering now".*

Some participants described the zone as being 'handed down' to them to work with without consultation or engagement of the name. For example, PCT1 said,

"When we came into post it was the ICZ, it was already there, the zone was already there, we didn't have an option, and we didn't debate that".

PWS2 mirrored this view in his statement describing the zones as a limiting factor. As stated, *"I do think they did what they could possibly achieve in that period, yes and I think the big constraint was the notion of 4 separate zones. That was the limiting factor.* He added, *"I think the other problem more generally was that a lot of academics associated success, or shall we say completion or maybe the notion of change with physical tangible space".*

PCT2 stated emphatically that the name was a barrier as it meant that there were difficulties in being able to develop a collective understanding with stakeholders, which led to push backs from stakeholders: *"I wished that we had been able to sit down and kind of renamed the programme. Because I think it could have been something that was more understandable. We have got it now but it has taken a long time. There were some barriers that we could have got over if that wasn't its name".*

PCT1 said, *"But the ICZ as a kind of idea or just as a label - I don't think it really worked, I didn't think people understood and I don't think that was a problem just with students. I think it was an issue with staff as well. I think a name was given to us and we were not able to*

change it but there could have been a better way. I don't know if marketing could have come up with a better name, just to make it really clear what it actually was that might have made it easier for us to be able to push that out to students, to say this is exactly what it is going to be. We had video and that kind of things but at that point, I think it was like a turn off for people. I don't think they quite got it".

As can be seen from the discussions, there was clearly an issue with the terminologies used in communicating the project's message to stakeholders, which impacted on the buy-in for the project. The term 'zone' gave the notion of a physical space, which was confusing for stakeholders and inevitably limited buy-in for the project. An important issue here is the implication that different stakeholders had different understandings of the term 'zone' in the project name. This theme can be seen to overlap with Theme 2, as it is an illustration of the different understanding of people on the project and its objectives. Though there appears to be an issue with the terminologies used in communicating the project, the fundamental issue appears to be that different stakeholders had different understandings of the project and its objectives. This suggests that a collective understanding or agreement of the project name may have had a different impact on the project.

Theme 8: Resistance to Project as a Label

Similar to the previous theme is the "resistance to project as a label" theme, which discusses the perception of the project as a label. This led to the resistance of stakeholders to its buy-in. A majority of the participants believed that the project was a label for activities that were already being carried out by staff members with individual partners. According to a majority of the participants, there was also a feeling among staff members that they were already espousing the ICZ principles in their daily work activities and so, the ICZ label was unnecessary.

As UAS5 stated, "*We have been doing it before!"* Examples were given of questions and statements that reflected these feelings, such as:

"What is this ICZ thing?"; "What does that even mean?"; "We are already doing that stuff!"

UNS1 stated, *"And I think nobody really yet was very clear on what the ICZ were or meant"*

UAS7 reflected, "*I think maybe there is a feeling within the directorate as a whole perhaps that we were already doing these things so what are we going to get out of it. And it's kind of like people rolling their eyes a little bit at this ICZ thing"*

UAS3 had this to say, *"I have been very cynical about it from the very beginning. For me, it's just another initiative. We have seen these things come and go. I have been here a long time"*

"Like I said - its new wines in old bottles. It's just the same thing. It's just the same book painted in a different colour on the cover. But senior management needs to be seen to be doing something and constantly just to justify their positions"

UAS4 stated, *"I don't think this ICZ was anything particularly new. You know, we have been engaging with industry"*

UAS6 stated, *"Yeah so it's another initiative, that's how it seems and because we always have lots and lots of initiatives. People start to get initiative weary, and tired of all this.*

UNS3 gave examples of questions that came up in their engagement with staff.

"What is actually different? What impact is it having? What difference is it making?"

UAS3 was critical of the label and had this to say, *"Every year, we update our material to make sure they are current. These are processes that go on and should be going on. Why do we need to give something a fancy label? For me, it probably only exists in the minds of those people who created it and promoted it and got job promotions on the back of it"*

In UAS3's opinion, the project had not made any difference to industry partners; "*What actual difference has it made to employers and employers' perceptions of us? I would be surprised. I don't know, you need to ask them. I have no idea, but do they all now suddenly think that Salford University is wonderful just because we have got something called industry collaboration zone. That's why I was asking you if you were going to be speaking to any employers what differences have they seen sort of pre and post ICZ?"*

UAS3 referred to the ICZ label as common sense and a product from consultants, stating: "*the whole thing seems to be when you look at it, it is kind of just common sense. The whole sort of label seems to be a product of a report by some consultants the senior management*

team might have brought in. My most negative impression of it is it is nothing more than your corporate bullshit really…I mean to some extent, it is just a badge. I wouldn't be surprised if it wasn't the product of some report that been done and cost us much money"

In UNS3's view, a clear message of how the ICZ was different would have helped mitigate this problem. UNS3 had this to say, *"What was not really communicated was what was different…If anybody had asked me what was different about the ICZs as opposed to what we were already doing in the university; I don't think I really understood that…They told the story well, everybody is aware of it …but I think what wasn't really communicated was what makes it different. What makes what we are doing now different from what we have done up until now. What is different about the ICZ strategy? I don't think that was communicated, no".*

UAS7 also had this to say: *"We do realise what it is about but maybe it's something we do already, we are thinking what are the benefits that we are getting out of it? What opportunities does it throw open for us? What would these guys do for us that we are not doing already? And*
I think that's the thing. It's got to be 2 way"

Not having a clear idea of the terminology in UAS8's view was a communication and leadership issue. As stated, "*I think there is an element of leadership problem in terms of where is the information that tells us what the ICZ will do for the academics. So, there is a communication issue as well. And I think there probably are some leadership issues…I think there needs to be some better way of communicating in a simple direct way what it is about, and how the ICZs connect into the schools and what the schools are doing. What that should consist of, I am not sure".*

PWS1 also believed that the message could have been simpler, "*I think we could have simplified the message because a lot of academics do deal with industry as part and parcel of what they do. So perhaps the message could have been for those of you that are already engaging with industry, we want to make sure that is recognised and rewarded and that is important. It is not something new or extra that we want to do. If you are already doing it, great. Let's carry on doing it, let's do it a bit better, let's do it a bit smarter but then if you are not engaging with industry, those are the people we should have focused on more"*

UNS2 made suggestions on what the message should have been*, "I think maybe if the message had perhaps been - So we know you are already doing this to the best of your ability, what ICZ is for is perhaps work down some of the barriers you are encountering when working with industry and to formalise and document what we are doing a little better. Because actually as a university, we are not great at shouting out what we do. So for me the ICZ was gathering all this and saying here the company they are doing something over there, something over there, without the ICZ, these three things will happen in isolation. With the ICZ, we can bring it all together and it looks nice Boom! Have a look at that. And that's what I think the ICZ will do and that's why I think it will be successful"*

PWS1 also believed that the message of the project could have been made simpler and clearer. According to her, *"And so, it brings me to the original message, could it have been clearer, simpler. This is what the ICZ is, this is why we are doing it and it can be all these things, it can be about getting student placements, it can be about every course that we offer has to have some element of student external engagement. It can be a whole host of things, of what can it mean and are you already doing it? Great. How do you capture it? How do you record it? How do you celebrate what you are doing? Who do you tell about the projects that you do, you know that kind of thing?"*

PWS1 mirrored this view stating, *"Get the messaging right, make it clear and get it to the right people"*

In response to the argument that the project activities were already being carried out by staff and that the project was another label, some participants justified the project approach. For example, PCT1 stressed on the need to have a different mindset and dedicated time to implement the project, *"The purpose of the work streams was to really kick-start and put pride in the work and just get people with dedicated time to focus and to do that bit of work. If we just get people to pick stuff up as business as usual, it takes an awful lot longer, so we are not where we need to be"*

PWS1 had this to say: *"ICZ is just another shiny label that they have put on something. From where we stand, we engage with industry, we do it all the time, that's all we do, industrial engagement so it is just another badge. But I get why we needed to do it from a university's point of view"*

PCT1 stated, " *If we just get people to pick stuff up as business as usual, it takes an awful lot longer, so we are not where we need to be" …. and we didn't have the time. And therefore, we had to fit it around the time we had"…"I talked to lots of people and they were like we are already doing it. Well, it is great that you are already doing it, but we should celebrate that more. This is about us kind of waving that*

flag and saying we are doing it here and this is our area of good practice and maybe perhaps you could share that good practice. And I think that was kind of the way we worked around people really. It was being incredibly positive about what we were doing. And I think that worked quite well"

"I do think it is necessary because that's what you need, don't you? For a university. You need a kind of strong focus on where we are going and what is important, and I think to have a single strategic priority really helps people to kind of focus on where we are going, hopefully applying to what they are doing and actually for lecturers who are already doing this kind of stuff, it kind of adds a kind of urgency to what they are doing. It gives their work a kind of importance to the university which they may not felt it had before".

PWS1 explained that though the project's strategy was something that the academics were already practising, the project was a way of asking them to do it smarter: "*I was in a different position because I was closer to the project team, I understood that message that I am not being asked to do something different, it is just a different label, so we just badged things as ICZ, how it fits in with the ICZs, so just changed the language but for some of the academics that were removed from it was like here is something else we have got to do. No, it's not, you are already doing it. We just need to do it smarter and more joined up"*

In SLT1's opinion, *"from my perspective when I came in is there was a lot of good industry engagement, industry collaboration, activities already going on in the school. It wasn't like we weren't working with industry. So, it is about building and extending upon that"*

UNS2 stated that the project was formalising what the university already did, "*the ICZ was introduced as a new thing, a new strategy, a new concept but actually, Salford University has been collaborating with industry from inception. So for me, this was nothing new, this is what I have been doing for 12 years. And so, for me, the ICZ was more a way of formalising what we do well. And perhaps, sort of re-creating what we do well across the whole of the university with a view to continuing to work well with industry and also to perhaps to increase the amount of collaborations going on within the university and the public and private sector"*

According to UNS2, "*Yes I think it was necessary. So, whenever you talk to outside organisations and industry. They would all tell you that the best university to work with if you are a company is Salford. They will all say that…. but that is down to a handful of people making that happen. So absolutely we needed ICZ, it was a good idea because that level of engagement is repeatable all over the university. So, I am right behind the concept of ICZ, absolutely yes"*

UAS3 comments suggested that he did not believe a change was necessary. He had this to say, "*But nothing really, very little will change. I will be delivering the same programme, the same sort of modules in the same way because they were already consistent with….So, the sort of the day to day effect is virtually zero"*

As can be seen from the discussions, there was clearly an issue with the terminologies used in communicating the project message to stakeholders, which impacted on the buy-in for the project. The participants suggested that they did not understand what about the project was different from what the university was already doing and had been doing since the inception of the university. The university was already known for industry collaborations and so there was also a feeling among staff members that they were already espousing the ICZ principles in their daily work activities therefore, the ICZ label was unnecessary. A clearer communication in the message of the project in terms of how the ICZ was different from what the university was already doing could have helped mitigate the resistance to the project and led to further buy-in. Again, this is another illustration of the different understanding of the project and its objectives.

