

CRANFIELD UNIVERSITY

J. M. LUPSON

**PROJECT SPONSOR COMPETENCE IN THE UK
PUBLIC SECTOR:
A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW**

SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT

MRes THESIS

CRANFIELD UNIVERSITY

SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT

MRes THESIS

ACADEMIC YEAR 2002-2003

J. M. LUPSON

**PROJECT SPONSOR COMPETENCE IN THE UK
PUBLIC SECTOR:
A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW**

SUPERVISOR: D. PARTINGTON

AUGUST 2003

This thesis is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Research

© Cranfield University 2003. All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced without the written permission of the copyright owner.

ABSTRACT

This thesis reviews the literature on project sponsorship, competence and accountability in the public sector. It adopts a systematic review methodology, which aims to find, evaluate, analyse and synthesize literature on a transparent, replicable basis. Based on a set of keywords derived from a scoping study and practitioner inputs, a series of keyword searches were conducted on a number of databases. The literature found was evaluated for relevance and rigour against a set of specified source, content and quality criteria. I developed new content criteria in response to new uses of keywords in the literature. I also used the reference lists in the material that passed all the criteria to find further literature, which I also reviewed for rigour and relevance against the source, content and quality criteria. Systematic review is therefore a deductive process, which changed my understanding of the research subject from a general one to a more specific one.

I found project sponsorship to be a common role in many areas where project management is used. My synthesis of the literature suggested that the role is a powerful, risk-taking one, requiring leadership and ownership. Competence is a divided, ambiguous concept, with current approaches limited by virtue of their rational, dualistic ontology. Accountability is fundamental to any understanding the role of the project sponsor in the public sector, but is a difficult, changing concept, capable of being viewed from either a process or an organizational perspective.

I found significant research gaps in the project sponsorship literature. It has been the subject of little direct research. Whilst there is some understanding of the role in relation to the project, the wider aspects of the role and what may constitute competence in the role are fertile areas for further research.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I could not have researched and written this thesis without the assistance of many people. I would like to acknowledge the following people for their major contributions. First, I would like to thank my supervisor Dr. David Partington for his encouragement and support in developing my ideas; Mr. Jeremy Stanyard of PA Consulting for putting the vast knowledge of PA's Global Project Management Practice at my disposal; Ms. Heather Woodfield of Kings Norton Library for her patience with my many questions; Ms. Wendy Habgood of Cranfield School of Management for her assistance in dealing with the inevitable administrative issues; and finally, my wife and two sons, who surrendered their summer gracefully and gave me the space and time to write.

CONTENTS

CONTENTS	5
NOTATION	8
1.0 INTRODUCTION	9
2.0 METHODOLOGY	11
2.1 The Review Objectives	11
2.2 The Background to Systematic Review.....	12
2.3 The Systematic Review Process.....	14
2.4 The Initial Review Protocol.....	15
2.4.1 The Review Panel.....	15
2.4.2 Databases, Search Terms and Process	15
2.4.3 Assessment Criteria.....	17
2.4.4 Data Capture, Analysis and Synthesis.....	18
2.4.5 Methodological Diary	18
2.4.6 Conclusion	19
2.5 The Final Protocol: Changes and Operation	20
2.5.1 Search Terms	20
2.5.2 Systematic Search and Review Process	21
2.5.3 Source, Content and Quality Criteria	23
2.5.4 Search Process and Databases.....	24
2.5.5 Data Capture.....	25
2.5.6 Analysis and Synthesis	26
2.6 RESULTS	27
2.6.1 Project Sponsorship.....	27
2.6.2 Project Sponsorship Results by Literature Source.....	29
2.6.3 Competence.....	33
2.6.4 Accountability in the Public Sector.....	37
2.7 Process Review	40
2.7.1 The Nature of the Literature	40
2.7.2 The Systematic Review Process	44

2.7.3	Limitations	44
2.7.4	Conclusions	45
3.0	THE LITERATURE	46
3.1	Project Sponsorship	46
3.1.1	The Public Sector Literature	48
3.1.2	The Project Management Literature.....	50
3.1.3	The Private Sector Literature	52
3.1.3.1	Defining the Role	53
3.1.3.2	The Private Sector Role	54
3.1.3.3	Sponsorship and the Division of Labour	58
3.1.3.4	Sponsorship: The Use of Formal and Informal Power	59
3.1.4	A Comparison of the Different Sponsorship Literatures	60
3.1.5	Conclusions	63
3.2	COMPETENCE	65
3.2.1	Work Oriented Approach	65
3.2.2	The Worker Oriented Approach.....	66
3.2.3	Criticisms of Current Approaches	67
3.2.4	Alternative Approaches to Competence	70
3.2.5	Phenomenography: An Interpretive Approach.....	71
3.2.6	Criticisms of Phenomenography.....	72
3.2.7	Conclusions	74
3.3	ACCOUNTABILITY IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR	76
3.3.1	Accountability and New Public Management.....	76
3.3.2	Accountability: A Process Perspective	78
3.3.3	Accountability: An Organizational Perspective	80
3.3.4	Conclusions	83
4.0	PROJECT SPONSORSHIP IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR: THE STATE OF KNOWLEDGE	85
	REFERENCES	87
	APPENDICES.....	1055
	APPENDIX A: Review Panel Membership.....	1066
	APPENDIX B: Initial Review Protocol Databases	1088

APPENDIX C: Initial Review Protocol Search Terms	110
APPENDIX D: Initial Review Protocol Search Process.....	112
APPENDIX E: Initial Review Protocol Inclusion, Exclusion and Quality Criteria	114
APPENDIX F: Initial Review Protocol: Procite Workform.....	121
APPENDIX G: PA Consulting Request and Responses	123
APPENDIX H: Final Protocol Search Terms	128
APPENDIX I: Final Protocol Source and Content Criteria	130
APPENDIX J: Final Protocol Quality Criteria	135
APPENDIX K: Project Sponsorship Content Criteria Results	140
APPENDIX L: Project Sponsorship: Descriptive Analysis Table.....	145
APPENDIX M: Project Sponsorship: Roles.....	171
APPENDIX N: Project Sponsorship: Role Definitions	175
APPENDIX O: Competence: Descriptive Analysis Table.....	185
APPENDIX P: Public Sector Accountability: Descriptive Analysis Table	2022
APPENDIX Q: Methodological Diary	2100

NOTATION

A number of abbreviations are used in the text. These are set out below:-

AMT	Advanced Manufacturing Technology
BPR	Business Process Reengineering
CRM	Customer Relationship Management
DSS	Decision Support Systems
EIS	Executive Information Systems
ERP	Enterprise Resource Planning
ESS	Executive Support Systems
IS	Information Systems
IT	Information Technology
MIS	Management Information Systems
MOD	Ministry of Defence
MOE	Multi Organization Enterprises
NPD	New Product Development
NPM	New Public Management
O. R.	Operational Research
R&D	Research and Development

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The UK public sector is undergoing a period of major change with improvements in public services a top priority (Office of Public Services Reform, 2003b). Project management has been adopted as the principal means of delivering that change: *'Better programme and project management in the Civil Service has a key role to play in meeting this challenge'* (Office of Public Services Reform, 2003b: 3). Project management as an approach has been used for many years by the private sector to deliver business improvements. The widespread adoption of project management by the public sector to deliver change can be seen as part of the wider introduction of a more "business like" approach within the public sector, a phenomenon known as the New Public Management (NPM). The political emphasis on the delivery of change within the public sector has also resulted in a change of emphasis within the Civil Service. Traditionally respected for policy making skills, the emphasis is now on a Civil Service which should be *'Respected as much for its capability to deliver as for its policy skills'* (Office of Government Commerce, 2003c). The result has been a recognition that *'the management of projects and programmes must become a core competence of the public sector'* (Office of Government Commerce, 2003c).

There are two key roles in the project management approach to change: the project manager and the project sponsor. The project manager is primarily responsible for the delivery of a defined scope of work, whilst the project sponsor's role is less well defined. It covers the delivery of the benefits of the project, the procurement of scarce resources from outside the project and the management of the external context of the project. It is an executive role with final accountability for the project (Office of Government Commerce, 2002a; Office of Government Commerce, 2002b), leaving the day to day management of the project to the project manager.

The role of the project manager in both the private and public sectors is well understood. There is a relatively good understanding of the project sponsor's role in the private sector. However, the role in the public sector is relatively new. NPM has devolved responsibility and accountability for projects from committees to individual public sector managers. The overall result is that accountability for the delivery of the benefits of change within the public sector is now part of a newly established, poorly understood role. Therefore what constitutes competent project sponsorship in the public sector is a potentially fertile area for research. A systematic review of the literatures on project sponsorship, competence and accountability in the public sector is required to establish the state of knowledge in these areas and hence the presence of the posited research gap.

The purpose of this thesis is to report the findings of the systematic review of the literature on these areas

I have split this paper into two parts: the first deals with the systematic review process. In this section I set out a brief background to and objectives for the systematic review, describe the process, the preliminary review protocol, its operation and the changes that I made in the course of the review. This section ends with a review of the process, setting out the limitations and conclusions.

In the second section, I describe the findings within each area of literature, setting out what is already known, the common themes and the different perspectives. I end the paper with a section that brings all three areas together, showing the research gaps that have been found and some suggestions for future research.

With regard to tables, I have as a rule kept these within the body of the text in order to assist the reader. However, where tables have exceeded 1 page in length or where I have left referral to information at readers' discretion, then I have put the material in an Appendix.

2.0 METHODOLOGY

2.1 The Review Objectives

Based on the literature used in the scoping study (the precursor to the systematic review), I suggested a preliminary research gap in my initial review protocol. This was that accountability for the delivery of programmes and projects rested with a new, but poorly understood public sector role. Competence in the role was therefore important. Given my interpretive perspective, the preliminary primary research question was:-

What are public sector project sponsors' conceptions of their work?

Secondary questions are:-

- What conceptions are common across and within the different groups in the public sector (e.g. MOD, IT, Construction)?
- What conceptions are different between and within the groups?
- Is there a hierarchy of conceptions in relation to sponsorship experience or perceptions of performance?

There are, therefore, 3 objectives for the systematic review:-

1. To substantiate or otherwise the preliminary research gap and hence the preliminary primary and secondary research questions;
2. To establish what other research gaps exist in relation to public sector project sponsorship;
3. To explore the literature on phenomenography, an interpretive approach to competence, to build the theoretical basis for my subsequent research.

This is primarily an exploratory study, aimed at finding out what is known about project sponsorship, competence and accountability in the public sector.

2.2 The Background to Systematic Review

A review of the literature in an academic field is an important part of any research project. Hart (1998) sets out 5 objectives which show why the review is important. First, the review will establish an understanding of the topic. Second, it will set out what has already been done. Third, it will show how the subject has been researched before. Fourth, it will show what the main criticisms of the work in the area are. Fifth it will determine what the key issues in the field are. The researcher must create a map of the field, covering developments in the field over time, alternative viewpoints within the field and any conflicts over different ontological positions. Yet, as Hart notes, many literature reviews in the social sciences are only *'thinly disguised annotated bibliographies'* (Hart, 1998: 1), lacking rigour, consistency, clarity, analysis and synthesis.

Tranfield, Denyer and Smart (2002) level much the same criticisms at literature reviews in management research: many lack rigour and often appear to be biased by the researcher. Reviews frequently *'lack a means for making sense of what the collection of studies is saying'* (Tranfield et al., 2002 :1). Tranfield et al. (2002) also criticize management literature reviews for their narrative nature, the absence of critical assessment of the literature under review, as well as for the lack of transparency in the process of searching, selecting and synthesizing the literature (Tranfield, Denyer and Smart, 2003; Tranfield et al., 2002). Thus the quality, relevance and rigour of management research are open to question. If the gap that the research is intended to fill cannot be defined or substantiated from the literature, how can the research be regarded as a contribution to knowledge?

At the same time the relevance of much management research to management policy and practice has been questioned. As Tranfield and Denyer (2003) state: *'Reviews of the available evidence in management to assimilate 'best evidence' to provide insights and guidance for intervention into the operational needs of practitioners and policy makers have largely become a*

secondary consideration' (Tranfield et al., 2003: 208). The basis of policy formulation, implementation and operational practice are therefore all open to question.

Cranfield School of Management has adopted the systematic review process from the field of medical research with the intention of addressing these criticisms. The process aims to produce a transparent, systematic, reproducible and relevant review (Tranfield et al., 2002).

Systematic review is an efficient scientific technique for searching, assessing and synthesizing literature (Mulrow, 1995). It uses a predefined set of criteria to enable the selection, inclusion and synthesis of studies on a more objective basis than traditional reviews (Petticrew, 2001). The process allows for both practitioner and academic input through the use of a review panel that provides the researcher with guidance and advice. It is only by engaging in a systematic, transparent process supported by the review panel that the management researcher can establish what is already known and therefore what needs to be done in research terms in the context of current organizational and management issues. As medical researchers have found: '*Systematic reviews are...an efficient method of identifying where research is currently lacking.*' (Petticrew, 2001: 101).

Therefore given the purpose of the systematic review in management research is to methodically search, review, extract and synthesize data in a transparent and replicable manner (Tranfield et al., 2002), systematic review should address some of the criticisms of traditional management literature reviews. Systematic review has the potential to create a more relevant and rigorous body of management knowledge and to start to solve some of the many problems that are faced by organizations and the people who work in them.

2.3 The Systematic Review Process

Cranfield School of Management has adopted the systematic review process set out in Figure 1. This process sets out the step by step activities involved in systematic review. Starting from Stage 3, I will describe in the next few sections how the process was carried out, the issues that I dealt with, the results of the process, closing with a review the process.

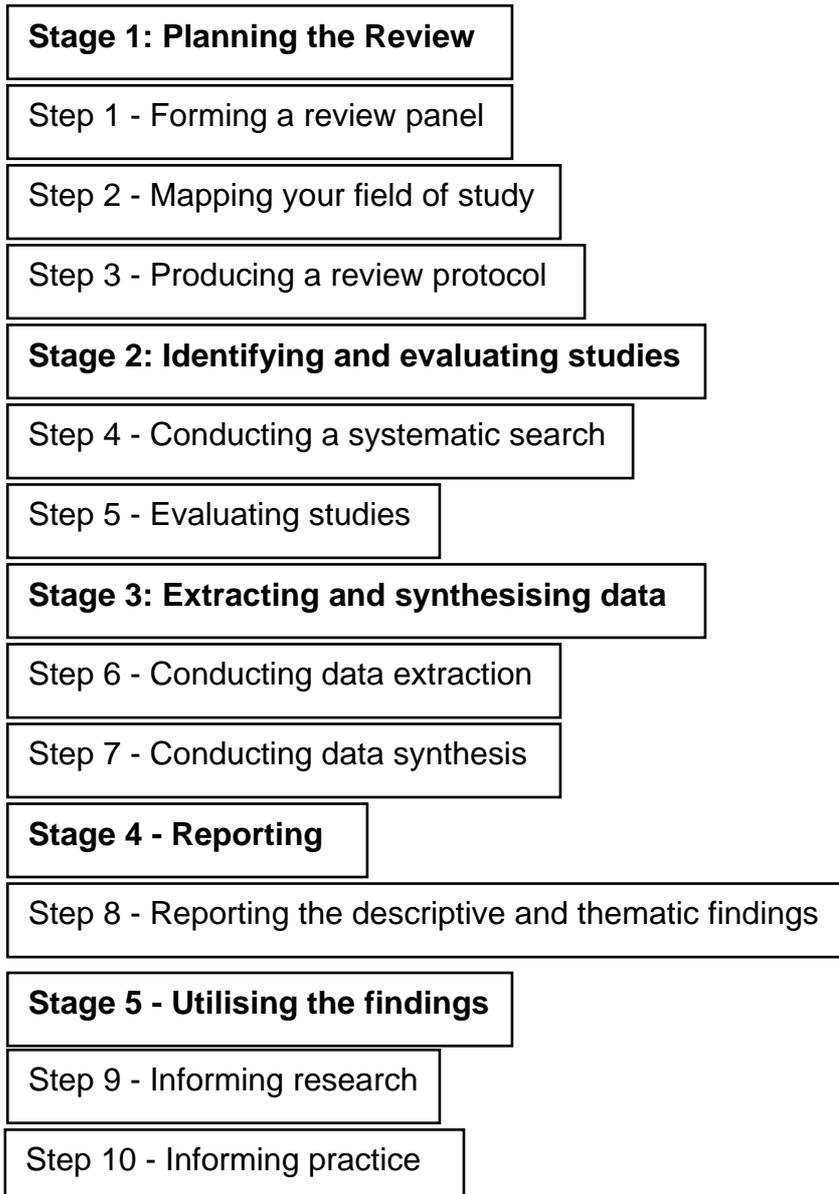


Figure 1: Cranfield University School of Management Systematic Review Process

I shall also set out the key elements of my initial protocol, followed by a section detailing the protocol I used, noting carefully the changes that I made in the course of the review and the reasons for those changes.

2.4 The Initial Review Protocol

The systematic review process requires the researcher to do four things prior to conducting literature search, analysis and synthesis: set up a review panel, define the search terms, literature sources and create a set of assessment criteria.

2.4.1 The Review Panel

The purpose of the review panel is to provide expert advice and guidance on both the research subject and the systematic review process from both academic and practitioner fields, thus ensuring both academic rigour and relevance to practice. Cranfield School of Management does not require this to be a formal panel, meeting at regular intervals, but an informal panel to provide assistance when asked to do so by the researcher. Details of the membership of my panel can be found in Appendix A.

2.4.2 Databases, Search Terms and Process

Based on my scoping study, I defined the following types of literature as potentially being relevant to my research:-

- Academic journals;
- Academic texts;
- Conference papers and proceedings;
- Working papers from other universities;
- Papers / material requested from key authors, researchers and practitioners in the field;
- Information from the UK and other governments;
- Information from the internet.

Based on this and the social science nature of my research, I selected a number of databases for search from those available at Kings Norton Library, Cranfield University. A full list of the databases I selected can be found in Appendix B.

I also identified a number of journals that were not accessible via these databases, but were likely to contain useful material:

1. American Psychologist;
2. Cambridge Journal of Education;
3. Instructional Science;
4. International Journal of Educational Research;
5. Philosophy and Phenomenological Research: A Quarterly Journal;
6. Journal of Nordic Educational Research;
7. Public Performance and Management Review;
8. Sociology.

I developed this list based on material in my scoping study: the study suggested that these journals would be a rich source of useful material. At the time of the scoping study, these journals were not directly accessible through the Kings Norton Library catalogue.

I also defined a set of search terms relating to each of the areas of literature that I thought relevant to my research subject. A copy of my original search terms can be found in Appendix C.

Finally, I set out a search process that defined how the searches would be carried out, what would be searched (full text, title, abstract or a combination of these) and when the searches would be terminated. This can be found in Appendix D.

2.4.3 Assessment Criteria

I also needed to develop criteria for the assessment of literature on the grounds of its source, contents and quality. The literature I found through searching the databases would be subject to assessment for rigour and relevance. Systematic review uses three classes of criteria to do this: inclusion criteria (did it comply with my predefined list of literature sources?), exclusion criteria (was the material relevant to the research phenomenon based on my predefined exclusions?) and quality criteria (did the material comply with the quality standards I had defined?).

My inclusion criteria were developed from my initial list of types of source material. I developed exclusion criteria from my understanding of alternative uses of the keywords that I was likely to come across during the systematic search. My quality criteria were developed from a number of sources:-

- Rose's ABCDE Framework (Rose, 1982);
- Popay et al.'s framework for qualitative studies (Popay, Rogers and Williams, 1998);
- Partington's research element alignment model (Partington, 2002)
- Academy of Management Journal Guidance to Reviewers (Academy of Management, 2003)

I chose these as inputs for the development of the quality criteria for the following reasons:-

- Popay et al. and Rose are aimed specifically at sociologically based research;
- Popay et al. has also been developed for use in systematic review;
- Partington's model is based around the alignment of four key elements of academic research (research purpose, research question, research design and theoretical perspective);
- The Academy of Management Journal is a highly rated academic journal in the field of management.

A copy of my original inclusion, exclusion and quality criteria can be found in Appendix E.

2.4.4 Data Capture, Analysis and Synthesis

I intended to capture the data from the search process with Procite, a reference database. Most of the electronic databases have automated uploading facilities that enable references to be imported directly into Procite. The results of the inclusion, exclusion and quality reviews for each reference would be stored within Procite. A copy of a Procite form for a journal article can be found in Appendix F.

Each reference that passed the three classes of criteria would then be entered into a descriptive contents table. This would describe the principal features of each reference such as author name, the title of the work, the year of publication, the subject and context of the reference and the principal ideas with the material.

Each reference would then be read and relevant material coded into NVIVO, a piece of software suitable for qualitative research. The literature would then be reviewed and synthesized using a meta-ethnographic approach (Noblit and Hare, 1988) in order to identify themes, patterns and connections across the body of literature.

2.4.5 Methodological Diary

I also decided to keep a methodological diary as part of the review, to record how early ideas about the phenomenon developed as the review progressed and to assist with writing about the methodological aspects of the review (Partington, 2002). I intended to write this on a weekly basis. A copy of the diary can be found in Appendix Q.

2.4.6 Conclusion

I have briefly described the principal elements of my initial review protocol. I have outlined the membership of my review panel, the search terms, target databases and assessment criteria as well as analysis and synthesis techniques. These were defined and agreed in April 2003. The next section sets out the protocol that was used.

2.5 The Final Protocol: Changes and Operation

In this section I set out the process I actually used to carry out the systematic review and describe the changes I made to the initial protocol and the reasons for them.

2.5.1 Search Terms

I knew from feedback on my initial review protocol that I needed to establish the different names for the project sponsor in different contexts. Through Mr. Jeremy Stanyard, a member of my review panel, I asked PA Consulting's Global Project Management Practice to send me the different names by which the sponsor is known in different organizational and project contexts. A copy of the request can be found in Appendix G. I received a total of 23 responses, which are summarized in Table 1 below:-

CONTEXT	NAME
Prince2	Project Executive
OGC (Office Of Government Commerce)	Senior Responsible Owner
SAP Projects	Concept Owner
Integration Projects	Implementation Director
Utility Company	Project Director
Utility Company	Programme Director
Engineering / Technology Projects	Project Director
High Technology Projects	Sponsor
Software Development Projects	Senior User / Owner / Sponsor / Champion
CRM Projects	Senior User
BPR Projects	Senior Stakeholder / Sponsor
Strategy Implementation Projects	Senior Stakeholder
MOD Projects	Customer 1 / Customer 2
NPD Projects	Sponsor
Change Projects	Owner
ERP Projects	Sponsor / Concept Owner
General / Other Names	Project Director
General / Other Names	Programme Director

Table 1: Responses to Request for alternative terms for the project sponsor

The majority of the respondents used the concept of the sponsor defined in PRINCE2 (Office of Government Commerce, 2002b) as a baseline definition with specific aspects of the role added or subtracted according to the context. I reviewed the results and developed a more extensive set of search terms for

the project sponsorship part of the search. A copy of the final search terms can be found in Appendix H. All other search terms for competence and the public sector fields remained unchanged.

2.5.2 Systematic Search and Review Process

On reviewing the inclusion and exclusion elements of the process in detail, I decided to change the name of these steps in the process to source and content criteria respectively, as both process steps were of an inclusion / exclusion nature, but applied to the source of the reference and its content respectively. I think this is a more logical reflection of the intent of the steps, dealing with the basis upon which a reference is being ruled in or out. This is reflected in the systematic search process I developed, which is set out in Figure 2 below:-

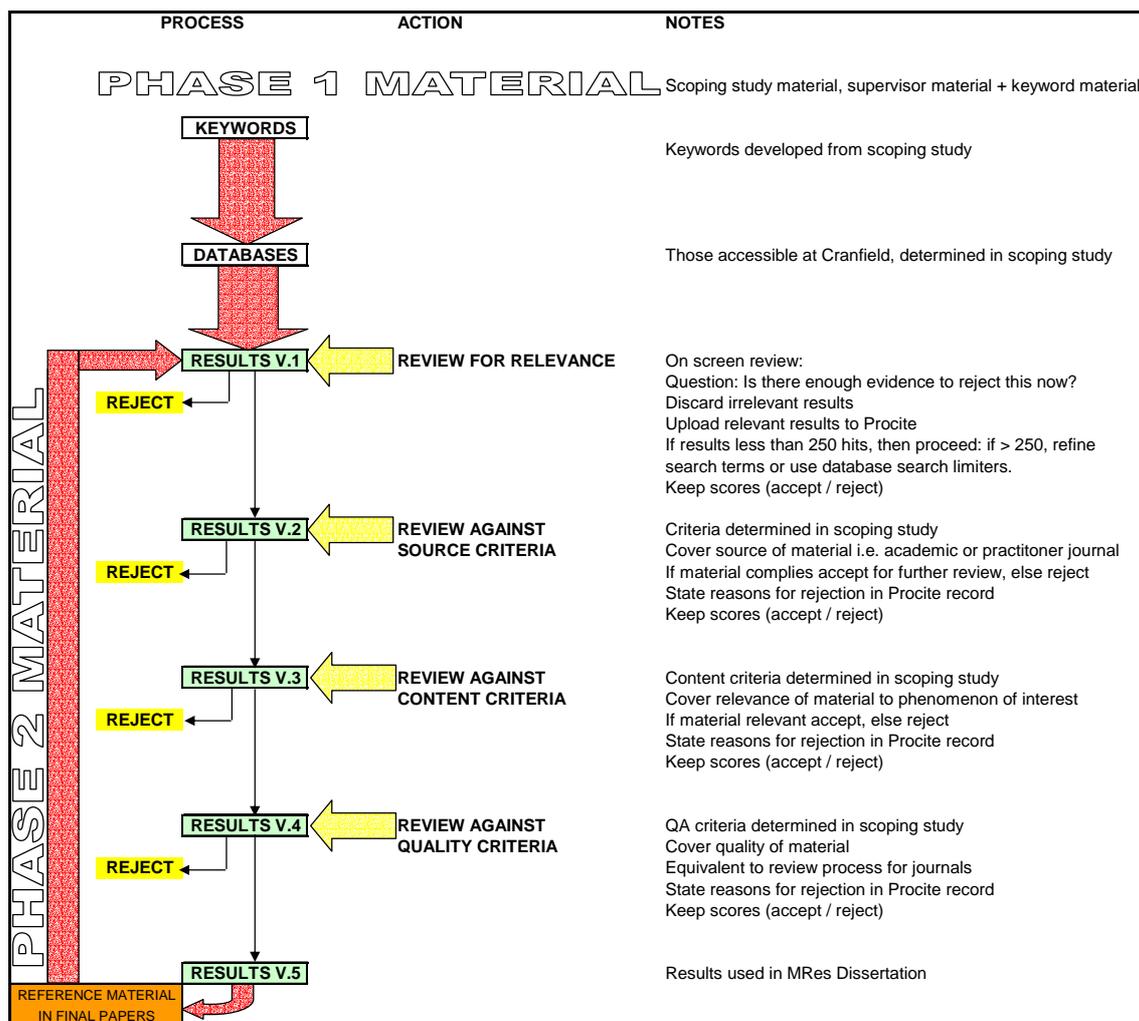


Figure 2: Systematic Search and Capture Process

I developed this process prior to starting the searches as the Cranfield School of Management Systematic Review Process dealt with the high level systematic **review** process, rather than the lower level systematic **search** process. I wanted to ensure that I understood each step in the search and review process in detail. There are four steps in the process: relevance, source, content and quality. These are set out in Figure 2.

The initial step in the process was the entry of a set of search terms into a database. This was likely to result in large number of articles that were obviously not relevant. Rather than upload hundreds of irrelevant references into Procite, I decided to pose a question that would enable me to filter material presented on screen on a transparent replicable basis. This question was:-

“Is there enough evidence on the screen for me to rule out this reference now?”

If the answer was yes, the reference was ruled out, if the answer was no, I included the reference for upload into Procite and subsequent further review against the remaining criteria. Similarly, material I obtained from my supervisor was subject to the same review process as the keyword sourced literature. These two sources of literature together with my scoping study material form the Phase 1 material in Figure 2.

I also thought that material that passed all the criteria was likely to be a source of material that would be highly relevant to the research phenomenon. So I inserted a feedback loop from the original material to the start of the process, whereby I reviewed the references in material for that had passed all the criteria and then subjected them to the same process as the key word sourced material. This is the Phase 2 material in Figure 2.

2.5.3 Source, Content and Quality Criteria

I made only one change to the source criteria as a result of the process. Criterion S10 was added, (see Appendix I). I found that by setting the appropriate filters on the databases to exclude newspapers and other sources of non academic material, it was possible in most cases to exclude news articles from the results. However, this was not the case for all databases, so source criterion S10 was added.

The situation with the content criteria could not be more different. I found I had to make significant additions to the criteria as I reviewed the material (see Appendix Q). Different uses of keywords in articles were thrown up during the course of the review, which resulted in the number of content criteria growing from 5 to 40. For the project sponsorship element, the number of criteria grew from 3 to 17 in total (numbers C6 to C19 inclusive). For the competence element, I had no initial content criteria as the scoping study had not produced any alternative definitions. I developed 11 content criteria relating to competence (numbers C20 to C 31 inclusive). For the public sector material I developed 9 criteria (numbers C32 to C40 inclusive). A copy of the final content criteria can be found in Appendix I.

I also found I needed to change the quality criteria: my initial criteria did not deal well with theoretical and practitioner papers. Theoretical papers did not deal with data, so applying criteria relating to data collection, analysis and validity was not appropriate. I modified the original set of criteria to deal with theoretical articles by not applying Quality Criteria 3 and 4 to theoretical material.

Practitioner material was not research oriented and did not always use data, so it was difficult to assess it against my original criteria. After an extensive search, I was also able to develop a set of practitioner oriented criteria based on the guidelines for authors contained inside the '*International Journal of Project Management*' (International Journal of Project Management, 2003). Other

journals that I checked for guidelines on practitioner material simply noted that these articles were published at the discretion of the editor and as such the guidelines were not transparent. A copy of my quality criteria can be found in Appendix I.

2.5.4 Search Process and Databases

Whilst I had decided in my initial protocol to abandon searching when the number of results exceeded 100 and to recast the search terms or search titles only, I found this was too low a limit. I finally settled on an upper limit of 250 articles after which the search scope was reduced to title only. No “title only” search produced more than 250 results.

I also decided not to search 3 of the data sources set out in my original protocol due to time limitations. These were Google (for searching the Internet), CRUISE (the Cranfield University Internet Site Explorer) and Inside Web (British Library Database). However, material on sponsorship published by the UK Government was obtained from the Internet through accessing links contained in the Government websites already visited as part of my scoping study.

I also listed eight specific journals in my initial protocol that I needed to search based on my scoping study. These were:-

1. American Psychologist;
2. Cambridge Journal of Education;
3. Instructional Science;
4. International Journal of Educational Research;
5. Philosophy and Phenomenological Research: A Quarterly Journal;
6. Journal of Nordic Educational Research;
7. Public Performance and Management Review;
8. Sociology.

I consulted Ms. Heather Woodfield, a member of my review panel (see Appendix A). She advised me that I would be able to search abstracts and citation information for journals 1-5 via ERIC (an educational database

accessible through PSYCHINFO): “Sociology” via ABIPROQUEST: “Public Performance and Management Review” via EBSCO and the “Journal of Nordic Educational Research” manually via the internet. PSYCHINFO, ABIPROQUEST and EBSCO all formed part of my target database list (see Appendix B). My search of the “Journal of Nordic Educational Research” found no new relevant material.

2.5.5 Data Capture

After passing the initial relevance step in the process, the results were uploaded into Procite, my reference database. When the search operation for each area of literature was completed, the database was searched and any duplicate references removed. All references within each field of literature were coded using a two or three letter identifier according to its source. This was entered into a spare field (No. 16) within the Procite entry for each reference (see Appendix F):

Code	Description
SS	Material obtained in scoping study.
KWS	Material obtained from key word search.
SD	Material obtained from my supervisor.
RD	Material obtained from reference list in article that passed all review stages.

Table 2: Literature Coding Key

This enabled me to record from what type of search any reference was obtained and to interrogate the Procite database to produce statistical information. References were then obtained in full (rather than abstracts), read and assessed using the source, content and quality criteria. Phase 2 material was then generated by reviewing the reference lists in those items that passed all three remaining review stages. This Phase 2 material was then subject to review for rigour and relevance against all four classes of criteria.

The results were then entered into a descriptive contents table, one for each field of literature. This covered the bibliographic information, the geographic location of the study (where relevant), the context of the study, the nature of the material (practitioner or academic), the nature of the research methods employed (qualitative or quantitative) and a brief note on the principal findings or ideas. Relevant sections of each reference were also loaded as a series of individual 'proxy' documents into NVIVO, for later coding and analysis.

2.5.6 Analysis and Synthesis

This is an exploratory piece of research and as such I am asking "What is known about competence in the project sponsorship role in the public sector?" Therefore my analysis technique was not predefined in my original protocol as I had no preconceived ideas about what the literature would say. It was based around the idea that the literature could be broken down in some way dependent on the literature itself and on my understanding of it. This made my analysis technique an inductive and interpretive exercise. I adopted a "grounded theory" approach (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) for the synthesis of the project sponsorship literature and developed conceptual categories based on the evidence in the literature for comparative analysis. Each piece of literature was read and relevant parts entered into NVIVO. These sections were of varying length, as the research was often concerned with a different subject such as NPD or innovation. I then used a process of "constant comparison" to develop a series of conceptual categories that captured the themes in the literature. These conceptual categories enabled me to dissect the literature and establish the main components in each area of literature. These are set out in Section 3.

I adopted this approach over my original "meta-ethnographic" (Noblit and Hare, 1988) approach because of my familiarity with the "grounded theory" technique. As there was no overall theory regarding project sponsorship, I thought it was a suitable approach to developing an understanding of the role given the fragmented nature of the literature.

2.6 RESULTS

Over the next 3 sections I describe the results in each area of literature, setting out the results of the search and assessment process.

2.6.1 Project Sponsorship

My results from the keyword searches on project sponsorship are set out in Table 3 below.

DATABASE	INITIAL SEARCH	REJECTED	ACCEPTED	ACCEPTANCE RATE (%)
EBSCO	1874	1767	107	5.7
ABIPROQUEST	12410	12291	119	1
EBSCOEJS	4980	4948	32	0.6
IBSS	128	125	3	2.3
PSYCHINFO	2351	2340	11	0.5
INDEX TO THESES	1203	1202	1	0.1
WEB OF SCIENCE	1028	988	40	3.9
ILINK	603	595	8	1.3
TOTAL	24577	24256	321	1.3

Table 3: Project Sponsorship Results

I reviewed 24577 article titles in total, ending up with some 321 relevant articles (1.3% of the original total). EBSCO produced the largest percentage of articles (5.7%) with Index to Theses producing the lowest (0.1%). I reviewed the 321 references and found 109 duplicates (34% of the total), which gave a final total of 218 articles that appeared to be relevant from the key word searching, which is 0.9% of the original article total of 24,577 (see Table 4 below).