Theme 9: Attainment of 'Business as Usual'

Another ICZ terminology that was used by the majority of the participants was the phrase 'business as usual". The business as usual phrase was suggested to mean the achievement of an operationalised setting at the end of the 2-year project – a deliverable where industry becomes ingrained in the heart of the university. The theme resulted from views participants had on the project not having reached its objectives of operationalising the project within the university. For example, UNS3 (Group 4) did not believe that that status was/or has been achieved. As stated, *"It is not business as usual, not at all. It is waiting for something to happen! It's not business as usual because things are not in place".* SUR2 equally did not believe that the business as usual status had been achieved since students were still going out to secure placements for themselves. She had this to say*, "Yeah, but they are still putting it in your hands, if the university is going to take credit and say that we have made our university ICZ ready, then that means you have done everything, and you are just sending your students out to these approved places".*

SUR2 suggested using the same model that some directorates in the university who were already successful in industry collaborations were employing*, "So they should consult with Health because they have been doing it for years. They should, because they already have a system that is working, all our placements, the way it works, everything, our assessments, everything"*

"They have already done it, they know how they assess, they know how they monitor students as well so therefore if they could just collaborate or at least talk to the health school instead of trying to start from scratch when there is already a model that is working somewhere else"

UAS6 had similar views with SUR2 about the School of Health's model, *"I think one of the other things as well is in health, we very much work with our partners because our students go out to clinical placements work-based placements. Our partners come in and help us design the curriculum because we have to"*

"…So in some ways although it was new in terms of the university strategy, the actual practice of what it was about, we are doing that already, we don't need to do that. It's only really for the other parts of the university where the students are coming in and having an academic experience and they are not really getting that industrial experience and they are sort of forcing a model on us that we actually already have".

In UAS5's view, the project could not be considered successful until the "business as usual" status had been reached. According to UAS5, *"it is about influencing culture. It is about creating a new culture. It's not just about bringing a few people…and I appreciate that we do have more support and we have the directors who will focus hopefully on improving things for us and the whole university. But again, I would say it is business as usual when it is embedded in that organisation and I don't think that it is. It is probably early to say. But I am not sure if the culture has changed".*

PWS2 suggested that the business as usual status should be seen only as a beginning of the change needed at the university. In his view, "w*hereas the reality is we are talking about business as usual now as the sort of phrase that is being termed as the ICZ as business as usual but that's the start of the change, that's the start of seeing that change".* However, UAS3 was sceptical about the project delivering any sort of change and had this to say: *"I am coming to the end of my XXXth year. So, we have seen things come and go. We have seen lots of change within the university. Are you familiar with the phrase – Plus ça change, plus c'est la même chose? It is a French phrase that means everything changes but everything remains the same. So, there are all these things but at the end of the day, nothing much changes. I see the whole thing as a kind of PR exercise".*

When asked if the project had delivered a business as usual status, "UNS2 mirrored UAS3's view: *"I would probably agree. They would of course say, look how great we have done, and they have probably got good grounds to say we are now industry aligned. What I will say is that was not a difficult thing to do because loads of industries were already working with the university but if the measure of success is the university now looking out to industry and looking to work with industry then the answer is yes, but I would argue that it's been like that for the past 50 years".*

As can be seen from the findings, the 'business as usual' state would mean that the ICZ strategy was now embedded in the day to day running of the organisation and the culture is seen to have changed. Participants did not believe that such a state had been achieved. One participant was particularly sceptical of the project and didn't believe anything would change and referred to the project as a PR stunt. Some participants suggested that the university adopts the use of models that were seen to be already working as a way forward for the project.

Theme 10: Organisational Environment Impact on Project

This theme discusses the issue of existing silos, organisational politics and rigid structures that were characteristic of the working environment of the university. The majority of the participants were of the view that these issues impeded on the delivery of the project.

A core project team member PCT1, for example, explained some of the issues and how they worked around them to deliver the project: "*it's not that the people didn't want to engage but it's because they had other pressures on them at that time of doing certain things. So it's about understanding what that was and what that looked like for them and how we could support them in achieving their work whilst getting them engaged in what we wanted them to do as well ".* The participants in Group 2 displayed a high level of awareness and understanding of organisational politics and how to manage or work around them in achieving project goals. These were constructed from the following comments from PCT1, *"I think it's very rare you come across people who are just blocking for the sake of blocking. But*

organisation politics do play a huge role in that". "It's classed as organisational politics because people are doing what they need to do to achieve their roles and other people can't see that".

The rigidity and 'strangeness' of the university's organisational structure was also described in verbatim by PCT2, "*It was a huge organisation and universities are kind of very traditional in their kind of organisational structure anyway and a bit of a weird kind of entity. Like the culture is strange". "It's more about structures, university structures and systems not really aligning to a new strategy, that was problematic and those people that were in charge of those structures, being unwilling to change and then that causing problems"*

The majority of the participants raised the issue of silo working as a characteristic prevalent within the university. The comments suggested that there was an existing issue with internal staff not talking to one another in managing accounts with outside partners. UAS1 highlighted the current issue: " *So, you have got people all over at XXXX who are trying to get contract research and so on and then you have got people down at XXXXXX who are trying to find projects for students and they are trying to support students who are trying to set up a business and yet, ultimately, we are all working with the same industry people. And that could be quite frustrating for the partners, wouldn't it? And it also looks like we are not coordinated".*

PCT2 explained the situation: *"It's not a standard across the board. And one of the difficulties was that academics were going to go out and make their own accounts you know. So, they will go out and make their own connections with business or with other academics and so we could have a number of academics were all working with Siemens but none of them knowing what the other one was doing. That was quite difficult, and we have never been able to pull that information together so we know where stuff lies and what is important so we are not duplicating effort all the time".*

The silo working was also raised by an industry partner IP8 who stated, "*And I would say the communication between directorates within the university isn't great. So, I would say I worked with this person and another person would go -Oh, I didn't realise that. So, I don't know if sharing happened internally as it probably could"*

PWS1 appeared to agree as stated: *"but as a university, there is no central place that says yes, the university is working with all these companies and this is what we are doing with them and this is what it is worth. No, we don't know". "There was an academic in XXXX who filled out the framework for a company that I knew our XXXXX department are working with. It's like you two you need to talk to one another. But little things like that. And then it was like who else is working with this company and why are we not making more of it? Why are we not shouting about it? Why are we not using it as a case study? We are not as smart as we could be with our industry partners"*

UAS6 stated, *"So I think the idea is that any business that we do needs to think about not just silo working like the teaching and learning issue. It's got to think more widely about partnerships and how they can be brought into the work and how it can benefit students and research so financially as well, it all ties together so things are not done in isolation, some sort of synergy across the university."*

When discussing the current systems within the organisation, UAS5 stated emphatically that the problems of the ICZ project were partly caused by the rigidity of the IT systems. As stated, *"So I have always thought, and I still truly believe that the lack of communication about different IT systems in the university and some of the systems are not user-friendly that still remains an issue".* According to UAS5, streamlining the processes would contribute to making the ICZ a success. "*It is still us the academics that will navigate with the industry partners through networking and word of mouth. So, if that process can be streamlined to let us continue to do that in an easier environment, we probably will have better success".*

"We need to work more in letting the digital innovation take over some of the traditional ways of working"

When asked about the challenges of working on the project, UNS3 raised the issue of a lack of control in dealing with the existing structures surrounding the project. As stated, *"You are not in control of anything. You are just like in the centre of lots of things happening around you and you don't really feel like you are in control and I think that's the real challenge in the job. It is trying to impose some kind of control on stuff. Because you are dealing with 7 Schools, 7 Deans, 4 Directors, and your own line manager. There are a lot of people to keep happy. Impossible!"*

One of the work stream team members also raised the issue of control. According to PWS2, "T*here were points in the project where what we were trying to do sort of got blocked at those points with other parts of the university. So, there were points that we realised that we*

didn't entirely have a free hand to do what we perhaps needed to do, and those things sort of emerged particularly over the last 6 or 9 months of the project"

The findings suggest that the project team felt constrained because of the structures in the university. For example, *PWS2 stated, "I think yes because they did what they needed to do within the constraints that they could work to. There were constraints so they worked up to the boundaries of those constraints and possibly beyond them but obviously, there are constraints, you can only go so far and I think they did what they needed to do"*

UAS1 reflected this view in the statement, *"Because project team can come up with recommendation and ideas, but they are not in a position of authority to make it happen. So, we are talking about some of the very senior people in the university, so if you spoke to some of those they might be able to explain why and give reasons.*

The physical location of the offices of the project team was also raised as a constraint by SUR1, "*Probably they should be here on campus and actually XXXXX is not a well-attended building in comparison to XXXX, or XXXX, XXXX or the XXXX. It should be somewhere central, like in the middle of campus. For better results..."*

This viewpoint was reflected by a student representative SUR1, "*but now the whole project is out of the schools, is like managed centrally at Alumni House and the students don't have the opportunity to go and interact with the project members and project managers. Probably if they tried to implement it within the school and give that opportunity for students to interact like do something like open sessions, go there ask questions or the project members deliver presentations about projects and to explain to students how they can get involved in the project, this could be a way for improvement"*