SUMMARY INFORMATION	TOTAL	PERCENTAGE OF SEARCH RESULTS (321)
Total Results	321	
Duplicates	103	32.1
FINAL RESULTS	218	67.9

Table 4: Duplication Level in Project Sponsorship Search

Including the scoping study material together with 2 articles suggested by my supervisor gave a final article total prior to review against the inclusion, exclusion and quality criteria of 242 articles (See Table 5):

SUMMARY INFORMATION	TOTAL	PERCENTAGE OF FINAL REVIEW TOTAL (242)
Final Keyword Results	218	90.1
Scoping Study Material	22	9.1
Supervisor Material	2	0.8
FINAL REVIEW TOTAL	242	100

Table 5: Final total of project sponsorship articles for review

The source criteria removed four articles, as the material did not comply with my list of acceptable literature sources. This amounted to 1.7% of the final 242 references. A further 137 references (56.6%) failed the content criteria and 5 references (2.1%) failed the quality criteria (See Table 6 below). This left a final total from the key-word references, scoping study literature and supervisor documents of 96 references, which is 40.7% of the original total of 242 references.

SUMMARY INFORMATION	TOTAL	PERCENTAGE OF FINAL REVIEW TOTAL (242)
Material Failing Source Criteria	4	1.7
Material Failing Content Criteria	137	56.6
Material Failing Quality Criteria	5	2.1
Total Failing	146	60.3
FINAL TOTAL	96	40.7

Table 6: Phase 1 Material: Source, Content and Quality Criteria Results

Appendix K sets out the content criteria together with the number of articles that failed. The most common cause of failure was C9 (material related to IT project management or IT support for project management with 27 articles (19.3%), followed by C10 (general material on project management that does not relate to project sponsorship) with 24 articles (17.1%). The criteria with unitary scores represent single references that passed my initial review question, whereas those with larger scores can be seen as representing a body of literature that partially overlapped in some way with my research interest.

I found 65 relevant references in my search of the reference lists of the Phase 1 material. The manual nature of the process meant there was no duplication. My review of the Phase 2 material produced the following results:-

SUMMARY INFORMATION	TOTAL	PERCENTAGE OF FINAL REVIEW TOTAL (65)
Number Of References Produced	65	
Material Failing Source Criteria	0	0
Material Failing Content Criteria	33	50.8
Material Failing Quality Criteria	1	1.5
Total Failing	34	52.3
Final Total	31	47.7

Table 7: Phase 2 Material: Source, Content and Quality Criteria Results

I found 65 references that appeared to be relevant (again I used my initial review question: Is there sufficient evidence for me to rule this article out now?). No references failed the source criteria and 33 (50.8%) failed the content criteria. Only 1 reference failed the quality criteria. Overall 31 (47.7%) references passed all the criteria.

Appendix K sets out the results for the content criteria for the Phase 2 material. Criterion C13 (material relating to the organization of innovation) was the greatest source of articles failing with 12 references (35.3%) and C10 (general project management material that does not relate to project sponsorship) next with 11 references (32.4%).

In total the systematic review of the literature relating to project sponsorship found 127 references, 0.5% of the final total of 24,642 references from academic and practitioner sources, that were relevant and of sufficient quality to merit inclusion in the review.

2.6.2 Project Sponsorship Results by Literature Source

A wide variety of different literatures have contributed to the results of the systematic search. Table 8 sets out the fields of literature sorted according to the number of references that contributed towards my scoping study:-

Field of Literature	Number of References
Public Sector	10
Project Management	9
NPD	1
IS	1
Change	1
Software Development	1
TOTAL	23

Table 8: Contributing Areas of Literature in Scoping Study

One reference from my supervisor in the project management field is also included in the table. The public sector and project management fields made the greatest contribution towards my scoping study.

The picture that developed from the key word search phase of the documents is different. Table 9 below sets out the contributing fields according to the number of references:-

Field of Literature	Number of References
Project Management	14
NPD	9
Innovation	8
EIS	8
R&D	3
New Ventures	3
Reengineering	3
Systems Development	3
ERP	2
IT	2
IS	2
Intranet Implementations	2
AMT	2
Local Government	2
Six Sigma Projects	1
Strategy Projects	1
Manufacturing	1
Public Sector	1
Change Management	1
E-Commerce	1
MOE	1
O.R.	1
Financial Planning	1
Management / Consulting	1
TOTAL	73

Table 9: Literature Fields: Key Word Search

I found 18 new fields of literature as a result of the key word search process. The fields are: EIS, R&D, New Ventures, Re-Engineering, Systems Development, ERP, IT, IS, Intranet Implementations, AMT, Local Government, Six Sigma projects, Strategy Implementation, Manufacturing, E-commerce, MOE, Financial Planning and Management / Management Consulting.

The process of reviewing the references in both the material found by the keyword searching and the scoping study literature (Phase 2) found new material. A breakdown of these by field of literature, again sorted by the number of references is set out in Table 10 below:-

Field of Literature	Number of References
Innovation	13
NPD	8
New Ventures	4
Project Management	1
Systems Development Projects	1
ERP	1
IT	1
Management	1
Automotive Manufacturing	1
TOTAL	31

Table 10: Literature Fields: Reference Sourced Documents

The fields of innovation, new product development and new venture management make the largest contributions with 13, 8 and 4 references accordingly. These represent significant increases in the contribution made by these fields. Only 1 new field appeared: automotive manufacturing.

Table 11 summarizes the results for project sponsorship by field of literature. Project management, innovation, new product development, the public sector, enterprise information systems and new venture management make the greatest contribution with 89 articles, which is 70.1% of the total.

Field of Literature	Number of References
Project Management	24
Innovation	21
NPD	18
Public Sector / Central Government	11
EIS	8
New Ventures	7
Systems Development	4
ERP	3
IS	3
IT	3
R&D	3
Reengineering	3
AMT	2
Change	2
Intranet	2
Public Sector / Local Government	2
Six Sigma Projects	1
Automotive Manufacturing	1
E-Commerce	1
Financial Planning	1
Management	1
Management Consulting	1
Manufacturing	1
MOE	1
O.R.	1
Software Development	1
Strategy Projects	1
TOTAL	127

Table 11: Summary of Project Sponsorship Literature by Area

2.6.3 Competence

My results from the keyword searches on competence are set out in Table 12 below. I reviewed some 8336 references in the keyword search and found 165 that were relevant, 2% of the total. EBSCO produced the largest number of articles, with Index to Theses producing the lowest (2).

DATABASE	INITIAL SEARCH	REJECTED	ACCEPTED	ACCEPTANCE RATE (%)
EBSCO	4076	3997	79	1.9
ABIPROQUEST	3664	3626	38	1
EBSCOEJS	276	259	17	6.2
IBSS	6	2	4	66.7
PSYCHINFO	116	95	21	18.1
INDEX TO THESES	159	157	2	1.3
WEB OF SCIENCE	39	35	4	10.3
ILINK	15	12	3	20%
TOTAL	8351	8183	168	2

Table 12: Competence Results

Of these 168 articles, 26 of these were duplicates, (see Table 13 below), giving a final key word search total of 141 references.

SUMMARY INFORMATION	TOTAL	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL HITS (165)
Total Results	168	
Duplicates	26	15.4
FINAL RESULTS	142	84.6

Table 13: Duplicate Articles in Competence Search

The key word search produced 142 references, the scoping study 5 references and my supervisor provided 2 references, giving a final review total of 149 articles (see Table 14 below):

SUMMARY INFORMATION	TOTAL	PERCENTAGE OF FINAL REVIEW TOTAL (149)
Final Results	142	95.3
Scoping Study Material	5	3.4
Supervisor Material	2	1.3
FINAL REVIEW TOTAL	149	100

Table 14: Final Total of Competence Articles Subject for Review.

Of these 149 articles, 1 reference failed the source criteria as the material did not comply with my list of acceptable literature sources. No references failed the quality criteria. 107 articles, (72.3%) failed the content criteria (see Table 15 below). This gave a final article total of 41.

SUMMARY INFORMATION	TOTAL	PERCENTAGE OF FINAL REVIEW TOTAL (148)
Material Failing Source Criteria	1	0.7
Material Failing Content Criteria	107	71.8
Material Failing Quality Criteria	0	
Total Failing	108	72.5
FINAL TOTAL	41	27.5

Table 15: Phase 1 Material: Source, Content and Quality Criteria Results

Table 16 sets out the content criteria for competence together with the number of articles that failed each of the criteria. Criterion C25, literature on applications of competence models, is the most common source of failure, with 47 articles (44.8%), followed by C27, literature on learning not related to competence or competence development, with 19 articles.

CONTENT CRITERION NUMBER	CRITERION	NUMBER OF ARTICLES FAILING	NUMBER OF ARTICLES FAILING (%)
C4	Literature failing quality criteria	1	0.9
C20	Literature on organizational competence	18	16.7
C21	Literature on team competence.	2	1.9
C22	Literature on training not related to competence or competence development.	3	2.8
C23	Literature on individual process of change.	1	0.9
C24	Literature on feedback systems not related to competence.	1	0.9
C25	Literature describing the application of competence models.	47	43.5
C26	Literature on learning not related to individual competence or competence development.	20	18.5
C27	Literature on leadership not related to individual competence.	5	4.6
C28	Literature on applications of phenomenography.	3	2.8
C29	Third party perceptions of individual competence.	1	0.9
C30	Literature on management development not related to individual competence development.	5	4.6
C31	Literature on HRM not related to competence development.	1	0.9
TOTAL		108	100

Table 16: Phase 1 Material: Content Criteria Failure Rates

Again the larger scores can be seen as representing a body of literature that overlaps with my research interest, individual competence.

The development of the Phase 2 material produced the following results:-

SUMMARY INFORMATION	TOTAL	PERCENTAGE OF FINAL REVIEW TOTAL (20)
Number Of References Produced	20	
Material Failing Source Criteria	0	0
Material Failing Content Criteria	3	15
Material Failing Quality Criteria	1	5
Total Failing	4	20
FINAL TOTAL	16	80

Table 17: Phase 2 Material: Source, Content and Quality Criteria Results

Only 1 reference failed the quality criteria and 3 the content criteria. Table 18 below sets out the content criteria for competence together with the number of reference produced articles that failed each of the criteria.

CONTENT CRITERION NUMBER	CRITERION	NUMBER OF ARTICLES FAILING	NUMBER OF ARTICLES FAILING (%)
C4	Literature failing quality criteria	1	25
C20	Literature on organizational competence	0	0
C21	Literature on team competence.	0	0
C22	Literature on training not related to competence or competence development.	0	0
C23	Literature on individual process of change.	0	0
C24	Literature on feedback systems not related to competence.	0	0
C25	Literature describing the application of competence models.	2	50
C26	Literature on learning not related to individual competence or competence development.	0	0
C27	Literature on leadership not related to individual competence.	1	25
C28	Literature on applications of phenomenography.	0	0
C29	Third party perceptions of individual competence.	0	0
C30	Literature on management development not related to individual competence development.	0	0
C31	Literature on HRM not related to competence development.	0	0
TOTAL		4	100

Table 18: Phase 2 Material: Content Criteria Failure Rates

Criteria C25 was again the most common source of failure with 2 articles and C4 (quality) and C27 with 1 article each.

The total picture for all failed references is as follows:-

CONTENT CRITERION NUMBER	CRITERION	NUMBER OF ARTICLES FAILING	NUMBER OF ARTICLES FAILING (%)
C4	Literature failing quality criteria	2	1.8
C20	Literature on organizational competence	18	16.1
C21	Literature on team competence.	2	1.8
C22	Literature on training not related to competence or competence development.	3	2.7
C23	Literature on individual process of change.	1	0.9
C24	Literature on feedback systems not related to competence.	1	0.9
C25	Literature describing the application of competence models.	49	43.8
C26	Literature on learning not related to individual competence or competence development.	20	17.9
C27	Literature on leadership not related to individual competence.	6	5.4
C28	Literature on applications of phenomenography.	3	2.7
C29	Third party perceptions of individual competence.	1	0.9
C30	Literature on management development not related to individual competence development.	5	4.5
C31	Literature on HRM not related to competence development.	1	0.9
TOTAL		112	100.0

Table 19: Competence: Both Phases: Failure Rates

112 articles failed the content and quality criteria in all, which is 66.3% of the total of 169 references from all sources. Criteria C25, literature describing the application of competence models, was the largest source of failure with 49 articles (43.8% of the total), followed by C26, literature on learning not related to competence development with 20 articles (17.9% of the total).

2.6.4 Accountability in the Public Sector

My results from the key word searches on accountability in the public sector are set out in Table 20 below:-

DATABASE	INITIAL SEARCH	REJECTED	ACCEPTED	ACCEPTANCE RATE (%)
EBSCO	31	21	10	32.3
ABIPROQUEST	2122	2116	6	0.3
EBSCOEJS	225	204	21	9.3
IBSS	37	29	8	21.6
PSYCHINFO	13	13	0	0
INDEX TO THESES	404	404	0	0
WEB OF SCIENCE	49	40	9	18.4
ILINK	12	10	2	16.7
TOTAL	2881	2827	54	1.9

Table 20: Public Sector Results

EBSCOEJS produced the biggest number of references with 21, but at an acceptance rate of 9.3%. ABIPROQUEST produced the lowest number of references with 6 and the lowest acceptance rate of 0.3%. Index to Theses, PSYCHINFO all returned no results. Table 21, below, sets out the final total of references after duplicates had been removed.

SUMMARY INFORMATION	TOTAL	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL RESULTS (56)
Total Results	56	
Duplicates	22	39.3
FINAL RESULTS	34	60.7

Table 21: Duplicate Articles in Public Sector Key Word Search

This shows a duplication rate of 37% which was 20 references out of the 54 I found in the keyword search. Table 22 shows the source of the material that was subject to review against the various classes of criteria:-

SUMMARY INFORMATION	TOTAL	PERCENTAGE OF FINAL REVIEW TOTAL (42)
Final Results	34	81
Scoping Study Material	8	19
Supervisor Material	0	0
FINAL REVIEW TOTAL	42	100

Table 22: Final Total of Public Sector Articles Subject for Review

The keyword search process found 81% of the references, with the scoping study providing the remaining 19% of the final total of 42 references. My review against the three classes of criteria for the scoping study and key word material produced the following results:-

SUMMARY INFORMATION	TOTAL	PERCENTAGE OF FINAL REVIEW TOTAL (42)
Material Failing Source Criteria	0	0
Material Failing Content Criteria	18	42.9
Material Failing Quality Criteria	2	4.8
Total Failing	20	47.7
FINAL TOTAL	22	52.4

Table 23: Phase 1 Material: Source, Content and Quality Criteria Results

No references failed the source criteria. 42.9% of the references failed the content criteria and 4.8% failed to pass the quality criteria. This gave a final Phase 1 material total of 22 references, or 52.4% of the original 42 references. Table 24 below sets out the content criteria and the number of references failing each:-

CONTENT CRITERION NUMBER	CRITERION	NUMBER OF ARTICLES FAILING	NUMBER OF ARTICLES FAILING (%)
C4	Literature failing quality criteria	2	11.1
C32	Literature on parliamentary / legislative accountability	1	5.6
C33	Literature on performance management in the public sector or perceptions of organization performance.	3	16.7
C34	Literature on evaluation of NPM reform	1	5.6
C35	Literature on changes in organizational and institutional accountability.	5	27.8
C36	Literature on organizational and institutional policy implementation	2	11.1
C37	Literature on historic perspectives on traditional administration	1	5.6
C38	Literature on public expenditure programmes	1	5.6
C39	Literature on citizen / subject interaction under NPM	1	5.6
C40	Literature on market perspectives on managerial adaptation	1	5.6
TOTAL		18	100.0

Table 24 Phase 1 Material: Content Criteria Failure Rates

Criterion C35 was the biggest source of failure with 5 references or 27.8% of the 18 references that failed. Criterion C33 was the second largest source of failure with 3 references, which is equivalent to 16.7% of the total. These two areas can be seen as representing 2 larger areas of literature that partially overlap with my research interest. 2 references, 11.1% of the total failed the quality criteria (C4).

The Phase 2 search produced the following results:-

SUMMARY INFORMATION	TOTAL	PERCENTAGE OF FINAL REVIEW TOTAL (15)
Number Of References Produced	15	
Material Failing Source Criteria	0	0
Material Failing Content Criteria	4	26.7
Material Failing Quality Criteria	0	0
Total Failing	0	0
FINAL TOTAL	11	73.3

Table 25: Phase 2 Material: Source, Content and Quality Criteria Results

Four references failed the content criteria, each failing a different criterion. These were C32, C35, C36 and C37 respectively. This produced a final review total of 33 references.

2.7 Process Review

In the next two sections I review the systematic review process in two distinct ways: first I look at what the data obtained from the systematic search and review says about this literature as a subset of management literature and about each area of literature in its own right. Second, I review the nature of the process itself based on my operation of the process.

2.7.1 The Nature of the Literature

The repetition of the systematic search and review process to the three different areas of literature is a consistent application of a process to different contexts. The data developed from this represents a useful source of information. Langley (1999) sets out seven strategies for making sense of process data. Each strategy has a different focus in terms of a starting point, data needs and the form of sense-making that is possible from the data.

No single strategy entirely fits with the systematic review process that I have carried out and described in this dissertation. My description of the operation of the process in previous sections within Section 2 is a narrative strategy, and on Langley's (1999) dimensions of good theory is highly accurate, but lower on simplicity and generality when compared to other processes.

By adopting a "quantification strategy" it is possible to make use of the process data to develop an understanding of the patterns and mechanisms in the results of **this** systematic review. I emphasize this point as the three areas of literature represent a tiny proportion of management literature. Each stage in the process can be seen as an outcome of the application of a particular element of the systematic review process, supported by statistical information for each of the three cases. This makes the systematic review process amenable to the quantification strategy: *'The advantage of the quantification approach lies in the systematization of process analysis'* (Langley, 1999: 697).

The relatively small growth in source criteria from 9 at the scoping study stage to 10 at the end of the process (see Appendix I) suggests that I had clearly understood the potential sources of relevant literature and had documented this. The addition of criterion S10 is due the inability of 1 database to filter out news articles.

The growth in content criteria for each of the areas is significant. For project sponsorship, the number of criteria grew from 3 to 17, an increase of 467%. I had no predefined criteria for competence or the public sector areas at the start of the process, but developed 11 and 10 criteria respectively. These increases have two implications.

First, it implies that my understanding of my research interest within each area has sharpened, given that I have increased the number of definitions of what it is not. The results of the systematic search produced new uses of keywords and contexts that I ruled out as not being of interest. Second, it implies that language is used loosely within the literature, with the alternative understandings of the same word or words in different contexts. This reflects the relatively heterogeneous nature of management research when compared to a field such as medical research (Tranfield et al., 2002).

It is also possible to draw conclusions from the process outcomes for each of the areas of literature. The results of my assessment of the Phase 1 material on project sponsorship, competence and accountability in the public sector are set out in Table 27.

The results demonstrate that keyword searching on its own is an inefficient means of establishing the extent of knowledge on a subject in a field of literature. It is the application of the initial review question and the content criteria that make it an effective process.

Area	Project Sponsorship	Competence	Accountability in the Public Sector
All Search Results	24577	8351	2893
Preliminary Review Question Failure Rate	98.7%	98%	98.1%
References Produced	292	149	22
Source Content Failure rate	1.7%	0.7%	0%
Content Criteria Failure Rate	56.6%	71.8%	42.9%
Quality Criteria Failure Rate	2.1%	0%	4.8%
Final Acceptance Rate	40.7%	27.5%	52.4%

Table 27: Key Word Search Process: Results by Area

The acceptance rates for the Phase 2 material were 47.7%, 80% and 80% respectively. These are much higher rates compared to the Phase 1 rates above. The reasons for the improvement are twofold. First, it is a result of my improved understanding of my research subject through the development of the additional content criteria in Phase 1 of the process. This meant my initial review question “Is there sufficient evidence in front of me now to dismiss this reference?” was used more effectively as a result of my improved understanding. Second, it is logical that the reference lists in the Phase 1 material that passed all criteria would contain a higher percentage of relevant material.

The relative impacts of the quality and content criteria are set out in Table 28 (overleaf):-

Criteria	Project Sponsorship		Competence		Public Sector	
	Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 1	Phase 2
Content	56.6%	50.8%	71.8%	15%	42.9%	0%
Quality	2.1%	1.5%	0%	5%	5%	0%

Table 28: Relative Impacts of Quality and Content Criteria for each Area

It is clear from this that the content criteria have had a greater impact on the review than the quality criteria. This implies that management research in these areas is more concerned with different aspects of phenomena. As a result I needed to develop content criteria to filter out material irrelevant to my research subject. This is consistent with Tranfield and Starkey's (1998) description of management research as a heterogeneous field where there is little epistemological or ontological consensus, a consequence of which is that there are considerable difficulties in '*establishing agreed thresholds for high quality work*' (Tranfield et al., 2003: 212). It is a logical corollary of this that the quality criteria would only be more effective than indicated in Table 28 if there was more consistency on the use of language, a greater degree of agreement on the nature of phenomena and the means of researching them. The quality criteria have played a small role, acting as a minimum hurdle which literature must clear.

In summary, the process data shows that in relation to these three fields of academic literature, keyword searching is an inefficient means of searching for literature, but the application of a preliminary review question followed by the application and development of content criteria make the process an effective one. The development of new content criteria is the principal means of improving clarity about a research phenomenon in the systematic review process. This improvement has the benefit of improving the acceptance rate of the Phase 2 material and thus making the process both more efficient and effective. The effectiveness of content criteria in filtering out irrelevant material is a reflection of the heterogeneous nature of management research literature.

2.7.2 The Systematic Review Process

I started the systematic review process with a broad understanding of my research interest. This is reflected in the small number of exclusion criteria that I had developed prior to starting the review (see Appendix E).

The situation at the completion of the review is very different. There are now 40 content criteria (see Appendix I). Given that these criteria are a definition of what is not my research interest, the definition of my research subject has moved from a general one to a more specific one. This makes the process deductive in nature (Blaikie, 1993). I have used content criteria to filter out irrelevant material and the result is an understanding of project sponsorship (and what it is not) that is less than that defined in the initial keywords. The content criteria have played both refutational and corroborative roles, defining what the research interest is and what it is not.

2.7.3 Limitations

Like any piece of research, there are limitations to this work. First, it was only possible to conduct 2 phases of searching, one from key words and one from the reference lists of the key word searched material that passed all criteria. A third pass looking at the references in the Phase 2 material may well have yielded further useful material. This process could have been extended until “theoretical saturation” was reached i.e. when no new material came to light. This was not possible due to the time limits placed on the thesis. Second, as my understanding of the research phenomenon I have come across new areas of literature that on reflection appear to be relevant, such as the literatures on “boundary-spanning” individuals and professionalism. The limitations of time and space meant I was not able to explore these further. Third, accountability has traditionally interested researchers on constitutional and legal affairs, which is not an area that would normally interest a researcher in a School of Management. As such I may not have had access to the most appropriate databases. I think this has limited the size of the literature that I was able to find. The references in the Phase 2 accountability material support this, coming from

a range of journals that I have not been able to access at Cranfield. Limitations of time have prevented further searching in this area. Finally, the quality criteria for academic material have also proved to be cumbersome: something shorter would have made assessment easier.

2.7.4 Conclusion

Systematic review is an *'efficient process for identifying where research is lacking'* (Petticrew, 2001: 101). The application of systematic review in this case has gone further: it has confirmed the existence of the posited research gap, but it has also identified other areas of potential research interest.

Systematic review in these areas of management research literature is a deductive process, requiring the ongoing development of content criteria to exclude irrelevant material and sharpen the focus of the research. The process is more about finding what is relevant to the research subject, rather than about the overall quality of studies on the same aspect of a particular subject. This is a function of the heterogeneous nature of management research and the low levels of epistemological and ontological agreement in the field. Despite these issues, systematic review is an effective process for establishing gaps in current academic management knowledge.

3.0 THE LITERATURE

This section deals with the literature itself and is split into four main sections: project sponsorship, competence, accountability in the public sector and a final section where all three areas of literature are brought together.

3.1 Project Sponsorship

The project sponsorship literature amounts to 127 articles. I have summarized the articles in Appendix L (Project Sponsorship: Descriptive Analysis Table). This sets out the principal areas of interest in the literature such as the geographical location of the study, the subject and context of the study, the nature of the paper (qualitative, quantitative, theoretical or practitioner) and the main findings within each reference. In the proceeding sections I will draw upon the literature set out in this table.

This shows that the principal areas of literature from the search process come from the fields of project management (24 references), innovation (21 references), NPD (18 references), the public sector (11 references), EIS (8 references), new venture management (7 references) and systems development (4 references). This represents a diverse range of literature, but reflects the widespread importance placed upon the role both in research and practice.

The importance of the role of the project sponsor is clearly established within these fields of literature. 16 studies across 14 different areas noted that the presence of a committed sponsor is a key factor in the success of a project. These are ERP (Akkermans and van Helden, 2002; Somers and Nelson, 2001), IS (Carr and Hogue, 1989), programme management (Gioia, 1996), EIS (Houdshel and Watson, 1987), management information systems (MIS) (Houlden, 1979), management consulting (Jang and Lee, 1998), project management (Kerzner, 1987; Archibald, 1992; Briner, Hastings, and Geddes,

1996; Sphuler and Biagini, 1990), reengineering (Klein, 1995; Klein, 1994; Shays, 1994), financial planning and budgeting (Levine, 1976), IT (Rai and Paper, 1994), AMT (Sohal, 1996), venturing (Von Hippel, 1977), software development (Procaccino, Verner, Overmyer and Darter, 2002), ESS (Watson and Rainer, 1991) and the UK public sector (Office of Government Commerce, 2002a; Office of Public Services Reform, 2003b). This is by no means a comprehensive list, but it clearly demonstrates a widespread recognition of the role's importance.

Sponsors are not only recognized as important: their absence is seen as problematic. Archibald notes that: *'The absence of a specifically assigned project sponsor with well defined and understood responsibilities is the cause of many difficulties for project and project managers'* (Archibald, 1992: 74). Procaccino et al. (2002) found not only that project sponsors were perceived as necessary for success, but that from the project team's perspective it was better to start without a sponsor and acquire one later than to have one at the start of a project and have sponsor commitment drop away as the project progressed. Procaccino et al. (2002) also found that this lack of commitment by a sponsor to a project can make implementation more difficult. Sponsor departure can result in the project being cancelled and the investment lost (McBride, 1997; Sipior, 2000).

The absence of a sponsor is not just a source of general problems for projects and project managers (Archibald, 1992). The sponsor plays a major role in ensuring that whatever the objective of the project is (an organizational change or a new product for example), it is achieved. Palvia (1995) found that the presence of a sponsor increases the probability of predicted success for a project by 20%. Kanter (1983) observed that organizational change will not be implemented without the push of a champion or sponsor. Military innovations are no different: *'one man emerges as the champion of the idea'* (Schon, 1963 :84) and the *'new idea either finds a champion or dies'* (Schon, 1963: 84).

But whilst the role is seen as an important factor in project success and the absence of sponsorship problematic, the role is not well understood: *'Frequently, even when the project manager's task is well understood, the sponsor's is not.'* (Partington, 2000: 40).

I have split this literature into 3 areas: the public sector literature, the private sector literature and the project management literature. This split reflects the generic nature of the project management literature and the differences between the private and public sector literatures. Each of these areas is reviewed in the following sections, followed by a comparison of each of the different areas.

3.1.1 The Public Sector Literature

The academic literature on the role of the project sponsor in the public sector is relatively small. Holt and Rowe (2000) looked at the experience of the UK construction industry with its dealings with the UK government. They found that the industry characterized the UK Government construction procurement environment as *'bureaucratic, risk averse and restricted by an attentiveness to rules'* (Holt and Rowe, 2000: 545). The government as client was seen as *'unwilling to compromise for fear of being accountable to annual budgets'* (Holt and Rowe, 2000: 545). The study hypothesized the promotion of the role of the project sponsor *'as a proponent of total quality'* (Holt and Rowe, 2000: 542). Through this promotion, the sponsor would be able to *'make cost and value improvements without sacrificing public interests'* (Holt and Rowe, 2000: 542). However, they also recognized that project sponsors would have to address the multiple reality of satisfying *'efficiency criteria without eroding the public interest'* (Holt and Rowe, 2000: 547).

This multiple reality was the subject of a later piece of research. Hall and Holt (2002) found that project sponsors described their environment as being characterized *'by conflict and tension between the divergent demands of public probity and equity, performance driven accountability and private sector gain, all within a context of political change and uncertainty'* (Hall and Holt, 2002: 308) .

Project sponsors found their ability to perform their role contingent on their resolution of these demands. These demands were resolved in one of two ways: either sponsors resorted to defensive routines that effectively denied the public client their voice, but left public duty as having been seen to be done: or sponsors took the initiative themselves and acted *'beyond the stricture of rules'* (Hall and Holt, 2002: 309). There was some correlation between these "individualistic, maverick" project sponsors and what were perceived as successful project outcomes.

At the time of writing there was no further published research on the public sector project sponsor. However, a great deal of material on various aspects of project sponsorship has been published by the UK Government. This material is more practitioner oriented, setting out the necessity for a project sponsor for Government projects and where project sponsor support and training can be found.

The government literature gives a number of definitions and names for the project sponsor: the Senior Responsible Officer (IT projects) (Office of Government Commerce, 2003e), the Project Sponsor (Construction projects) (Office of Government Commerce, 2003d), the Project Executive (Office of Government Commerce, 2002b) and the Programme Director (Office of Government Commerce, 2002a). Definitions of these roles can be found Appendix N.

There is a common thread that runs through all these definitions. They are all executive positions, with ultimate accountability not only for the delivery of the project or programme, but for the realization of its benefits as well: *'The Programme Director is ultimately accountable for the success of the programme..... and has personal accountability for realizing the benefits'* (Office of Government Commerce, 2002a: 20). Accountability is fundamental to the role of the sponsor in the public sector: it also figured highly in Hall and

Holt's (2002) characterization of the project sponsorship role in UK government construction procurement.

In summary the literature on the project sponsor in the public sector is relatively small. The academic research is primarily focussed on construction procurement, but the government literature reflects a wider constituency, covering IT procurement as well. The size of both literatures reflects the recent importance placed on the role. Nevertheless it demonstrates some of the difficulties that public sector project sponsors face in their work (Hall and Holt, 2002).

3.1.2 The Project Management Literature

The project management literature is primarily practitioner oriented, dealing with prescriptions for the role of project sponsor from a project perspective. Spuhler and Biagini (1990) set out nine duties for the sponsor (Appendix N). Archibald (1992) set out a similar list that runs to 14 items (also see Appendix N). In the field of Six Sigma, a quality management philosophy, Lowenthal (2002) described the Sigma Champion and set out four important tasks for them: to provide vision for the change, to prioritize sigma initiatives that cross organizational boundaries, the allocation of resources and to provide support and remove barriers. Briner et al. (1996) set out three headline roles for the project sponsor: the signpost (provides direction), the architect (represents the project to senior management) and sustainer (keeps the project on track).

These definitions of the role form the bulk of the pure project management literature. Otherwise the sponsor is relegated to a small section within the literature. Blackburn (2002) observed that sponsors are powerful and can be mobilised by the project manager to speak on behalf of the project. Partington (2000) noted that the two most common problems in relation to the project sponsor were that the wrong individual assumed the role because it was either delegated or the person was not the one with the most to lose if the project failed, or the sponsor undermined the project manager by becoming too

involved in the detail of the project. Harpham (2000) placed the responsibility for monitoring the project context and its likely impact on project success with the sponsor.

I carried out a coding of these roles in the project management literature using a grounded theory approach (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) and found seven distinct themes: leadership, resource provision, accountability, monitoring the project environment, establishment of the project organization, control of the project and acting as the representative of the project to senior management. These can be split into two higher level categories: attributes of the role and activities that form part of the role. These are set out in Figure 3:-

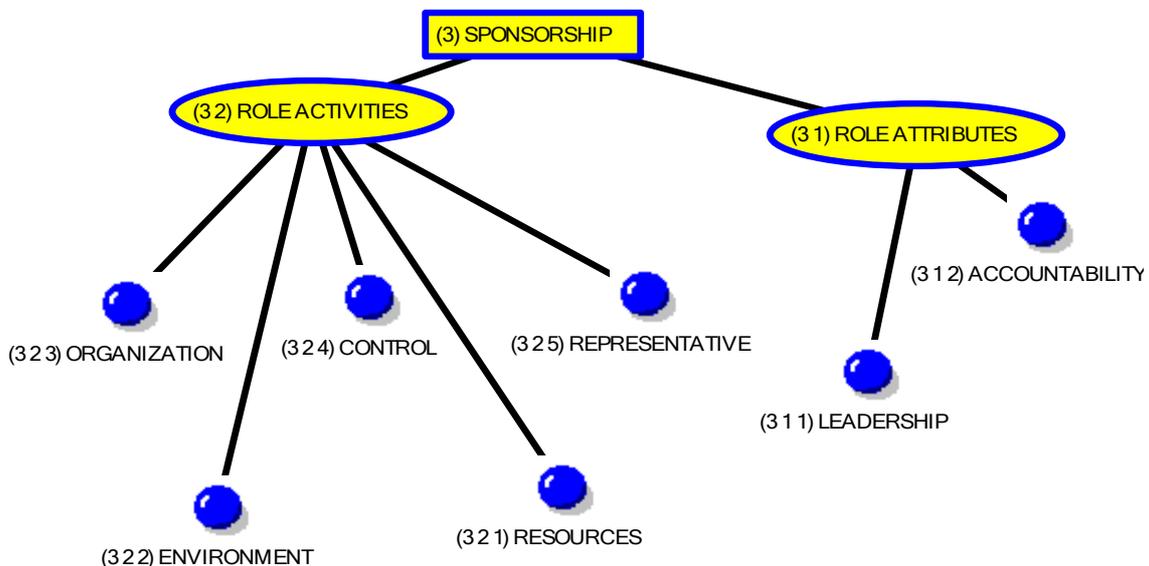


Figure 3: Aspects of the Project Sponsor Role: Project Management Literature

In terms of attributes, the sponsor is a powerful, executive role with accountability for the project. In terms of activities, the literature suggests that the project sponsor has quite specific activities such as the monitoring of the project context, communication on behalf of the project team to management, provision of resources, dispute resolution and barrier removal. The focus of the literature is primarily on the role of the sponsor in relation to the project, and not on the role of the sponsor in relation to the wider organization.

3.1.3 The Private Sector Literature

The literature from the private sector is more fragmented. Appendix L sets out the range of literature and sources found in the key word search.

My review of this literature revealed a wide range of roles involved in the various fields that are all involved in some form of activity associated with sponsorship. This range of roles described by the literature is set out in Appendix M. This sets out a number of names, from product champion to executive champion and many others. There are similarities and commonalities in the roles suggested in any one of the references in the table. Schon (1963) for example mentions the roles of the inventor, who conceived the idea and the product champion, who supports the idea in the organization. Both of them support the idea: the inventor from outside the organization and the product champion from within the organization. Both take on a large element of personal risk in supporting the innovation, but only the product champion has the political influence and hierarchical power in the organization to make the innovation a reality (Schon, 1963). In the innovation literature they form part of the “coalition” that makes innovation happen (Kanter, 1988).

Appendix M can be seen as a description of a division of labour that occurs across the literature. There is some variation in the number of divisions. Witte (1977) found that a tandem structure of a “fachpromoter” (promoter by knowledge) and a “machtpromoter” (promoter by power) was the most effective structure for overcoming barriers to innovation. Maidique (1980) found four roles in innovation management: the technologist, the product champion, the executive champion and the entrepreneur. The executive champion, who uses his power to channel resources to the innovation, absorbs *‘most, but not usually all of the risk of the project’* (Maidique, 1980: 64). However, there are hierarchical and knowledge based differences between the roles that are significant in this context. Therefore given this and the profusion of roles, it is important that I clarify which of these roles is the focus of my research.

3.1.3.1 Defining the Role

I have been able to identify the private sector equivalent of the public sector sponsor by looking at the public sector role and its organizational context. The themes of individual accountability and ownership are the hallmarks of the public sector definitions of the role (Office of Government Commerce, 2002b; Office of Government Commerce, 2003e). As such the sponsor carries a high level of individual risk associated with the project, but by virtue of the public / private split between purchase and provision that characterizes current UK infrastructure and large capital investment projects (Hall and Holt, 2002), may lack detailed knowledge of the “product”. The power of the role derives from the organization, not the “product” that is being procured (Day, 1994). As such, the public sector sponsor is akin to the organizational sponsor or executive champion in the private sector literature. In Witte’s (1977) terms the public sector project sponsor acts as the “machtpromoter” and the private sector provider as the “fachpromoter”. The public sector has the organizational power, the private sector the “product” knowledge. The public sector sponsor is an organizational sponsor, providing resources and legitimacy (Day, 1994), rather than a product champion, championing a new product idea. From a process perspective Burgelman (1983) differentiated between the roles of the organizational and product champions. Both work at different stages in the innovation process, with the organizational sponsor supporting the venture and evaluating its strategic context. This fits with the definition of the public sector sponsor.

In organizational terms Chakrabarti and Hauschildt (1989) suggested that this division of labour in innovation management depended on the nature and size of the firm and thus the complexity of the system that the innovation “faced” before it could be developed. Thus for small entrepreneurial firms, a two way split between the entrepreneur and the technologist was found, whereas for the large diversified firm, a four way split between the technologist, the product champion, the executive champion and the entrepreneur was found.

From an organizational perspective, the UK Government is similar to a large, diversified business: it has many different areas of operation (health, defence, trade, finance and social security amongst many others) and can be characterized as a diversified public sector service organization (Ferlie, Ashburner, Fitzgerald, and Pettigrew, 1996). Taking Chakrabarti and Hauschildt's (1989) typology for large diversified firms, my research interest lies in the executive champion (public sector client) rather than the interface with the product champion (private sector provider).

3.1.3.2 The Private Sector Role

Given this, it is possible to separate out the specific role of interest from the plethora of roles in Appendix M. Appendix N sets out the various definitions of the role from the literature. It shows the variety of sponsor duties, activities, role attributes and behaviours that form part of the sponsorship role. I carried out a coding of this literature using a grounded theory approach (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) and found 8 distinct themes: leadership, resource provision, accountability, strategic context, power, risk-bearing, advocacy and protection. These themes can be split into 2 higher level categories: attributes of the role and activities that are carried out as part of the role. The relationship is set out in Figure 4 below:-

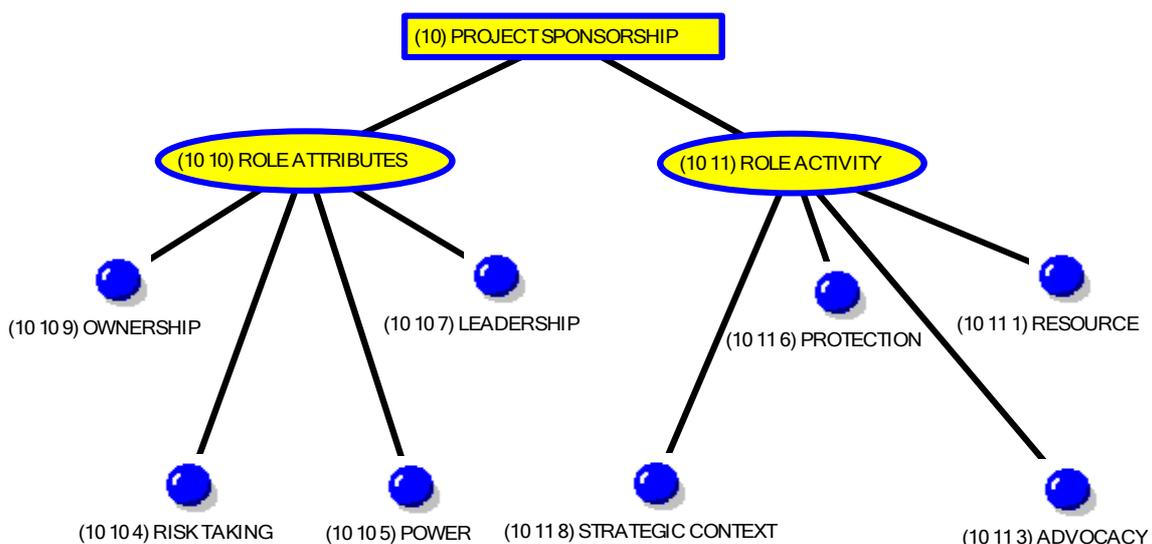


Figure 4: Aspects of the Project Sponsor Role: Private Sector Literature

The attributes of the role from my analysis are leadership, ownership, power and risk taking. Angle and Van de Ven (1989) noted that the sponsor was one of four leadership roles in innovation. Leadership in this case was not a personal quality, but *'an organizational function'* (Angle and Van de Ven, 1989: 680). In the field of MIS projects, Burbridge and Friedman described the sponsor as the one who *'promotes and spearheads the development of the system'* (Burbridge and Friedman, 1988: 71).

Ownership was another attribute: the inventor of the "post-it note", Art Fry observed that *'intrapreneurs would never succeed without an executive champion who is committed to new products'* (Fry, 1987: 6). This sense of ownership was also observed by Schon: *'It is a characteristic of champions of new developments that they identify with the idea as their own and with its promotion as a cause, to a degree that goes far beyond the requirements of their job'* (Schon, 1963: 84). In the context of organizational innovation, Brimm (1988) observed that the sponsor is identified strongly with the activity and its outcome: they are personally committed to it. Altinay and Roper (2001) viewed the international development directors of a hotel chain as project owners: they are entirely responsible for the success of a development project.

The sponsor needs to be powerful in order to provide the resources for the project and protect the project from its detractors inside the organization. Witte (1977) found that the "machtpromoter" needed to hold a certain position within the company's hierarchy *'to order sanctions against opponents and provide protection for those in favour of the innovation'* (Witte, 1977: 54). Roberts and Fusfeld (1981) noted that sponsors provide legitimacy and organizational confidence in the project by virtue of their position and access to the power base in the organization. Nam (1997) found that innovation sponsors in the US construction industry needed to occupy powerful positions in the organization to introduce innovations to projects. Souder (1981) found that entrepreneurs within organizations needed a sponsor to provide a visible source of higher authority in order to obtain cooperation, funds or resources. Maidique described the

executive champion as *'an executive ...who has direct or indirect influence over the resource allocation process and who uses this power to channel resources'* (Maidique, 1980: 64).

The project sponsor takes on a lot of risk by sponsoring a project. Leonard-Barton (1988) noted that in some cases, sponsors are persuading others to support an experiment with an uncertain outcome, rather than a development project where the outcome is more certain. The risks for the sponsor therefore are significant. Maidique observed that executive champions *'absorb most, but usually not all, the risk of a project'* (Maidique, 1980: 64). In one case Souder (1987) found that a project was being delayed because of a disagreement over information between the intrapreneur and the marketing department in an organization: the sponsor decided to proceed on the basis of the intrapreneur's information and stated that he would take the risk of any subsequent failures. Brimm (1988) makes clear that this risk is real: he found that many sponsors of organizational innovations are passed over for promotion. Frost and Egri (1991) found that organizational innovations needed a different approach to gaining support when compared to product innovations. "Seeking permission" was a lower risk strategy than "seeking forgiveness".

From the coding of the literature there are also four principal activities for sponsors: ensuring "fit" between the organizational strategy and the project, the provision of resources, protection of the project and advocacy for the project. According to Chakrabarti and Hauschildt (1989) one of the main roles is to confirm the fit of the innovation with corporate strategy. Markham and Holahan (1996) indicate the passage of information the other way: the sponsor gathers information on corporate strategy for the project team.

The provision of resources, both material and financial is the most frequently mentioned project sponsor activity in the literature. The sponsor's provision of resources is key to getting new products out of development and into production (Markham, 2002). In the context of change management, Harrison describes

the sponsor as *'the person who authorizes the necessary resources to see that the change occurs'* (Harrison, 1999: 6). This is echoed by Damsgaard and Scheepers (2000), and Westall (2002) who both observed that the executive sponsor of the intranet was not only key to obtaining resources to complete the development, but to getting the intranet used as well.

Protection of the project from its detractors is a key activity for the sponsor. Calsih and Gamache (1984) in their paper on new venture management describe the sponsor's role as protecting the champion from scrutiny and "overcontrol" until the venture becomes a business. The sponsor provides protection to the team from outside pressures and extra requests (Markham and Holahan, 1996), shielding the project from negation (Peters and Waterman, 1982). Roberts and Fustfeld (1981) describe this as "buffering" the project team.

The sponsor also plays the role of advocate. Advocacy is more than just support: sponsors *'identify with the idea as their own, and with its promotion as a cause, to a degree that goes far beyond the requirements of their job'* (Schon, 1963: 84). Angle et al. describe the role as carrying the ball for the project, *'as an advocate for the innovation in corporate and investor circles where innovation resources are located.'* (Angle and Van de Ven, 1989:680).

The attributes appear to be prerequisites to carry out the activities required by the role. Without them, the sponsor will be unable to perform the role. Unless the sponsor has a certain degree of power, he will be unable to offer the project the leadership it needs, provide resources or have a sufficient understanding of the strategic context. Klein (1995) noted it was important to match the project to the sponsors span of control in the organization. This may also partially explain Partington's (2000) observation about the wrong individual assuming the sponsorship role.

3.1.3.3 Sponsorship and the Division of Labour

The division between the public sector sponsor and the private sector provider is a potential source of problems for the sponsor. In the context of new ventures, Day noted that *'this division is typically associated with information and power asymmetries'* (Day, 1994: 153). Lawless and Price (1992) took an agency theory perspective on new technology champions and users and suggested that there were significant control issues for the users. First, as Lawless and Price note: *'potential users have less information with which to evaluate the technology itself and the champions performance than does the champion'* (Lawless and Price, 1992: 352). So the public sector sponsor has to evaluate what is being done on the public's behalf and evaluate the performance of the provider with incomplete knowledge. This poses issues of control for the sponsor, who is held accountable for the project (Office of Government Commerce, 2002a; Office of Government Commerce, 2003e) for the purposes of controlling the project and delivering its eventual outcome.

Kirsch (1996) found that the type of control applied to a non-routine task such as a project was dependent on the sponsors knowledge and experience of the task undertaken. Kirsch (1996) found that the more a sponsor understood the content of a project, the more likely they were to use behavioural rather than outcome controls and that the greater the knowledge of the project by the sponsor, the more likely that the provider would engage in self-control. Given sponsor understanding of the task and its outputs, sponsors relied on behavioural controls and self control by the provider. This suggests that knowledge of the project content is important if the sponsor is to effectively manage the project: *'organizations must recognize that having domain specific knowledge is critical to manage the activities associated with that task'* (Kirsch, 1996: 16). Kirsch goes further in the context of outsourcing: *'even when ...outsourced, the results of the study suggest that organizations will need technically able people to oversee these development efforts'* (Kirsch, 1996: 16). Sponsors with technical knowledge should be better able to control the project than those without and thus able to exercise more effective control. If the

purpose of increased accountability is better control (Day and Klein, 1987), then increased project content knowledge is a means of being better able to fulfil that requirement. This may partially explain Hall and Holt's (2002) suggestion for a project sponsor "community of practice" and the adoption of a professional construction project sponsor by the UK Government (Office of Government Commerce, 2003d).

3.1.3.4 Sponsorship: The Use of Formal and Informal Power

The private sector literature makes clear that sponsorship is a role that requires both formal and informal authority in order to exercise power (Witte, 1977; Souder, 1981; Maidique, 1980). The provision of resources, advocacy for the project that goes beyond the requirements of the job and protection of the project are all ways in which the sponsor exercises their power. That power comes by virtue of the sponsor's position within both the hierarchy and the informal organization. Von Hippel (1977) found that in internal corporate venturing, the majority of venture sponsors were not formally charged with the role, but carried it out on the side, using their budgetary slack to provide resources for the new venture. This suggests that whilst the role was informal, it needed a certain amount of formal power to carry it out. Markham (1998) found that the use of informal relationships was a more effective means of obtaining support than rationally based appeals for help. The sponsor needs both formal and informal authority in the organization to deliver support to the project.

This authority is a combination of Weber's legal authority, which *'is the right of those elevated to authority under such rules to issue commands'* (Weber, 1964: 328) and charismatic authority, where the charismatic leader is *'obeyed by virtue of personal trust in him'* (Weber, 1964: 328). The sponsor legitimizes the project by providing it with support, resources and by accepting the accountability for the project. This partially contradicts Holt and Rowe's (2000) assertion that sponsorship as critical leadership does not sit easily within Weber's triptych.

With power comes the ability to take ownership of the project and to accept the risk associated with it (Leonard-Barton, 1988). Both Beatty (1992) and Klein (1995) observed that sponsor had to be at the “right” level in the organization in order to have sufficient power and influence to ensure the success of the project. Markham (2000) found that sponsorship (or corporate championing as he described it) was primarily a political activity, with sponsors protecting their projects from termination and providing them with resources.

Overall sponsorship appears to be a political activity, with sponsors using their power resolve conflicts of interest in relation to the project. Morgan’s (1996) list of the important sources of power in an organization contains much of what the private sector literature says about project sponsorship: formal authority, the control of scarce resources, control of the informal organization and the ability to deal with uncertainty are all aspects of the sponsor role and are means of exercising political power.

3.1.4 A Comparison of the Different Sponsorship Literatures

A comparison of the project management literature and the private sector literature revealed some significant differences. Using the categories already derived from my grounded theory synthesis, the two literatures are compared in Table 29.

There are four common themes and seven different ones. Both literatures recognized that project sponsorship is a leadership role with accountability for the project, that the project needed to be placed into a strategic context and that the sponsor provided resources for the project.

Private Sector Literature Themes	Project Management Literature Themes
Common Themes	
Leadership <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Of the project team 	Leadership <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Team motivation
Resource provision <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial, material and people 	Resource provision <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial, material and people
Accountability <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ownership of the project and its outcome 	Accountability <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • For project investment
Strategic Context <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensuring fit between the project and the organizations strategy 	Project Environment <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relate project to strategy and monitor fit
Different Themes	
Power <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both formal and informal 	Project Organization <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responsible for project organization and staffing
Risk bearing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personally carries the risk associated with the project and its outcome 	Project Control <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dispute resolution • Change approval • Scope and objective approval • Progress monitoring
Advocacy <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • For the project across the organization 	Project Representative <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To senior management • Marketing role
Protection <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Of the project from interference 	

Table 29: Theme Comparison: Private and Project Management Literatures

The project management literature then mainly focussed on the role of the sponsor in relation to the project and set out a number of activities that the sponsor should carry out. However, the private sector literature gives a much wider perspective on the nature of the role. It recognizes the powerful, risk bearing nature of the role as well as the sponsor's role as advocate and protector.

The project management literature is more focussed on the project as its area of interest and the sponsor sits only partially within the project. The private sector literature is more focussed on the managerial and organizational aspects of the role and as such recognizes some of its informal aspects, such as informal power, risk bearing and advocacy.

I carried out a similar analysis for the UK government literature (Office of Government Commerce, 2002a; Office of Government Commerce, 2002b; Office of Government Commerce, 2003e) on sponsorship . A comparison with the project management literature reveals a high degree of overlap with the project management literature and no disagreement on the themes:-

Public Sector Themes	Project Management Literature Themes
Common Themes	
Accountability <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ultimate ownership of the project and its outcome 	Accountability <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • For project investment
Resource provision <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial, material and people 	Resource provision <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial, material and people
Strategic Context <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensuring fit between the project and the organizations strategy 	Project Environment <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relate project to strategy and monitor fit
Leadership <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Of the project team 	Leadership <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Team motivation
Project Organization <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Development of project organization structure 	Project Organization <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responsible for project organization and staffing
Project Control <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organize meetings • Dispute resolution • Progress monitoring 	Project Control <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dispute resolution • Change approval • Scope and objective approval • Progress monitoring
Project Representative <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stakeholder management • Brief management 	Project Representative <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To senior management • Marketing role

Table 30: Common Themes: Public and Project Management Literatures

The table clearly demonstrates the extent of agreement between the two literatures. However, the public sector literature places a much greater emphasis on personal responsibility for the project and its outcomes: the senior responsible owner *‘must take personal responsibility for successfully delivery of the project’* (Office of Government Commerce, 2003e), *‘The Executive is ultimately responsible for the project’* (Office of Government Commerce, 2002b: 367) and *‘The Programme Director is ultimately accountable for the success of the programme..... and has personal accountability for realizing the benefits’* (Office of Government Commerce, 2002a: 20). This emphasis on individual accountability is part of a much wider movement, NPM, which I shall deal with later on.

These differences between the project management literature and the wider private sector literature reflect the much longer and more substantial research history in areas in the private sector where sponsorship has been part of several areas of research interest such as NPD, innovation, new venture management and various IS systems (EIS and MIS). Research has emphasised the roles played in successful projects across these contexts (Howell and Higgins, 1990). The high degree of overlap between the Government and project management literature is a result of the high degree of influence that project management has had on the government. Both the PRINCE2 (Office of Government Commerce, 2002b) and “Managing Successful Programmes” (Office of Government Commerce, 2002a) documents were heavily influenced by programme and project management practitioners.

3.1.5 Conclusions

Project sponsorship is a complex phenomenon. The literature on project sponsorship is highly fragmented, covering a wide range of areas. There is little direct literature on project sponsorship itself: project sponsorship can be seen as a part of the “coalition” that delivers a project (Kanter, 1988). Research has focussed more on the different contexts that use project management rather than on the role itself.

There is broad agreement across all the areas of literature on the activities that a project sponsor should carry out in relation to the project: ensuring fit between the project and the organization strategy (Archibald, 1992; Briner et al, 1996; Burbridge and Friedman, 1988; Chakrabarti and Hauschildt, 1989; Markham and Holahan, 1996; Office of Government Commerce, 2002a), protection and advocacy for the project (Angle and Van de Ven, 1989; Calish and Gamache, 1984; Pinto and Slevin, 1989; Roberts and Fusfeld, 1981; Witte, 1977; Brimm, 1988; Caldwell and Posner, 1998; Harrison, 1999; Maidique, 1980; Markham, 2002; Nevan Wright, 1997; Schon, 1963) and the provision of resources (Angle and Van de Ven, 1989; Chakrabarti and Hauschildt, 1989;

Damsgaard and Scheepers, 2000; Day, 1994; Maidique, 1980; Pinto and Slevin, 1989; Roberts and Fusfeld, 1981; Souder, 1987; Office of Government Commerce, 2002b).

The private sector literature is more concerned with the context of a project (NPD, R&D, EIS and others: see Table 11) and says more about the role as a result of this wider perspective. Project sponsorship is seen as a powerful leadership role (Angle and Van de Ven, 1989; Burbridge and Friedman, 1988; Day, 1994; Maidique, 1980; Schon, 1963; Souder, 1981; Souder, 1987; Witte, 1977), with the sponsor taking on ownership of the project as well as carrying a significant amount of risk (Fry, 1987; Schon, 1963; Angle and Van de Ven, 1989; Brimm, 1988; Maidique, 1980; Souder, 1981; Souder, 1987; Witte, 1977).

Sponsorship is also a political role (Markham, 2000), with sponsors using their power to resolve conflicts of interest in relation to their projects. Morgan's (1996) political metaphor has particular resonance with the descriptions in the literature of the political aspects. The organizational focus of the role (Chakrabarti and Hauschildt, 1989; Maidique, 1980) creates issues of control for the sponsor, by virtue of information and power asymmetries (Lawless and Price, 1992; Day, 1994) and their knowledge of the content of the project (Kirsch, 1996).

3.2 COMPETENCE

The concept of competence is used in variety of ways: *'sometimes as a synonym for performance, other times as a skill or personality trait'* (Bassellier, Reich and Benbasat, 2001: 162). Competence has its roots in academic literature in Taylor's "scientific management" (1911), where each element of work was rationally evaluated and the worker was selected and trained to carry out the work according to the scientific prescription. Competence in this sense was some function of the work and the worker, an enabler which should lead to better performance (Bassellier, Reich et al., 2001).

Competence, in the context of work, is defined by the Oxford English Dictionary in two ways: *'ability'* and *'an area in which a person is competent: a skill'* (Thompson, 1995: 270). This confusion between ability (something possessed by a person) and an area of work reflects the current split in the competence literature. Each however, maintains the rational tradition established by Taylor in the last century, albeit with different foci. They also reflect a trans-Atlantic split, with the UK adopting a work oriented approach and the USA a worker oriented approach (Finn, 1993). The literature found in the course of the systematic search can be found in Appendix O.

3.2.1 Work Oriented Approach

The dominant UK work oriented approach is embodied in the Management Charter Initiative (MCI), which aimed to derive a set of generic management standards, covering *'areas of activity which the majority of managers would be expected to perform competently'* (Miller, 1991: 11). MCI was aimed at addressing perceived deficiencies in the education and training of British managers (Day, 1988) and used functional analysis to define competence, a top down rational approach that broke down job functions into a series of elements, with outcome based performance criteria for each of the elements. Competence is defined *'as the ability to perform the activities within an occupation to the standards expected in employment'* (Iles, 2001: 150). The standards are

described in terms of performance criteria, range statements and elements of competence. Finn (1993) described this as an outcome model, with the emphasis on the managers ability to deliver prescribed outcomes in their job.

3.2.2 The Worker Oriented Approach

The US approach is based around the worker rather than the work. A job competency is defined as *'an underlying characteristic of a person in that it may be a motive, trait, skill, aspect of one's self image or social role, or a body of knowledge'* (Boyatzis, 1982: 21). The emphasis on these being attributes of the person rather than the job is clear. The definition however, is unclear as to what was being referred to. Woodruffe (1992) observed that this definition was used *'an umbrella term, covering almost anything that might directly or indirectly affect job performance'* (Woodruffe, 1992: 16) and had caused a great deal of confusion. He revised Boyatzis' definition to: *'A competency is the set of behaviour patterns that the incumbent needs to bring to a position in order to perform its tasks and functions with competence'* (Woodruffe, 1992: 17). Spencer and Spencer (1993) updated the definition again: *'A competency is an underlying characteristic of an individual that is causally related to a criterion referenced effective and/or superior performance in a job or situation'* (Spencer and Spencer, 1993: 9). The emphasis is again on the person, but links the characteristics of the person to an outcome against some specific criterion.

In these definitions, because job competencies are underlying personal characteristics, they can be seen as generic (Boyatzis, 1982). Spencer et al. (1993) make a similar claim. Woodruffe (1992) too suggests that there are generic management competencies. This context independent view implies that they appear in many different jobs or work activities. They are also process focussed, defining what personal and behavioural characteristics a person uses in their work (Finn, 1993).

3.2.3 Criticisms of Current Approaches

Both approaches have been heavily criticized for a variety of reasons. Iles (2001) suggests that competence is a conceptually ambiguous term. In the MCI model it refers to job related outcomes, in the Boyatzis and Spencer models individual actions or behaviours. This as Woodruffe (1992) stated, leads to confusion: if competence cannot be defined how can it be measured or training programmes defined to combat any deficiencies? It is not clear from the definitions whether competence refers to identifiable management skills, or to patterns of effective behaviour (Jubb and Robotham, 1997).

Both approaches adopt a generic approach to competence (Jubb and Robotham, 1997). They fail to recognize the context dependent nature of work at the individual, organizational and sectorial level (Iles, 2001; Burgoyne, 1989). Management is seen as a '*context independent*' activity (Jubb and Robotham, 1997: 173). Whilst there is some support in the literature for generic managerial competencies (Hamlin and Stewart, 1990), the level of abstraction needed to produce a generic list of management competences may be so high as to make the list meaningless in practice: '*the more universally true any given list of competencies is, the less useful it is in making any particular choice about how to act..... in a specific situation*' (Burgoyne, 1989: 58). There is also evidence in the literature that management development programmes based on generic management competencies have run into severe difficulties because of their lack of context specific content (Currie, 1998).

Another criticism is that such generic lists do not reflect the complexity of what managers do. Burgoyne observed that '*listings of separate competencies at best simply illuminate different facets of what at the end of the day is a complex whole*' (Burgoyne, 1989: 57). Sandberg goes further and describes the competence descriptions produced by these approaches as indirect: '*they do not illuminate what constitutes competence....Rather an identified set of attributes specifies central prerequisites for performing work competently*' (Sandberg, 2000: 11).

Existing competency models are also focussed on the past or at best the present: *'the research into competence conducted so far has examined what managers do now'* (Collin, 1989: 24). Current models do not deal well with *'the variability and the turbulence of the environment in which the organization operates'* (Capaldo and Volpe, 1996: 232). There is an assumption that what has been successful in the past will be so in the future. Morgan (1988) attempted to address this by developing a set of competencies that would allow change to happen given the uncertain nature of the future. Iles comments: *'the competencies identified are often described in very general terms, very remote from observable behaviour, making it difficult.....to discern how managers are expected to do these things well'* (Iles, 2001: 151). The current approaches are static in nature and fail to address the dynamic, creative nature of management and as such, *'its successful execution moves its boundary or frontier forward'* (Burgoyne, 1989: 59).

The current approaches are also "value free", focussing on the technical aspects of management and ignoring the moral, ethical and political aspects of managerial work (Burgoyne, 1989).

Both approaches also assume a causal relationship between the *'underlying characteristics, competency and managerial performance'* (Collin, 1989:23): indeed Spencer et al. (1993) make this assumption overt in their definition of competency. Boyatzis (1982) had to conclude that the relationships in his statistics were more associational than causal (Collin, 1989).

A further assumption is that managerial effectiveness can be measured (Jubb and Robotham, 1997). Given that management covers a wide range of activities, it is difficult to see how effectiveness could be measured: *'the notion of managerial effectiveness is as elusive as that of competence'* (Pye, 1988: 63).

Underlying both of the current approaches are a set of fundamental epistemological and ontological assumptions. Both adopt a '*scientific analytical method*' (Collin, 1989: 22) that forms part of the current dominant epistemology of Western society (Collin, 1989), a shared paradigm in which a rational, objective, reductionist approach to gaining knowledge plays a normative role (Kuhn, 1996). This perspective posits a world view that reality has an existence independent of the human mind: as a result the natural scientist is able to theorize in an abstract manner about phenomena experienced in the natural world. This model from the natural sciences has been applied to human competence, reducing it to the level of a set of knowledge, skills and attributes that can be measured. Experience or conceptions of work do not fit within this framework, because '*metaphysical notions about which it is not possible to make any observations have no legitimate existence*' (Blaikie, 1993: 14). This dualistic ontology, in which the person and the world are distinct, separates the work from the worker (Sandberg, 2000). The main criticisms of these approaches to competence are a result of this objective epistemology.

The criticisms of this approach to competence are more obvious given this epistemological position: the attributes produced are abstract, simplified and may not represent fully the complexity of competent work performance (Sandberg, 2000). As such they do not assist in defining what constitutes competent performance, but rather define competency. Indeed, they may reduce our understanding of competence by virtue of their abstract nature: '*traditional approaches generate scientific knowledge which creates a distance to the human practices investigated, rather than deepening our understanding of them*' (Dall'Alba and Sandberg, 1996: 42). Both methods assume that objective, technical measurement of competence is possible (Burgoyne, 1989; Robotham and Jubb, 1996) and that it is possible '*to reduce the whole to its constituent parts and that the whole is merely an aggregation of its parts*' (Collin, 1989: 23). Therefore the ability of current approaches to competence to improve our understanding of the concept is limited by the philosophical assumptions inherent in the current approaches.

3.2.4 Alternative Approaches to Competence

Collin (1989) has noted the need for research which *'grounds the concept of competence in concrete experience, recognizes the whole person and subjectivity, the context and the person/context interaction'* (Collin, 1989: 24). This suggests an interpretive approach, in which a person and the world are indivisible: the world is the person's lived experience of the world (Berger and Luckmann, 1966). The fundamental difference between this approach and the current approaches to competence is that in an interpretive epistemology social reality is the product of its inhabitants, and as such neither the inhabitants nor the social world can be separated (Blaikie, 1993). Thus the work and the worker are viewed as a single, indivisible entity: the person and the world are inextricably linked through lived experience, so *'the ways in which work is experienced constitutes the foundation of human competence'* (Dall'Alba and Sandberg, 1996: 421). Pye (1988) supports this idea, describing competence as a social construct, *'something "given" by other people in their evaluation of the actions of others in a particular situation at a particular time'* (Pye, 1988: 63). Holmes and Joyce (1993) describe competence as an inference made by an individual about the anticipated performance of another and judging that it will be in line with performance requirements.

This approach may well yield a more meaningful and less abstract understanding of competence. The logic behind this is clear: competence in accomplishing work is *'largely carried out in the practical consciousness'* (Giddens, 1997: xxiii), which consists of *'all the things which actors know tacitly about how to 'go on' in life without being able to give them direct discursive expression'* (Giddens, 1997: xxii). This concept covers tacitness as a **function** of knowledge, which by its very nature, *'cannot be reduced to, or completely captured in the form of propositions or rules'* (Dall'Alba and Sandberg, 1996: 419), and as such may be missed by the adoption of any of the traditional approaches to competence. This tacitness is part of knowing about lived experience, in that we do not have an explicit means of knowing about lived experience. This is Giddens's practical consciousness', and it is through this

that competence can be understood and developed (Dall'Alba and Sandberg, 1996).

3.2.5 Phenomenography: An Interpretive Approach

Phenomenography is a particular interpretive approach, originally developed in the field of education research in Sweden in the 1970s. Its primary focus is on the meaning structure of lived experience: *'the meaning an aspect of reality takes on for the people studied'* (Sandberg, 2000: 12). It is based on the findings of previous research: *'aspects of reality are experienced in a relatively limited number of qualitatively different ways'* (Marton, 1981: 181). The output takes the form of categories of description, based in the data: these are *'structurally significant differences that clarify how people define some specific portion of the world'* (Marton, 1986: 34).

Whilst similar to phenomenology (Marton, 1981), *'phenomenography was not derived from phenomenological philosophy'* (Uljens, 1996: 103). It was developed as an empirical approach and thus shares the same roots as phenomenology – the experienced world. However, unlike Husserl's view of phenomenology, where understanding of the true essence of the world can only be achieved through liberation from the social world (Blaikie, 1993), phenomenography adopts an ontological position more akin to Heidegger's. It is not possible to stand outside the social world: *'understanding of the world is embedded in the fabric of social relationships'* (Blaikie, 1993: 34).

Bernard, McCosker and Gerber (1999) set out the principal differences between phenomenography and phenomenology. Phenomenography deals with both pre-reflective and post reflection conceptions of experience (Marton, 1981), whereas phenomenology is directed more towards pre-reflective consciousness. Both also have different aims. Phenomenography also aims to describe the *'variation in understanding from a perspective that views ways of experiencing phenomena as closed but not finite'* (Bernard et al., 1999: 214):

phenomenology, on the other hand, has the goal of clarifying experience in the form of a single “essence” (Francis, 1996). Phenomenology also engages in the ‘*psychological reduction*’ of individual experience (Bernard, et al., 1999: 214), whereas phenomenography adopts a descriptive approach to collective experience.

A fundamental assumption of phenomenography is the intentionality of consciousness, that is that human consciousness is always directed toward something other than itself (Uljens, 1996). This is particularly the case in the context of work: Berger and Luckmann noted that ‘*In the world of working my consciousness is dominated by the pragmatic motive...my attention to this world is determined by what I am doing, have done or intend to do*’ (Berger and Luckmann, 1966: 36). So experience of work, with its directed nature, frames the way in which work is carried out in the interpretivist ontology.

3.2.6 Criticisms of Phenomenography

Phenomenography can be criticized on a number of grounds. Those heavily involved in its development and use regard it as ‘*a research approach in the early phases of its development*’ (Dall’Alba, 1996: 16). Phenomenography was not derived from any philosophical roots: it developed as an empirical approach to learning (Uljens, 1996) and as such lacked a conceptual basis (Richardson, 1999). Phenomenography has had to try to develop an epistemological foundation in response to critiques of phenomenographic studies (Ashworth and Lucas, 1998). The criticisms of phenomenography as an approach mainly stem from this lack of a clear philosophical foundation and the methodological problems that flow from that.

Phenomenography aims to investigate the “life-worlds” of individuals, with the intention of understanding their experience of a particular phenomenon. Phenomenologically based work has set out the methodological issues that need to be addressed in order to enter this “life-world” (Ashworth and Lucas,

1998). These principally revolve around the idea of “bracketing” – Husserl’s epoche. This is not a total suspension of belief and detachment from reality, but the need to drop all presuppositions, theories in order to reveal lived experience (Ashworth and Lucas, 1998). Based on Husserl, Ashworth and Lucas (1998) derive two areas where suspension is required in the conduct of phenomenographic research: first, “science” as a body of knowledge must be set aside to avoid distortion of the “life-world”. Second, *‘the researcher is debarred from querying the validity of the life world’* (Ashworth and Lucas, 1998: 418). What the individual says, the individual says: it is their world they are describing.