UNS1 had this to say, "*And it's actually literally physical. There is a physical distance with the management. The management is over there. It is across the road, there is a massive road. There is a massive road between us and the management. ….You have to cross the road, they don't let you in. So, I think they don't try to engage the staff and to be honest with you, I think that is their job".*

"You are only part of something if somebody makes you feel like you are part of something"

Another issue raised was the setup of the project governance structure, which affected the implementation of the project. This inadvertently encouraged the silo working that the project was aiming to eradicate. For example, SLT1 stated, "*a lot of the ICZ governance sat outside the academic structure of the university. So, there were project boards and academic activities and things going on with the development leads that, if I was being critical, weren't always well very connected back into schools.*

He continued*, "The project plans that were written under the development leads were written almost without consultation with the schools – with the deans as representatives of the schools.*

So, we had issues with those development plans where when they were due to be submitted, I was chasing the development leads around literally running down corridors after one of the instances to say I need to see that documentation"

PWS1 reflected this view when she stated*, "I also think we needed to have more engagement with the school, with the dean of schools".*

The findings suggest that organisational politics, silos and rigid structures were characteristic of the working environment of the university. The majority of the participants were of the view that these issues impeded the delivery of the project. The recurrent issue raised was that people from different areas of the university appeared to be working with the same industry partners without sharing information with other members of staff. This led to the duplicity of efforts, not working 'smart' and the perception that the university was not coordinated in its dealings with industry partners. The rigidity of the systems, as well as the setup of the project governance structure, were found to affect the implementation of the project and inadvertently encouraged the silo working that the project was aiming to eradicate.

Theme 11: Judging Success Based on Project Visibility and Awareness

The theme discusses participants' perception of the visibility of the project among stakeholders as well as their awareness of the project. It was apparent from the findings that the project's visibility and awareness within the organisation played a big role in shaping stakeholders' views on the success of the project. Some participants believed that the project had done what it set out to do which was to embed the message of the project in the university. It had also made people start to think about how the project interacted with their role within the university. These stakeholders believed the project had been successful judging by this single criterion. Others, however,

believed that the message was still not clear, and the project was not visible enough. It was necessary, therefore, to consider project visibility and awareness as success criteria for these participants. Staff

The comments of staff participants on the visibility of the project are discussed in this section. When asked what had worked well with the project, UNS2 stated: *"I think that in terms of ICZ being really visible and people understanding what it is and being ICZ ready. Then yes, then we have to say they have done a great job"*

"I would say that you won't find somebody working within the university that doesn't know what ICZ is, so you would have to say that has been very successful"

PWS4 commented that the ICZ had successfully entered into the consciousness of the university. As stated, *"It has entered people's heads and now if you asked someone in the university - a member of staff, what is ICZ, they will have a notion, a clear notion about industry collaboration and that it is about how we do things and why we do things the way we do".*

UNS2 reflected the same views*, "So I would agree with that, it's not many people that you would speak to that who don't know ICZ and what it is"*

UAS6 had contrary views on affirming the project as a success and stated that work still needed to be done on getting the message out, *"I think what has not worked so well is getting the message out to majority of the people, yes I think that still there is a lot of work to be done on that".*

UAS5, however, added, "*I think it has been successful in embedding this, in making us think about how do we fit with this strategy and how our work fits with that and how we can adapt our work if it doesn't. So, I think it has been a success in that way, in being visible".*

In response to questions on the successes achieved by the project team, PCT1 reflected UAS5's views: *"What we then did very well the last 5-6 months of those 2 years is we started to embed the concept of ICZ across the university"*

PWS2 also had this to say about the success of the project, "*So, in a sense, it's embedded itself as part of the programme and it has done what it needed to do. It's got people thinking about an impact, it's got people thinking about how you make an assessment of whether you are successful or not"*

UAS5 suggested that more marketing of the ICZ project needed to be done in order for it to be considered a success. As stated, *"a bit more marketing again with ICZ and maybe other initiative and courses, and focus more on the new marketing strategies, understanding the stakeholders, understanding who you want to engage with, their needs in order to develop product, courses, projects that feed the industry needs".*

Majority of the staff stakeholders while they suggested that they knew about the project, did not fully understand what it was trying to achieve, and therefore deemed the project a failure.

Students

The comments of students on the visibility of the project are discussed in this section. It was clear from the findings that the majority of the students did not know about the project. This was evident as only one of the four participants (SUR1) stated that they knew about the project. For example, SUR3 (student rep stakeholder) stated,

"I actually hadn't heard of it until you told me about it. And so I did some research and I actually found it on the student website. I didn't know that that project actually existed".

SUR2 also stated, *"I really haven't heard of this ICZ at all. In any way, shape or form. I just have not heard about it".*

SUR4 stated, "*No, I don't think they know about it. No one has mentioned it. And everyone, most students I have, they mention how difficult it is for them to connect with the lecturers and how difficult they are finding their course, so it is that boost and motivation that I have to give them and I feel like a project like this will help them. It will prepare them for that life because there is a lot of stress here".*

SUR1, however, gave a different picture of student's awareness of the ICZ. As stated, *"You can see ICZ everywhere. On campus. Usually, when we have lectures, the first slide of the lecture is with different events of the week. And we usually have something about the ICZ...and*

the lecturer always tells us we can get involved with ICZ... but I don't think that the students knew enough about ICZ to get involved with ICZ"…

"*I don't know what the situation is right now. Probably it's better, probably the new sabbatical officers are working on this and they achieve good results. But last year that awareness was not that good I would say".*

When asked if it was necessary for students to know about the project, the participants disagreed on their views. The following section discusses the different views:

UAS4 stated, *"Because I think if you asked students if they knew the ICZ, they would say no. And I think presumably as a stakeholder, they should be the first people to know, shouldn't they?"*

PCT1 said: *"It was never part of the project to sort of say all of our students currently know of the ICZ because actually, they don't need to. Our prospective students need to know that we are an industry driven university because of the ICZs. They just need to know that they are guaranteed a placement. Our existing students need to know that actually, their course is so much better and more effective because industry are quite heavily engaged with them and they have got opportunities for placements and their employability at the end of it is so much more advanced…they just need to know the impact on them".*

UAS8 agreed with this view: *"I think that perhaps it is less relevant for the students to know what the ICZs are and what they do, and I agree really. As long as they get some benefit from the application of the principles which is where their interest is"*

PWS2 stated, *"The students will benefit from that change. They are not the key stakeholders in that because they are not driving that change. It's the academics and the external organisations that have got to be the drivers of that change"*

SLT1 also agreed in his statement*, "Students do not need to know what ICZs are. It is not a student concept. We are not putting students in ICZ, we are not asking them to work in ICZ… but what we should be providing for students is a high-quality programme or experience or environment that has industry at the heart of it"*

SUR3 disagreed with this position, stating: *I feel like you should know exactly what you are being exposed to before it is actually brought to you. Rather than you not knowing at all. Because clearly, that is not helping it to be successful. So, I feel like the more you know about what is coming your way, the better you are to receiving and working with it. So, I feel like they should expose it more. In order for it to be more successful".*

SUR2 also disagreed stating*, "I completely disagree, it doesn't make sense. You need to know what, like if you don't know what something entails, and you are just feeling the impact, you are just then what is it that it actually going on? It's just like one of the things that are really really counter-intuitive"*

SUR2 noted that it was a right of the students to know about the project that involved them and termed it as a breach of consent in not disclosing the project to students. According to her, *"The students definitely need to know what ICZ is. What if they don't agree with that format of learning? What if they prefer to just be sitting in lectures all day? What if that's what they want to do? So that's like you are breaching consent"*

UAS3 believed that not engaging students was a condescending approach by management, "*it is quite a sort of condescending approach, isn't it? So, we are doing this for our customers. They don't need to know, they don't need to know what it is or why. They just need to pay their monies and …"*

In defence, PCT1 stated that it would be difficult to communicate the strategy to students, "I *think it was really difficult for us to be able to communicate what we were trying to do to students…There was some messaging to students, but the focus was primarily on staff for those*
2 years"

UAS6 stated that it was a power issue and in the culture of the university to be teacher-centred rather than student centred, *"I don't think that that is a surprise because I still think we are in a culture where we do things to students rather than with them. This is a power issue and it's a hangover from traditional approaches in universities where its teacher centred learning rather than student centred"*

SUR1 was of the view that student awareness should be at the end of the project and not during it. As stated, *"It's like buying something from the shop. You want to buy something that is finished. You want the finished product. " … When the project is completed, they can start working on it, they can raise awareness"*

UNS3 was of a different opinion stating: *"The students are not really at the centre of this. They don't really feature in it. I kind of still think that to some extent because at the end of the day, that's what it is about. It should be about students and I think that it is. But you have to try and make those links. It is about students at the end of the day but sometimes it is sometimes difficult to make that link I think".*

This position was however conflicted by UNS3, who then stated,

"If you look at the National Students Survey (NSS) scores, actually students' understanding of Salford as an institution that works with industry is really high. We score really well in that so students know that Salford is an institution that has lots of industry links so that message must be getting through somehow, whether that is ICZ I don't know but it's definitely getting through".