Ashworth and Lucas (1998) also noted 8 areas from phenomenological research practice where suspension was required: these include earlier research findings, the researchers own knowledge and beliefs and assumptions about prioritization or the ordering of experience. Each of these can “contaminate” the research process and thus raise questions over whether it truly reflects the “life-worlds” of the participants.

Richardson made the observation that whilst phenomenography attempted to describe peoples’ experience of phenomena, it depends on accounts of experience and therefore is *‘merely describing the world as people describe it’* (Richardson, 1999: 73). This is a more “realist” point of view, in that according to Bhaskar there is more to reality than that expressed in language (Blaikie, 1993).

These criticisms are primarily methodological in nature. As such, they are best primarily addressed in the fieldwork phase of any subsequent research and as such any response is outside the scope of this thesis.

3.2.7 Conclusions

Competence is a '*diffuse term*' (Jubb and Robotham, 1997: 171), eluding definition. Whilst the area of literature is well defined, it is split in two distinct ways. The work based approach attempts to derive competences, whereas the worker based approach attempts to derive competencies (Iles, 2001). Both assume some form of causal link between competence / competency and managerial effectiveness (Collin, 1989). They also regard competence as an '*attribute based phenomenon*' (Sandberg, 2001: 11) and adopt a rational, dualist ontology, which splits the worker from the work. The results are '*descriptions of work activities that are independent of the workers who accomplish them*' (Sandberg, 2001: 11).

These approaches represent one side of an epistemological and ontological divide. Interpretive approaches to competence have recently started to appear in the literature (Dall'Alba and Sandberg, 1996; Sandberg, 2000). Competence from this perspective is the meaning the work takes on for the worker (Dall'Alba and Sandberg, 1996).

Phenomenography is a particular interpretive approach, focussed on the meaning structure of lived experience (Sandberg, 2000). It has been criticized on methodological grounds (Ashworth and Lucas, 1998; Richardson, 1999), but these criticisms are mainly the result of its lack of philosophical roots.

Project sponsorship may not be amenable to traditional approaches to competence. It is a complex political role and as a political role it is context dependent. Any attempt to define competence using traditional approaches would at best produce a list of attributes of little practical use (Collin, 1989).

Phenomenography as an interpretive approach has the potential to yield a more meaningful understanding of competence. With its focus on the meaning structure of lived experience, '*it is the workers ways of conceiving work that*

make up, form and organize their knowledge and skills into distinctive competence in performing work' (Sandberg, 2000: 20).

3.3 ACCOUNTABILITY IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

3.3.1 Accountability and New Public Management

Accountability is *'an old and tricky subject'* (Barberis, 1998: 451), a *'cherished concept, sought after but elusive'* (Sinclair, 1995: 219). It is a complex concept with social, ethical, political, managerial and financial aspects (Day and Klein, 1987). It is closely related to but not the same as responsibility. Both involve an unequal relationship between 2 parties, the accountable and those to whom account is made. However accountability cannot exist unless responsibility can be defined as *'the duty to give account for one's actions to some other person or body'* (Scott, 2000: 40). This calling to account is common to the different definitions.

Political accountability is the holding to account of elected individuals by society for their actions. This concept is a *'defining characteristic of democracy...which distinguishes a democracy from an elective tyranny'* (Day and Klein, 1987: 6-7).

Managerial accountability is a different concept. It concerns holding those with delegated authority for some task answerable for their performance against some criteria (Day and Klein, 1987). According to Day and Klein (1987) managerial accountability has 3 principal dimensions: fiscal and legal accountability, a process or efficiency accountability and programme or effectiveness accountability. These are respectively rule based, process based and outcome based forms of accountability. It is only in recent times that managerial accountability has entered the UK central public sector.

Accountability in the UK central public sector has traditionally followed what is described as a neo-Diceyan doctrine (named after A. V. Dicey, a constitutional writer): that is that ministers are accountable to the people through Parliament for their departments and decisions and that civil servants

are accountable solely to their ministers (Barberis, 1998). Barberis (1998) has also observed that recent events such as Sir Richard Scott's inquiry into the sale of arms to Iraq have legitimized a change to this position: the argument is that if ministers seek to deny responsibility through lack of knowledge of actions within their departments, then information should be made available to establish on whom responsibility should be placed. This has changed the traditional perspective on civil service accountability.

At the same time, there has been a wider change in the public sector, a phenomenon called the New Public Management (NPM). NPM can be seen as the adoption of a more "business-like" approach by the public sector, a move from administration to a particular perception of management (Dunleavy and Hood, 1994). It has amongst its principal ideas a '*greater emphasis on "controlled delegation"; value for money within specified cash limits; a stronger consumer or customer orientation; the formulation of business plans and agency agreements enshrined in formal contracts*' (Barberis, 1998: 453-4). This has involved a number of shifts in emphasis: from policy making to management, from process to output and from rules to discretion (Hood, 1995). As Parker and Gould note, '*NPM has thereby wrought a sea change in public sector mentality*' (Parker and Gould, 1999: 111).

The impact of NPM on accountability is dealt with by Hood (1995): the traditional paramount stress placed on policy skills and rules has been replaced by "hands-on" management, as '*accountability requires the clear assignment of responsibility not the diffusion of power*' (Hood, 1995: 96). This change in accountability has come from the change from collective responsibility to ministers to the "controlled delegation" of authority (Barberis, 1998).

There are two distinct themes within the accountability literature which follow the lines of two distinct forms of government: accountability as a process at the individual level, which is a theme in the UK and Australian literatures with their Westminster model of government (Mulgan, 1997); and accountability as a

function of the structures involved in organizational decisions, which follows the US federal model of government (Cunningham and Harris, 2001; Deleon, 1998)

3.3.2 Accountability: A Process Perspective

The Australian and UK literatures both use a process perspective to describe accountability. Their common root is the particular form of government, the “Westminster” model (Mulgan, 1997). Hood (1995) noted a further common element: both countries can be regarded as having adopted “high” levels of NPM when compared to other nations such as France or Germany.

In the UK, Gray and Jenkins (1986) observed that the main thrust of the Financial Management Initiative (FMI) of the early 1980s was to hold managers accountable to targets that were almost exclusively defined in input terms – expenditure. FMI appeared to be a *‘financial restraint mechanism rather than a programme of strategic management’* (Gray and Jenkins, 1986: 184). This shifted the emphasis within the Civil Service from the management of policy to the management of resources (Gray, Jenkins, Flynn and Rutherford, 1991). This can be seen as a subset of Day and Klein’s’ (1987) definition of managerial accountability, where the financial aspects are only part of the wider definition. However, as Humphrey, Miller and Scapens noted: *‘accountable management has often meant management accounting’* (Humphrey, Miller and Scapens, 1993: 19).

Wilson and Doig (1996) reflected the Day and Klein’s (1987) definition of managerial accountability with their analysis of the culture NPM which identified 4 shifts in accountability: delegation of budgets, devolution of decision making, functional decentralization and disaggregation. NPM has intentionally shifted both managerial and financial accountability further down the organization in hierarchical terms. But the principal focus had remained on managerial accountability for the inputs to public sector work.

This emphasis has been revised after the election of the Labour government in 1997, with its emphasis on the delivery of policy: *'Improving public services is the Government's top priority. Achieving this requires clear leadership from the top and better delivery on the ground.'* (Office of Public Services Reform, 2003b: 3): *'Delivery is high on the agenda across Whitehall'* (Office of Public Services Reform, 2003e): *'The Civil Service should be...respected as much for its capability to deliver as for its policy skills'* (Office of Government Commerce, 2003c). In Australia *'public servants face extended fields of accountability, beyond compliance... to issues of performance and effectiveness'* (Sinclair, 1995: 219). The emphasis is now on delivery, the achievement of results in line with policy requirements. It is not clear from the literature whether this is at the expense of the previous emphasis on input accountability.

Both reflect a process perspective: inputs (normally financial) and outputs (which can be financial, but necessarily so) are the key measures for which Civil Servants are held to account. This is not an imaginary responsibility: Barberis (1998) described two cases where the Chief Executives of government agencies were sacked after well publicised operational errors.

Barberis (1998) suggested that NPM has highlighted the problems of accountability in a modern complex society rather than created them. There are however, alternative views on this. The "hollowing out of the state" and the loss of state functions to agencies and private companies has made accountability far more complex (Rhodes, 1994). *'The central problem of accountability arises from the delegation of authority to a wide range of public and some private actors, through legislation, contracts or other mechanisms'* (Scott, 2000: 39). Mulgan (1997) found that contracting out resulted in a reduction of government accountability through the loss of day to day control by ministers and reduced levels of citizen redress through statutory or regulatory schemes. In short *'contracting out replaces the accountability rights of citizenship with the expectations of consumer responsiveness found in consumer markets'* (Mulgan, 1997). This is despite the lower levels of accountability in the private sector: *'the*

structures of accountability are more stringent in the public than the private sector' (Mulgan, 2000: 94).

Both Scott (2000) and Barberis (1998) suggest that new forms of accountability are needed, based around the idea of different accountabilities to different people for different purposes. The accountability for poor service by a social security agency to an individual would be a different compared from the accountability for poor organizational performance by a government procurement agency to a minister of state. Barberis (1998) describes this as a "multicentric" form of accountability.

This would appear to be developing in practice. Research on chief executives of Australian public sector organizations found that accountability *'is socially constructed and changes with context'* (Sinclair, 1995: 219). The CEOs were *'called to account in different ways and from different quarters'* and adopted a *'repertoire of forms and discourses'* (Sinclair, 1995: 234) to deal with this. The research suggested that different forms of accountability required different responses and the adoption of a different process.

In short, both the UK and Australian literatures take a process perspective on accountability: they both seek the answer to Scott's (2000) 3 questions on accountability: "Who is accountable?"; "To whom?"; "For what?". Sinclair's (1995) research on CEOs in the Australian public sector suggests that a "multicentric" accountability (Barberis, 1998) is being constructed in the face of demands for accountability from different quarters.

3.3.3 Accountability: An Organizational Perspective

The American literature on accountability is much smaller and adopts an organizational theory perspective on accountability. This organizational perspective is reflected in Romzek and Dubnick's (1987) definition of accountability: *'public administration accountability involves the means by which*

public agencies and their workers manage the diverse expectations generated within and outside the organization' (Romzek and Dubnick, 1987: 228). In their analysis of the Challenger disaster they developed a typology of accountability based on the source of control and the degree of control (see Figure 31 below):-

	Source of Control	
Degree of Control	Internal	External
High	Bureaucratic	Legal
Low	Professional	Political

Table 31: Typology of Accountability

Bureaucratic accountability is a “top down” form of control based on the organized legitimate relationship between a superior and subordinate. Legal accountability is based on the relationships between the organization and an external source of power that can use sanctions in the pursuit of its aims. Professional accountability places control over organizational activities in the hands of those with expertise. This differs from bureaucratic situation: the relationship here is one of deference by a hierarchical superior to an expert. Political accountability is based on responsiveness to the constituent interests, which can be diverse.

Romzek and Dubnick (1987) suggest that NASA’s reliance on bureaucratic accountability rather than professional accountability was at least partially to blame for the Challenger disaster.

DeLeon (1998) modified Romzek and Dubnick’s (1987) typology to examine accountability in different control / means combinations using Thompson and Tuden's (1959) organizational decision typology based around agreement on decision outcomes and agreement about causation. This is set out in Table 32 (overleaf):-

	Goals (Preferences regarding outcomes)	
Means (Knowledge of cause / effect relations)	Clear	Ambiguous
Certain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Computational strategy • Bureaucratic structure • Bureaucratic accountability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bargaining strategy • Representative structure • Political accountability
Uncertain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Judgemental strategy • Collegial structure • Professional accountability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inspirational decision strategy • Network structure • Anarchic accountability

Table 32: Processes of decision: strategies, structures and accountabilities (Thompson and Tuden, 1959; Deleon, 1998)

Whilst traditional public administration has focussed mainly on bureaucratic accountability, it is rare that both of the conditions for outcome and process are clear. The result is that *'opportunities for administration discretion open up when goals are ambiguous or unclear and when means are uncertain'* (Deleon, 1998: 547).

Where goals are clear but means are not, Deleon (1998) suggests that professional accountability systems are the most appropriate. Professionals take risky decisions about matters of importance based on their judgement and experience, which occasionally end in failure. However, society has a compact with the profession: *'the professional is held free from retribution unless malpractice can be proved and the profession itself is delegated the right to decide what constitutes malpractice'* (Deleon, 1998: 549).

Where both means and goals are unclear, the result is “anarchic” accountability. This requires ‘*incorporating clients and constituents, competitors and overseers, suppliers and interested citizens into the decision processes of ...programme administration, blurring the boundary between the organization and its environment*’ (Deleon, 1998: 552). The conclusion is that different accountability mechanisms are appropriate depending on different organization structures and problems.

Cunningham and Harris (2001) suggested a typology for government subunits based on the nature of their work (production, procedural, craft and coping), the degree of control over the control system feature (input control, results control, action control and personnel control) and whether their outputs or outcomes were measurable.

All units had a high reliance on input controls. Production units had measurable outcomes and outputs, as well as a high reliance on results control. Procedural units had measurable outputs, but not outcomes and a high reliance on action control. Craft units had measurable outcomes but not outputs, a high reliance on results and personnel control. Coping units has neither measurable outcomes nor outputs, but a high degree on personnel control. Again the conclusion is that the form of accountability depended on the nature of the work of the organizational sub-unit.

3.3.4 Conclusions

Accountability in the public sector is a ‘*cherished concept, sought after but elusive*’ (Sinclair, 1995: 219). The traditional singular lines of accountability in the UK, Australia and the USA are being challenged (Deleon, 1998; Barberis, 1998) as a result of political scandals (Barberis, 1998) and the “hollowing out of the state” (Rhodes, 1994; Massey, 1995) with its reliance on contracting out and regulation (Scott, 2000). These changes have weakened traditional lines of accountability (Mulgan, 1997).

New context-dependent forms of accountability are being constructed (Sinclair, 1995) by individuals even if the legal and political frameworks have not yet been developed (Scott, 2000; Barberis, 1998).

NPM has introduced a particular perception of business management methods into the public sector (Hood, 1995; Dunleavy and Hood, 1994). From an institutional perspective this can be seen as mimetic isomorphism (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983) with the commercialization or privatisation of public sector organizations an attempt to emulate private sector models of organization, process efficiency and cost effectiveness (Parker and Gould, 1999).

It has also brought with it a perceived understanding of private sector managerial accountability (Mulgan, 2000), with public sector managers now being held accountable for inputs, outputs and in some cases outcomes (Office of Government Commerce, 2002b; Office of Government Commerce, 2002a; Office of Government Commerce, 2003e).

This can be seen as a response to the perceived inadequacies of traditional public sector administration (Behn, 1998) and the difficulties of policy implementation (Van Meter and Van Horn, 1975). It seeks to empower civil servants as instruments of policy rather than as instruments of bureaucracy, thus closing the traditional disconnect between policy and implementation (Behn, 1998). Accountability is no longer for the application of rules and following process, but for the judgements and decisions made in implementing policy.

4.0 PROJECT SPONSORSHIP IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR: THE STATE OF KNOWLEDGE

Project sponsorship is a role common to many different project management contexts such as NPD, R&D, EIS, Innovation and Change. It is a complex role, spanning the boundary between the project and the organization (Briner et al., 1996; Witte, 1977) and involves activities that directly relate to the project and attributes that are prerequisites for the performance of the role.

Apart from two papers, the role has not been the subject of direct research. The knowledge base is therefore highly fragmented and scattered across a diverse range of literature. Research has taken place on the wider context of the roles involved in NPD, Innovation and other fields. The practitioner material is oriented towards the activities that project sponsorship needs to carry out in relation to the project. This set of literature represents only a limited picture of the role: the wider organizational aspects have not been explored. However, both Kirsch (1996) and Lawless and Price (1992) have shed some light on the role. There is not, however, a substantial body of academic literature about the role. It is fair to say then, that what constitutes competence in the role has not been covered by the literature.

Competence is a more tightly bounded field of literature, but competence is a *'conceptually ambiguous term.....sometimes it seems to refer to behaviours or actions, sometimes to the abilities or characteristics underlying behaviour and sometimes to the outcomes or results of actions'* (Iles, 2001: 150). There are also significant epistemological and ontological issues: current approaches adopt a rational, dualist ontology (Sandberg, 2000) which cannot illuminate the full complexity of managerial behaviour (Collin, 1989). Project sponsorship as a complex role may not be amenable to traditional approaches as *'traditional approaches generate scientific knowledge which creates a distance to the human practices investigated, rather than deepening our understanding of them'* (Dall'Alba and Sandberg, 1996: 42).

Interpretive approaches such as phenomenography have the potential to address these criticisms by taking a social constructionist perspective, so *'the ways in which work is experienced constitutes the foundation of human competence'* (Dall'Alba and Sandberg, 1996: 421). Previous research using a phenomenographic approach to competence has addressed less complex roles such as engine optimizers (Sandberg, 2000). Research that addressed a more complex phenomenon such as project sponsorship could make a contribution to the phenomenographic literature.

Accountability is fundamental to an understanding of the project sponsorship role in the public sector. It is a well-defined field of literature, but it is a *'chameleon'* concept (Sinclair, 1995: 219), changing as the public sector is reshaped through "hollowing out" (Rhodes, 1994; Massey, 1995) and in response to political scandals (Barberis, 1998). There are also two distinct perspectives, a process perspective where accountability is for inputs, outputs or process (Barberis, 1998; Gray and Jenkins, 1986) and an organizational perspective, where accountability is a function of the degree of clarity over means and goals (Deleon, 1998; Cunningham and Harris, 2001). Traditionally researched from a legal and constitutional perspective (Scott, 2000), only recently has interpretive research started to appear (Sinclair, 1995). There is little direct research on accountability in practice other than Sinclair's 1995 paper, except as a post-hoc response to political scandals (Barberis, 1998). The literature remains by and large theoretical. Research that looked at accountability in the public sector in practice would appear to fill a substantive gap.

There are then research gaps in each area, but the greatest contribution can be made in the field of project sponsorship, where the research is fragmented and spread across many areas. To establish what constitutes competence in the role of project sponsor in the UK public sector has the potential to make contributions to all 3 areas.

Reference List

1. Academy of Management (2003), *Guidelines for Reviewers (2002-2004)*, available at: http://aom.pace.edu/amjnew/reviewer_guidelines.html (accessed 26/8/03).
2. Akkermans, H. and van Helden, K. (2002), 'Vicious And Virtuous Cycles In ERP Implementation: A Case Study Of Interrelations Between Critical Success Factors', *European Journal of Information Systems*, Vol. 11, No. 1, March, pp. 35-46.
3. Altinay, L. and Roper, A. (2001), 'The Role and Importance of Development Directors in Initiating and Implementing Development Strategy', *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 13, No. 7, pp. 339-346.
4. Angle, H.L. and Van de Ven, A.H. (1989), 'Suggestions for Managing The Innovation Journey', in Angle, H.L., Van de Ven, A.H. and Poole, M.S. (Editors), *Research on The Management of Innovation*, Harper and Rowe, UK, pp. 663-667.
5. Archibald, R.D. (1992), *Managing High-Technology Programs and Projects* (2nd edition), John Wiley and Sons Inc., USA, New York.
6. Ashworth, P. and Lucas, U. (1998), 'What Is the "World" of Phenomenography?', *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 42, No. 4, December, pp. 415-431.
7. Baker, B. (1991), 'MCI Management Competences and APL', *Journal of European Industrial Training*, Vol. 15, No. 9, pp. 17-26.
8. Barberis, P. (1998), 'The New Public Management and a New Accountability', *Public Administration*, Vol. 76, No. 3, Autumn, pp. 451-470.
9. Bartlett, D. and Dibben, P. (2002), 'Public Sector Innovation and Entrepreneurship: Case Studies from Local Government', *Local Government Studies*, Vol. 28, No. 4, Winter, pp. 107-121.
10. Bassellier, G., Reich, B.H. and Benbasat, I. (2001), 'Information Technology Competence of Business Managers: a Definition and Research Model', *Journal of Management Information Systems*, Vol. 17, No. 4, Spring, pp. 159-182.
11. Bawdry, M.K. (1988), 'What We've Learned: Managing Human Resources', *Research Technology Management*, Vol. 31, No. 5, pp. 19-35.
12. Beatty, C. (1992), 'Implementing Advanced Manufacturing Technologies: Rules of the Road', *Sloan Management Review*, Vol. 33, No. 4, Summer,

pp. 49-60.

13. Behn, R.D. (1998), 'The New Public Management Paradigm and the Search for Democratic Accountability', *International Public Management Journal*, Vol. 1, No. 2, pp. 131-164.
14. Berger, P. and Luckmann, T. (1966), *The Social Construction of Reality*, Penguin, UK.
15. Bernard, A., McCosker, H. and Gerber, R. (1999), 'Phenomenography: a Qualitative Research Approach for Exploring Understanding in Health Care', *Qualitative Health Research*, Vol. 9, No. 2, March, pp. 212-226.
16. Birchall, D., Tan, J. and Gay, K. (1996), 'Competences for International Management', *Singapore Management Review*, Vol. 18, No. 1, January, pp. 1-13.
17. Blackburn, S. (2002), 'The Project Manager and the Project-Network', *International Journal of Project Management*, Vol. 20, pp. 199-204.
18. Blaikie, N. (1993), *Approaches to Social Enquiry*, Polity Press, UK.
19. Box, R. (1999), 'Running Government Like a Business: Implications for Public Administration Theory and Practice', *American Review of Public Administration*, Vol. 29, No. 1, March, pp. 19-43.
20. Boyatzis, R.E. (1982), *The Competent Manager: A Model for Effective Performance*, Wiley- Interscience, USA.
21. Brimm, I.M. (1988), 'Risky Business: Why Sponsoring Innovations May Be Hazardous To Career Health', *Organizational Dynamics*, Vol. 16, No. 3, Winter, pp. 28-41.
22. Briner, W., Hastings, C. and Geddes, M. (1996), *Project Leadership* (2nd edition), Gower, UK.
23. Brown, J.S. and Duguid, P. (1991), 'Organizational Learning and Communities-Of-Practice: Towards a Unified View of Working, Learning and Innovation', *Organization Science*, Vol. 2, No. 1, February , pp. 40-57.
24. Brown, R. (1993), 'Meta-Competence: A Recipe for Reframing the Competence Debate', *Personnel Review*, Vol. 22, No. 6, pp. 25-36.
25. Burbridge, J.J. and Friedman, W.H. (1988), 'The Roles of User and Sponsor in MIS Projects', *Project Management Journal*, Vol. 19, No. 2, April, pp. 71-76.
26. Burgelman, R.A. (1983), 'A Process Model of Internal Corporate Venturing in the Diversified Major Firm', *Administrative Science*

- Quarterly*, Vol. 28, No. 2, June, pp. 223-244.
27. Burgoyne, J. (1989), 'Creating the Managerial Portfolio: Building on Competency Approaches to Management Development', *Management Education and Development*, Vol. 20, No. 1, pp. 56-61.
 28. Burgoyne, J. (1993), 'The Competence Movement: Issues, Stakeholders and Prospects', *Personnel Review*, Vol. 22, No. 6, pp. 6-13.
 29. Caldwell, D.F. and Posner, B.Z. (1998), 'Project Leadership', in Pinto, J.K. (Editor), *The Project Management Institute Project Management Handbook*, Jossey-Bass Publishers, USA, pp. 300-311.
 30. Calish, I.G. and Gamache, R.D. (1984), 'Wizards and Champions: The Kingdom of New Venture Management', *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, Vol. 1, No. 4, December, pp. 238-241.
 31. Canning, R. (1990), 'The Quest for Competence', *Industrial and Commercial Training*, Vol. 22, No. 5, pp. 12-16.
 32. Cannon, F. (1995), 'Business-Driven Management Development: Developing Competences Which Drive Business Performance', *Journal of European Industrial Training*, Vol. 19, No. 2, pp. 26-31.
 33. Capaldo, G. and Volpe, A. (1996), 'Management of Capabilities and Situations in R&D Centres: The Matrix of Competences', *R & D Management*, Vol. 26, No. 3, July, pp. 231-239.
 34. Carr, H.H. and Hogue, J.T. (1989), 'It Takes A Champion', *Journal of Systems Management*, Vol. 40, No. 8, August, pp. 15-17.
 35. Chakrabarti, A.K. (1974), 'The Role of Champion in Product Innovation', *California Management Review*, Vol. 17, No. 2, Winter, pp. 58-62.
 36. Chakrabarti, A.K. and Hauschildt, J. (1989), 'The Division of Labour in Innovation Management', *R&D Management*, Vol. 19, No. 2, pp. 161-171.
 37. Chang, S.H. (1994), *The Development of Quality Executive Information Systems for Health Care: A Benchmark Approach* (unpublished Ph.D. thesis), University of Bradford, Bradford.
 38. Chapman, A. (1998), 'Problems of Ethics in Public Sector Management', *Public Money and Management*, Vol. 18, No. 1, Jan-Mar, pp. 9-13.
 39. Cigler, B. (1990), 'Public Administration and the Paradox of Professionalization', *Public Administration Review*, Vol. 50, No. 6, November/December, pp. 637-653.
 40. Clark, K.B., Chew, W.B. and Fujimoto, T. (1987), 'Product Development

- in the World Auto Industry', *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity*, Vol. 3, pp. 729-781.
41. Clark, K.B. and Wheelwright, S.C. (1992), 'Organizing and Leading 'Heavyweight' Development Teams', *California Management Review*, Vol. 34, No. 3, Spring, pp. 9-28.
 42. Cockerill, T., Hunt, J. and Schroder, H. (1995), 'Managerial Competencies: Fact or Fiction?', *Business Strategy Review*, Vol. 6, No. 3, Autumn, pp. 1-12.
 43. Collin, A. (1989), 'Managers' Competence: Rhetoric, Reality and Research', *Personnel Review*, Vol. 18, No. 6, pp. 20-25.
 44. Corrigan, P. and Joyce, P. (1997), 'Reconstructing Public Management a New Responsibility for the Public and a Case Study of Local Government.', *The International Journal of Public Sector Management*, Vol. 10, No. 6, pp. 417-432.
 45. Cunningham, G.M. and Harris, J.E. (2001), 'A Heuristic Framework for Accountability of Governmental Subunits', *Public Management Review*, Vol. 3, No. 2, June, pp. 145-165.
 46. Currie, G. (1998), 'Stakeholders Views of Management Development as a Cultural Change Process in the Health Service', *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, Vol. 11, No. 1, pp. 7-26.
 47. Currie, G. and Darby, R. (1995), 'Competence-Based Management Development: Rhetoric and Reality', *Journal of European Industrial Training*, Vol. 19, No. 5, pp. 11-18.
 48. Curtis, M.B. (1994), 'The Accountant's Contribution to Executive Information Systems', *Journal of End User Computing*, Vol. 6, No. 3, Summer, pp. 3-10.
 49. Dall'Alba, G. (1996), 'Reflections on Phenomenography - An Introduction', in Dall'Alba, G. and Hasselgren, B. (Editors), *Reflections on Phenomenography*, Acta Universitatis Gothenburgensis, Europe, pp. 7-17.
 50. Dall'Alba, G. and Sandberg, J. (1996), ' Educating for Competence in Professional Practice', *Instructional Science*, Vol. 24, pp. 411-437.
 51. Damsgaard, J. and Scheepers, R. (2000), 'Managing the Crises of Intranet Implementation: a Stage Model', *Information Systems Journal*, Vol. 10, No. 2, April, pp. 131-149.
 52. Day, D. (1994), 'Raising Radicals - Different Processes for Championing Innovative Corporate Ventures', *Organization Science*, Vol. 5, No. 2, May, pp. 148-172.

53. Day, M. (1988), 'Managerial Competence and the Charter Initiative', *Personnel Management*, Vol. 24, No. 11, August, pp. 30-34.
54. Day, P. and Klein, R. (1987), *Accountabilities: Five Public Services*, Tavistock Publications, UK, London.
55. Dean, J.W. (1987), *Deciding to Innovate*, Ballinger Publishing Company, USA.
56. Deleon, L. (1998), 'Accountability in a 'Reinvented' Government', *Public Administration*, Vol. 76, No. 3, Autumn, pp. 539-558.
57. Dempsey, C. (1983-1984), 'Public Management Trends: Managerial Accountability and Responsibility', *The Bureaucrat*, Vol. 12, No. 4, Winter, pp. 17-23.
58. DiMaggio, P.J. and Powell, W.P. (1983), 'The Iron Cage Revisited: Institutional Isomorphism and Collective Rationality in Organizational Fields', *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 48, No. 2, April, pp. 147-160.
59. Dorado, S. and Vaz, P. (2003), 'Conveners as Champions of Collaboration in the Public Sector: a Case from South Africa', *Public Administration and Development*, Vol. 23, No. 2, pp. 141-150.
60. Duffin, M. (1992), 'Pain and Change', *Managing Service Quality*, Vol. 2, No. 4, May, pp. 227-229.
61. Dunleavy, P. and Hood, C. (1994), 'From Old Public Administration to New Public Management', *Public Money and Management*, Vol. 14, No. 3, July-Sept, pp. 9-16.
62. Ferlie, E., Ashburner, L., Fitzgerald, L. and Pettigrew, A. (1996), *The New Public Management in Action*, Oxford University Press, UK.
63. Finn, R. (1993), *A Synthesis of Current Research on Management Competencies*, Report no. HWP 10/93, The Henley Management College, UK,
64. Francis, H. (1996), 'Advancing Phenomenography - Questions of Method', in Dall'Alba, G. and Hasselgren, B. (Editors), *Reflections on Phenomenography*, Acta Universitatis Gothenburgensis, Europe, pp. 35-47.
65. Frey, D. (1991), 'Learning the Ropes: My Life as a Product Champion', *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 69, No. 5, September-October, pp. 46-56.
66. Frost, P.J. and Egri, C.P. (1991), 'Influence of Political Action on Innovation', *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 11, No. 2, pp. 4-12.

67. Fry, A. (1987), 'The Post-It Note: An Intrapreneurial Success', *S.A.M. Advanced Management Journal*, Vol. 52, No. 3, Summer, pp. 4-9.
68. Giddens, A. (1997), *The Constitution of Society*, Polity Press, UK.
69. Gioia, J. (1996), 'Twelve Reasons Why Programs Fail', *PM Network*, Vol. 10, No. 11, November, pp. 16-19.
70. Giorgi, A. (1999), 'A Phenomenological Perspective on Some Phenomenographic Results on Learning', *Journal of Phenomenological Psychology*, Vol. 30, No. 2, Fall, pp. 68-93.
71. Glaser, B. and Strauss, A. (1966), *The Discovery of Grounded Theory*, Aldine de Gruyter, USA.
72. Glover, H., Watson, H.J. and Rainer, R.K. (1992), '20 Ways to Waste an EIS Investment', *Information Strategy*, Vol. 8, No. 2, Winter, pp. 11-17.
73. Gossain, S. (2002), 'Cracking the Collaboration Code', *The Journal of Business Strategy*, Vol. 23, No. 6, November/December, pp. 20-25.
74. Gray, A., Jenkins, B., Flynn, A. and Rutherford, B. (1991), 'The Management of Change in Whitehall: The Experience of the FMI', *Public Administration*, Vol. 69, Spring, pp. 41-59.
75. Gray, A. and Jenkins, W.L. (1986), 'Accountable Management in British Central Government: Some Reflections on the Financial Management Initiative', *Financial Accountability and Management*, Vol. 2, No. 3, Autumn, pp. 171-186.
76. Hall, M. and Holt, R. (2002), 'UK Public Sector Project Management - A Cultural Perspective', *Public Performance and Management Review*, Vol. 25, No. 3, March, pp. 298-312.
77. Hamlin, B. and Stewart, J. (1990), 'Approaches to Management Development in the UK', *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 11, No. 5, pp. 27-32.
78. Harpham, A. (2000), 'Political, Economic, Social and Technical Influences - PEST', in Turner, J.R. and Simister, S.J. (Editors), *Gower Handbook of Project Management*, Gower Publishing Limited, UK, Aldershot, pp. 165-183.
79. Harrison, D. (1999), 'Are You Ready To Be A Change Sponsor? ', *Industrial Management*, Vol. 41, No. 4, July-August, pp. 6-9.
80. Harrison, M.R. (1986), 'Advanced Manufacturing Technology and Management Development', *International Journal of Operations and Production Management*, Vol. 6, No. 4, pp. 61-73.