In UAS3's view, the project was completely unimportant to students: "*They wouldn't know what ICZs were, they wouldn't know"*

ICD1 had a different view from others and believed that the students knew about the ICZ project but could not *eloquently* articulate what it meant for them individually. This for ICD1 was the major challenge*: So that is probably one of the hardest things is when students can eloquently communicate".*

When asked about the level of involvement and engagement with the project, SUR3 stated that the students from the school had barely had any involvement with the project. As stated, "*Barely. I haven't been involved. Apart from people in the industry coming in and giving you lectures".*

When out-rightly asked if the project was a success, SUR3 had this to say, *because I haven't been exposed to it, I would say no, not yet. Maybe if we do get exposed to it or we get to learn more about it, I think the more we get to learn more about it or the more we get exposed to it, the more successful it will be but for now, it is not there.*

UAS9 stated that it was important that prospective students be made aware of the ICZ project as a good marketing strategy as well. According to him, "*I think we should make it known to our potential students that this is what we do. We are not just teaching you a subject. We are teaching you subjects which you would need to use in industry and we get the opinion of people in industry to ensure the syllabuses and courses are in fact in line with what they need"*

SUR2 suggested that lecturers should be ambassadors of the project. As stated, *"Just give them like a short format, even if it's just like a script. Read this out to your students before the next lecture starts. Let them know that this is what is happening in the uni if you truly wanted them to know".*

According to SUR1, *"probably the sabbatical officers should have been more involved in what they were doing, not only the sabbatical officers, the students have more student feedback on board. At least it would be easier for students to understand the project"*

When asked why students were not involved in the workshops, PWS3 responded, *"to be honest from an admin point of view - getting students to the workshop, it's hard enough getting staff there. I mean from an admin point of view that would have been an absolute nightmare"*

When asked how the academic staff approached students with the ICZ, it was a consensus that they did not tell students about the ICZs. As stated, "So *as academics teaching students, we don't really tell them about the ICZs. We don't tell them about the principles I suppose"*

UAS10 added, "We don't talk to the students about the ICZ strategy. Put yourself in the position of an 18 year old, you are going to talk to an 18-year-old about what is relevant, what is going to make them tick, what is going to enthuse them so saying right now we are going to talk about the ICZ strategy isn't going to fill them with much passion and fire. So what we talk about are industry collaborations, ICZ no"

In her view, what was rather key was "I think what is key is that we develop their professional practice, develop their industry engagement, give them a curriculum that allows them to experience work-based learning"

UAS4 mirrored this view in his statement: *"I think if you found a good student and asked them - have you felt the benefits of the ICZ. I don't think they would know what to answer. Now if you have said, you have done a great placement, that's an element of the ICZ. Then they would say yeah yeah, I think you would have to point them, and I think it's at the end that they would appreciate it not the beginning and they look back retrospectively and say yeah that was a good programme because we did this"*

PWS2 provided a reason for why students had not figured very heavily in the ICZ project, *"Honestly. The reason being that the change that was required probably wasn't in the minds of the students and behaviours or practices or processes of students. It wasn't. It was the academics that were teaching students and so in some respects they were along for the ride and I think maybe that was a fault of the programme but there was and is a significant amount of work that has to be done with change in term of perception and approach within the academics of the university still"*

ICD1 believed that the issue of student awareness and engagement could be solved by lean approach *and had this to say, "So again, I am using the lean startup approach. I am taking one project and trying to drive it through all aspects of the ICZs so the students can actually see themselves and touch it. You know - what does an ICZ initiative or engagement mean for me. And that is going to be very hard to conceptualise for the students so that they can eloquently reference it and say yes, we did that and that was ICZness"*

As the evidence has suggested, the visibility of the project to student stakeholders was poor. This was evidenced by statements by the majority of the student stakeholders on their knowledge of the project. Industry Partners

This section discusses the views of industry partner participants on the visibility of the project. It was clear from the findings that there was a weak awareness of the project among industry partner participants. Some of the IP participants' views are highlighted as follows:

IP6 stated, "*I must admit, I have never heard of it, to be honest*" "*…I knew Salford is a university that has strong links with different businesses, but I didn't know that there was any specific sort of project or anything".* IP11 also stated*, "It is not something that we are familiar with… I personally have never heard of it".* IP5 stated, "*I wasn't aware of it".* IP10 stated*, "I wasn't until you sent the stuff through, I have obviously learnt a lot more about it since you sent it through. Originally, I didn't actually know about it, no".*

Only one (IP8) out of the 11 industry partner participants showed a good understanding of the project and did not need the researcher to explain the project to them. When asked if they believed the project to be a success, the participants were reluctant in stating that the project was a success or not as they did not feel that, they had enough involvement in the project to make such a judgement. Though the industry partner stakeholders admitted to not knowing about the project, a majority of the stakeholders believed that the strategy of the project was good and mutually beneficial for all parties.

The fundamental issue observed from the discussions on this theme again is the recurring relevance of the discussions to participants' understanding of the aim of the project and its objectives. The findings have shown that project visibility and awareness are significant criteria for success. When classified according to the group of stakeholders that participants belonged to, it was found that industry partners did not know about the project but were reluctant to judge the project as a success or a failure and instead spoke of their good working relationship with the organisation. It was found that the project team, work stream team, academic and non-academic staff participants believed that the project had successfully entered into the consciousness of the university. These views were conflicted by student stakeholders as the majority of the students interviewed did not know about the project and so did not consider it successful. Participants disagreed on the need for students to know about the project. These findings further highlight the differences in views between the participants' views.

Theme 12: Judging Success Based on Stakeholder Engagement

This theme discusses stakeholder engagement across the different stakeholder groups of the project. Like the "project visibility and awareness" theme, it was apparent that stakeholder engagement was another criterion that participants used to measure the success of the project. In the project sponsor and project team's view, the project was well promoted and visible to the participants. However, it was apparent from the findings that there were issues with the engagement of staff. As can be seen from this section, engagement is an important factor in participants' feelings about project success. Some participants believed that engagement from senior management was lacking. This section discusses the participants' comments categorised according to different stakeholder groups.

Academic and Non-academic Staff

When asked about stakeholder engagement for the project, SLT1 raised a shortfall in the project phases. According to him, preparing the organisation and engaging it were two different things: "*What is missing from that is we have got preparing the organisation, forming the ICZs and engaging our partners but what we haven't got is engaging the organisation that is different from preparing. Preparing is this is coming – it is important, engaging is this is what you have to do about it"*

UAS9 stated that the engagement had not been as good as it could have been. According to him, "*In order to form the idea for the strategy to be implemented, I personally do not think that was done as good as it could have been"*

UAS8 added, *"My impression is that a lot of staff are not really engaging with this".*

UAS6 reflected, *"I think it will be very useful in the future if people have embraced it properly. I am not sure that the rest of the staff have yet embraced it fully, my colleagues"*

UAS2 stated, *"This ICZ programme was sort of placed on us, I don't remember any real ongoing consultation of what it should sound like or how it should be presented, it was just sort of given to us and we have just had to kind of run with it"*

UAS6 stated that the engagement was being forced on staff: *"I think that they are being forced to, through curriculum mapping they are being forced to do it and through applying for bids for research, they are being forced to do it. But whether they have embraced it as a concept - we love this – that's still got to happen …My suspicion is that with the ICZ, people don't quite know what they mean"*

UNS1 stated that management had just told staff what they wanted to do without engaging with them, *"I think it was pretty much, yeah, pretty much. It was them saying what they wanted to do and how they wanted it to go. There were the questions of course, but basically, it was dissemination information really"*

UAS6 said that there was no proper engagement, *"I was a bit confused because it was the initial introduction to the idea because it and I think nobody quite got the concept really. And I didn't. I mean they were telling us what it was about but it was really hard to see how everything fit together especially with the schools and faculties and with them having different titles"*

UAS6 stated that though the project team had done their best in continually inviting staff to events, people had not engaged with the project because of time constraints: "*I just think people didn't take it up because they were too busy and they just thought that was another thing that they had to do. Perhaps they could have got people more involved rather than just telling them, getting them more involved in coming up with ideas and that may have engaged them a little bit more".*

Some participants noted that their nature of engagement with the project was through funding. UAS8 noted, "*So I have had some successful engagement with funding and I know some of my colleagues have had some successful bids for HEIF which links in with ICZ work"*

It was suggested that the engagement did not meet up with the expectations of staff. As UAS9 stated, "*but the engagement wasn't – is ICZ a good idea? How should we implement it? What do you understand by it? How can we improve it? I don't think there were any questions. We were there simply to make sure that the course was ICZ ready. As I said, there were lots of discussions, but it was simply to make sure the courses were ICZ ready, that's all. Nothing else"*

UAS9 stated, *"then I would say going back to phase 1 initiation, I think there should have been more work at that stage to explain to people what the ICZ was, why the university was so interested in it and get the opinion of people of - is it a good idea? Get the staff experience informing how to implement it in the university?"*

UNS1 stated, *"I am sure it's probably been successful in many ways, but I think it could be a lot more. People could be much prouder of it if they have made an effort to engage people. Instead of just imposing it as a strategy"*

One academic staff UAS8 decried his being out rightly ignored by a member of the ICZ team and concluded that the reason was poor management*, "So I contacted this person and said my dean of school said that you were interested in the work that I am doing, can we set up a meeting to discuss this? Nothing. Never heard anything back…. I had no reply whatsoever. So not even the courtesy of a reply. Just ignore. And it turns me off because the message is - not interested in that. That is the message that that says to me. Actually, I am not interested in what you are doing because I am not even going to take the courtesy of replying to you. So that is poor management. I think.*

When asked if UNS2 had been involved in the project, UNS2 stated that he had not been consulted, *"No, no! so this is part of my issue with ICZ was that I have been doing industry collaborations here for 12 years, very successfully for 12 years. One of the only people in the whole university doing it and nobody asked me about ICZ … "When they were drawing up what an ICZ should be and what an ICZ will be, I had no engagement whatsoever. No, but it is a very difficult question this because I work with academics constantly and these academics will come under an ICZ so I suppose it is impossible for me not to work with an ICZ, the point I am making is that I would speak to those academics whether the ICZ was there or not"*

UAS1 believed that he was being listened to by the people he was speaking to but that they were in turn not speaking to more senior people: *"But all I know is it doesn't matter how many times that I have that conversation, it doesn't seem to change. It doesn't seem to move forward or if it moves forward, it's just inching forward. Someone just needs to set the pace and say this is what we are doing, whether we agree with it totally or we don't, let's just do something rather than just seemingly do nothing.*

UAS4, on the other hand, believed that he did not have a say in the project and was simply told what to do: *"But as I said, I am kind of down here (points to a lower section of the plan). This was probably a university-led incentive via people like XXXX and then they would come and speak to my line manager and then my line manager would speak to me about the process operational"*

UNS1 suggested the approach senior management should have taken in engaging staff: *"Get people into smaller groups. Say why you want them to do it, what's good about it.*

"If I said this is the strategy for this, this is the strategy for this. No, you have got to say instead - This is what we want to do, it's going to benefit everybody. It's going to benefit students, it's going to benefit you…." you have got to create the team, the team doesn't just happen, does it? You have got to create it, you have got to make it happen. And that's their job, they have got to make that happen. But no, they say we will do strategy. You have got to get people to buy into it. And you don't do that by… (shakes head), do you?"

UAS9, however, admitted that all staff would have been involved in the project by virtue of the ICZ ready workshops and had this to say, "*But I was involved as a team in order to make sure that our courses were ICZ ready. So I suppose at some stage, all staff would have been engaged anyway because a course team had to make sure that their course was, in fact, ICZ ready so at some point, everybody in the university would, in fact, become involved in the project"*

From the responses, the researcher gathered that the project team, as part of the work streams, organised events to communicate the project's message as well as ICZ readiness workshops to prepare staff for the impact of the ICZ strategy. These were avenues for people to come together to see how they could work together with the ICZ theme. The workshops were organised as part of the project implementation. The majority of the staff said they could only assess the success of the project based on their perception of the workshops, as these were the only point of touch for most staff with the project.

. The information imposed on the stakeholders was described as dissemination information rather than proper consultation and engagement with staff. Others believed that where the project team had tried to engage with staff through workshops and events, there were time constraints due to the workload on the participants. Some participants took steps to engage with the project directly by applying for funding and also working with students.

Industry Partners

This section discusses the engagement of industry partners on the project. When the researcher asked the industry partners about their level of engagement with the project team, the following responses were recorded. IP2 stated, "*Yeah great communication wise, very supportive, they put me in touch with the right people".*

IP6 also said*, "All communications have been really quick, they have always been at the end of the phone if we ever needed to go through anything. So, it's been really good. They have been really helpful"*

IP10 stated, *"I would say the relationship with the university at the moment is very good. We are in contact with XXXX and we have our meetings with some other people as well "*

IP8 also stated, "*it is successful in relationships work, but I don't actually know what the product is"* also reiterated, "*Yes, absolutely, absolutely. There are loads of things we couldn't do without the university. So absolutely, we do appreciate the relationship"*

When asked about the mode of communication, IP4 stated, *"Yeah absolutely. We talk through email and we have had face to face. Yeah everyone has come back to us and answered queries and that's really been good"*

IP11 stated, "*We have been working with the university for a long time and we kind of built up a lot of relationships with different people"*

When asked what the relationship has been like with the university, IP9 stated, *"It has been excellent. They have listened to what we have had to say, they have given us open opportunities to develop various protocols"*

IP5 also stated, *"I think everything has worked well. They have been really good at replying to emails and working together quite collaboratively helping us ease into the university. They are open to new ideas and working together"*

However, IP4 seemed to have mixed views when asked about the nature of engagement with the university team, "*Well yes and no to be honest with you. So, we tried to set this up about a year ago and we had various meetings with a team of people and we set up lots of plans about what we were going to do but nothing really materialised. And so we visited it again this year and have had 2 meetings and a much more structured plan to start and getting things in motion from sept with the new cohort of students"*

This section has examined the perception of industry partner participants based on their judgement of success by stakeholder engagement. As can be seen from the discussions here, it is clear that the though the industry partner stakeholders admitted to not knowing about the project, a majority of the stakeholders believed that the strategy of the project was a good one and mutually beneficial for all parties. Some of the participants stated that they had good communication links with the university contacts that they had while some admitted this was only starting to improve.

Theme 13: Judging Success Based on Communication

This theme discusses the communication of the project's strategy to stakeholders. Communicating the ICZ strategy to stakeholders was one of the work streams of the project. It was evident from the findings that all participants discussed issues related to communication in their views about the project. An issue of importance for the project team was the need for a strategy for communicating the project to stakeholders. According to the project team, communicating the ICZ strategy to stakeholders was facilitated through a good working relationship with other communication teams within the university such as marketing, external relations, internal communications team. This was illustrated by PCT1 in the statement: *"We had a good relationship with communications, they worked hard to understand what the strategy was and how that should be pushed out to our staff and what that meant".* PCT1 mentioned that having a communication strategy was important as well as utilising every communication channel that the team could use such as face to face, blogging, the ICZ website etc.

The use of language that was accessible to people was also highlighted as important: *"We had the documentation that we wrote in very academic language because half of our community likes to read things in a very academic language, half of our community likes to read things in a very accessible language which is where the blogs came in".* It was also important for the team to make use of ambassadors to influence and communicate the strategy to other stakeholders. As stated by PCT1, *"It was about our deans being our ambassadors, and we also had what we called a thought leader group in the first 12 months of the programme and these were professors and people who were already working and already espousing the ICZ principles. They were already working across schools; they were working with industry significantly. So it was recognising the people who could be our ambassadors across the university and then developing their own areas and their own thought leaders".*

The use of these ambassadors was referred to by PCT1 as "early adopter's methodology" and by PCT2 as "p*eople that could influence and make change. We got those around the table to kind of develop what would be going forward". "We did have ambassadors for the ICZs in our development leads, who were then taking it back into their schools and working on their own projects within the programme. So we were able to influence and push the strategy out".*

Even though the use of ambassadors was generally agreed to have helped with the communication of the strategy to stakeholders, PCT2 raised the issue of non-accountability of the ambassadors. The participant said, *"I think to be really truthfully honest; there was a lot of talk and no action. I think that people could say that they were doing it but there wasn't the buy-in". "I think that they can say that they are doing it but there is no real kind of accountability if they are or they are not".*

Speaking on the team's communications strategy with stakeholders, PSW4 raised an observation of the feeling that the team were experimenting with different channels. PSW4 praised this as a good strategy but also raised issues with the approach. As stated," *whilst I can see that this was a new venture and there would be an element of let's try something and if it doesn't work, let's move on to something else, there were times when I wasn't quite sure where we were up to in terms of the ICZ development".*

PWS4 raised the issue of the project sponsor's support in communicating the ICZ strategy, "*I think the 4 ICZ directors are going to play an important role in being the figurehead, being the face and the voice of the ICZ so it is great to have them in place. And the vice-chancellor, the deputy vice-chancellor and other members of the Vice chancellor's team. They are consistent in their message about ICZ as well and I think that is incredibly important that the leadership does have that consistent message. And they take advantage of all sorts of communication opportunities to talk about it. You have to communicate messages in lots of different ways these days to capture people's attention".*

Also speaking on project sponsor support, PWS4 added that a member of the VCET group had attended a teaching and learning showcase recently and had used the opportunity to espouse the ICZ message and had been appreciative of the work that academic staff are doing in relation to the ICZ. UNS2 explained what he thought had worked well in communicating the strategy, *"Yes so what they have got right is that they have been really forceful about the strategy. So you have got to do that unless people would say right if you are not convinced so neither am so they have been really convinced by what they were doing"*

UAS10, however, stated that the channels used were not adequate. As stated, "*I think it is an unwieldy organisation with lots and lots of staff, maybe a quick survey would have helped them, maybe some sort of forum although we have done a lot of leadership thinking, we have developed a lot of leading at Salford, the Salford behaviours, the Salford way*. According to her, it was important that the university did not lose sight of disseminating the message of the project to its stakeholders, "*Where has it been? Where has it sat? They mustn't lose sight of giving us messages because we cannot just let it fade away.*

UAS10 defended the project team's engagement techniques in communicating the strategy stating that it would have not been possible to engage with every member of staff, *"I wouldn't say that I had an involvement in terms of how it was going to play out but you know they can't speak to everyone in the university because they would be doing that forever and no decisions will ever get made. But I was involved in consultation development meetings, which there were probably maybe four across the university, which were very central and we were told about things and we did get an opportunity to discuss things.*

SUR3 insisted that most students did not get involved with happenings at the university and so could only be exposed to ICZ project information if they were mentioned to them by lecturers. According to SUR3, *I have not heard of it from my lecturers"….Yes, that's the best way for the students to know about it. Rather than it just being on the website. Because not everyone goes on the website".*

SUR3 stated that lecturers were the biggest links to students, therefore having lecturers carry the message of the ICZ to students was the best and surest way to get students engaged with the project. In SUR3's view, the project was not successful due to it failing to achieve this.

"So I feel like the more lecturers and people speak to you about it, the better it is for you to be exposed to it, especially for this project".

SUR2 also agreed with this, stating, *"To be honest, if they wanted students to hear about it, they should have just used lecturers. That's the best way to communicate to students, whether you have posters 500 years all around the uni. Even if I see it, I still won't know what it is. I mean you have to have the lecturers actually school-wide tell them -Students listen to their lecturers. If you post it everywhere, no one will look at it"*

SUR4 also raised the issue of emailing students with messaging around the project, *"you said it was publicised but I have never seen that. Even emailing students. Because they are meant to check their emails about the lectures they are attending, students will be listening to the lecturers".*

Another common theme in communication with stakeholders was the need for communication to be as simple as possible and of interest to readers. For example, PCT1 said,

"If we start showing them project brief and the project documentation, it would bore the life out of them, they would disconnect"

PWS4 interestingly also raised the issue of communication as lacking at times in clarity in the statement*, "what I observed myself is it didn't feel like the communications were as clear as it could have been. The one thing that I would say is a number of communications came out, sometimes electronically, sometimes brochures and it wasn't always clear to me the purpose of each of the communications. So whilst it gave me ideas about what the ICZs were becoming, it wasn't absolutely clear to me the functions of this communication was".*

According to PWS1, "*I have read some of the ICZ strategy documents and all the rest of it and it's like what? And I am involved in it and even I would be reading stuff and thinking what? And then you expect an academic who doesn't really know much or who doesn't get involved with the politics because they are either not at that level or the communication within the school isn't that good. They are not going to read that document; it's not going to happen"*

PWS1 stressed on the need to simplify the messaging of the project to industry partners and had this to say, "*So, I don't know that it makes that much difference to them. I think that we need to better market that we are a university that engages with industry. Whether we call it ICZ or not? It is just another acronym and we are full of acronyms. And what are industry collaboration zone, what's that? Is it a physical space? So, I think we need to simplify the messaging. Keep it simpler. We can call it what we want internally but I am not convinced"*

PWS2 had this to say: *"The communication was what was needed. I get inundated with emails. I mean I barely answer my phone because I don't get a chance. I don't need more emails that I am going to delete. What we got was what was needed".*

UAS7 believed that a one on one contact touch point was more important than emails sent: *"But it's having that one to one contact rather than just banging out emails and things which people delete or not read all the way through"*

UNS1 reflected UAS7's view in the statement, "*No. If I send you 20 emails a week about something that I am doing and you are supposed to be doing. It's not actually the same thing as trying to contact you. If I picked the phone up and say – Hey, should we meet and have a coffee? It's different from me sending you loads of emails about the same thing. I think if you are in charge of a thing, I think it's your job to engage those people. It's not their job to be engaged, they have got a job to do and your job is to make them do that job better, that's your job".*

In UAS10's view, the message was fading out, "*Somewhere along the line, that message has gone out. Now if that message is right, let's know it, and if it is wrong, then let's know it"*

As can be seen from the discussions, it is clear that communication is a strong theme that overlaps with all other themes discussed by the participants. Different aspects related to communication came up several times from discussions with participants. The discussions highlighted that the use of ambassadors, different communication channels and project sponsor support was necessary in communicating the project strategy. The section also discussed the views of stakeholders on different communication strategies.