81. Hart, C. (1998), *Doing a Literature Review: Releasing the Social Science Imagination*, Sage Publications, UK.
82. Hartman, F. and Ashrafi, R.A. (2002), 'Project Management in the Information Systems and Information Technologies Industries', *Project Management Journal*, Vol. 33, No. 3, September, pp. 5-15.
83. Holmes, L. and Joyce, P. (1993), 'Rescuing the Useful Concept of Managerial Competence: From Outcomes Back to Process', *Personnel Review*, Vol. 22, No. 6, pp. 37-52.
84. Holt, R. and Rowe, D. (2000), 'Total Quality, Public Management and Critical Leadership in Civil Construction Projects', *International Journal of Quality and Reliability Management*, Vol. 17, No. 4/5, pp. 541-553.
85. Hood, C. (1995), 'The New Public Management in the 1980s - Variations on a Theme', *Accounting Organizations and Society*, Vol. 20, No. 2-3, February-April, pp. 93-109.
86. Horwitch M. and Prahalad, C.K. (1981), 'Managing Multi-Organization Enterprises: The Emerging Strategic Frontier', *Sloan Management Review*, Vol. 22, No. 2, Winter, pp. 3-16.
87. Houdshel, G. and Watson, H. (1987), 'The Management Information and Decision Support System (MIDS) at Lockheed-Georgia', *MIS Quarterly*, Vol. 11, No. 1, March, pp. 126-140.
88. Houlden, B. (1979), 'Some Aspects of Managing O.R. Projects', *The Journal of the Operational Research Society*, Vol. 30, No. 8, August, pp. 681-690.
89. Howell, J. and Higgins, C.A. (1990), 'Champions of Technological Innovation', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 35, No. 2, June, pp. 317-341.
90. Howell, J. and Shea, C. (2001), 'Individual Differences, Environmental Scanning, Innovation Framing, and Champion Behaviour: Key Predictors Of Performance', *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, Vol. 18, No. 1, January, pp. 15-27.
91. Humphrey, C., Miller, P. and Scapens, R. (1993), 'Accountability and Accountable Management in the UK Public Sector', *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, Vol. 6, No. 3, pp. 7-29.
92. Iles, P. (1993), 'Achieving Strategic Coherence In HRD Through Competence-Based Management', *Personnel Review*, Vol. 22, No. 6, pp. 63-80.
93. Iles, P. (2001), 'Employee Resourcing', in Storey, J. (Editor), *Human Resource Management: A Critical Text*, Thomson Learning, UK,

94. International Journal of Project Management (2003), *Guide for Authors*, available at:
www.authors.elsevier.com/GuideForAuthors.html?PubID=30435
 (accessed 28/8/2003).
95. Jacobs, R. (1989), 'Getting the Measure of Management Competence', *Personnel Management*, June, pp. 32-37.
96. Jang, Y. and Lee, J. (1998), 'Factors Influencing the Success of Management Consulting Projects', *International Journal of Project Management*, Vol. 16, No. 2, April, pp. 67-72.
97. Jones, N. and Connolly, M. (2001), 'The Competent Primary Headteacher: Broadening the Management Competence Approach or Abandoning It? ', *Public Money & Management*, Vol. 21, No. 2, April-June, pp. 53-60.
98. Jubb, R. and Robotham, D. (1997), 'Competences in Management Development: Challenging the Myths', *Journal of European Industrial Training*, Vol. 21, No. 4/5, pp. 171-175.
99. Kanter, R.M. (1983), *The Change Masters*, Unwin Paperbacks, USA.
100. Kanter, R.M. (1988), 'When a Thousand Flowers Bloom: Structural, Collective and Social Conditions For Innovation In Organizations', in Staw, B. and Cummings, L.L. (Editors), *Research in Organizational Behavior*, JAI Press, pp. 169-211.
101. Kanungo, R.B. and Misra, S. (1992), 'Managerial Resourcefulness: A Reconceptualization of Management Skills', *Human Relations*, Vol. 45, No. 12, December, pp. 1311-1332.
102. Kerzner, H. (1987), 'In Search of Excellence in Project Management', *Journal of Systems Management*, Vol. 38, No. 2, February, pp. 30-40.
103. Kerzner, H. (1995), *Project Management: A Systems Approach to Planning, Scheduling and Controlling* (5th edition), Van Nostrand Reinhold, UK.
104. Kiely, T. (1995), 'Why Reengineering Projects Fail', *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 73, No. 2, March / April, pp. 15.
105. Kim, Y., Min, B. and Cha, J. (1999), 'The Roles Of R&D Team Leaders In Korea: A Contingent Approach', *R & D Management*, Vol. 29, No. 2, pp. 153-165.
106. Kirsch, L.J. (1996), 'The Management Of Complex Tasks In Organizations: Controlling The Systems Development Process', *Organization Science*, Vol. 7, No. 1, January/February, pp. 1-21.

107. Klein, M.M. (1994), 'The Most Fatal Reengineering Mistakes ', *Information Strategy*, Vol. 10, No. 4, Summer, pp. 21-28.
108. Klein, M.M. (1995), 'Requirements for Successful Reengineering', *INFOR*, Vol. 33, No. 4, November, pp. 225-233.
109. Kuhn, T.S. (1996), *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions* (3 edition), Chicago University Press, USA.
110. Langley, A. (1999), 'Strategies for Theorizing From Process Data', *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 24, No. 4, pp. 691-710.
111. Lawler III, E.E. (1994), 'From Job-Based to Competency-Based Organizations', *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 15, pp. 3-15.
112. Lawless, M.W. and Price, L.L. (1992), ' An Agency Perspective on New Technology Champions', *Organization Science*, Vol. 3, No. 3, August, pp. 342-355.
113. Lee M. and Na, D. (1994), 'Determinants Of Technical Success In Product Development When Innovative Radicalness Is Considered', *Journal Of Product Innovation Management*, Vol. 11, No. 1, January, pp. 62-68.
114. Leonard-Barton, D. (1988), 'Implementation Characteristics of Organizational Innovations', *Communications Research*, Vol. 15, No. 5, October, pp. 603-631.
115. Leonard, D. and Sensiper, S. (1998), 'The Role of Tacit Knowledge in Group Innovation', *California Management Review*, Vol. 40, No. 3, Spring, pp. 112-132.
116. Levine, K. (1976), 'Developing a Planning Model without a Million Dollar Budget', *Management Review*, Vol. 65, No. 12, December, pp. 36-38.
117. Lowenthal, J. (2002), *Six Sigma Project Management: A Pocket Guide*, ASQ Quality Press, US.
118. Maidique, M.A. (1980), 'Entrepreneurs, Champions and Technological Innovation', *Sloan Management Review*, Vol. 21, No. 2, Winter, pp. 59-76.
119. Markham, S.K. (1998), 'A Longitudinal Examination Of How Champions Influence Others To Support Their Projects ', *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, Vol. 15, No. 6, November, pp. 490-502.
120. Markham, S.K. (2000), 'Corporate Championing and Antagonism as Forms of Political Behavior: An R&D Perspective', *Organization Science*, Vol. 11, No. 4, July/August, pp. 429-504.

121. Markham, S.K. (2002), 'Moving Technologies from Lab to Market', *Research Technology Management*, Vol. 45, No. 6, November/December, pp. 31-42.
122. Markham, S.K. and Aiman-Smith, L. (2001), 'Product Champions: Truths, Myths and Management', *Research Technology Management*, Vol. 44, No. 3, May/June, pp. 44-50.
123. Markham, S.K., Green, S.G. and Basu, R. (1991), 'Champions and Antagonists: Relationships With R&D Project Characteristics and Management', *Journal Of Engineering And Technology Management*, Vol. 8, No. 3,4, December, pp. 217-242.
124. Markham S.K. and Griffin, A. (1998), 'The Breakfast of Champions: Associations Between Champions and Product Development Environments, Practices and Performance', *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, Vol. 15, No. 5, September, pp. 436-454.
125. Markham, S.K. and Holahan, P.J. (1996), 'Political Behavior in The Product Development Process', in Rosenau, M.D., Griffin, A., Castellion. G. A. and Anschuetz, N.F. (Editors), *The PDMA Handbook of New Product Development*, John Wiley and Sons Ltd., USA, pp. 107-117.
126. Martinsons, M.G. (1993), 'Cultivating the Champions for Strategic Information Systems', *Journal of Systems Management*, Vol. 44, No. 8, August, pp. 31-34.
127. Marton, F. (1981), 'Phenomenography: Describing Conceptions of the World around Us', *Instructional Science*, Vol. 10, pp. 177-200.
128. Marton, F. (1981), 'Studying Conceptions of Reality: a Metatheoretical Note', *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 25, No. 4, pp. 159-169.
129. Marton, F. (1986), 'Phenomenography - A Research Approach to Investigating Different Understandings of Reality', *Journal of Thought*, Vol. 21, pp. 28-49.
130. Marton, F. (1990), 'The Phenomenography of Learning: A Qualitative Approach to Educational Research and Some of Its Implications for Didactics', in Mandl, H., De Corte, E., Bennett, S.N. and Friedrich, H.F. (Editors), *Learning and Instruction: European Research in an International Context.*, Pergamon Press, USA, pp. 601-616.
131. Marton, F. and Booth, S. (1997), *Learning and Awareness*, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, USA.
132. Massey, A. (1995), 'Civil Service Reform and Accountability', *Public Policy and Administration*, Vol. 10, No. 1, Spring, pp. 16-33.

133. McBride, N. (1997), 'The Rise and Fall of an Executive Information System: a Case Study', *Information Systems Journal*, Vol. 7, No. 4, pp. 277-287.
134. McElhinney, D. and Proctor, T. (2000), 'Call Centres: Pre-Evaluation of Their Usefulness in Local Government', *Creativity and Innovation Management*, Vol. 9, No. 4, December, pp. 227-234.
135. McGregor, J. and Tweed, D. (2001), 'Gender and Managerial Competence: Support for Theories of Androgyny?', *Women in Management Review*, Vol. 16, No. 6, pp. 279-287.
136. Melcher, A. and Kayser, T. (1970), 'Leadership without Formal Authority: The Project Department', *California Management Review*, Vol. 13, No. 2, Winter, pp. 57-64.
137. Miller, L. (1991), 'Managerial Competences', *Industrial & Commercial Training*, Vol. 23, No. 6, pp. 11-16.
138. Mingione, A. (1986), 'Search for Excellence within a Systems Development Project', *Journal of Systems Management*, Vol. 37, No. 3, March, pp. 31-34.
139. Morgan, G. (1988), *Riding the Waves of Change: Developing Managerial Competencies for a Turbulent World*, Jossey-Bass Inc., USA.
140. Morgan, G. (1996), *Images of Organization*, SAGE Publications, UK.
141. Mulgan, R. (1997), 'Contracting Out and Accountability', *Australian Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. 56, No. 4, December, pp. 106-116.
142. Mulgan, R. (1997), 'The Processes of Public Accountability', *Australian Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. 56, No. 1, March, pp. 25-36.
143. Mulgan, R. (2000), 'Comparing Accountability in the Public and Private Sectors', *Australian Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. 59, No. 1, March, pp. 87-97.
144. Mulrow, C.D. (1995), 'Systematic Reviews - A Rationale for Systematic Reviews', in Chalmers, I. and Altman, D.G. (Editors), *Systematic Reviews*, BMJ, London, pp. 1-8.
145. Nam, C.H. and Tatum, C.B. (1997), 'Leaders and Champions for Construction Innovation', *Construction Management Economics*, Vol. 15, No. 3, May, pp. 259-270.
146. Nevan Wright, J. (1997), 'Time and Budget: the Twin Imperatives of a Project Sponsor', *International Journal of Project Management*, Vol. 15, No. 3, pp. 181-186.

147. Noblit, G.W. and Hare, R.D. (Editors) (1988), *Meta-Ethnography: Synthesizing Qualitative Studies*, SAGE Publications Ltd., UK.
148. Noordegraaf, M. (2000), 'Professional Sense-Makers: Managerial Competencies amidst Ambiguity', *The International Journal of Public Sector Management*, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 319-332.
149. Nordhaug, O. (1998), 'Competence Specificities in Organizations - A Classificatory Framework', *International Studies of Management and Organization*, Vol. 28, No. 1, Spring, pp. 8-29.
150. Nordhaug, O. and Gronhaug, K. (1994), 'Competences As Resources in Firms', *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 89-106.
151. Office of Government Commerce (2002a), *Managing Successful Programmes* (3rd edition), The Stationery Office, UK.
152. Office of Government Commerce (2002b), *Managing Successful Projects With PRINCE2* (3rd edition), The Stationery Office, UK.
153. Office of Government Commerce (2003c), *Project and Programme Management in Government Commerce*, available at: www.ogc.gov.uk/index.asp?docid=1000303 (accessed 27/8/2003).
154. Office of Government Commerce (2003d), *Project Sponsor Support*, available at: www.ogc.gov.uk/sdtoolkit/reference/achieving/projectsponsor.pdf (accessed 27/8/2003).
155. Office of Government Commerce (2003e), *The Senior Responsible Owner / Project Owner*, available at: www.ogc.gov.uk/sdtoolkit/keyissues/sro.sro.html (accessed 27).
156. Office of Public Services Reform (2003b), *Improving Programme and Project Delivery*, available at: www.number-10.gov.uk/files/ippd.pdf (accessed 27/8/2003).
157. Office of Public Services Reform (2003e), *Using Programme and Project Management in Policy-Making*, available at: www.number-10.gov.uk/files/pdrf/ipdt%204pgr.qrk.1_1.pdf (accessed 27/8/2003).
158. Palvia, S. and Chervaney, N. (1995), 'An Experimental Investigation of Factors Influencing Predicted Success of DSS Implementation', *Information & Management*, Vol. 29, No. 1, July, pp. 43-53.
159. Pang, M. (2003), 'Two Faces of Variation: on Continuity in the Phenomenographic Movement', *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 47, No. 2, pp. 145-156.

160. Parker, L. and Gould, G. (1999), 'Changing Public Sector Accountability: Critiquing New Directions', *Accounting Forum*, Vol. 23, No. 2, pp. 109-136.
161. Parr, A. and Shanks, G. (2000), 'A Model of ERP Project Implementation', *Journal of Information Technology*, Vol. 15, No. 4, December, pp. 289-303.
162. Partington, D. (2000), 'Implementing Strategy Through Programmes of Projects', in Turner, J.R. and Simister, S.J. (Editors), *Gower Handbook of Project Management*, Gower Publishing Limited, UK, pp. 33-46.
163. Partington, D. (2002), 'Grounded Theory', in Partington, D. (Editor), *Essential Skills for Management Research*, SAGE Publications Ltd., UK, pp. 136-156.
164. Peters, T.J. and Waterman, R.H. (1982), *In Search of Excellence: Lessons from Americas Best Run Companies*, Harper and Row, USA.
165. Petticrew, M. (2001), 'Systematic Reviews from Astronomy to Zoology: Myths and Misconceptions', *British Medical Journal*, Vol. 322, No. 13, January, pp. 98-101.
166. Pinto, J.K. and Slevin, D.P. (1989), 'The Project Champion: Key to Implementation Success', *Project Management Journal*, Vol. 20, No. 4, December, pp. 15-20.
167. Popay, J., Rogers, A. and Williams, G. (1998), 'Rationale and Standards for the Systematic Review of Qualitative Literature in Health Services Research', *Qualitative Health Research*, Vol. 8, No. 3, May, pp. 341-351.
168. Procaccino, J.D., Verner, J.M., Overmyer, S.P. and Darter, M.E. (2002), 'Case Study: Factors for Early Prediction of Software Development Success', *Information and Software Technology*, Vol. 44, No. 1, January, pp. 53-62.
169. Pye, A. (1988), 'Management Competence in the Public Sector', *Public Money & Management*, Vol. 8, No. 4, Winter, pp. 62-64.
170. Pye, A. (1988), 'Management Training: Acts of Faith, Scenes of Competence', *Journal of General Management*, Vol. 13, No. 4, Summer, pp. 74-87.
171. Quinn, J.B. (1979), 'Technological Innovation, Entrepreneurship and Strategy', *Sloan Management Review*, Vol. 20, No. 3, Spring, pp. 19-30.
172. Radnor, Z. and Robinson, J. (2000), 'Benchmarking Innovation: A Short Report', *Creativity and Innovation Management*, Vol. 9, No. 1, March, pp. 3-13.

173. Rai, A. and Paper, D. (1994), 'Successful Reengineering Through IT Investment', *Information Strategy*, Vol. 10, No. 4, Summer, pp. 15-20.
174. Rhodes, R.A.W. (1994), 'The Hollowing Out of The State: The Changing Nature of the Public Sector in Britain', *Political Quarterly*, Autumn, pp. 410-426.
175. Richardson, J. (1999), 'The Concepts and Methods of Phenomenographic Research', *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 69, No. 1, Spring, pp. 53-82.
176. Roberts, E. and Fusfeld, A.R. (1981), ' Staffing the Innovative Technology-Based Revolution', *Sloan Management Review*, Vol. 22, No. 3, Spring, pp. 19-34.
177. Robotham, D. and Jubb, R. (1996), 'Competences: Measuring the Unmeasurable', *Management Development Review*, Vol. 9, No. 5, pp. 25-29.
178. Romzek, B.S. and Dubnick, M.J. (1987), 'Accountability in the Public Sector: Lessons from the Challenger Tragedy', *Public Administration Review*, Vol. 47, No. 3, May June, pp. 227-238.
179. Rose, G. (1982), 'Framework', in Rose, G. *Deciphering Sociological Research*, MacMillan, UK, pp. 13-33.
180. Rothwell, R., Freeman, C., Horsley, A., Jervis, V.T.P., Robertson, A.B. and Townsend, J. (1974), 'SAPPHO Updated - Project SAPPHO Phase II', *Research Policy*, Vol. 3, pp. 258-291.
181. Roure, L. (2001), 'Product Champion Characteristics in France and Germany', *Human Relations*, Vol. 54, No. 5, May, pp. 663-682.
182. Royer, I. (2003), 'Why Bad Projects Are So Hard to Kill', *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 81, No. 2, February, pp. 48-56.
183. Sandberg, J. (2000), 'Understanding Human Competence at Work: An Interpretative Approach', *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 43, No. 1, pp. 9-25.
184. Sandberg, J. (2001), 'Understanding Competence at Work', *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 79, No. 3, March, pp. 24-26.
185. Schon, D.A. (1963), 'Champions for Radical New Inventions', *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 41, No. 2, March/April, pp. 77-86.
186. Scott, C. (2000), 'Accountability in the Regulatory State', *Journal of Law and Society*, Vol. 27, No. 1, March, pp. 38-60.
187. Shane, S.A. (1994), 'Are Champions Different From Non-Champions?',

- Journal of Business Venturing*, Vol. 9, pp. 397-421.
188. Shane, S.A., Venkataraman, S. and MacMillan, I.C. (1995), 'The Effects of Cultural Differences on New Technology Championing Behaviour Within Firms', *Journal of High Technology Management Research*, Vol. 5, No. 2, pp. 163-181.
 189. Shays, E.M. (1994), 'The Consultant's Role in Re-Engineering', *Journal of Management Consulting*, Vol. 8, No. 2, Fall, pp. 43.
 190. Shim, D. and Lee, M. (2001), 'Upward Influence Styles of R&D Project Leaders', *IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management*, Vol. 48, No. 4, November, pp. 394-413.
 191. Sinclair, A. (1995), 'The Chameleon of Accountability: Forms and Discourses', *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, Vol. 20, No. 2/3, pp. 219-237.
 192. Sipior, J. (2000), 'Expert System Stalemate: A Case of Project Champion Departure', *Information Resource Management Journal*, Vol. 13, No. 4, October-December, pp. 16-24.
 193. Smith J. J., McKeon J. E., Hoy K. L., Boysen R. L., Shechter L. and Roberts E. B. (1984), 'Lessons From 10 Case Studies in Innovation - I', *Research Management*, Vol. 27, No. 5, September/October, pp. 23-27.
 194. Sohal, A.S. (1996), 'Assessing AMT Implementations: An Empirical Field Study', *Technovation*, Vol. 16, No. 8, August, pp. 377-384.
 195. Somers, T.K. and Nelson, K. (2001), 'The Impact of Critical Success Factors Across the Stages of Enterprise Resource Planning Implementations', in *Proceedings of the 34th Hawaii International Conference On Systems Sciences (HFCSS-3)* Maui, Hawaii,
 196. Souder, W.E. (1981), 'Encouraging Entrepreneurship in the Large Corporations', *Research Management*, Vol. 24, No. 3, May, pp. 18-22.
 197. Souder, W.E. (1987), *Managing New Product Innovations*, Lexington Books, USA.
 198. Spencer, L.M. and Spencer, S.M. (1993), *Competence at Work*, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., USA.
 199. Sphuler, R. and Biagini, R. (1990), 'The Role and Weaknesses of Top Management in Internal Projects', in Gareis, R. (Editor), *Handbook of Management by Projects*, Ferdinand Berger and Sohne, Austria, pp. 239-245.
 200. Stuart, R. and Lindsay, P. (1997), 'Beyond the Frame of Management Competenc(i)Es: Towards a Contextually Embedded Framework of

- Managerial Competence in Organizations', *Journal of European Industrial Training*, Vol. 21, No. 1, pp. 26-33.
201. Taylor, F.W. (1911), *The Principles of Scientific Management*, W. W. Norton, USA, New York.
 202. Thompson, D. (Editor) (1995), *The Concise Oxford English Dictionary* (9th edition), Clarendon Press, UK, Oxford.
 203. Thompson, J.D. and Tuden, A. (1959), 'Strategies, Structures and Processes of Organizational Decision', in Thompson, J.D. (Editors), *Comparative Studies in Administration*, University of Pittsburgh Press, USA, pp. 195-216.
 204. Tranfield, D., Denyer, D. and Smart, P. (2002), *Developing An Evidence-Informed Approach to Management Knowledge*, Report no. SWP 3/02, Cranfield University, School of Management, Cranfield University,
 205. Tranfield, D., Denyer, D. and Smart, P. (2003), 'Towards a Methodology for Developing Evidence-Informed Management Knowledge by Means of Systematic Review', *British Journal of Management*, Vol. 14, No. 3, September, pp. 207-222.
 206. Tranfield, D. and Starkey, K. (1998), ' The Nature, Social Organization and Promotion of Management Research: Towards Policy', *British Journal of Management*, Vol. 9, pp. 341-353.
 207. Turner, J. (1993), *The Handbook of Project-Based Management*, McGraw-Hill,
 208. Turner, J.R. and Muller, R. (2003), 'On the Nature of the Project As a Temporary Organization', *International Journal of Project Management*, Vol. 21, No. 1, pp. 1-8.
 209. Uljens, M. (1996), 'On the Philosophical Foundations of Phenomenography', in Dall'Alba, G. and Hasselgren, B. (Editors), *Reflections on Phenomenography*, Acta Universitatis Gothenburgensis, Europe, pp. 103-128.
 210. Van Meter, D.S. and Van Horn, C.E. (1975), 'The Policy Implementation Process', *Administration and Society*, Vol. 6, No. 4, February, pp. 445-488.
 211. Venkataraman, S., Macgrath, R.G. and MacMillan, I.C. (1992), 'Progress in Research on Corporate Venturing', in Sexton, D.L. and Kasarda, J.D. (Editors), *The State of The Art of Entrepreneurship*, PWS Kent, pp. 487-519.
 212. Virtanen, T. (1996), 'The Competencies of New Public Managers', in Farnham, D., Horton, S., Barlow, J. and Hondehagem, A. (Editors), *New*

- Public Managers in Europe: Public Servants in Transition*, MacMillan Business, UK, pp. 53-75.
213. Virtanen, T. (2000), 'Changing Competences of Public Managers: Tensions in Commitment', *The International Journal of Public Sector Management*, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 333-341.
 214. Volkoff, O., Chan, Y.E. and Newson, P.E.F. (1999), 'Leading the Development and Implementation of Collaborative Interorganizational Systems', *Information & Management*, Vol. 35, No. 2, February, pp. 63-75.
 215. Von Hippel, E. (1977), 'Successful and Failing Internal Corporate Ventures - An Empirical Analysis ', *Industrial Marketing Management*, Vol. 6, No. 3, pp. 163-174.
 216. Waterman, R.W. and Meier, K.J. (1998), 'Principal-Agent Models: An Expansion?', *Journal of Public Administration, Research and Theory*, Vol. 8, No. 2, April, pp. 173-202.
 217. Watkins, M. (2000), 'Ways of Learning about Leisure Meanings', *Leisure Sciences*, Vol. 22, No. 2, April, pp. 93-107.
 218. Watson, H.J. and Rainer, R.K. (1991), ' A Manager's Guide to Executive Support Systems', *Business Horizons*, Vol. 34, No. 2, March/April, pp. 44-50.
 219. Watson, H.J., Rainer, R.K. and Koh, C.E. (1991), 'Executive Information Systems: A Framework for Development and a Survey of Current Practices', *MIS Quarterly*, Vol. 15, No. 1, March, pp. 13-30.
 220. Webb, G. (1997), 'Deconstructing Deep and Surface: Towards a Critique of Phenomenography', *Higher Education*, Vol. 33, pp. 195-212.
 221. Weber, M. (1964), *The Theory of Social and Economic Organization*, The Free Press, USA.
 222. Westall, G. (2002), 'Post-Merger Intranets', *Strategic HR Review*, Vol. 1, No. 3, March/April, pp. 4.
 223. Willis, S.L. 'Competence Vs. Obsolescence: Understanding The Challenge Facing Today's Professionals', in Willis, S.L. and Dubin, S.S. (Editors), *Maintaining Professional Competence: Approaches to Career Enhancement, Vitality and Success Through A Work Life*, Jossey Bass, USA, pp. 1-7.
 224. Wilson, E. and Doig, A. (1996), 'The Shape of Ideology: Structure, Culture and Policy Delivery in the New Public Sector', *Public Money & Management*, Vol. 16, No. 2, April-June, pp. 53-61.

225. Witte, E. (1977), 'Power and Innovation: A Two-Center Theory', *International Studies of Management Organization*, Spring, pp. 47-70.
226. Woodruffe, C. (1991), 'Competent By Any Other Name', *Personnel Management*, Vol. 23, No. 9, September, pp. 30-33.
227. Woodruffe, C. (1992), 'What Is Meant by a Competency?', in Boam, R. and Sparrow, P. (Editors), *Designing and Achieving Competency*, McGraw-Hill International (UK) Ltd., UK, pp. 16-30.
228. Woolley, R.M. (1995), '*The Two Faces Of Championship: An Examination of the Behavioural and Individual-Differences Characteristics of the Champion*' (unpublished PhD thesis), University of British Columbia, Canada.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Review Panel Membership

SYSTEMATIC REVIEW PANEL MEMBERSHIP

Individuals	Role
Dr. David Partington	MRes / PhD Supervisor
Dr. David Denyer	Systematic review expert
Mrs. Heather Woodfield	Information specialist
Mr. Jeremy Stanyard	Managing Partner, Global Project Management Practice, PA Consulting

APPENDIX B: Initial Review Protocol Databases

Database	General Descriptive Information
ABI-Proquest	Journal articles covering accounting and banking, economics and finance, human resources, international trends, management science, marketing public administration, telecommunications and computing. Bibliographic and full text availability from 1970 to the present.
EBSCO Business Source Premier	Full text availability of more than 2800 journals, covering all areas related to business with full text availability for more than 300 going back to 1922.
EBSCO Electronic Journals Service	Over 8000 electronic journals covering all subject areas.
Inside Web	This database contains records for all journal articles and conference papers held by the British Library Document Supply Centre published since 1993.
IBSS (International Bibliography of the Social Sciences)	Journal articles and conference proceedings covering anthropology economics, politics, sociology from 1951 to the present day.
PsycINFO (Cambridge Scientific Abstracts): Related databases accessible via PsycINFO are Sociological Abstracts (1963 – to date), Library and Information Abstracts (1969 – to date) and Social Services Abstracts (1980 - to date).	Journal articles, conference proceedings and book chapters covering applied psychology, developmental psychology, experimental human and animal psychology, psychological and physical disorders, professional personnel and issues, social psychology, sports psychology and leisure, communication systems, educational psychology, personality, physiological psychology and neuroscience, psychometrics and statistics, social processes and issues, treatment and prevention from 1972 to the present.
Social Sciences Citation Index	Journal articles relating to the social sciences since 1981 to the present day.
Index to Theses	UK PhD theses accepted from 1970 to the present day.
ZETOC	zetoc provides access to the British Library's Electronic Table of Contents of current journals and conference proceedings
Cranfield University Library Catalogue (WebCat)	Listing of all books held by the University.
CRUISE (Cranfield University Internet Site Explorer)	These resources are compiled and maintained by the staff of the Cranfield University Information and Library Service. Experienced subject information professionals are responsible for the discovery, evaluation and maintenance of the sources contained in CRUISE, and arrange them in a logical and consistent order within subject area.
Google.co.uk	Internet Search Engine

APPENDIX C: Initial Review Protocol Search Terms

<u>Project Sponsorship Search Strings</u>
1. Project OR Management OR Executive OR Software AND Sponsor?
2. Project AND Director?
3. Project OR Software OR Change AND Owner?
4. Project AND Champion?
5. Repeat as above, but with the word Program?
<u>Phenomenography and Competence</u>
1. Competence AND Phenomenograp?
2. Competence AND Context
3. Learning AND Context
4. Competence AND Learning
5. Competence
<u>Public Sector Management</u>
1. Accountability OR Responsibility AND New Public Management
2. Policy Delivery OR Policy Implementation AND New Public Management
3. Accountability OR Responsibility AND Policy Delivery OR Policy Implementation

APPENDIX D: Initial Review Protocol Search Process

- Entry of first set of search term combinations into the database;
- Searching will be on the whole text where available, if not then on title and abstract only;
- If the search results exceed 100 'hits' when whole text searching is used, then searching will be limited to title and abstract only;
- If the search produces 100 or fewer 'hits' in either case, then the title and abstract will be reviewed for relevance to the research phenomenon;
- If search results continue to exceed 100 'hits' in the case of title and abstract searching, the search will be limited to titles only;
- When articles appear relevant from the title and abstract, they will be downloaded where possible, or full text versions requested via the Inter Library Loan Service;
- If search results still exceed 100 'hits', then alternative combinations of search terms will be used and the steps above repeated.

APPENDIX E: Initial Review Protocol Inclusion, Exclusion and Quality Criteria

INCLUSION CRITERIA

No.	Criterion	Description
1	Academic journal material relating to the UK Public sector.	Academic research is normally published in these journals and the UK public sector forms the context to the research.
2	Academic journal material relating to Project Sponsorship.	Academic research is normally published in these journals and the role of the project sponsor is the research phenomenon. Material from outside of a UK context is acceptable.
3	Academic journal material relating to phenomenography.	Academic research is normally published in these journals and phenomenography forms the epistemological approach to the phenomenon.
4	Academic journal material relating to human competence at work.	Academic research is normally published in these journals and human competence at work is a key area for the review.
5	Academic textbooks and book chapters on phenomenography and its origins.	Key to understanding the philosophical basis of phenomenography.
6	Academic textbooks and book chapters on human competence at work.	This sub field of study is well developed and there are several well known textbooks and book chapters on the subject.
7	Practitioner journal material relating to project management and project sponsorship.	The role is well developed in the private sector in a variety of contexts (change, business re-engineering, new product development etc.). The material found to date has been useful.
8	Practitioner textbooks on project management.	A further source of practitioner material that relates to project sponsorship.
9	UK government material relating to project and programme management.	Initiatives continue in this area to improve policy delivery. Also forms part of research phenomenon.

EXCLUSION CRITERIA

Number	Criterion	Reason for exclusion
1	<u>Financial sponsorship.</u> Literature concerned with financial sponsorship of projects, often in relation to the setting up of Special Purpose Vehicles (SPVs).	Out of scope. Research relates to individual managerial sponsorship of a project or programme, not financial sponsorship.
2	<u>Event sponsorship.</u> Literature concerned with the sponsorship of sporting or other events, often for marketing or publicity purposes.	Out of scope. Research relates to individual managerial sponsorship of a project or programme.
3	<u>Institutional sponsorship.</u> Literature concerned with sponsorship by institutions rather than individuals.	Out of scope. Research issue relates to individual competence.
4	<u>Quality.</u> Studies that do not pass quality assessment criteria.	Literature has not reached suitable levels of academic rigor and / or relevance to enable a contribution to knowledge to be made.
5	<u>Language.</u> Material not in English.	Reviewer limitations

QUALITY CRITERIA

QUALITY CRITERION 1: SUMMARY	Yes - 3	To some degree - 2	No - 1	Not applicable 0
Are the research purposes / objectives clear?	The purpose of the research is clearly set out.	A purpose can be deduced, but it is not clearly stated	The research purpose cannot be deduced and is not stated.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Is (are) the research question(s) clear?	There is at least 1 clearly articulated research question.	A research question can be deduced from the material.	The research question cannot be deduced and is not stated.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Are the theoretical frameworks / perspectives being applied to the phenomenon clear?	These are clearly stated in the material.	These can only be deduced from the material	These cannot be deduced and are not stated.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Is the research design consistent with and appropriate to both the purpose and the question?	The reasons supporting the choice of research design are clearly stated.	The reasons for the research design can only be deduced from the material.	The reasons for the research design are absent from the material.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Does the paper cite appropriate literature and provide proper credit to existing work on the research phenomenon?	The material is well referenced, and cites material from the relevant fields..	The material has some references and cites some material from the relevant fields.	There are few if any references, citations are few in number and may be absent.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
QUALITY CRITERION 2: THEORETICAL CONCEPTS				
Are the theoretical concepts put forward derived logically?	Sound and extensive links to theory are set out in the material.	Concepts are only weakly linked to theory.	Concepts are put forward without theoretical support.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
In the case of quantitative research, have specific propositions or hypotheses derived from theory been set out?	There is a clearly defined and set out group of hypotheses or propositions.	Hypotheses and / or propositions can be deduced from the material.	These are absent from the material.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
QUALITY CRITERION 3: DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS				
Are the data collection methods clear?	Data collection methods and the reasons for using them are clearly set out.	Data collection methods are set out but are unsupported.	Data collection methods are not mentioned in the article.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Is the sampling basis clear?	Reasons for sample nature and size are clearly set out.	Reasons for sample nature and size can only be deduced.	Reasons for sample nature and size are absent from the material.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Is the role of the researcher in the data collection process clearly set out?	Researcher role clearly spelt out i.e. participant observer.	Researcher role can only be deduced from the material.	Researcher role not spelt out	Not applicable or relevant to the material

Are the means of dealing with researcher bias in data collection clearly set out?	Methods adopted by researcher to limit extent of bias are clearly set out and supported from literature.	Only limited information is provided on the means of dealing with bias.	There is no recognition of the impact of researcher bias in the material.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Is the choice of data analysis method supported by a strong argument?	Basis of selection of method clearly stated and supported.	Basis of selection of method can only be deduced, limited if any support.	No support for choice of method.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Are the limitations of the data analysis method recognised?	Limitations of method clearly spelt out.	Limitations of method are considered to a limited extent.	Limitations are not recognized at all.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
QUALITY CRITERION 4: VALIDITY				
In the case of quantitative research, is there internal theoretical validity between the theory, the propositions and the hypotheses?	There are sound links between theory, propositions and hypotheses.	There are links between the theory, propositions and hypotheses, but these are weak or unsubstantiated.	Links between theory, propositions and hypotheses are absent.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
In the case of quantitative research, is there internal empirical validity between the operationalization of the hypotheses, the fieldwork and the results?	There are sound links between operationalization, fieldwork and the results.	There are links between operationalization, hypotheses and the results, but these are weak or unsubstantiated.	Links between operationalization, hypotheses and the results are absent.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
In the case of quantitative research, is there external validity between the initial theoretical perspective, the hypotheses and the results?	There are sound links between the initial theoretical perspective, the hypotheses and the results.	There are links between the initial theoretical perspective, the hypotheses and the results but these are weak or unsubstantiated.	Links between the initial theoretical perspective, the hypotheses and the results are absent.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
For qualitative research, is there a logical flow from data description, through analysis and on to interpretation?	Logical flow between these elements is substantial	Logical flow between these elements is insubstantial.	Logical flow between these elements is absent.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
For qualitative research, is it clear which concepts are theoretically derived and which are derived from data interpretation?	Concepts are clearly categorized.	Concepts are weakly categorized.	Concepts are not categorized.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
For qualitative research, are links made back from the interpretations to the theoretical concepts?	Substantial links are made back to the theoretical concepts.	Links are present to a limited extent.	Links are absent.	Not applicable or relevant to the material

Has contradictory data been dealt with in a satisfactory manner?	The meaning of or explanation for any contradictory data is spelt out and supported.	The meaning of or explanation for any contradictory data is only partially dealt with and supported to a limited extent..	Contradictory data is not dealt with.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Are the findings supported by the data?	Findings are substantially supported by the data.	Findings are supported by the data to a limited extent.	Findings are not supported by the data at all.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
QUALITY CRITERION 5: CONCLUSIONS				
Is the degree to which the conclusions / findings are generalizable clear?	Level of generalizability is clearly spelt out and well supported.	Claims for the level of generalizability are insubstantial.	Claims for generalizability are not supported.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Have the limitations of the research been recognized?	Limitations are clearly spelt out.	Limitations are only partially recognized.	Limitations are not recognized.	Not applicable or relevant to the material

QUALITY PROCESS

Each article found will be individually assessed and scored using the above table. Scores within each quality assessment criterion will be averaged to provide an overall rating in each category. The ratings will be entered into the Cranfield standard Procite work forms. Any item with two quality assessment ratings of 1.5 or less in any of the 5 categories will be regarded as having failed to meet the quality criteria and will not be used (see exclusion criteria).