Theme 14: Different Perception Levels of Success

The preceding sections have shown that different groups of stakeholders had a different understanding of the purpose of the project. This theme additional highlights different views from different stakeholders on the success of the project. Following on from the criteria of success discussed in previous themes, this theme was developed from responses to the question on if the project was a success or not. When asked the question, there were mixed views from the participants. In answering, some participants described aspects of the project that they found successful and gave reasons for their answers. Other participants answered the question less directly. The responses are discussed thus:

For example, PCT2 stated, *"I think there were varying degrees of success around that really".* PWS4 stated, *"I think the curriculum design part of it has been very successful indeed really being very positively embraced by the academic staff".* PCT1 referred to the achievement of one of the project deliverables of time as a measure of success. As stated, *"…we appointed development leads for each of 4 ICZs on time and on schedule within 18 months".* UAS4 stated, "*Some of the projects that came out of ICZ including this green car which is to be held up as a university-wide project is a good idea".*

A project team participant (PCT1) stated that one participant stated that it would be impossible to get all stakeholders to think the project was a success. According to PCT2, *"I don't think you are ever going to get everyone to think that what we did was a success. I generally don't think it's possible".* PCT2 defended this position, explaining it as a natural way of things. *"But some people don't like that. And it's*

okay, it's okay for them to think that it doesn't work or that it is not for them and I think that's a really natural thing, and a really natural part of project that you are not going to get, you can't always have that".

PCT1 stated*, "….we started off with a range of principles and we had 6 objectives that we wanted the ICZs to achieve, and that was going to happen in the next 5-10 years. So in terms of the ICZ objectives, we are on a journey to achieving them. In terms of the objectives that were given to us as a programme team, in terms of getting the ICZs off the ground, start the development, I would say we actually achieved a hell of a lot".* PCT2 stated*, "Overall was it a success? Yes, I think it generally was. I think that we were given a brief, we delivered on that brief and we did it within those 2 years…I think there is still work to be done to make sure that that just doesn't go away, that people understand what that means. But I think that we gave it as really as good a status as we could have done, really. We did our job, yeah we did"*

When asked for reasons for the participants' opinions, the consensus was that the team had achieved what they set out to achieve therefore, it was a success in their eyes. For example, PCT2 stated, *"I think that we achieved what we set out to achieve, I think that we initiated the project, we made people aware of what the ICZs were and what it meant. So I think we set up the structure and framework for the ICZ to do what they are doing now, kind of the governance and framework for that. We recruited an ICZ team and directors to be able to take the best, to push this forward, it's not something that can kind of happen overnight or be developed within those 2 years, it was impossible to do that but as an implementation, I think that it was successful".*

PCT1 in response to the question stated: *"I can give you lots of examples of the engagement and point to the touch points of how things have changed as a result of the work we have done".* PWS4 also had this to say*, "Well, in as much as 4 ICZs have been delivered with 4 directors in post, yeah, yeah, absolutely. But then it is difficult for me to comment in any way beyond that because I don't know what the performance indicators were and what the success factors were. But yeah, we have got 4 ICZs; we have got a university where staff understand what industry collaboration means and where staff crucially understand what that means for their teaching which I think is really important so from that point of view, I would see it as a success".*

UAS5 was sceptical about the achievements of the project and put this down to having wrong expectations of the ICZ project: *"It's maybe my wrong expectation. So when all this ICZ business started, I thought if it was about helping us to communicate and work together across the university, I thought maybe one thing they would focus on is looking at the foundation and seeing - What can we change? What can we do to make the life of academics easier to go and engage with the industry, to go and work with partners across the university, to involve students?*

UNS3 stated*, 'It is partially successful'.* PCT1 stated, "*You would probably get mixed responses because it actually depends on how much they as individuals had chosen to engage with the project or how much they have been exposed".* UAS9 was reluctant in ascribing success or failure to the project. In his view, it depended on if indeed the university believed it was ICZ ready. According to him, *"I guess from their own point of view if a course is ICZ ready and if you say that it is, in fact, up and running and it is business as usual as you call it.* His hesitation, however, was evident in the statement, *"I am not sure whether I can 100% say that unless my colleagues come along and say what you are doing in your module is definitely applicable in my module"*

PWS2 believed that a success to be celebrated was the fact that the strategy had not changed in the 2 years, "*I think that perhaps what is reassuring is 2 years in, we still have the same strategy we had 2 years ago and for this university that's a bit of a miracle as well because I have been here for 16 years and that's the first time that we have had a strategy to last more than 1 year.* In PWS1's view, the project was not a success. When asked why? *"Because you still get people saying I don't get what this ICZ thing is about".*

UAS3 argued that the ICZ project could only be a success if there was evidence to show the success. When asked what had worked so far, UAS3 believed this could only be measured by the difference the project makes. As stated, *"I don't know. Maybe I have to answer a question with a question. What evidence is there? That all this money and all this activity has made any tangible difference to anybody. Is there any evidence of that? I haven't seen any"*

When asked what had not worked so far, "UAS3 stated*: I suppose the best you can say is that it has not got worse. It has not made the situation worse".* UAS6 stated "*I think there was still very much cynicism around it. It's such a shame you know because now I am sort of starting to work on it from the other side and using it to help me to develop strategy. It's actually a brilliant idea. There seems to still be some work to be done to win over the hearts and minds"*

The fundamental issue observed from the discussions on this theme, again, is the recurring relevance of the discussions to participants' understanding of the aim of the project and its objectives. This section has highlighted different views from different stakeholder on the success of the project. One participant measured the success of the project on whether the strategy had changed in the 2 years and because it had not, thought it was a success. Whereas another participant believed it was not a success because it had not changed anything at all. The findings suggest that the perception of success or failure of the project was dependent on what the participants believed the project was trying to achieve. For example, the perception that the project was aimed at changing the culture of the university was met with responses of failure, and that this was not achievable in 2 years. The perception that the project was aimed at communicating the project strategy to stakeholders was met with responses of success (with the exception of student stakeholders) as the majority of participants believed this had been achieved.

Theme 15: Culture Change Takes Time

This theme represents the perception of stakeholders on the culture change that was characteristic of the project. This follows on from the previous theme in considering the perspective of stakeholders on the aims of the project. The findings suggest that the participants understood that the project would be about changing the current practices of the university but also had concerns about being able to achieve this within 2 years. This was evident from the finding as seven of the 36 participants raised issues on whether the culture change could be achieved in the 2-year timeframe of the project. The issue of timeframes have come up previously in the 'resourcing and time constraints' theme. In this theme's context, the focus is on the concerns of participants on the achievement of culture change within 2 years. This section presents comments underlining participants' understanding of the project as a culture change vehicle as well as their concerns about its 2-year timeframe.

SLT1 showed an understanding of the culture change required, "*So, all those dynamics get back to cultural change, people's vested expertise, interests and background and all those kind of things - their willingness, their confidence, their ability, their contacts with being able to engage with industry"*

PWS2 had this to say, *"It wasn't a change management programme as such, but it was a programme which was about trying to get ways about working to change, ways of thinking to change, entrench practices to change. And for me, that was kind of the appeal of it. It was about change of some of the bad habits if you like"*

PCT1 also had this to say: *"The ICZs are such a huge culture change programme across the university and culture change does not happen in 2 years!"*

UAS6 stated, *"Sometimes it just takes time. You can't change people's working practices, well you can change the practices but you can't change what they believe in 4 years. It's nothing really for a cultural shift, so sometimes it's just a lot of time, isn't it?*

PWS2 also stated, *"And the reality is that the change that we might see even partially is probably still 2-3 years away because it is a big thing to change, I think it is a big perspective".*

The inability to impact on every stakeholder was mentioned as one regret the team members had as evident in the statement by PCT1, *"We haven't reached, you can't possibly, with the size of the population, you can't possibly reach every single individual, and again it's a 5 to 10-year change!"*

PWS2 explained that the nature of change required was that of mindset: *"I think for some people that is giving up the idea that university is lots of stodgy buildings with lecture theatres and offices and thinking perhaps that the university is something different. But it is not across the board, those glimmers of hope are small for some people, but I think that is an important step forward. That is the start of the change"*

The findings suggest that the project team realised that there was a need to understand and prepare for the culture change required and how people adopt it differently. Managing the project meant that the culture change needed to be managed as well. This was evident from the following responses from PCT1 comment, "*Project Management methodology cannot simply be picked and applied to culture change. It is about working with people, project management can be used as a guide and my knowledge of project management support me using it in the background as a guide. But I was working with a 1000 people and therefore, it's about the fluidity, and the people adopt culture change, people adopt new concepts at different rates in different times in different ways".* The culture change referred to by PCT1 is the departure from traditional structures and working practices of staff in the university as well as models of learning for students. This

relates to a change in silo working, the alignment of rigid structures with the industry structures and new ways of working in line with the change.

PCT2 also stated, "*It is about the fluidity, and people adopt culture change - people adopt new concepts - at different rates at different times in different ways".*

IP7 stated, *"We need to change the culture of thinking of universities only as a place of study and we need to give more support in order for the students to be able to get into the industries and try to do things and get on the working ladder"*

The findings also illuminated a resistance to change of some staff members who preferred old ways of doing things. PCT2 elaborated, *"Not everyone is able to embrace change; some people are kind of resistant to it. And we did have some resistance, but it was good to have kind of those early adopters that could then go out and do stuff and people could see that it was working, that it was a good thing to get involved with".*

ICD1 explained the big cultural differences between the academic institution and industry and highlighted how this had impacted on the project implementation. He used the CRM system as an example, "*one of the university's strengths is it is very dynamic and individual focused and a movement thing rather than a hierarchically structured organisation like a commercial company. So there are benefits to having a university type academic approach but with something that is very industry focused like the ICZs, that's where the 2 clash perhaps a bit and we need to have a more structured business-like approach to managing project engagement and partnerships than the very academic approach. And my task is to find a middle ground that meets the needs of the academics so that they can still excel at what they excel but also meet the need of the university and our industry partners"*

As can be seen from the discussions here, while a member of the project team believed culture change could not be managed with the use of project management methodology such as Prince 2, the researcher's opinion is that culture change required in an organisation can indeed be set up as a project. For any project, deliverables need to be measurable. In the case of the ICZ project, behaviours and visible changes can be measured through metrics for culture change such as assessments, surveys, business indicators, and financial metrics. Some participants noted that culture change could not be rushed and would take time for the changes to be seen. Therefore, they could not say if the project was a success or not.

Theme 16: Benefits Realisation Takes Time

This theme overlaps with the previous theme – 'Culture change takes time'. This theme discusses the views of participants on the implications of time for the realisation of the wider benefits of the project. The findings suggest that projects need to be measured based on benefits that take time to be seen. This section highlights comments from participants discussing the issue.

When asked about the success of the project, PWS4 commented that success should be measured based on benefits to the stakeholders. As stated, *"It can't be about establishing 4 ICZs, it has to be about bringing benefit to the university, bringing benefit to our students, to our staff as well. It needs to be fundamentally that it gives staff and students opportunities to work, to achieve, to gain more and so from that point of view"*

UAS6 also stated, *"Yeah, benefiting from it is a primary outcome really, isn't it? That the students have got to benefit from it" Some of them are interested. I think that that is fine as long as they are getting that benefit from it"*

UAS8 also raised the issue of benefits in the statement*, "What I am less sure about are things like so what do the ICZs actually do? What benefits are they providing? Do they do any work?"*

When asked if the project was a success, some participants were of the impression that it was too early to say. For example, UAS5 stated, *"I think it is too early to say if it has been a success. It's too early and that's my view"*

UAS6 said successful was an extreme word, *"Successful is probably an extreme word. I think there is still work to be done. And I think with things like culture change, I think with these things, it takes time to shift over"*

When asked what hadn't worked with the project, UNS2 had this to say*, "Nothing really. It's too new, isn't it? To be able to say. So the whole point is industrial collaboration. And they are not really doing much industrial collaboration yet, so it would be too early to say this has been a great success"*

SUR2 agreed that it would take time to see an impact for a project like the ICZ. According to her, "*I know that it takes time for something to have an impact. Before a project of this scale to be called complete, it's going to be a while. And for researchers to actually see the impact of this on any student's lives would be a while"*

UAS4 stated, "So by adhering to ICZ, we made sure that the modules and the programmes were fit for purpose. So it facilitated that. Does it facilitate recruitment? Does it facilitate long-term development? I don't know. We would have to see in years to come".

ICD1 believed there was no end date for the project: "*One of the challenges of the ICZ strategy is it never has a final delivery date. We have to constantly evolve and develop our ICZ strategy and the implementation model to meet the needs of the direction of industry. So we will never get to a stage where we say job done that's it, we can all go home now, we are finished"*

UAS3 stated that success could not be measured without an assessment of the project's before and after status and had this to say, *"Success would be some kind of benchmark assessment before ICZ with employers and students about what employers wanted, what students believe they should be gaining and then some kind of reassessment after the project. ….But I don't know if any of those measures exist. Personally, I would be surprised if they did because if they did then there would be no noticeable change and that would be embarrassing. But if a project is going to change something radically, undergraduates' study for 3 years, that is going to take 5 years for you to see if that has probably made any difference or not"*

UAS6 stated, *"So I think given time, it will be a fabulous opportunity for us to be a different kind of university to other universities. My beliefs and opinions are that it is a really good idea. But in terms of dissemination, there is still much work to be done"*

As can be seen from this section, the participants agree that the measurement of success of the project takes time. An important observation from the interviews as highlighted in the methods chapter was that participants based their views on the wider ICZs, the totality of the ICZ strategy and the project's 'business as usual' status. Though the researcher made clarifications about these to the participants and provided each participant at the interview with an outline of the 2-year plan of the project (See Appendix 5), it was difficult for the participants to separate their views on the two. What this implies is that the stakeholders of the project were measuring success base on tangible outcomes that are associated with the wider ICZ strategy rather than a list of deliverables that may or may not contribute to the strategy.

Theme 17: What Success Looks Like

This theme discusses the perception of success to the participants. The participants were asked what they considered as success and would like to see to consider the project a success. It was apparent from the views that the participants measured success based on tangible outcomes that are associated with the wider ICZ strategy and the impact of the project. Some examples of comments highlighting this theme are discussed.

PWS2 had this to say about the 2-year duration of the project, "I *think more generally, I think there was a fatigue I think within the university. Not just with academics but generally because the magic date of 2 years was sort of pushed out there very early on. 2 years 2 years 2 years! I think people were expecting change, to see something very tangible after 2 years"*

UNS3 had this to say, "*We need to start demonstrating success to people. The communications need to be better than they currently are".* According to UNS3*, "The 2 years was like a surface. It was kind of like telling the story in a way. And now, it is about actually getting things up and running. Putting the infrastructure in place to support the activity".*

UAS6 stated, *"The teaching and learning strategy is talking about the ICZs so there is synergy across all the work of the university. So it is working at the top level. You know, at the policy sort of level, but whether it's working on the practice level sort of down here where people are embracing on a day to day basis"*

IP8 had this to say, *"I haven't seen anything that serves the industry collaboration zones as a project if you like"*

UNS2 stated, *"So we haven't yet seen a great thing that the ICZ has said and we have done this because we are ICZ. You know what I mean. So Microsoft are not building a building, sponsoring a course, giving us a 10,000 free computers, doing a KTP, sponsoring three PhDs because of ICZ. That hasn't happened yet"*

In his statement, ICD1 stressed that tangibles were examples that could be shown to potential partners, *"And so, it is actually taking that and actually demonstrating it with a few test products. Because if we want to develop and engage with exceptional partnerships with other organisations, it will be good to show them what we have done, at the moment it is just PowerPoint"*

UAS6 echoed this view: *"I think they need to demonstrate how it works in practice. It's still a bit of theory to a lot of people, a bit nebulous idea so perhaps if they could get case studies or things like that, they could demonstrate that this is how it's working that would be useful for people to be aware of those"*

UAS7 also stated, *"An example would be really helpful as well. So an example of a successful ICZ, what people got out of it, and what it has led to. I think that would then maybe perhaps people would be like -now I see what you are trying to achieve, this is what it has achieved. Maybe with some help and some guidance, I can do something similar. So I think you know, we need to be proactive, but I think the other side needs to be proactive as well to support it.*

UAS10 stated, "*We need to be able to say, this is what we have done and this is the amazing work that has been achieved in the last 2 years or we expected to be here but actually interestingly actually we aren't quite there yet. This is where we wanted to be but we are here and within that, these are the success stories, success buckets as everyone talks about these days.*

UAS7 had this to say, *"Yes, I think that would be useful, just to try and illustrate to us perhaps who don't have as good an understanding as others what it is trying to do. What is it trying to achieve and how people went about doing it and what they got out of it?"*

UAS4 highlighted the importance of tangibility for student stakeholders, *"So I think students are looking for kind of reward mechanisms for things they had done, more explicit so the implicit value might be work experience and something on your CV but if they get a badge and a certificate that said something, that is more tangible, you know?"*

UAS5 had this to say, "I *would like to see more of the external partners coming to the university because they have heard of ICZ that these things are possible so how can you help us? In my view, I am not sure if that was achieved. Or maybe not in the area in work, maybe within the wider university but not in mine.*

UAS5 stated that the ICZ project came with hopes that there would be a corresponding change in systems. As stated, "*So what I would have liked to see through the ICZ is more streamlining some of the processes so that we can do our job easier"….it is working really well in terms of strategy, in practice, we still need to look at that foundation and we still need to streamline some of the digital processes, and make them work better offline to make things easier to happen. And some of the infrastructures that are still not in place".*

ICD1 stated that success would be the attainment of a business as usual status as well as exceptional partnerships: "*But in terms of actually having the ICZ strategy as business as usual, that could be classed as a successful point and you can turn around and say it is just endemic within the university that we now implement the ICZ strategy without even thinking about it. That I think will be the major success point. Another one is we will be able to identify some truly exceptional partnerships we have and have industry turn around and say the same thing"*

UAS5 gave examples of what had been expected to happen for the ICZ to have been considered a success. As stated, *"we could have several events where the locals are invited, the local businesses are invited and the charities and health practitioners, and academics and health practitioners. If you don't have a network, you start creating the network. I have not seen any of that. While it is here, we talk of networking and collaboration, but in practice, it is still us trying to mitigate that. And I felt like, through the ICZ, we could have done more in facilitating the university".*

UAS5 added: *"Probably I would say it has been a success when I see a digital hub somewhere that will allow all of us to work together in co-production and gain for someone in mental health in Salford Royal Hospital to deliver a new service to their patient, then I would say yes, it is a success. So at the moment, we don't have that infrastructure. I don't see it anyway"*