APPENDIX F: Initial Review Protocol: Procite Workform

Author of the article (01):
Title of the article (04):
Document name (05):
Journal Title (10):
Spare field (16):
Spare field (17):
Date of publication (20):
Volume (22):
Month or season (23):
Part (24):
Empirical or theoretical (26):
Where was the study located? (27):
What was the context / industry? (28):
What was the sample size? (29):
Method of data collection (30):
Method of data analysis (31):
Study characteristics (32):
Quality assessment 1 (33):
Quality assessment 2 (34):
Quality assessment 3 (35):
Quality assessment 4 (36):
Quality assessment 5 (37):
Database (38):
Location of item (39):
Include yes/no (40):
Reason for exclusion (41):
Key findings (42):
Abstract (43):
Sub-field of study (44):
Keywords (45):

APPENDIX G: PA Consulting Request and Responses

From: Jeremy Stanyard

To: Project Management Practice

Many of you in the UK will remember Jonathan Lupson who was a member of the practice a couple of years ago. He has recently entered the world of academia, embarking on a PhD thesis at Cranfield on project sponsorship in the public sector. Hugh Crail and I met Jonathan last week and agreed that there should be some mutual benefit if we support him by providing a conduit to data and he shares insights with us as his work develops. The plan is for Jonathan to issue requests for input from time to time; the first is attached. Could you respond directly to Jonathan with a copy to Genevieve.

Thanks in advance

J

REQUEST:

Dear All,

I am a PhD Student in the early part of my research looking at project sponsorship in the public sector. The initial phase involves systematically searching for relevant academic literature in order to map the field of knowledge in this area as comprehensively as possible. Based on my work so far, different words are used to describe the sponsorship role in different contexts (see the Table below).

The Project Sponsor

The role of the project sponsor is an individual one and is usually carried out by a senior manager. There are different definitions of the role, but the literature so far suggests that it normally involves managing the external context of the project, the procurement of 'hard to obtain' resources from the business and executive responsibility for the success of the project. The sponsor normally reports to either the Board or a committee of senior managers. This role is both different and distinct from that of the project manager, who has responsibility for running the project. The table below lists the different words for the role of the project sponsor and the different contexts. There are some contexts where I have not been able to establish any alternative name for the sponsor.

CONTEXT	NAME
New Product Development projects	Sponsor
Change projects	Owner
Software Development projects	Owner / Sponsor / Champion
Business Process Reengineering projects	Sponsor
CRM projects	?
ERP projects	?
Strategy implementation projects	?
High technology projects	?

Cont'd

How You Can Help

Please tell me, based on the information above, all the alternative names for the role of the project sponsor and the different contexts in which you have come across them. This will assist me in ensuring my search is both as comprehensive and as practitioner oriented as possible. There are no right or wrong answers here, just more information that will assist me in increasing the scope of my search.

Many thanks for your help,

Jonathan Lupson

TABULATED RESPONSES

CONTEXT	NAME
PRINCE2	PROJECT EXECUTIVE
OGC	SENIOR RESPONSIBLE OWNER
SAP	CONCEPT OWNER
INTEGRATION	IMPLEMENTATION DIRECTOR
UTILITY COMPANY	PROJECT DIRECTOR
UTILITY COMPANY	PROGRAMME DIRECTOR
ENGINEERING / TECHNOLOGY	PROJECT DIRECTOR
HIGH TECHNOLOGY	SPONSOR
SOFTWARE DEVELOPMENT	SENIOR USER / OWNER / SPONSOR / CHAMPION
CRM	SENIOR USER
BPR	SENIOR STAKEHOLDER / SPONSOR
STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION	SENIOR STAKEHOLDER
MOD	CUSTOMER 1 / CUSTOMER 2
NPD	SPONSOR
CHANGE	OWNER
ERP	SPONSOR / CONCEPT OWNER
	PROJECT DIRECTOR
	PROGRAMME DIRECTOR

APPENDIX H: Final Protocol Search Terms

Project Sponsorship
1. Project AND Director
2. Program AND Director
3. Project AND Owner
4. Program AND Owner
5. Project AND Champion
6. Program AND Champion
7. Project AND Executive
8. Project AND Senior Responsible Owner
9. Project AND Senior Responsible Officer
10. Project AND Concept Owner
11. Concept AND Owner
12. Project AND Senior User
13. Project AND Senior Stakeholder
14. Project AND Stakeholder
15. SAP AND Owner
16. CRM AND Senior User
17. ERP AND Concept Owner
18. ERP AND Sponsor
19. Implementation AND Director
20. Project AND User
21. Project AND User
22. Project AND Sponsor
23. Management AND Sponsor
24. Executive AND Sponsor
25. Program AND Sponsor
Phenomenography and Competence
6. Competence AND Phenomenograp?
7. Competence AND Context
8. Learning AND Context
9. Competence AND Learning
10. Competence
Public Sector Management
4. Accountability OR Responsibility AND New Public Management
5. Policy Delivery OR Policy Implementation AND New Public Management
6. Accountability OR Responsibility AND Policy Delivery OR Policy Implementation

APPENDIX I: Final Protocol Source and Content Criteria

Source Criteria

No.	Criterion	Action / Description
1	Academic journal material relating to the UK Public sector.	<u>Inclusion:</u> Academic research is normally published in these journals and the UK public sector forms the context to the research.
2	Academic journal material relating to Project Sponsorship.	<u>Inclusion:</u> Academic research is normally published in these journals and the role of the project sponsor is the research phenomenon. Material from outside of a UK context is acceptable.
3	Academic journal material relating to phenomenography.	<u>Inclusion:</u> Academic research is normally published in these journals and phenomenography forms the epistemological approach to the phenomenon.
4	Academic journal material relating to human competence at work.	<u>Inclusion:</u> Academic research is normally published in these journals and human competence at work is a key area for the review.
5	Academic textbooks and book chapters on phenomenography and its origins.	<u>Inclusion:</u> Key to understanding the philosophical basis of phenomenography.
6	Academic textbooks and book chapters on human competence at work.	<u>Inclusion:</u> This sub field of study is well developed and there are several well known textbooks and book chapters on the subject.
7	Practitioner journal material relating to project management and project sponsorship.	<u>Inclusion:</u> The role is well developed in the private sector in a variety of contexts (change, business re-engineering, new product development etc.).
8	Practitioner textbooks on project management.	<u>Inclusion:</u> A further source of practitioner material that relates to project sponsorship.
9	UK government material relating to project and programme management.	<u>Inclusion:</u> Initiatives continue in this area to improve policy delivery. Forms part of research phenomenon.
10	News articles relating to project sponsorship, competence and the public sector.	<u>Exclusion:</u> Unlikely to contain useful material.

Content Criteria

Number	Criterion	Action / Description
C1	<u>Financial sponsorship.</u> Literature concerned with financial sponsorship of projects, often in relation to the setting up of Special Purpose Vehicles (SPVs).	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Research relates to individual managerial sponsorship of a project or programme, not financial sponsorship.
C2	<u>Event sponsorship.</u> Literature concerned with the sponsorship of sporting or other events, often for marketing or publicity purposes.	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Research relates to individual managerial sponsorship of a project or programme.
C3	<u>Institutional sponsorship.</u> Literature concerned with sponsorship by institutions rather than individuals.	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Research issue relates to individual sponsorship.
C4	<u>Quality.</u> Studies that do not pass quality assessment criteria.	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Literature has not reached suitable levels of academic rigor and / or relevance to enable a contribution to knowledge to be made.
C5	<u>Language.</u> Material not in English.	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Reviewer limitations
C6	<u>Organizational Sponsorship.</u> Literature dealing with sponsorship by organizations.	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Research issue relates to individual sponsorship.
C7	<u>R&D Project Management.</u> Literature dealing with aspects of R&D project management not related to project sponsorship.	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Research phenomenon is the role of the project sponsor.
C8	<u>Risk Management.</u> Literature on management of risk in a project or non project context.	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Research phenomenon is the role of the project sponsor.
C9	<u>I.T. Support for Project Management.</u> Literature on IT support for project management and on IT project management that does not relate to project sponsorship	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Research phenomenon is the role of the project sponsor.
C10	<u>General project management material:</u> does not relate to project sponsorship	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Research phenomenon is the role of the project sponsor.
C11	<u>Stakeholder management:</u> material that does not deal with the sponsor as a stakeholder in a project.	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Research phenomenon is the role of the project sponsor.
C12	<u>Team / group sponsorship:</u> material that covers sponsorship as a group phenomenon.	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Research phenomenon is the role of the project sponsor as an individual.
C13	<u>Organization of Innovation:</u> material that does not deal with the sponsorship of innovation	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Research phenomenon is the role of the project sponsor.
C14	<u>Entrepreneurial / Intrapreneurial Culture:</u> material that does not deal with individual sponsorship of entrepreneurial / intrapreneurial activity.	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Research phenomenon is the role of the project sponsor.
C15	<u>Mergers and Acquisitions:</u> material that does not deal with the sponsorship of M&A activity	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Research phenomenon is the role of the project sponsor.

C16	<u>Individual behaviour / roles not related to project sponsorship.</u>	Exclude: Out of scope. Research phenomenon is the role of the project sponsor.
C17	<u>Organizational change material not related to project sponsorship of a change project</u>	Exclude: Out of scope. Research phenomenon is the role of the project sponsor.
C18	<u>Literature on policy implementation not related to sponsorship of policy implementation</u>	Exclude: Out of scope. Research phenomenon is the role of the project sponsor.
C19	<u>Literature related to performance measurement</u>	Exclude: Out of scope. Research phenomenon is the role of the project sponsor.
C20	<u>Literature on organizational competence</u>	Exclude: Out of scope. Research phenomenon relates to individual competence.
C21	<u>Literature on team competence.</u>	Exclude: Out of scope. Research phenomenon relates to individual competence.
C22	<u>Literature on training not related to competence or competence development.</u>	Exclude: Out of scope. Research phenomenon relates to the nature of individual competence.
C23	<u>Literature on individual process of change.</u>	Exclude: Out of scope. Research phenomenon relates to the nature of individual competence.
C24	<u>Literature on feedback systems not related to competence.</u>	Exclude: Out of scope. Research phenomenon relates to the nature of individual competence.
C25	<u>Literature describing the application of competence models.</u>	Exclude: Out of scope. Research phenomenon is the nature of individual competence.
C26	<u>Literature on learning not related to individual competence or competence development.</u>	Exclude: Out of scope. Research phenomenon is the nature of individual competence.
C27	<u>Literature on leadership not related to individual competence.</u>	Exclude: Out of scope. Research phenomenon is the nature of individual competence.
C28	<u>Literature on applications of phenomenography.</u>	Exclude: Out of scope. Research approach relates to the nature of phenomenographic research.
C29	<u>Third party perceptions of individual competence.</u>	Exclude: Out of scope. Research phenomenon is the nature of individual competence.
C30	<u>Literature on management development not related to individual competence development.</u>	Exclude: Out of scope. Research phenomenon is the nature of individual competence.
C31	<u>Literature on HRM not related to competence development.</u>	Exclude: Out of scope. Research phenomenon is the nature of individual competence.
C32	<u>Literature on parliamentary / legislative accountability</u>	Exclude: Out of scope. Research interest is accountability in the administration of government
C33	<u>Literature on performance management in the public sector or perceptions of organization performance.</u>	Exclude: Out of scope. Research interest is individual accountability.
C34	<u>Literature on evaluation of NPM reform</u>	Exclude: Out of scope. Research interest is change in individual

		accountability as a result of NPM
C35	<u>Literature on changes in organizational and institutional accountability.</u>	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Research interest is change in individual accountability.
C36	<u>Literature on organizational and institutional policy implementation</u>	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Research interest is individual and their role in implementation.
C37	<u>Literature on historic perspectives on traditional administration</u>	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Research interest is the changes made as a result of NPM
C38	<u>Literature on public expenditure programmes</u>	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Research interest is project sponsor and their accountability.
C39	<u>Literature on citizen / subject interaction under NPM</u>	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Research interest is change in public servant accountability.
C40	<u>Literature on market perspectives on managerial adaptation</u>	<u>Exclude: Out of scope.</u> Research interest is change in public sector accountability.

APPENDIX J: Final Protocol Quality Criteria

ACADEMIC MATERIAL QUALITY CRITERIA

QUALITY CRITERION 1: SUMMARY	Yes - 3	To some degree - 2	No - 1	Not applicable 0
Are the research purposes / objectives clear?	The purpose of the research is clearly set out.	A purpose can be deduced, but it is not clearly stated	The research purpose cannot be deduced and is not stated.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Is (are) the research question(s) clear?	There is at least 1 clearly articulated research question.	A research question can be deduced from the material.	The research question cannot be deduced and is not stated.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Are the theoretical frameworks / perspectives being applied to the phenomenon clear?	These are clearly stated in the material.	These can only be deduced from the material	These cannot be deduced and are not stated.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Is the research design consistent with and appropriate to both the purpose and the question?	The reasons supporting the choice of research design are clearly stated.	The reasons for the research design can only be deduced from the material.	The reasons for the research design are absent from the material.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Does the paper cite appropriate literature and provide proper credit to existing work on the research phenomenon?	The material is well referenced, and cites material from the relevant fields.	The material has some references and cites some material from the relevant fields.	There are few if any references, citations are few in number and may be absent.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
QUALITY CRITERION 2: THEORETICAL CONCEPTS				
Are the theoretical concepts put forward derived logically?	Sound and extensive links to theory are set out in the material.	Concepts are only weakly linked to theory.	Concepts are put forward without theoretical support.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
In the case of quantitative research, have specific propositions or hypotheses derived from theory been set out?	There is a clearly defined and set out group of hypotheses or propositions.	Hypotheses and / or propositions can be deduced from the material.	These are absent from the material.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
QUALITY CRITERION 3: DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS	NOT APPLICABLE TO THEORETICAL REFERENCES			
Are the data collection methods clear?	Data collection methods and the reasons for using them are clearly set out.	Data collection methods are set out but are unsupported.	Data collection methods are not mentioned in the article.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Is the sampling basis clear?	Reasons for sample nature and size are clearly set out.	Reasons for sample nature and size can only be deduced.	Reasons for sample nature and size are absent from the material.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Is the role of the researcher in the data collection process	Researcher role clearly spelt out i.e. participant observer.	Researcher role can only be deduced from the material.	Researcher role not spelt out	Not applicable or relevant to the material

clearly set out?				
Are the means of dealing with researcher bias in data collection clearly set out?	Methods adopted by researcher to limit extent of bias are clearly set out and supported from literature.	Only limited information is provided on the means of dealing with bias.	There is no recognition of the impact of researcher bias in the material.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Is the choice of data analysis method supported by a strong argument?	Basis of selection of method clearly stated and supported.	Basis of selection of method can only be deduced, limited if any support.	No support for choice of method.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Are the limitations of the data analysis method recognised?	Limitations of method clearly spelt out.	Limitations of method are considered to a limited extent.	Limitations are not recognized at all.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
QUALITY CRITERION 4: VALIDITY	NOT APPLICABLE TO THEORETICAL REFERENCES			
In the case of quantitative research, is there internal theoretical validity between the theory, the propositions and the hypotheses?	There are sound links between theory, propositions and hypotheses.	There are links between the theory, propositions and hypotheses, but these are weak or unsubstantiated.	Links between theory, propositions and hypotheses are absent.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
In the case of quantitative research, is there internal empirical validity between the operationalization of the hypotheses, the fieldwork and the results?	There are sound links between operationalization, fieldwork and the results.	There are links between operationalization, hypotheses and the results, but these are weak or unsubstantiated.	Links between operationalization, hypotheses and the results are absent.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
In the case of quantitative research, is there external validity between the initial theoretical perspective, the hypotheses and the results?	There are sound links between the initial theoretical perspective, the hypotheses and the results.	There are links between the initial theoretical perspective, the hypotheses and the results but these are weak or unsubstantiated.	Links between the initial theoretical perspective, the hypotheses and the results are absent.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
For qualitative research, is there a logical flow from data description, through analysis and on to interpretation?	Logical flow between these elements is substantial	Logical flow between these elements is insubstantial.	Logical flow between these elements is absent.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
For qualitative research, is it clear which concepts are theoretically derived and which are derived from data interpretation?	Concepts are clearly categorized.	Concepts are weakly categorized.	Concepts are not categorized.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
For qualitative research, are links made back from the interpretations to the	Substantial links are made back to the theoretical concepts.	Links are present to a limited extent.	Links are absent.	Not applicable or relevant to the material

theoretical concepts?				
Has contradictory data been dealt with in a satisfactory manner?	The meaning of or explanation for any contradictory data is spelt out and supported.	The meaning of or explanation for any contradictory data is only partially dealt with and supported to a limited extent.	Contradictory data is not dealt with.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Are the findings supported by the data?	Findings are substantially supported by the data.	Findings are supported by the data to a limited extent.	Findings are not supported by the data at all.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
QUALITY CRITERION 5: CONCLUSIONS				
Is the degree to which the conclusions / findings are generalizable clear?	Level of generalizability is clearly spelt out and well supported.	Claims for the level of generalizability are insubstantial.	Claims for generalizability are not supported.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Have the limitations of the research been recognized?	Limitations are clearly spelt out.	Limitations are only partially recognized.	Limitations are not recognized.	Not applicable or relevant to the material

PRACTITIONER MATERIAL QUALITY CRITERIA

QUALITY CRITERION 1: AIMS	Yes - 3	To some degree - 2	No - 1	Not applicable 0
Have you told readers, at the outset, what they might gain by reading your paper?	Yes	To some extent	No.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Have you made the aim of your work clear?	Yes	To some extent	No.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
QUALITY CRITERION 2: CONTEXT				
Have you set your work in the appropriate context by giving sufficient background (including a complete set of relevant references where relevant) to your work?	Yes	To some extent	No.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
QUALITY CRITERION 3: RELEVANCE				
Have you addressed the question of practicality and usefulness?	Yes	To some extent	No.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Is the perspective of the writer in the material clearly set out?	Yes	To some extent	No.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Are any limitations recognised?	Yes	To some extent	No.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
QUALITY CRITERION 4: OUTCOME				
Have you identified future developments that may result from your work?	Yes	To some extent	No.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
Have you explained the significance of your contribution?	Yes	To some extent	No.	Not applicable or relevant to the material
QUALITY CRITERION 5: STRUCTURE				
Have you structured your paper in a clear and logical fashion?	Yes	To some extent	No.	Not applicable or relevant to the material

APPENDIX K: Project Sponsorship Content Criteria Results

PHASE 1 MATERIAL

CONTENT CRITERION NUMBER	CRITERION	NUMBER OF REFERENCES FAILING	% FAILING
C1	<u>Financial sponsorship.</u> Literature concerned with financial sponsorship of projects, often in relation to the setting up of Special Purpose Vehicles (SPVs).	8	5.7
C2	<u>Event sponsorship.</u> Literature concerned with the sponsorship of sporting or other events, often for marketing or publicity purposes.	0	0
C3	<u>Institutional sponsorship.</u> Literature concerned with sponsorship by institutions rather than individuals.	9	6.4
C4	<u>Quality.</u> Studies that do not pass quality assessment criteria.	5	3.6
C5	<u>Language.</u> Material not in English.	0	0
C6	<u>Organizational Sponsorship:.</u> Literature dealing with sponsorship by organizations.	10	7.1
C7	<u>R&D Project Management.</u> Literature dealing with aspects of R&D project management not related to project sponsorship.	3	2.1
C8	<u>Risk Management.</u> Literature on management of risk in a project or non project context.	2	1.4
C9	<u>IT. Support for Project Management.</u> Literature on IT support for project management and on IT project management that does not relate to project sponsorship	27	19.3
C10	<u>General project management material:</u> does not relate to project sponsorship	24	17.1
C11	<u>Stakeholder management:</u> material that does not deal with the sponsor as a stakeholder in a project.	5	3.6
C12	<u>Team / group sponsorship:</u> material that covers sponsorship as a group phenomenon.	4	3.6
C13	<u>Organization of Innovation:</u> material that does not deal with the sponsorship of innovation.	12	8.6
C14	<u>Entrepreneurial / Intrapreneurial Culture:</u> material that does not deal with individual sponsorship of entrepreneurial / intrapreneurial activity.	2	1.4
C15	<u>Mergers and Acquisitions:</u> material that does not deal with the sponsorship of M&A activity.	1	0.7
C16	<u>Individual behaviour / roles not related to project sponsorship.</u>	1	0.7
C17	<u>Organizational change material not related to</u>	19	13.6

	<u>project sponsorship of a change project</u>		
C18	<u>Literature on policy implementation not related to sponsorship of policy implementation</u>	8	5.7
C19	<u>Literature related to performance measurement</u>	1	0.7
TOTAL		142	100

PHASE 2 MATERIAL

CONTENT CRITERION NUMBER	CRITERION	NUMBER OF ARTICLES FAILING	% FAILING
C1	<u>Financial sponsorship.</u> Literature concerned with financial sponsorship of projects, often in relation to the setting up of Special Purpose Vehicles (SPVs).	0	0
C2	<u>Event sponsorship.</u> Literature concerned with the sponsorship of sporting or other events, often for marketing or publicity purposes.	0	0
C3	<u>Institutional sponsorship.</u> Literature concerned with sponsorship by institutions rather than individuals.	0	0
C4	<u>Quality.</u> Studies that do not pass quality assessment criteria.	1	2.9
C5	<u>Language.</u> Material not in English.	0	0
C6	<u>Organizational Sponsorship:.</u> Literature dealing with sponsorship by organizations.	1	2.9
C7	<u>R&D Project Management.</u> Literature dealing with aspects of R&D project management not related to project sponsorship.	0	0
C8	<u>Risk Management.</u> Literature on management of risk in a project or non project context.	0	0
C9	<u>IT. Support for Project Management.</u> Literature on IT support for project management and on IT project management that does not relate to project sponsorship.	3	8.8
C10	<u>General project management material:</u> does not relate to project sponsorship.	11	32.4
C11	<u>Stakeholder management:</u> material that does not deal with the sponsor as a stakeholder in a project.	0	0
C12	<u>Team / group sponsorship:</u> material that covers sponsorship as a group phenomenon.	1	2.9
C13	<u>Organization of Innovation:</u> material that does not deal with the sponsorship of innovation.	12	35.3
C14	<u>Entrepreneurial / Intrapreneurial Culture:</u> material that does not deal with individual sponsorship of entrepreneurial / intrapreneurial activity.	2	5.9
C15	<u>Mergers and Acquisitions:</u> material that does not deal with the sponsorship of M&A activity.	0	0
C16	<u>Individual behaviour / roles not related to project sponsorship.</u>	2	5.9
C17	<u>Organizational change material not related to</u>	1	2.9

	<u>project sponsorship of a change project</u>		
C18	<u>Literature on policy implementation not related to sponsorship of policy implementation</u>	0	0
C19	<u>Literature related to performance measurement</u>	0	0
TOTAL		34	100

APPENDIX L: Project Sponsorship: Descriptive Analysis Table

Reference	Year	Location	Subject	Sector / Context	Study Characteristics (Qualitative, Quantitative, Theoretical or Practitioner)	Principal Ideas
Akkermans, H./van Helden, K., Vicious And Virtuous Cycles In ERP Implementation: A Case Study Of Interrelations Between Critical Success Factors, European Journal of Information Systems, Vol. 11, Part 1, March, pp35-46(2002)	2002	Europe	ERP, Project Critical Success Factors (CSFs)	IT	Qualitative	ERP implementation will not succeed until top management support is in place. Appointment of a senior manager as project champion made the difference. Top management support was the top rated Critical Success Factor. Senior manager as champion (CSF 8).
Altinay, L./Roper, A., The role and importance of development directors in initiating and implementing development strategy, International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, Vol 13, Part 7, pp339-346 (2001)	2001	UK	Strategy Implementation	Hotels	Qualitative	Development director in overseas market responsible for success of project, even for the revenue stream going out 20 years. Project owner is an entrepreneur. Risk bearing nature of the role.
Angle, H. L./Van de Ven, A. H., Suggestions for Managing The Innovation Journey, in Angle, H. L./Van de Ven, A. H./Poole, M. S., Research on The Management of Innovation, Harper and	1989	N/A	Innovation	Innovation	Practitioner	Sponsor is one of 4 key management roles: sponsor, mentor, critic and institutional leader. The sponsor runs interference and 'carries the ball' for the innovation project. Role definition.

Rowe, UK, pp.663-667(1989)						
Archibald,R.D., Managing High-Technology Programs and Projects, John Wiley and Sons Inc. (1992)	1992	Not Known	Project Management	High Technology	Practitioner	Project sponsor role held by senior manager. Role only recently recognized. 9 sponsor responsibilities. Role definition.
Bartlett,D./Dibben, P., Public Sector Innovation and Entrepreneurship: Case Studies from Local Government, Local Government Studies, Vol.28, Part 4, Winter, pp 107-121(2002)	2002	UK	Innovation / Change	Public Sector / Local Government	Quantitative	Sponsor is politician or very senior manager in local government. Creates space for the champion to work. 2 types of champion, public (oriented around public service ethos) and empowered (change for change sake).
Bawdry, M. K., What We've Learned: Managing Human Resources, Research Technology Management, Vol. 31, Part 5, pp. 19-35(1988)	1988	USA	HR Management	R&D	Theoretical	Sponsor and champion as different roles. Both essential for NPD success.
Beatty, C., Implementing Advanced Manufacturing Technologies: Rules of the Road, Sloan Management Review, Vol. 33, Part 4, Summer, pp. 49-60 (1992)	1992	USA	Advanced Manufacturing Technology	Manufacturing	Practitioner	AMT implementation needs an effective champion: but champions can fail because of their lack of persuasiveness, motivation, networking ability, communications skills and political sensitivity. Therefore you need the 'right' champion.
Blackburn,S., The project manager and the project-	2002	UK	Project Management	General	Qualitative	Project sponsors are powerful and can be mobilised by the project

network, International Journal of Project Management, Volume 20, pp 199-204 (2002)						manager. The sponsor has a dual representational role.
Brimm, I. M., Risky Business: Why Sponsoring Innovations May Be Hazardous To Career Health, Organizational Dynamics, Vol. 16, Part 3, Winter, pp. 28-41(1988)	1988	Europe	Innovation	General	Case Studies	Sponsors of organizational rather than technical innovations may be passed over for promotion. Sponsors need to buffer innovations against intrusion. Risk bearing.
Briner, W.//Hastings, C.//Geddes, M., Project Leadership, 2 nd Edition, Gower, UK (1996)	1996	UK	Project Management		Practitioner	Sponsor has 3 roles: the signpost (know direction), architect (represents project to senior management) and sustainer (keeps team on track).
Burbridge, J. J.//Friedman, W. H., The Roles of User and Sponsor in MIS Projects, Project Management Journal, Vol. 19, Part 2, April, pp. 71-76 (1988)	1988	USA	MIS	IT Implementation	Theoretical	Sponsor promotes and spearheads the development of the system, does not have daily responsibility for the management of the project.
Burgelman, R. A., A Process Model of Internal Corporate Venturing in the Diversified Major Firm, Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 28, Part 2, June, pp. 223-244 (1983)	1983	USA	Internal Corporate Venturing	Diversified Firms	Qualitative	Product championing takes place in the definition and gaining impetus stages of ICVs, organizational championing at the impetus to strategic context stages. These interlock.
Caldwell, D. F.//Posner, B. Z., Project Leadership,	1998	USA	Project Leadership	Project Management	Practitioner	Championing and sponsoring as key roles in project delivery. Role

The Project Management Institute Project Management Handbook, Pinto, J. K., pp. 300-311 (1998)						definitions.
Calish, I. G./Gamache, R. D., Wizards and Champions: The Kingdom of New Venture Management, Journal of Product Innovation Management, Vol.1, Part 4. pp. 238-241 (1984)	1984	USA	Role Definition	New Venture Management	Practitioner	Champion is the entrepreneur, sponsor is the protector. Role definition of sponsor.
Carr, H. H./Hogue, J. T., It Takes A Champion, Journal of Systems Management, Vol. 40, Part 8, August, pp.15-17 (1989)	1989	USA	Project Management	IS	Practitioner	Champions are a generic issue for IS across all contexts – Information Centres, DSS, EIS and AI (Artificial Intelligence).
Chakrabati, A. K., The Role of Champion in Product Innovation, California Management Review, Vol. 17, Part 2, Winter, pp. 58-62 (1974)	1974	USA	Champion	Innovation	Practitioner	5 qualities for the product champion: technical competence, knowledge about the company, knowledge of the market, drive and aggressiveness, political astuteness.
Chakrabati, A. K./Hauschildt, J., The Division of Labour In Innovation Management, R&D Management, Vol. 19, Part 2, pp. 161-171 (1989)	1989	USA	Division of Labour	Innovation	Theoretical	Differentiation between champion and sponsor: champion has technical knowledge, sponsor organizational power. Executive champion (sponsor) is associated with larger firms.

Chang, S.H., The Development of Quality Executive Information Systems for Health Care: A Benchmark Approach, Ph.D. Thesis, University of Bradford (1994)	1994	UK	EIS	Healthcare	Quantitative	A responsive executive sponsor collaborates with a pro-active operating sponsor to put continuous improvement effectively in place.
Clark, K.B.//Chew, W. B.//Fujimoto, T., Product Development in the World Auto Industry, Brookings Papers on Economic Activity, Volume 3, pp. 729-781 (1987)	1987	Global	Innovation	Automotive Industry	Quantitative	More efficient product development associated with heavyweight project manager, who doubles as concept champion. Champion provides support, motivation and direction.
Clark, K. B.//Wheelwright, S. C., Organizing and Leading 'Heavyweight' Development Teams, California Management Review, Vol. 34, Part 3, Spring, pp. 9-28 (1992)	1992	USA	Team Management	Product Development	Qualitative	Project manager and champion combined in heavyweight teams. Still needs executive sponsor.
Curtis, M. B., The accountant's contribution to executive information systems, Journal of End User Computing, Vol. 6, Part 3. Summer, pp. 3-10 (1994)	1994	USA	EIS	Accountancy	Practitioner	Sponsors for EIS systems can be identified by accountants: lack of sponsorship is a source of EIS failure.
Damsgaard,J.//Scheepers, R., Managing the crises of intranet implementation: a stage model., Information	2000	Europe	Intranet	IT	Theoretical	Person with power and prestige in organization to take control of the innovation – the sponsor. Champion introduces outside technology to

Systems Journal, Vol. 10, Part 2, April, pp. 131-149 (2000)						organization.
Day, D., Raising Radicals - Different Processes for Championing Innovative Corporate Ventures, Organization Science, Vol. 5, Part 2, May, pp. 148-172 (1994)	1994	USA	Corporate Venturing	General	Quantitative	3 types of champion: bottom up, top down and dual-role. There is also the organizational sponsor (undefined).
Dean, J. W., Deciding to Innovate, Ballinger Publishing Company (1987)	1987	USA	Innovation	AMT	Theoretical	Champions are crucial for the success of innovation projects: different levels of champion are required – product and executive according to organization size.
Dorado, S./Vaz, P., Conveners as champions of collaboration in the public sector: a case from South Africa, Public Administration and Development, Vol. 23, Part 2, pp. 141-150 (2003)	2003	South Africa	Collaboration	Public Sector	Qualitative	Champions are crucial for the success of projects, even when the project exists outside the context of any 1 organization.
Duffin, M., Pain and change, Managing Service Quality, Vol. 2, Part 4, May, pp. 227-229 (1992)	1992	UK	Change	General	Practitioner	The sponsor is one the 4 critical change roles. Sponsors legitimise change. Prescriptions of what the sponsor must and must not do.
Frey, D., Learning the Ropes: My Life as a Product Champion, Harvard Business Review,	1991	USA	Championing	Automotive	Practitioner	Championing is politically difficult: bureaucracy gets in the way. Innovations can arise from anywhere in the organization.

Volume 69, Part 5, September / October, pp.46-56 (1991)						
Frost, P. J.//Egri, C. P., Influence of Political Action on Innovation, Leadership and Organization Development Journal, Vol. 11, Part 2, pp. 4-12 (1991)	1991	Canada	Leadership	Innovation	Qualitative	Champions need to be more skilful at politics when engaged in administrative innovation compared with product innovation. Seeking permission is a lower risk route than seeking forgiveness.
Fry, A., The Post-It Note: An Intrapreneurial Success, S.A.M. Advanced Management Journal, Vol. 52, Part 3, Summer, pp. 4-9 (1987)	1987	USA	Innovation	General	Practitioner	Intrapreneurs are sources of innovation and need people skills 3M uses executive champions to cut through political, organizational and funding issues.
Gioia, J., Twelve Reasons Why Programs Fail, PM Network, Vol.10, Part 11, pp. 16-19 (1996)	1996	USA	Programme Failure	Programme Management	Practitioner	Lack of leadership commitment and sponsorship is a recognised source of programme failure. Importance of the role.
Glover, H.//Watson, H. J.//Rainer, R. K., 20 Ways to Waste an EIS Investment, Information Strategy, Vol. 8, Part 2, pp. 11-17 (1992)	1992	USA	EIS	IT	Practitioner	One of the most important factors in EIS failures is the lack of executive sponsorship.
Gossain, S., Cracking the collaboration code, The Journal of Business Strategy, Vol. 23, Part 6, pp. 20-25 (2002)	2002	USA	E business	IT	Practitioner	Establishing executive sponsorship boosts the e-business projects chances of success.