PWS2 stated, *"I don't think that we necessarily saw enough of a commonality of understanding of the ICZs to get the leverage that was needed to have that shared. It needed to have that shared awareness, a common awareness, a common ground. It didn't need to be everyone had to exactly think in the same way, but it needed to be broadly in that same ballpark"*

For ICD1, success was that students could communicate what the ICZ project meant to them,

"Yes, intelligently rather than just regurgitate the PowerPoint" and for *staff: "if a member of staff can turn around and say oh we have loads of examples of ICZ engagements and talk about them with authority and passion, then yeah, that's when it is successful"*

"So our main goal is to improve that as well as build this relationship where industry turns around and say we have an exceptional partnership with the University of Salford. They are industry focused and research informed and their ICZ strategy differentiates them from a lot of other universities. That will be my job done. I can retire to a small island somewhere"

UAS1 stressed that partnership was fundamental to the project's strategy and so success would involve partners: *"So, we probably need some people called partnership managers if you like, and they would report to the sponsor, the senior person and similarly from the other end of the partnership".*

As can be seen from this section, one participant believed that while there was synergy at the top policy level of the university, the project had not delivered on the lower practice day-today level of the university. Such deliverables, according to the participants, should be tangible outcomes that would show that the university was serious about the project's strategy. Tangible outcomes mentioned include having infrastructures and systems in place for account management and industry partnerships, and effective sponsorships resulting from the partnerships. It was suggested that these infrastructures be put in place to showcase the achievements of the strategy. Some participants commented on having a commonality of understanding of the ICZs to get the leverage that was needed. The work that had been done in the 2 years of implementing the project needed to be communicated better and the messaging of the project made clearer. Participant stressed on the importance of demonstrating success of the project to attract potential partners.

Theme 18: Soft Project Management Skills

To address Research Question 5, project team and work stream participants were asked to discuss the skills that they considered important in the day-to-day running of the project. Participants were also asked how important they considered technical skills in relation to interpersonal skills in implementing the project. From the discussions, the researcher found that the majority of the skills mentioned by the participants were people skills. These included the ability to communicate across the different stakeholder groups, being able to listen to what stakeholders had to say, being approachable and the ability to relate well with others. It appeared that hard project management skills such as creating work breakdown structures, earned value assessments and critical path diagrams were not as useful as soft skills in getting things done. Except for one participant who believed that managing the project required a balance of technical and people skills, the other stakeholders suggested that the softer skills had been more useful in helping to achieve project objectives. However, ICD1 stressed on the importance of having project management skills. *"It is not the only thing but it is a key aspect because if we can get that bit right where we can track a project and find out whether it is on time, on target, it has used up correct level of resourcing and at the end of the project is delivered, we are happy we have a surplus."*

PCT1 highlighted that there needed to be a balance of technical and people skills for the project to be managed successfully. In verbatim, *"We had quite a lot of stages we had to achieve within that, therefore, the boundaries with the different stages of the project, the timeframes and recognising the stakeholders, recognising what was in scope, what was out scope, all that project methodology was there, but then the leadership critical people skills were very much a balance"*

PCT1, however, believed that it was not necessary for stakeholders to be confronted with project management technicalities such as documentation. As stated, *"All the work I did was constantly underpinned by project management methodology, but in terms of what I hoped people saw was the leadership and people skills not the project management documentation, timeline, timeframes. There was just no need for them to see that, we were taking them on a journey which meant the less, the term we used was called hide the wiring"*

UNS3 was of a different opinion and stated that people skills were more important than technicalities: *"For my role, it is definitely people skills. It is having those contacts and being able to pull in support where you need to".*

PCT2 also agreed: *"Oh no, I don't think it's more important. I don't think the paperwork and that sort of thing; I don't think that is important particularly".* PCT2 was of the view that having soft attributes was more useful in activities such as securing the buy-in of the project sponsor (university management), than adopting the use of a technicality such as a project management methodology.

The participants also suggested that it was important that the project team developed trust among colleagues. Stakeholder recognition, understanding and engagement were mentioned as important in managing stakeholders. This involved being able to empathise and view things from the perspective of the stakeholders. As PCT2 stated, *"I think that being able to talk to people, to understand their situations*

and the challenges they might be facing and still being able to help them understand what the ICZ project was about and how it would impact them".

Two participants commented on the importance of decision-making for a project like the ICZ.
For them, it was up to the leadership of the project to make the right decisions. As UAS2 stated, *"It is about the decisions that the leadership are making".*

UAS1 also had this to say, *"When I say it's a people thing, it's about decision making ultimately...So, someone has got to take responsibility for making that happen and making some decisions and there seems to be a lack of decision making. So that is why I said for me, it is people issues because who makes decisions? People! No one else makes them".*

SUR1 mirrored UAS1's views on decision making, stating that the decisions were being taken by the leadership of the project: "*Sometimes they were taking decisions on establishing cooperation with a particular sport club, or a company or a specific training, and I just wanted to represent the students and give my opinion in terms of their experience so far and how this experience could be developed and improved"*

Some participants raised the importance of motivation. In UNS1's view, it was important for senior management to make staff feel motivated for the project: *"I think that said, it's about getting people, you cannot just say this is what we are going to do, you have to make people think that this is the right thing to do. Otherwise, you are doing it because people are doing it"*

SLT1 explained his strategy to motivate staff for the project: *"When you are trying to get people on board with a concept, you try to spend time talking with colleagues about it to encourage and enthuse them, to kind of sell that, you talk about the successes, you give examples of what we are doing on that basis"*

When speaking on her work stream, PWS4 commented that the team had succeeded in motivating staff, "*And bar a few exceptions, we found that the programme teams have really engaged, they have participated and they have really been very motivated. It has been a very positive process"*

Having good contacts and networks was also raised to have helped in the delivery of the project. PCT1 stated, *"I think being experienced at Salford, and having a good working knowing of Salford as a university and having contacts, also being kind of networked within the university was important".*

PCT2 stated, *"I think we had a really good understanding of the university's ecosystem, where to get things done and the best way to do things"*

Some of the other participants when discussing their views on the project agreed with the project team on the importance of contacts.
UNS3 stated, *"Having the right contacts is really important for this job".*

UAS5 also commented, *"If you have a good network, it is always easy".*

One project team participant raised the importance of being open and transparent.

PCT2 said, *"We really tried to be open and transparent. We tried quite hard that, we wanted people to come along with us on this kind of journey rather than it being a blocked out thing"*

"We really worked hard for it to be an inclusive approach so that people could talk to us, we were doing events, we were open to questions and challenge and saying that we didn't have all the answers but we knew that this was what we wanted to do and these were the things that we were doing. That was important"

UAS6, a staff member participant agreed with this view*, "Obviously, potentially it may be that it doesn't deliver, that's fine but as long as there is honesty and transparency about that – Why didn't it? What might be done to rectify that? That's fine".*

Four participants raised the issue of inclusiveness and explained that not having any women in the selection of development leads led to negative comments from stakeholders and the feeling that what the team preached was not what was being practised.

For example, PWS4 had this to say: *"One thing I did notice though I think there were one or two women amongst the thought leaders. Overwhelmingly they were men, overwhelming I think they were white as well and felt that it didn't speak to the inclusion and diversity of the university"*

UAS10 mirrored this view: *"There was one mistake that they made which was appointing something at one point like 5 grey-haired middle-aged white men to those roles. It was slightly a bit of a big error"*

The importance of teamwork was also mentioned. For example, UNS3 pointed out:

"I think it is a really nice team. Everyone seems to get along really well so that has been a kind of relief really. Working as a team has worked".

PCT1 also agreed: *"We had a really really good team…We each had our own roles but we gelled incredibly well and we had complete respect for each other, pretty collaborative, we challenged each other".*

"When you pull teams together, you have got to pay much attention to their individual attributes, ways of working, personalities as you do to their knowledge and skills because that team has to gel if that team doesn't gel, then you got problems and to me, that's really important"

PCT2 also said, *"I think that we had a really good team. I think that worked really well"*

Effective communication was mentioned as important according to some project team participants. For example, PCT2 stated: *"Within the team, the communication was excellent. We were all located in the same space. We met and chatted every day, we were very good at being able to have very frank conversations"*

"I didn't feel like my voice wasn't heard in that team so I feel like we communicated really well. We were able to get things done because of that I think".

This view was reflected by members of the work stream who said that they had received support from the project team through the process of carrying out project activities. As stated by PWS2: "*Equally, when there were interventions from other parts of the university on what we were doing, we did get support from the ICZ project office. They really supported what xxxx and I were doing, so you have to say that all through the process we felt supported".*

Some participants mentioned that the passion of the team in communicating the project strategy influenced how others viewed the project. As stated by PCT1, "*I wore my hoodie with pride and constantly went out and talked to school congresses. I talked at various different meetings; I turned up at different places even when I was not allowed to. I talked ICZ absolutely, you know for me if you are going to do something, you do it with passion or not at all so absolutely I think that is important".*

PCT1 also added that the positive nature of the team influenced how others saw the project. As stated, *"We were endlessly positive about it. And I think that was a good thing to do. So we were constantly telling people that it was a good thing. It is a good thing to do".*

PWS2 stated that the manner that the project was managed influenced other's perception of its success: "*I think all of them actually in their own way stamped their own personality on the project. Yeah, absolutely I mean shall we say the leadership, the figurehead that XXXX was for the project put a certain tone on it and shaped it in a certain way. Absolutely and equally XXXX and XXXX as well, their approach to how they managed people and also how they managed interactions between people. To a certain extent, their understanding of the political environment meant that they did manage it in a certain way. Absolutely"*

The findings suggest that the project and work stream team participants believed that soft skills were useful in implementing the project. Some of the important skills discussed include leadership, motivation, decision-making, and communication skills. The ability to manage stakeholders was also an important issue raised by the participants. While some raised the importance of having a balance of soft and hard skills, others believed soft skills were more useful in securing the buy-in of stakeholders. The importance of decision-making was also mentioned by some participants who believed that good decisions could only be made by good leaders which impacted on the project. While a member of the project team stressed on the importance of being transparent and inclusive in the approach to engage stakeholders, others raised an issue with not having any women in the earlier selection of development leads, this in their view, was the team not practising what they were preaching.