Hall, M./Holt, R, UK Public Sector Project Management - A Cultural Perspective, Public Performance and Management Review, Vol. 25, Issue 3, Winter, pp. 298-312 (2002)	2002	UK	Project Sponsorship	Public Sector	Qualitative	Project sponsors in the public sector are caught between the realities of the public service ethos and the financially driven private sector.
Harrison,D, Are You Ready To Be A Change Sponsor?, Industrial Management, Industrial Management, Vol. 41, Part 4, August, pp. 6-9 (1999)	1999	USA	Sponsorship	Change Management.	Practitioner	Change sponsors must demonstrate commitment to change.
Harrison, M. R. Advanced Manufacturing Technology and Management Development, International Journal of Operations and Production Management, Vol.6, Part 4, pp. 61-73 (1986)	1986	UK	Champion	Advanced Manufacturing Technology	Theoretical	The idea of the product champion can be applied in the context of a process champion
Hartman,F./Ashrafi,R.A., Project Management in the Information Systems and Information Technologies Industries, Project Management Journal, Vol. 33, Part 3, September, pp. 5-15 (2002)	2002	Canada	Project Management	IT	Quantitative	Focus is project owner in software development projects. Consultation with owner at key stages / informing owner of progress is No.1 CSF. Owner role definition not clear.
Holt,R./Rowe,D., Total quality, public	2000	UK	Quality	Construction	Quantitative	Sponsor as single point of reference for projects, acting as critical leaders

management and critical leadership in civil construction projects, International Journal of Quality and Reliability Management, Vol. 17, Part 4/5, pp. 541-553 (2000)						to balance public interest / private sector gain interests. TQM perspective enables these to be reconciled. Sponsor as leader.
Horwitch M./Pralhad, C. K., Managing Multi-Organization Enterprises: The Emerging Strategic Frontier, Sloan Management Review, Vol. 22, Part 2, pp. 3-16 (1981)	1981	USA	Management	Organization	Theoretical	Focuses on the manager leading a multi organization enterprise. Leader must champion the project, communicate effectively, motivate people and recognize dissent whilst completing the project. Prescription of the role.
Houdshel,G./Watson,H., The Management Information and Decision Support System (MIDS) at Lockheed-Georgia, MIS Quarterly, Vol. 11, Part 1, March, pp. 126-140 (1987)	1987	USA	MIS	IT	Practitioner	A committed executive sponsor is essential to the success of an MIS project. Importance of the role
Houlden, B., Some Aspects of Managing O.R. Projects, The Journal of the Operational Research Society, Vol. 30, Part 8, pp. 681-690 (1979)	1979	UK	Operational Research (O. R.)	Management	Practitioner	Projects fail due to lack of or incorrect sponsorship. Importance of the role
Howell, J./Higgins, C. A., Champions of Technological Innovation, Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 35, Part 2,	1990	USA	Championing	Innovation	Quantitative	Champions are risk takers and innovators, akin to entrepreneurs. Champions induce commitment by providing emotional appeal and energy. They also exhibit the

June, pp.317-341 (1990)						characteristics of transformational leadership.
Howell, J.//Shea, C., Individual Differences, Environmental Scanning, Innovation Framing, And Champion Behaviour: Key Predictors Of Performance, Journal of Product Innovation Management, Vol. 18, Part 1, January, pp. 15-27 (2001)	2001	USA	Champion	Innovation	Quantitative	NPD champions frame innovations in such a way as to present it as an opportunity rather than a threat. Champions who use personal networks are perceived as engaging in more champion-like behaviour than those who use written communications.
Jang Y.//Lee J., Factors influencing the success of management consulting projects, International Journal of Project Management, Vol. 16, Part 2, April, pp. 67-72 (1998)	1998	Not Known	Project success factors	Management Consulting	Theoretical	Client sponsors are crucial in the success of management consultancy projects. Importance of the role.
Kanter, R. M., When a Thousand Flowers Bloom: Structural, Collective and Social Conditions For Innovation In Organizations, in Staw, B.//Cummings, L. L., Research in Organizational Behavior, JAI Press, pp.169-211 (1988)	1988	N/K	Innovation	Organizations	Theoretical	Sponsors are key to innovation and form part of the 'coalition' that makes the innovation happen.
Kanter, R. M., The Change	1983	USA	Entrepreneurship	Management	Practitioner	Change will not be implemented

Masters, Unwin Paperbacks, USA (1983)						without the push of a champion or sponsor.
Kerzner, H., In Search of Excellence in Project Management, Journal of Systems Management, Vol. 38, Part 2, February, pp. 30-40 (1987)	1987	USA	Project Management	Project Management	Practitioner	Project sponsor is key to success of the project. Importance of the role. Role definition.
Kerzner, H., Project Management: A Systems Approach to Planning, Scheduling and Controlling, 5 th Edition, Van Nostrand Reinhold (1995)	1995	USA	Project Management	Project Management	Practitioner	Project sponsor as the link between line management and the project. Provides support in times of crisis. Role changes over project lifecycle.
Kiely, T., Why Reengineering Projects Fail, Harvard Business Review, Vol. 73, Part 2, March / April, p. 15 (1995)	1995	USA	Project failure	BPR	Practitioner	Projects often fail through having the wrong sponsor.
Kim, Y./Min, B./Cha, J., The Roles Of R&D Team Leaders In Korea: A Contingent Approach., R & D Management, Vol. 29, Part 2, pp. 153-165 (1999)	1999	Korea	Leadership roles	R & D	Quantitative	Korean R & D project leaders do not engage in championing as NPD is a top down consensus driven activity.
Kirsch, L. J, The Management Of Complex Tasks In Organizations: Controlling The Systems	1996	USA	Control of Complex Projects	IS	Quantitative	Degree of control operated by the sponsor depends on their knowledge of the task being undertaken. As knowledge of the task increases,

Development Process, Organization Science, Vol. 7, Part 1, pp. 1-21 (1996)						control moves from being output based to behaviour based. Control theory as the means of describing sponsor behaviour. Sponsor as controller.
Klein, M.M., Requirements for Successful Reengineering, INFOR, Vol. 33, Part 4, November, pp. 225-233 (1995)	1995	USA	Project Requirements	BPR	Practitioner	A top management sponsor is a prerequisite for a successful reengineering project. Importance of the role.
Klein, M. M., The most fatal reengineering mistakes, Information Strategy, Vol. 10, Part 4, pp. 21-28 (1994)	1994	USA	Project Mistakes	BPR	Practitioner	Lack of sponsorship is fatal mistake number 5. Importance of the role.
Lawless, M. W./Price, L. L., An Agency Perspective on New Technology Champions, Organization Science, Vol. 3, Part 3, August, pp. 342-355 (1992)	1992	USA	Champions	Innovation	Theoretical	Champion as agent of users. If viewed as such, there are significant control issues associated with information asymmetry, technological uncertainty, difficulty in substitution and incentives.
Lee M./Na, D., Determinants Of Technical Success In Product Development When Innovative Radicalness Is Considered, Journal Of Product Innovation Management, Vol. 11, Part 1, January, pp. 62-68 (1994)	1994	Korea	NPD	Innovation	Quantitative	Champion only impacts technical performance when innovation is new and radical. Ranks and time of appearance are not significant.

Leonard-Barton,D., Implementation Characteristics of Organizational Innovations, Communications Research, Vol. 15, Part 5, October, pp. 603-631 (1988)	1988	USA	Innovation	Organizations	Qualitative	Sponsors provide political influence and access to resources. The more complex the innovation, the more powerful the sponsor has to be for implementation to be successful. Project / sponsor matching
Levine,K., Developing a planning model without a million dollar budget, Management Review, Vol. 65, Part 12, December, pp. 36-28 (1976)	1976	USA	Budgeting	Corporate Planning	Practitioner	Sponsor needed for budget planning – needs political power. Importance of the role
Maidique, M. A., Entrepreneurs, Champions and Technological Innovation, Sloan Management Review, Vol. 21, Part 2, Winter, pp. 59- 76 (1980)	1980	USA	Champions	Innovation	Practitioner	The champion always needs a counterpart: be that CEO, executive champion or sponsor. The name and nature of the role depends on the development stage of the organization, with executive champion / sponsor being associated more with diversified large businesses.
Markham, S. K., Moving technologies from lab to market, Research Technology Management, Vol. 45, Part 6, November / December, pp. 31-42 (2002)	2002	USA	Product Champions	NPD	Practitioner	Champions need sponsors to get the project through the formal processes once the product has become visible. Champion / sponsor relationship is key.

Markham, S. K., A Longitudinal Examination Of How Champions Influence Others To Support Their Projects, Journal of Product Innovation Management, Vol. 15, Part 6, November, pp. 490-502 (1998)	1998	USA	Product Champions	NPD	Quantitative	Rationality is negatively correlated with compliance with a request for help. Suggests relationships are the most significant.
Markham, S. K., Corporate Championing and Antagonism as Forms of Political Behavior: An R&D Perspective, Organization Science, Volume 11, Part 4, July / August, pp. 429-504 (2000)	2000	USA	Product Champions	R & D	Quantitative	Championing is a political activity: antagonists arise within the same department. Functional boundaries limit opposition to the project. Champions emerge systematically in line with the origin and nature of the project.
Markham, S. K./Green, S. G./Basu, R., Champions and Antagonists: Relationships with R&D Project Characteristics and Management, Journal Of Engineering And Technology Management, Vol. 8, Part 3, 4, December, pp. 217-242 (1991)	1991	USA	Product Champions	R & D	Quantitative	Projects often have multiple champions: champions support projects from their own functions.
Markham, S. K./Aiman-Smith, L., Product champions: Truths, myths and management, Research Technology	2001	USA	Product Champions	New Product Development	Theoretical	Summary of other papers on championing

Management, Vol. 44, Part 3, May / June, pp. 44-50 (2001)						
Markham S.K./Griffin, A., The breakfast of champions: Associations between champions and product development environments, practices and performance, Journal of Product Innovation Management, Vol. 15, Part 5, September, pp.436-454 (1998)	1998	USA	Product Champions	NPD	Quantitative	Project performance is not associated with champion presence, but champions do shorten cycle times. Champions improve NPD programme performance.
Markham S. K./Holahan, P. J., Political Behavior in The Product Development Process, in Rosenau, M. D./Griffin, A./Castellion. G. A./Anschuetz, N. F., The PDMA Handbook of New Product Development, John Wiley and Sons Ltd., pp. 107-117 (1996)	1996	USA	New Product Development	?	Practitioner	Ambassador role in new product development: one of 4 boundary spanning roles. Acquires resources, absorbs pressure on the team.
Martinsons, M. G., Cultivating the champions for strategic information systems, Journal of Systems Management, Vol. 44, Part 8, August, pp. 31-34 (1993)	1993	Hong Kong	Strategic Information Systems	IS	Practitioner	Champions are needed to ensure SIS implementation. Champions need sponsorship to succeed. Typology of champions: rational, participative and renegade.

McBride, N., The rise and fall of an executive information system: a case study, Information Systems Journal, Volume 7, Part 4, pp. 277-287 (1997)	1997	UK	EIS	IS	Qualitative	Systems implementations fail without sponsorship. Sponsorship as accountability.
McElhinney, D.//Proctor, T. Call Centres: Pre-evaluation of their Usefulness in Local Government, Creativity and Innovation Management, Vol. 9, Part 4, December, pp. 227-234 (2000)	2000	UK	Call Centres	Local Government	Qualitative	Implementation driven by Chief Executive or Director of Finance as product champion.
Melcher, A.//Kayser, T., Leadership Without Formal Authority: The Project Department, California Management Review, Vol. 13, Part 2, Winter, pp.57-64 (1970)	1971	USA	Project Leadership	NPD	Qualitative	Project leader (champion) uses tactics such as formal communications, friendship, co-opting other groups, participation, trading influence and help, confrontation.
Mingione, A., Search for Excellence Within a Systems Development Project, Journal of Systems Management, Vol. 37, Part 3, March, pp. 31-34 (1986)	1986	USA	Systems Development Projects	IS	Practitioner	Champions need vision and enthusiasm to excel.
Nam, C. H.//Tatum, C. B., Leaders and champions	1997	USA	Innovation	Construction	Qualitative	Champions need resources and power to innovate in construction.

for construction innovation, Construction Management Economics, Vol. 15, Part 3, May, pp. 259-270 (1997)						
Nevan Wright,J., Time and budget: the twin imperatives of a project sponsor, International Journal of Project Management, Vol.15, Part 3, pp.181-186 (1997)	1997	New Zealand	Project Sponsorship	Project Management	Practitioner	Sponsors provide strong and visible support to project managers. Communications between sponsor and manager are key. Sponsor shares uncertainty of outcome with project manager.
Office of Government Commerce, Managing Successful Programmes, 3 rd Edition (2002a)	2002	UK	Programme Management	Public Sector	Practitioner	Programme Director is ultimately accountable for the success of the programme and must be a strong leader with decision making skills.
Office of Government Commerce, Managing Successful Projects with PRINCE2, 3 rd Edition (2002b)	2002	UK	Project Management	Public Sector	Practitioner	Project executive fulfils the role of sponsor, being ultimately accountable for the project.
Palvia,S./Chervaney,N., An Experimental Investigation of Factors Influencing Predicted Success of DSS Implementation, Information & Management, Vol. 29, Part 1, 43-53 (1995)	1995	USA	DSS (Decision Support System) Implementation	IS	Quantitative	Champion increases predicted chance of successful implementation by 20%.
Parr,A./Shanks,G., A	2000	Australia	Project	ERP (Enterprise	Qualitative	An experienced ERP implementer as

Model of ERP Project Implementation, Journal of Information Technology, Vol. 15, Part 4, pp. 289-303 (2000)			Implementation	Resource Planning)		champion is important for ERP project success.
Peters, T. J.//Waterman, R. H., In Search of Excellence: Lessons from Americas Best Run Companies, Harper and Row (1982)	1982	USA	Company management	Management	Practitioner	Champions are a necessity for product innovation: without them, the innovation fails. The executive champion and godfather (the stuff of legend) are also required.
Pinto, J. K.//Slevin, D. P., The Project Champion: Key to Implementation Success, Project Management Journal, Volume 20, Part 4, pp. 15-20 (1989)	1989	USA	Project Sponsorship	Project Management	Theoretical	Champions are necessary for successful projects. 4 types: originator, entrepreneur, sponsor and project manager. Sponsor types change over the project lifecycle.
Procaccino, J. D.//Verner, J. M.//Overmyer, S. P.//Darter, M. E., Case study: Factors for early prediction of software development success, Information and Software Technology, Vol. 44, Part 1, pp.53-62 (2002)	2002	USA	Software Development	IS	Quantitative	Project sponsors are perceived as necessary to project success, but it is better to start without one and then acquire one than start and have sponsor commitment drop away as the project progresses,
Quinn, J. B., Technological Innovation, Entrepreneurship and Strategy, Sloan Management Review, Vol. 20. Part 3, Spring, pp. 19-30 (1979)	1979	USA	Innovation	Innovation	Theoretical	Individual entrepreneurship is more difficult in organizations due to institutional nature. Innovation is required for organization to survive. Champions are required for organizational innovations.

Radnor, Z.//Robinson, J., Benchmarking Innovation: A Short Report, Creativity and Innovation Management, Vol. 9, Part 1, March, pp. 3-13 (2000)	2000	UK	Benchmarking	Innovation	Qualitative	Sponsors / champions are used by in the innovation process.
Rai, A.//Paper, D., Successful reengineering through IT investment, Information Strategy, Vol. 10, Part 4, Summer, pp.15-20 (1994)	1994	USA	Reengineering	IT	Theoretical	Champions should be bearers of persuasive and evaluative information about an innovation. Importance of the role.
Roberts, E.//Fusfeld, A. R., Staffing the Innovative Technology-Based Revolution, Sloan Management Review, Vol. 22, Part 3, Spring, pp. 19- 34 (1981)	1981	USA	HR Management	Innovation	Theoretical	Needed roles in innovation are the champion and the sponsor.
Rothwell, R.//Freeman, C.//Horsley, A.//Jervis, V. T. P.//Robertson, A. B.//Townsend, J., SAPPHO Updated - Project SAPPHO Phase II, Research policy, Volume 3, pp.258-291 (1974)	1974	UK	Innovation	Organization	Quantitative	Business innovator as the counterpart to the product champion. Business innovator key to innovation success. Role definitions.
Roure, L., Product champion characteristics in France and Germany, Human Relations, Vol. 54,	2001	France / Germany	Championing	New Product Development	Quantitative	Top down championing dominates in France, bottom up in Germany. Cultural differences (Hofstede)

Part 5, May, pp.663-682 (2001)						
Royer, I., Why Bad Projects Are So Hard to Kill., Harvard Business Review, Vol. 81, Part 2, February, pp. 48-56 (2003)	2003	France	Champions	New Product Development	Practitioner	Exit champions to challenge and kill bad projects. Champions generate belief in the project, sustain it. Exit champion as a role.
Schon, D. A., Champions for Radical New Inventions, Harvard Business Review, Vol. 41, Part 2, March/April, pp. 77-86 (1963)	1963	USA	Champions	Innovation	Qualitative	Organizations are resistant to change: the status quo is a natural reaction to protect ourselves. Champions emerge to push through change. Role definition.
Shane, S. A., Are Champions Different from Non-Champions?, Journal of Business Venturing, Vol. 9, pp.397-421 (1994)	1994	USA	Championing	Roles	Quantitative	Champions are different from non-champions, even allowing for national cultural differences.
Shane, S. A./Venkataraman, S./MacMillan, I. C., The Effects of Cultural Differences on New Technology Championing Behaviour Within Firms, Journal of High Technology Management Research, Vol.5, Part 2, pp. 163-181 (1995)	1995	USA	Championing	Culture	Theoretical	Championing behaviour is culture. 12 propositions are developed based on the extremes of Hofstede's cultural dimensions.
Shays, E. M., The consultant's role in re-	1994	USA	BPR	Management Consulting	Practitioner	Sponsorship needs to be sustained. Differentiates between sponsor,

engineering, Journal of Management Consulting, Vol. 8, Part 2, Fall, pp.43 on (1994)						protector and mentor. Importance of role.
Shim, D.//Lee, M., Upward Influence Styles of R&D Project Leaders, IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management, Vol. 48, Part 4, November, pp.394-413 (2001)	2001	Korea	Project Leadership	R&D	Quantitative	Championing as an upward influence behaviour.
Sipior, J., Expert System Stalemate: A Case of Project Champion Departure, Information Resource Management Journal, Vol. 13, Part 4, October-December, pp. 16-24 (2000)	2000	USA	Project Champion	Expert Systems	Qualitative	Champion departure is a major project issue.
Smith J. J.//McKeon J. E.//Hoy K. L.//Boysen R. L.//Shechter L.//Roberts E. B., Lessons from 10 Case Studies in Innovation – I, Research Management, Vol. 27, Part 5, September / October, pp. 23-27 (1984)	1984	USA	Innovation	Chemicals	Practitioner	Product Champion, R&D Sponsor and Business Sponsor as separate roles. All sponsors were senior members of the organization.
Sohal, A. S., Assessing AMT implementations: An empirical field study, Technovation, Vol. 16,	1996	Australia	Implementation	AMT	Qualitative	Champion necessary for success, covering technical and managerial leadership. Importance of the role.

Part 8, August, pp. 377-384 (1996)						
Somers, T. K./Nelson, K., The Impact of Critical Success Factors Across The Stages of Enterprise Resource Planning Implementations, Proceedings of the 34th Hawaii International Conference On Systems Sciences (HFCSS-3), 3-6 January, 2001, Maui, Hawaii (2001)	2001	N/K	ERP	Critical Success Factors	Academic	Top management support and a project champion are key to the success of an ERP implementation. Champion should be a top executive, as the champion has direct responsibility and accountability for the project outcome. Confusion over sponsor / champion.
Souder, W. E., Encouraging Entrepreneurship in the Large Corporations, Research Management, Vol. 24, Part 3, May, pp.18-22 (1981)	1981	USA	Entrepreneurship	Innovation	Qualitative	Entrepreneurs need sponsors. Role definition
Souder, W. E., Managing New Product Innovations, Lexington Books, USA (1987)	1987	USA	NPD	Innovation	Academic	Intrapreneurs always have an angel: this angel is higher up in the organization that sponsors the innovation by providing resources and or funds. They also bear the risk of failure.
Sphuler, R./Biagini, R. The Role and Weaknesses of Top Management in Internal Projects, in , Gareis, R.,	1990	Switzerland	Project Management	Project Management	Practitioner	Project sponsors either intervene too much or too little: 9 duties of the sponsor are presented. Role definition.

Handbook of Management by Projects, Ferdinand Berger and Sohne (1990)						
Turner, J., The Handbook of Project-Based Management, McGraw-Hill (1993)	1993	UK	Project Management		Practitioner	The sponsor represents the parent organization or owner of the project.
Turner, J. R./Muller, R., On the nature of the project as a temporary organization, International Journal of Project Management, Vol. 21, Part 1, pp. 1-8 (2003)	2003	UK	Project Management	Project Management	Theoretical	Project manager as chief executive of temporary organization.
Venkataraman, S./Macgrath, R. G./MacMillan, I. C., Progress in Research on Corporate Venturing in Sexton, D. L./Kasarda, J. D., The State of The Art of Entrepreneurship, PWS Kent, pp. 487-519 (1992)	1992	N/K	Entrepreneurship	Entrepreneurship	Theoretical	There are 4 kinds of championing: championing ideas, opportunistic behaviour (change of routines), championing resources and championing incorporation. These match the phases of the innovation process.
Volkoff, O./Chan, Y. E./Newson, P. E. F., Leading the development and implementation of collaborative interorganizational systems, Information & Management, Vol. 35, Part 2, February, pp.63-75	1999	Canada	Systems development	Inter - organizational systems	Qualitative	Each organization that contributes needs its own sponsor. Sponsor role changes over project lifecycle.

(1999)						
Von Hippel, E., Successful and Failing Internal Corporate Ventures - An Empirical Analysis, Industrial Marketing Management, Vol. 6, Part 3, pp. 163-174 (1977)	1977	USA	Innovation	Corporate Venturing	Quantitative	Venture sponsor screens ideas, picks some and funds them. Informal or formal role. Risk of venture failure. Importance of the role .
Watson, H. J./Rainer, R. K., A Manager's Guide to Executive Support Systems, Business Horizons, Vol. 34, Part 2, March/April, pp. 44-50 (1991)	1991	USA	ESS (Executive Support Systems)	IS	Practitioner	Operating sponsor responsible for system development. Key role is successful implementation. Executive sponsor is CEO / VP. Importance of the roles .
Watson, H. J./Rainer, R. K./Koh, C. E., Executive Information Systems: A Framework for Development and a Survey of Current Practices, MIS Quarterly, Vol. 15, Part 1, March, pp. 13-30 (1991)	1991	USA	EIS and ESS	IS	Quantitative	Executive sponsor and operating sponsor required for successful implementation. Importance of the roles.
Westall, G., Post-merger intranets, Strategic HR Review, Volume 1, Part 3, Page 4 (2002)	2002	UK	Intranet	IS	Practitioner	Sponsors track usage, select content managers and line training.
Witte, E., "Power and Innovation: A Two Centre Theory, International	1977	Germany	IT		Quantitative	Two centre theory: promoter by power and promoter by know-how. Backed by empirical evidence.

Studies of Management Organization, (Spring),47-70. (1977)						Promoter by power as sponsor.
Woolley, R. M., The Two Faces Of Championship: An Examination Of The Behavioural And Individual-Differences Characteristics Of The Champion, PhD Thesis, University of British Columbia, (1995)	1995	Canada	Champion Behaviours	N/K	Quantitative	Championship is a multi-dimensional construct that, at a higher-order level, can be described with reference to two orthogonal dimensions, labelled the dark and heroic side. Individuals can be ordered along a continuum on these dimensions and this scaling reflects meaningful differences in behaviour.

APPENDIX M: Project Sponsorship: Roles

Author Name / Year	Role Name					
	A	B	C	D	E	F
Schon, 1963	Inventor	Product champion				
Witte, 1973	Fachpromoter (promoter by know how)	Machpromoter (promoter by power)				
Chakrabarti, 1974	Product champion	Members of functional groups				
Rothwell et al, 1974	Technical innovator	Product champion	Business innovator			
Maidique, 1980	Technologist	Product champion	Executive champion			
Roberts, 1981	Idea Generator	Championing	Project leading	Gatekeeping	Sponsoring	
Souder, 1981	Entrepreneurs	Sponsors				
Peters, 1982	Champion	Executive champion	Godfather			

Burgelman, 1983	Product champion	Organizational champion				
Calish, 1984	Champion / entrepreneur	Sponsor				
Smith, 1984	Scientific user / process user / product user	Idea generator	Problem solver	R&D sponsor	Quality controller	R&D Strategist
Clark, 1987	Heavyweight project manager					
Bawdry, 1988	Idea Generator	Champion	Project leader	Gatekeeper	Sponsor	
Souder, 1987	Intrapreneur	Angel				
Angle, 1989	Innovation manager	Sponsor / champion	Critic	Institutional leader		
Pinto, 1989	Creative originator	Entrepreneur	Godfather / sponsor			
Clark, 1992	Heavyweight project manager	Executive sponsor				
Day, 1994	Bottom up champion	Top down champion	Dual role champion			
Caldwell, 1998	Champion	Sponsor				

Damsgaard, 2000	Technology champion	Sponsor				
Radnor, 2000	Champion / sponsor					
Bartlett, 2002	Champion	Sponsor				
Markham, 2002	Champion	Project sponsor				

Based on (Chakrabarti and Hauschildt, 1989).

APPENDIX N: Project Sponsorship: Role Definitions

Reference:	Field	Role Name	Definition
Angle, H. L./Van de Ven, A. H., Suggestions for Managing The Innovation Journey (1989)	Innovation	Sponsor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High level manager • Leadership role • Powerful • Resource provider • Advocate • Runs interference
Archibald,R.D., Managing High-Technology Programs and Projects (1992)	Project Management	Project Sponsor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Executive role • Accountable for project investment • Define and make business case • Approve project scope and objectives • Issue project directives • Appoint project manager • Approve project organization • Monitor project environment • Approve project changes • Review progress • Provide strategic direction • Set strategic priorities • Resolve escalated conflicts
Brimm, I. M., Risky Business: Why Sponsoring Innovations May Be Hazardous To Career Health (1988)	Organizational innovation	Sponsor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Role in design and implementation of the innovation • Role in achieving organizational acceptance • Organizational and personal identification with activity and its outcomes
Briner, W./Hastings, C./Geddes, M., Project Leadership (1996)	Project management	Sponsor	<p>Signpost</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stakeholders understand strategic direction

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relate projects purpose to the Big Picture • Definition of project purpose and success criteria • Risk clarification • Stakeholder negotiation <p>Architect</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Represent project to senior management • Market the project • Design project structure and processes • Design stakeholder involvement approach <p>Sustainer</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Keep project on track • Motivate project team • Feedback to project manager • Feed forward perspective
Burbridge, J. J./Friedman, W. H., The Roles of User and Sponsor in MIS Projects (1988)	MIS	Sponsor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promotes and spearheads project • Lobbyist for project • Reports to executives and customers on progress • Champions system to organization • Motivates participants • Ensures project participants meeting obligations • Provides resources • Ensures strategy / project compatibility • Ensures

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> understanding of organizational impact Ensures compatibility between organizational structure and system
Caldwell, D. F.//Posner, B. Z., Project Leadership, The Project Management Institute Project Management Handbook (1998)	Project Management	Sponsor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provides resources Supports the project
Calish, I. G.//Gamache, R. D., Wizards and Champions: The Kingdom of New Venture Management (1984)	Venture Management	Sponsor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Protects champion from scrutiny Sounding board for champion Provides resources
Chakrabati, A. K.//Hauschildt, J., The Division of Labour In Innovation Management (1989)	Innovation	Sponsor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provides resources Ensures innovation / strategy fit Blocks and hinders opposition Communicates with functional managers
Clark, K. B.//Wheelwright, S. C., Organizing and Leading 'Heavyweight' Development Teams (1992)	Automotive	Executive sponsor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Coaching and mentoring team leader Liaison with senior management Defines team boundaries
Damsgaard, J.//Scheepers, R., Managing the crises of intranet implementation: a stage model (2000)	Intranet implementation	Sponsor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sponsor takes control of the innovation Have funds and authority Organizational power Role alters over project lifecycle
Day, D., Raising Radicals -	Venture	Organizational	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provides

Different Processes for Championing Innovative Corporate Ventures (1994)	Management	sponsor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> resources and funding • Legitimizes project • Coaching and mentoring • Hierarchical power
Duffin, M., Pain and change (1992)	Change Management	Sponsor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Legitimizes change • Demonstrates commitment • Direct authority and power
Fry, A., The Post-It Note: An Intrapreneurial Success (1987)	New Product Development	Executive champion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Commitment to new product • Provide funding • Powerful to circumvent bureaucracy
Harrison,D, Are You Ready To Be A Change Sponsor? (1999)	Change Management	Sponsor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Authorizes resources • Ensure change occurs • Legitimizes change • Demonstrates commitment
Horwitch M.//Prahalad, C. K., Managing Multi-Organization Enterprises: (1981)	Multi Organization Enterprises	Champion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communicate effectively • Advocate the project • Motivate people
Kerzner, H., In Search of Excellence in Project Management, (1987)	Project Management	Sponsor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Objective setting • Up front planning • Project organization • Key staffing • Master plan • Policies • Monitoring execution • Priority setting • Conflict resolution • Executive client contact
Lowenthal, J. Six Sigma Project Management: A Pocket Guide, (2002)	Six Sigma	Champion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide vision • Make strategic plan • Allocate

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> resources • Provide support • Remove barriers •
Maidique, M. A., Entrepreneurs, Champions and Technological Innovation (1980)	Innovation	Executive champion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Influence and power • Resource allocation • Risk acceptance • Support for the project
Markham, S. K., Moving technologies from lab to market (2002)	New Product Development	Sponsor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides resources • Advocate for the project
Markham, S. K./Holahan, P. J., Political Behavior in The Product Development Process (1996)	New Product Development	Ambassador	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Absorb outside pressure on team • Protect team from extra work and requests • Persuade other of team importance • Talk up the team • Acquire resources • Assess support and opposition to the project • Gather information about company strategy useful to team
Nevan Wright,J., Time and budget: the twin imperatives of a project sponsor (1997)	Project Management	Sponsor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Secures resources • Monitor progress • Paymaster • Tradeoffs between cost / time • Define project brief (with project manager) • Ask questions • Accept responsibility • Support the project
Office of Government Commerce, Managing Successful Programmes (2002a)	Programme Management	Programme Director	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Own the vision for the programme • Secure the investment

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Realise the benefits • Manage interfaces with programme stakeholders • Ensure linkage between programme and organization strategy both at the start and on a continuing basis • Manage organization and staff through change process • Commission reviews • Overall control of implementation • Establish programme, secure resources • Monitor progress • Accept ultimate responsibility
<p>Office of Government Commerce, Managing Successful Projects with PRINCE2 (2002b)</p>	<p>Project Management</p>	<p>Project Executive</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Oversee development of project brief and business case • Ensure coherent project organization and plans • Authorise expenditure • Monitor and control progress at the strategic level • Check scope changes against business case • Ensure risk tracking and mitigation take place • Brief management about progress • Organize and chair project board meetings • Recommend future action on

			<p>the project to management if project tolerance exceeded</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Approve end project and lessons learned reports • Approve project closure notification • Ensure benefits have been realised •
Office of Government Commerce, Senior Responsible Owner / Project Owner	IT Project Management	Senior Responsible Owner / Project Owner	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responsible for ensuring project / programme meets objectives • Owner of overall business change • Personally responsible for project / programme • Review project / programme at appropriate stages • Development of brief and business plan • Development of organization structure and logical plans • Monitoring and control of progress • Formal project closure • Post implementation review • Problem resolution and referral • Be a reputable, active figurehead
Peters, T. J./Waterman, R. H., In Search of Excellence (1982)	Management	Executive champion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Husbands new idea • Shields idea from negation
Pinto, J. K./Slevin, D. P., The Project Champion: Key to	Project Management	Sponsor / Godfather	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Actively supports project

Implementation Success (1989)			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does everything possible to facilitate development • Make resources and funding available • Provide protection • Coaching • Exerts political power
Roberts, E.//Fusfeld, A. R., Staffing the Innovative Technology-Based Revolution (1981)	Innovation	Sponsor / Coach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides access to power base I organization • Buffers the project team • Obtains resources • Provides legitimacy and organizational confidence • Senior person who knows the organizational ropes
Rothwell, R.//Freeman, C.//Horsley, A.//Jervis, V. T. P.//Robertson, A. B.//Townsend, J., SAPPHO Updated - Project SAPPHO Phase II (1974)	Innovation	Business Innovator	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responsible for progress of project • Manager
Schon, D. A., Champions for Radical New Inventions (1963)	Innovation	Champion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Powerful individual • Interests cut across all areas of the firm • Risk taker • Ownership of innovation • Internal marketing
Souder, W. E., Encouraging Entrepreneurship in the Large Corporations, (1981)	New Venture Management	Sponsor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High up in organization • Provide funds • Resource provision • Shoulders risk for the project • Influence and formal power

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coach
Souder, W. E., Managing New Product Innovations (1987)	New Product Development	Angel	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides resources • Provides funds • Formal and informal power • Risk taking
Sphuler, R./Biagini, R. The Role and Weaknesses of Top Management in Internal Projects (1990)	Project Management	Sponsor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Defines projects • Formulates project orders • Sets project priorities • Appoints project managers • Set the project organization and decision authorities • Request and approve detailed operational authorities for projects • Request and approve work planning and budget for projects • Fix milestones and make milestone decisions between individual project phases • Support the project managers versus line managers
Witte, E., "Power and Innovation: A Two Centre Theory (1977)	IT	Machtpromoter (promoter by power)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hierarchically powerful • Protection for innovation • Sanction against opponents • Top manager • Risk taking

APPENDIX O: Competence: Descriptive Analysis Table

Reference	Year	Location	Subject	Sector / Context	Study Characteristics (Qualitative, Quantitative, Theoretical or Practitioner)	Principal Ideas
Ashworth, P./Lucas, U., What Is the "World" of Phenomenography?, Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 42, Part 4, December, pp. 415-431 (1998)	1998	N/A	Phenomenography	Research	Theoretical	Problems of suspending preconceived ideas in the course of phenomenographic research: is reality experienced in a limited number of different ways?
Baker, B., MCI Management Competences and APL., Journal of European Industrial Training, Vol. 15, Part 9, pp. 17-26 (1991)	1991	UK	Management Competence	Management	Theoretical	Competences as established in the Management Charter Initiative are set up as generic: this is despite evidence that suggests competence is sector specific.
Bassellier, G./Reich, B. H./Benbasat, I., Information Technology Competence of Business Managers: a Definition and Research Model, Journal of Management Information Systems, Vol. 17, Part 4, Spring (2001)	2001	N/A	IT competence	IT	Theoretical	Competence can be defined as skill, a personality trait, or as knowledge. A combination of these is used to derive a theoretical model of IT manager competence.
Bernard, A./Mccosker, H./Gerber, R.,	1999	N/A	Phenomenography	Nature of phenomenography	Theoretical	Phenomenography relies on conceptions (what and

Phenomenography: a Qualitative Research Approach for Exploring Understanding in Health Care, Qualitative Health Research, Vol. 9, Part 2, March, pp. 216-226 (1999)						how aspects of a phenomenon) and categories of description and as such is an explorative and analytic approach to research.
Birchall, D.//Tan, J.//Gay, K., Competences for international management., Singapore Management Review, Vol. 18, Part 1, January, pp. 1-13 (1996)	1996	International	Competence	International management competencies	Quantitative	Definitions of competence vary, from behaviour related to composite versions covering motives, traits, social knowledge or a body of knowledge that is used in work. International competencies are therefore harder to define than those for national managers, as the contexts are more variable.
Boyatzis, R. E., The Competent Manager: A Model for Effective Performance, Wiley-Interscience, USA (1982)	1982	USA	Competence	Managerial Competence	Quantitative	A generic model of competency based around the person: competency is an underlying characteristic of a person.
Brown, J. S.//Duguid, P., Organizational Learning and Communities-Of-Practice: Towards a Unified View of Working, Learning and Innovation, Organization Science, Vol. 2, Part 1,	1991	USA	Work and Learning	Individual Work	Qualitative	People work in different ways from job descriptions and organization charts. Education and training can focus on the abstract rather than actual

February, pp. 40-57 (1991)						practice. Championing as a form of non-canonical practice.
Brown, R., Meta-competence: A recipe for reframing the competence debate, Personnel Review, Vol.22, Part 6, pp. 25-36 (1993)	1993	UK	Competence	Managerial Competence	Theoretical	Competence definitions as set out in the Management Charter Initiative (MCI) fail to capture the richness of what managers actually do.
Burgoyne, J., Creating The Managerial Portfolio: Building On Competency Approaches to Management Development, Management Education and Development, Vol. 20, Part 1, pp. 56-61 (1989)	1989	UK	Competence	Managerial Competence	Theoretical	8 issues over competence: is it divisible, is objective technical measurement possible, are they universal, they leave out moral, political and ethical dimensions, managerial activity changes over time, no one right way to manage, difference between being competent and having competencies and collective competence.
Burgoyne, J., The competence movement: Issues, stakeholders and prospects, Personnel Review, Vol.22, Part 6, pp. 6-13 (1993)	1993	UK	Competence	Competence Movement and Stakeholder	Theoretical	The competence movement covers educationalists, psychologists, managers and HR professionals. The current movement takes a rational, organizational based view

						of competence and reduces it to an individual level.
Canning, R., The Quest for Competence, Industrial and Commercial Training, Vol. 22, Part 5, pp.12-16 (1990)	1990	UK	Competence	Competence Development and Context	Theoretical	It is inappropriate to apply a single generic model of competence to organizations: taking Morgan's different images, it is hard to see how one competence model applies to them all.
Cannon, F., Business-driven management development: developing competences which drive business performance., Journal of European Industrial Training, Vol. 19, Part 2, pp. 26-31 (1995)	1995	UK	Competence	Competence Development	Practitioner	Strategy driven top down management competence development. Mechanistic approach.
Capaldo, G./Volpe, A., Management of Capabilities and Situations in R&D Centres: The Matrix of Competences., R & D Management, Vol. 26, Part 3, July, pp. 231-239 (1996)	1996	Italy	Competence	R&D	Qualitative	Abstract definitions of competence do not recognize the complexity and uncertainty associated with knowledge intensive firms. By adopting a situational approach to competence, an alternative set of competencies are derived.
Cockerill, T./Hunt, J./Schroder, H., Managerial Competencies:	1995	UK/USA	Competence	High Performance Management	Practitioner	Competence as two level phenomenon: threshold

Fact or Fiction?, Business Strategy Review, Vol. 6, Part 3, Autumn, pp. 1-12 (1995)						and high performance. But they are difficult to derive.
Collin, A., Managers' Competence: Rhetoric, Reality and Research, Personnel Review, Vol. 18, Part 6, pp. 20-25 (1989)	1989	UK	Competence	Nature of Competence Research	Theoretical	Most of the research into competence has been undertaken using a scientific analytical method – a paradigm. This limits research into competence by virtue of its ontological position. Other perspectives need to be taken to understand competence more fully.
Currie, G., Stakeholders views of management development as a cultural change process in the health service., International Journal of Public Sector Management, Vol.11, Part 1, pp. 7-26 (1998)	1998	UK	Competence Based Management Development	Public Sector / NHS	Qualitative	A competence based management development programme was resisted strongly by participants and ultimately failed. This was due to the lack of context sensitivity in the content of the course and the failure to recognise the differences between both the public and private sectors as well as between managerial and professional values.
Currie, G./Darby, R., Competence-based management development: rhetoric and reality., Journal of	1995	UK	Competence Based Management Development	N/K	Qualitative	Competence based management development programme failed. This was due to a

European Industrial Training, Vol.19, Part 5, pp. 11-18 (1995)						lack of definition of competence, the pursuit of a prescriptive general framework and the absence of context for the programme within the organization.
Dall'Alba,G./Sandberg,J., Educating for competence in professional practice, Instructional Science, Vol. 24, pp. 411-437 (1996)	1996	N/R	Phenomenography	Competence	Theoretical	There is a discrepancy between research on practice and the ways in which practitioner experience their practice. A focus on lived experience of practice would overcome this.
Day, M., Managerial Competence and The Charter Initiative, Personnel Management, Vol. 24, Part 11, August, pp. 30-34 (1994)	1988	UK	Competence		Practitioner	Competence as an output defined generic measure.
Finn, R., A Synthesis of Current Research on Management Competencies, The Henley Management College, HWP 10/93, (1993)	1993	N/R	Competence		Theoretical	Current research into competence can be categorized either as input, output or process models. A fourth, transformational model is suggested.
Giorgi, A., A Phenomenological Perspective on Some Phenomenographic Results on Learning, Journal of Phenomenological Psychology,	1999	N/K	Phenomenography		Theoretical	Phenomenography is different from phenomenology in a number of distinct ways. Different goals and levels

Vol. 30, Part 2, Fall, pp. 68-93 (1999)						of analysis.
Hamlin, B./Stewart, J., Approaches to Management Development in the UK, Leadership & Organization Development Journal, Vol. 11, Part 5, pp. 27-32 (1990)	1990	UK	Competence	Education	Qualitative	Study found strong evidence to support the existence of a universal set of management competence criteria 1/3 rd were general, 2/3 organization specific..
Holmes, L./Joyce, P., Rescuing the useful concept of managerial competence: From outcomes back to process, Personnel Review, Vol. 22, Part 6, pp. 37-52 (1993)	1993	N/K	Competence		Theoretical	Current approaches to competence are outcome driven, rationalistic and generic. They do not capture the complexity of what managers do. It is by adopting a reflective learning based process, rather than the former approach can managerial competence be improved.
Iles, P., Achieving Strategic Coherence In HRD Through Competence-Based Management., Personnel Review, Vol. 22, Part 6, pp. 63-80 (1993)	1993	N/K	Competence		Qualitative	Organization specific competency models can be created to fit into an organizations strategy. Training, development, selection and recruitment can all be run accordingly.
Iles, P., Employee Resourcing, in Storey, J., Human Resource Management: A Critical Text, Thomson Learning (2001)	2001	N/R	Competence		Theoretical	Current competence practices can be criticised for a number of reasons: conceptual ambiguity,

						generic off the shelf nature, their focus on the present / past and on their lack of emphasis on key skills like creativity or sensitivity.
Jacobs, R. Getting The Measure of Management Competence, Personnel Management, June, pp. 32-37 (1989)	1989	UK	Competence		Practitioner	Competence is a difficult concept and therefore is not easy to evaluate. Soft qualities, the situational nature of work and lack of work predictability all make current competency work questionable.
Jones, N./Connolly, M., The competent primary head teacher: broadening the management competence approach or abandoning it?, Public Money & Management, Vol. 21, Part 2, April-June, pp.53-60 (2001)	2001	UK	Competence	Education	Qualitative	The MCI competence model did not fit well with head teachers in primary schools, as the context was so different. Post rationalization of political activity to comply with MCI models of rationality was commonplace in the assessment process.
Jubb, R./Robotham, D., Competences in management development: challenging the myths. Journal of European Industrial Training, Vol. 21, Part 4/5, pp. 171-175 (1997)	1997	N/K	Competence	Management Development	Theoretical	6 myths regarding competence: it has been defined, managerial effectiveness can be identified, management is a generic activity, effectiveness can be measured, management comprises skills,

						behaviours or traits are the standards minima or maxima.
Kanungo, R. B./Misra, S., Managerial Resourcefulness: A Reconceptualization of Management Skills, Human Relations, Volume 45, Part 12, December, pp. 1311-1332 (1992)	1992	N/R	Competence		Theoretical	Competencies are the basic components of managerial resourcefulness. The components of managerial resourcefulness are affective, intellectual; and action-oriented competences.
Lawler III, E. E., From job-based to competency-based organizations, Journal of Organizational Behavior, Vol. 15, pp. 3-15 (1994)	1994	N/R	Competence			The individual and their capabilities are the building block of the organization, rather than the job.
Leonard, D./Sensiper, S., The Role of Tacit Knowledge in Group Innovation, California Management Review, Volume 40, Part 3, Spring, pp. 112-132 (1998)	1998	N/K	Competence	Knowledge	Theoretical	Tacit knowledge plays an important part in all work activities, from problem solving, problem finding to prediction and anticipation
Marton, F., Studying Conceptions of Reality: a Metatheoretical Note, Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 25, Part 4, pp. 159-169 (1981)	1981	N/K	Phenomenography		Theoretical	There are only a limited number of ways in which phenomena are experienced.
Marton, F., Phenomenography - A Research Approach to	1986	N/R	Phenomenography		Theoretical	Phenomenography deals with the relationship

Investigating Different Understandings of Reality, Journal of Thought, Vol. 21, pp. 28-49 (1986)						between human beings and the world around them by taking a social constructionist viewpoint.
Marton, F., The Phenomenography of Learning: A Qualitative Approach to Educational Research and Some of its Implications for Didactics, in Mandl, H./De Corte, E./Bennett, S. N./Friedrich, H. F., Learning and instruction: European research in an international context., Vol. 2.1: Social and cognitive aspects of learning and instruction, Pergamon Press, pp. 601-616 (1990)	1990		Phenomenography		Theoretical	Phenomenography describes how phenomena or aspects of the world are conceptualized. Learning then becomes a change in an individual-world relation.
Marton, F./Booth, S., Learning and Awareness, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, USA (1997)	1997	N/K	Phenomenography	Learning	Theoretical	The way in which we experience a phenomenon, the specific meaning it has for us, is the most fundamental aspect of learning. Learning is learning to experience.
McGregor, J./Tweed, D., Gender and managerial competence: support for theories of androgyny?, Women in Management Review, Vol. 16, Part 6, pp. 279-287 (2001)	2001	New Zealand	Competence	Gender Differences in Managerial Competences	Quantitative	Women had different competence rankings and competences for future development compared with men. There were also some similarities.

Miller, L., Managerial competences., Industrial & Commercial Training, Vol. 23, Part 6 (1991)	1991	N/R	Competence		Theoretical	As the MCI approach is grounded in functional analysis, it is based on what managers actually do. Therefore it represents a realistic approach to competence development.
Morgan, G., Riding The Waves of Change: Developing Managerial Competencies for a Turbulent World, Jossey-Bass Inc., USA (1988)	1988	Canada	Competence	Oil / Petrochemical	Qualitative	Competences for the future can be developed by looking at the environment, scenario building and by having an entrepreneurial mindset.
Noordegraaf, M., Professional sense-makers: managerial competencies amidst ambiguity, The International Journal of Public Sector Management, Vol. 13, Part 4, pp. 319-332 (2000)	2000	N/R	Competence		Theoretical	Posits the idea that public sector managers have 3 distinctive competencies: interpretive, institutional and textual. There is conflict between these and this generates ambiguity.
Nordhaug, O.//Gronhaug, K., Competences as resources in firms, International Journal of Human Resource Management, Vol. 5, Part 1, pp. 89-106 (1994)	1994	N/R	Competence		Theoretical	Competence as work related knowledge, skills and abilities: gained through experience and education.
Nordhaug, O., Competence Specificities in Organizations - A Classificatory Framework, International Studies of Management and Organization,	1998	N/R	Competence		Theoretical	Competencies can be classified into 6 types according to task specificity, firm specificity and industry specificity.

Vol. 28, Part 1, Spring, pp. 8-29 (1998)						
Pang, M., Two Faces of Variation: on continuity in the phenomenographic movement, Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 47, Part 2, pp.145-156 (2003)	2003	N/R	Phenomenography		Theoretical	Phenomenography focuses on mapping the variations in ways of experiencing a phenomenon. Those experiencing a phenomenon can only discern a particular aspect when they experience variation in that aspect.
Pye, A., Management competence in the public sector., Public Money & Management, Vol. 8, Part 4, Winter, pp. 62-64 (1988)	1988	UK	Competence	Public Sector	Theoretical	List based competence definitions miss the complexity of managerial life. They are based on ideas about managerial effectiveness that are similarly hard to pin down. Thus they miss the context in which managerial action takes place.
Pye, A., Management training: acts of faith, scenes of competence., Journal of General Management, Vol. 13, Part 4, Summer, pp. 74-97 (1988)	1988	UK	Competence	Management Training	Mixed	There is a tacit dimension to competence and performance: there are elements to each concept that can be isolated and described, but do not give the whole picture.
Richardson, J., The Concepts	1999	N/R	Phenomenography		Theoretical	Phenomenography falls

and Methods of Phenomenographic Research, Review of Educational Research, Vol. 69, Part 1, Spring, pp. 53-82 (1999)						foul of the qualitative research dilemma: it describes people's descriptions rather than the phenomenon itself. A social constructionist perspective would accept this, whereas a realist perspective would not.
Robotham, D. // Jubb, R., Competences: measuring the unmeasurable, Management Development Review, Vol. 9, Part 5, pp. 25-29 (1996)	1996	N/R	Competence		Theoretical	The competence approach to management development is in doubt as the concept of effectiveness and competence are all context dependent and are difficult to measure.
Sandberg, J., Understanding Human Competence At Work: An Interpretative Approach, Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 43, Part 1, pp. 9-25 (2000)	2000	Sweden	Competence	Automotive	Qualitative	A phenomenographic approach to competence at work. The result was a hierarchy of conceptions that showed people did their jobs in different ways and understood it in different terms.
Sandberg, J., Understanding Competence at Work., Harvard Business Review, Vol. 79, Part 3, pp. 24-26 (2001)	2001	Sweden	Competence	Automotive	Qualitative	See above (same research, rewritten).
Spencer, L. M. // Spencer, S. M., Competence at Work, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., USA	1993	USA	Competence	Work Competence	Quantitative	Competency is an underlying characteristic of an individual that is

(1993)						causally related to criterion referenced effective and/or superior performance in a job or situation.
Stuart, R./Lindsay, P., Beyond the frame of management competenc(i)es: towards a contextually embedded framework of managerial competence in organizations, Journal of European Industrial Training, Vol. 21, Part 1, pp. 26-33 (1997)	1997	Northern Ireland	Competence	Top Teams, SMEs	Qualitative	Rationalises US based person focussed approaches with UK job focussed approaches by placing both in an organizational and team context.
Virtanen, T., The Competencies of New Public Managers, in Farnham, D./Horton, S./Barlow, J./Hondehagem, A., New Public Managers in Europe: Public Servants in Transition, MacMillan Business, pp. 53-75 (1996)	1996	N/R	Competence	Public Sector	Theoretical	Competences are: task, professional, political and ethical. Their content has changed as a result of NPM.
Virtanen, T., Changing competences of public managers: Tensions in commitment, The International Journal of Public Sector Management, Vol. 13, Part 4, pp. 333-341 (2000)	2000	N/R	Competence	Public Sector	Theoretical	The arrival of New Public Management (NPM) has put the political and ethical competences of public managers under strain.
Watkins, M., Ways of learning about leisure meanings, Leisure Sciences, Vol. 22, Part 2, April,	2000	N/R	Phenomenography		Theoretical	By focusing on the content and structure of experience, the

pp. 93-107 (2000)						experientialist paradigm draws from and complements the cognitivist's and individual constructivist's concern with the inner content of experience, as well as the behaviorist's and social constructivist's concern with the outer structuring of experience. However, it does so in a way that avoids separating people from the phenomenon and the context within which they and the phenomenon are situated.
Webb, G., Deconstructing deep and surface: Towards a critique of phenomenography, Higher Education, Vol. 33, pp. 195-212 (1997)	1997	N/R	Phenomenography		Theoretical	Phenomenography as a research approach can be criticized for its reliance on observer and interpretive neutrality.
Willis, S. L., Competence vs. Obsolescence: Understanding The Challenge Facing Today's Professionals, in Willis, S. L./Dubin, S. S., Maintaining Professional Competence: Approaches to Career Enhancement, Vitality and Success Through A Work Life, Jossey Bass ()	N/K	USA	Competence		Practitioner	Competence is necessary for high levels of productivity, but by itself it is not sufficient.

Woodruffe, C., Competent By Any Other Name, Personnel Management, Vol. 23, Part 9, September, pp. 30-33 (1991)	1991	N/R	Competence		Practitioner	Competence relates to the job, competency relates to the person.
Woodruffe, C., What is meant by a competency?, in Boam, R./Sparrow, P., Designing and Achieving Competency, McGraw-Hill International (UK) Ltd., pp. 16-30 (1992)	1992	N/R	Competence		Practitioner	A competency is the set of behaviour patterns that the incumbent needs to bring to a position in order to perform its tasks and functions with competence. Competencies are what the person brings to the job.

APPENDIX P: Public Sector Accountability: Descriptive Analysis Table

Reference	Year	Location	Subject	Context	Data Collection Method?	Principal Ideas
Barberis, P., The New Public Management and a New Accountability, Public Administration, Vol. 76, Part 3, Autumn, pp.451-470 (1998)	1998	UK	Accountability	UK Public Sector / Central Government	Qualitative	Accountability in UK government has changed as a result of New Public Management. Civil servants can now be held accountable rather than ministers. Suggests a new multicentric accountability: accountability to different authorities and for different purposes.
Behn, R. D., The New Public Management Paradigm and the Search for Democratic Accountability, International Public Management Journal, Vol. 1, Part 2, pp. 131-164 (1998)	1998	USA	Accountability	Central Government	Theoretical	New Public management makes much of setting goals for public managers to achieve: but it ignores a number of key questions such as what goals, to whom is the public servant held accountable and for what purpose.
Box, R. Running government like a business: implications for public administration theory and practice, American Review of Public Administration, Vol. 29, Part 1, March, pp. 19-43 (1999)	1999	USA	Public Administration	Federal Government	Theoretical	Running Government like a business has consequences for society and for the public servant. Principal / agent problems in purchasing, multiple stakeholders that cannot easily be classified as customers and replacing administration with managerialism, where the public voice can be lost.
Chapman, A., Problems of Ethics in Public Sector Management, Public Money and Management, Vol. 18, Part 1, January-March, pp. 9-13 (1998)	1998	UK	Ethics	New Public Management	Theoretical	All decisions where discretion is allowed due to the absence of rules or procedure will involve an ethical input
Cigler, B., Public Administration and the Paradox of	1990	USA	Professionalism in the Public Sector	Federal and State Government	Theoretical	The number of professionals in US Federal and State Governments has increased as a result of a loss of trust in Government coupled

Professionalization, Public Administration Review, Vol. 50, Part 6, November / December, pp. 637-653 (1990)						with a simultaneous growth in its activity and politicisation.
Corrigan, P./Joyce, P., Reconstructing Public Management a New Responsibility for the Public and a Case Study of Local Government., The International Journal of Public Sector Management, Vol. 10, Part 6, pp. 417 -432 (1997)	1997	UK	Accountability through user involvement	UK Public Sector / Local Government	Theoretical	User involvement as the principal means of providing public accountability. Managers must function across the democratic, management and service delivery processes to provide user involvement.
Cunningham, G. M./Harris, J. E., A Heuristic Framework For Accountability of Governmental Subunits, Public Management Review, Vol. 3, Part 2, June, pp. 145-165 (2001)	2001	USA	Accountability	Government subunit	Theoretical	Form of accountability and control depends on the nature of the sub units activities. These are classified according to a 4 fold typology of control based on subunit types and control systems features.
Day, P./Klein, R., Accountabilities: Five Public Services, Tavistock Publications, UK (1987)	1987	UK	Accountability	UK Public Sector	Qualitative	Accountability has a history as old as democratic man. The problem is that modern society has made accountability more complex than ever before. It is not only political accountability: managerial accountability has fiscal, process and programme elements. And political and managerial accountability may not match
Deleon, L., Accountability In a 'Reinvented' Government, Public Administration, Vol. 76,	1998	USA	Accountability	Central Public Sector	Theoretical	Accountability in the public sector has changed as a result of NPM. The nature of accountability depends on the degree of certainty over the means and the degree of

Part 3, Autumn, pp. 539-558 (1998)						clarity over the goals.
Dempsey, C., Public Management Trends: Managerial Accountability and Responsibility, The Bureaucrat, Vol. 12, Part 4, Winter, pp. 17-23 (1983-1984)	1983/1984	USA	Managerial accountability	Federal government	Practitioner	Managers must become accountable for their departmental expenditure. Traditionally they have been production oriented, rather than control oriented.
Dunleavy, P.//Hood, C., From Old Public Administration to New Public Management, Public Money and Management, Vol. 14, Part 3, September, pp. 9-16 (1994)	1994	UK	New Public Management	UK Public Sector / Central Government	Theoretical	Organizations viewed as a chain of low trust principal / agent relationships. The Minimum Purchasing State means that giant service corporations will impact the ability of the government to steer and deliver policy.
Gray, A.//Jenkins, W. L., Accountable Management in British Central Government: Some Reflections on the Financial Management Initiative, Financial Accountability and Management, Vol. 2, Part 3, Autumn, pp. 171-186 (1986)	1986	UK	Management Accountability	UK Public Sector / Central Government reform	Theoretical	Accountability has 5 codes associated with it: legal, economic, technical, social and political. FMI placed emphasis on economic – jobs have been defined solely in input terms. Reveal value free economic rationality and its rationalization with public sector values may be difficult.
Gray, A.//Jenkins, B.//Flynn, A.//Rutherford, B., The Management of Change in Whitehall: The Experience of the FMI, Public Administration, Vol. 69, Spring, pp. 41-59 (1991)	1991	UK	Change Management	UK Public Sector / Central Government reform	Qualitative	FMI was primarily aimed at operational areas and cost accountability. Changed civil service perceptions of accountability. Missed the larger spending departments.

Hood, C., The New Public Management in the 1980s - Variations on a Theme, Accounting Organizations and Society, Vol. 20, Part 2-3, February –April, pp. 93-109	1995	International	New Public Management	Central Government	Theoretical	NPM has 7 principal dimensions: the key ideas for sponsorship are the greater emphasis on assignment of accountability rather than diffusion of power and the paramount stress on active management rather than policy skills.
Humphrey C./Miller P./Scapens R., Accountability and Accountable Management in the UK public sector, Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal, Vol. 6, Part 3, pp.7 -29	1993	UK	Accountability	Central Government	Theoretical	Accountable management as a means of controlling the professions. Accountability is more than responsibility for accounting.
Marsh, I., Program strategy and coalition building as facets of new public management., Australian Journal of Public Administration, Vol. 59, Part 4, December, pp. 54-67	1999	Australia	Program delivery	Central Government	Qualitative	Coalition building and strategy development as facets of the performance drive in new public management.
Maor, M., The Paradox of Managerialism, Public Administration Review, Vol. 59, Part 1, January-February, pp. 5-18	1999	International	Control / Accountability	Central Government	Qualitative	Investing in public managerial capital has resulted in a loss of political control. Politicians have countered this by increasing control over personnel, direction setting and strategy.
Massey, A., Civil Service Reform and Accountability, Public Policy and Administration, Vol. 10, Part 1, pp. 16-33 (1995)	1995	UK	Civil Service Accountability	Central Government	Theoretical	Civil service accountability remains unclear with the recent NPM changes. There are conflicts between the NPM changes and traditional forms of accountability that are as yet unresolved.
Mulgan, R., Comparing Accountability in the	2000	Australia	Accountability	Public / Private Sectors	Theoretical	Levels of accountability in the public sector are much greater than in the private sector, except

Public and Private Sectors, Australian Journal of Public Administration, Vol. 59, Part 1, March, pp. 87-97 (2000)						for the bottom line. The two sectors are converging as NPM impacts administration and external pressures (NGOs etc) impact companies.
Mulgan, R., Contracting Out and Accountability, Australian Journal of Public Administration, Vol. 56, Part 4, December, pp.106-116 (1997)	1997	Australia	Accountability and Contracting Out	Australian Central Government	Theoretical	Accountability as a function of a responsibility relationship. Contracting out reduces accountability through the removal of direct departmental and ministerial control over day to day actions. This can be balanced through greater clarity over objectives and standards.
Mulgan, R., The Processes of Public Accountability, Australian Journal of Public Administration, Vol. 56, Part 1, March, pp. 25-36 (1997)	1997		Accountability	Australian Central Government	Theoretical	Exercise of any responsibility involves the exercise of individual discretion. There are 4 processes of accountability: a reporting function on those made accountable, investigation, assessment and control belong to the superior authority to which the accountable must give account.
Parker, L./Gould, G., Changing public sector accountability: critiquing new directions, Accounting Forum, Vol. 23, Part 2, pp. 109-136 (1999)	1999	Australia	Accountability	Australian Central Government	Qualitative	Public sector administration was collective choice driven, whereas private sector management is more individually driven. Public sector accountability is much more complex than private sector accountability. There are tensions in the different interpretations of accountability, mainly between internal financial accountability and external public accountability.
Rhodes, R. A. W., The Hollowing Out of The State: The Changing Nature of the Public Sector in Britain, Political Quarterly, Autumn, pp. 410-426 (1994)	1994	UK	Changes in Public Service	UK Government	Theoretical	The hollowing out of the state has limited the discretion of public servants with its emphasis on managerial accountability. Accountability is now through the contract and as such accountability maybe limited by information asymmetries in drawing up the contract. NPM as a rational based view of management. The hollow state erodes accountability through

						increased levels of complexity.
Romzek, B. S./Dubnick, M. J., Accountability in the Public Sector: Lessons from the Challenger Tragedy, Public Administration Review, Vol. 47, Part 3, pp. 227-238 (1987)	1987	USA	Public Sector Accountability	NASA	Theoretical	Accountability as a means of managing expectations amongst stakeholders. Accountability through contract outweighed professional accountability and ended in disaster. Bureaucratic accountability meant that NASA managers never asked the question.
Scott, C., Accountability in the Regulatory State, Journal of Law and Society, Vol. 27, Part 1, March, pp. 38-60 (2000)	2000	UK	Changes in Accountability	Central Government	Theoretical	Accountability has undergone substantial changes as a result of NPM. NPM has made the networks of accountability more transparent. But holding public bodies to account has become more difficult because of the range of accountabilities that now exist.
Sinclair, A., The Chameleon of Accountability: Forms and Discourses, Accounting, Organizations and Society, Vol. 20, Part 2/3, pp. 219-237 (1995)	1995	Australia	Accountability	State Government	Qualitative	Accountability from an interpretive perspective. Five forms of accountability: political, managerial, professional, personal and public. These conflict, overlap and change. It is a socially constructed phenomenon and is different in different contexts.
Van Meter, D. S./Van Horn, C. E., The Policy Implementation Process, Administration and Society, Vol. 6, Part 4, February, pp. 445-488 (1975)	1975	USA	Policy Implementation	Federal Government	Theoretical	Policy implementation is not easy: traditional assumption has been that once policy has been decided it was implemented. Policy implementation is dependent on a number of organizational and individual factors.
Waterman, R. W./Meier, K. J., Principal-Agent Models: An Expansion?, Journal of Public Administration, Research and Theory, Vol. 8, Part 2, April, pp. 173-202	1998	USA	Principal Agent Models	Government	Theoretical	Principal agent models make assumptions about information asymmetries and conflicting goals that are not examined in the literature on politician / bureaucracy interfaces. If principals and agents have similar levels of information then a more cooperative style of engagement evolves. Similarly if goals are congruent then

(1998)						more cooperative forms of engagement are hypothesized.
Wilson, E./Doig, A., The Shape of Ideology: Structure, Culture and Policy Delivery in the New Public Sector, Public Money & Management, Vol. 16, Part 2, June, pp. 53-61 (1996)	1996	UK	Public Sector Reform	Central Government	Theoretical	Reforms are based on a number of principles: management is better than administration, private sector management is better than public, good management can solve social and economic problems, and management is a discrete body of knowledge with universal application.

APPENDIX Q: Methodological Diary

General

29/04/2003 - 16:24:01

I have now read Silvana di Gregorio's piece 'Using NVIVO For Your Literature Review' and have decided it is the most appropriate tool for my Systematic Review Dissertation, my Qualitative Analysis Assignment and for my PhD Literature Review.

I have also decided to use my Qualitative Analysis Assignment as part of my research (rather than leave it as a useful but irrelevant exercise) by establishing some first hand understandings of what project sponsorship entails as a role by interviewing 4 members of the Project Management Group here at Cranfield. This will benefit me in a number of ways, including practicing my interviewing skills and getting me into using NVIVO properly.

Next Steps

Re-read the papers used for the Systematic Review Protocol and encode using proxy documents.

Start systematic review using keywords in Systematic Review Protocol.

General

06/05/2003 - 11:11:57

I have today rerun the papers included in my MRes Review paper through my Quality Assessment Criterion. It is apparent that the academic material can be assessed in this way, but the more practitioner oriented material cannot. I will have to revise the protocol in some way to deal with this.

I have reviewed the 'Guidance for Authors' in the International Journal of Project Management and found a more practitioner oriented set of guidelines. The problem is that academic research has a set of independent 'frames' against which reference can be made (i.e. Academy of Management Journal Guidelines, Rose's Framework etc.), whereas a practitioner article has none. For the moment I will run these as two separate sets of criteria and try to integrate these over time.

It is difficult at this early stage to balance between exclusion of literature and revision of criteria. At this stage I am more inclined to change the criteria and to make the criteria more robust.

GENERAL

21/05/2003 - 16:54:01

I started searching in EBSCO and have some good results, but in ABI-ProQuest, I have needed to change search strings to reflect the different content of the database - I have added NOT PLANS in order to remove a lot of references to 401(k) retirement plans. After consulting PA Consulting's Project Management Practice I have revised the project sponsorship search terms to cover other contexts and names: ERP and SAP implementations have different names for the sponsor - the concept owner or senior user. I have also fully drawn up the process - unless this is clear in my mind how can I be sure of what I am doing?

GENERAL

10/06/2003 - 14:08:01

I have decided to drop a database from my search: I am unable to save search results from Inside Web and have covered a number of other databases so I think the value add would be very low. Time presses. The databases are infuriating. Proquest gives a lot of results (abstracts only), but the articles are obtained from EBSCO, where they did not come up on the searches there.

GENERAL

20/06/2003 - 14:54:17

I have almost completed the sponsorship search and am almost 90% of the way through the competence search. It's the last few articles that take the time - lots of interlibrary loan requests! The sheer logistical task is enormous - tracking papers through from search results into Procite and then ensuring paper copies of the article are available. I have decided to use Procite as my core database for managing the data side of the search as that way I do not have to keep track

of myriad Excel sheets. It's a powerful tool and we barely scratch the surface of it. The trick has to be to upload directly to Procite in all cases - it reduces the work by a massive proportion, at the expense of the loss of where the article came from - its does not show on the Procite record. I am deeply concerned at my progress - I had hoped to finish all searching by the 6th June, but lectures and assignments have had their impact to say the least.

One author, Markham stands out as a significant author in this field with 6 papers on NYPD champions. The number of fields that sponsorship is seen is significant in is amazing - NPD, AMT implementations, some stuff from ERP implementations, some from entrepreneurship as well as the PM literature.

GENERAL

25/06/2003 - 17:22:16

All the project sponsorship material is sorted and filed, the competence material is well on the way to being in a similar state and the public sector material searches are nearly complete. I have a lot of printing out to do over the next week or so. I have reviewed the process to date and a number of things spring to mind.

Firstly, the criteria are all of an inclusion/exclusion type, with the exception of the quality criteria. So I have renamed them relevance criteria (Is there enough evidence for me to reject this article now - Y/N), source criteria (Does it comply with the source criteria I have defined - Y/N) and content criteria (Are the contents of the article (abstract / title) relevant to the research phenomenon - Y/N). The first of these is the weakest in terms of transparency, as it is often blindingly obvious that an article is irrelevant. For example, sponsorship - it often occurs in the context of the marketing of sports events - the Olympics for example, which is not of interest. So if I can dismiss an article on the spot I do. But if there is any doubt, I must allow the article to go through to the next set of criteria. So I have tried to make the process transparent by using a question - 'Is there enough evidence for me to dismiss this article now?' I have defined the content criteria in such a way that nothing has failed them to date. But I built a lot of them into the filters on the databases by excluding certain collections such as newspapers, or by setting peer reviewed filters up. This has had the benefit of keeping numbers of articles down to respectable levels, but there is a risk some useful material may have been missed as a result. The content criteria are the most fluid simply by virtue of the complexities of language and the lack of a solid knowledge base (Tranfield et al - check reference) in management. As the search results come up, new contexts of a search term come up. For example in the case of competence, there is a lot of material on organizational competencies: this was not in my initial criteria so I have had to add this in. I am interested in the nature of individual competency. So the definition of the criteria hones not only ones thinking about ones research, but improves the definition of the area of research.

I have spent more time editing Procite than almost anything else except printing. But it has all the facilities to produce valuable information in one place.

I aim to finish searching by the end of the month, assignments permitting - who designed this MRes? Or was it designed?

GENERAL

11/07/2003 - 15:27:52

I finished searching at the end of June and have spent the last 2 weeks collating and reviewing articles. All the source and content criteria are finished in the project sponsorship material. I am completing the quality checks now. A confusion has arisen: are a champion and a sponsor the same thing? I think a champion works bottom up, whereas a sponsor works top down. I have started writing with a section on systematic review: I have also to complete collation of the competence and public sector material. I have also started the collection of the referenced material from those documents that pass the quality criteria.

GENERAL

16/07/2003 - 21:56:05

I have realized that as management research is a divergent field (Becher / Tranfield), this may account for the larger number of failures on Content criteria (i.e. relevance) rather than quality, which may be of greater importance in a convergent field like medical research.

GENERAL

22/07/2003 - 14:01:51

I have just speed read a paper that will fail its content criteria, but nevertheless is relevant. Eisenhardt & Tabrizi make the point about punctuated equilibrium. Is this the case with government? In the case of the last few years, the civil service has undergone radical change: is the attempt to use project and programme management to improve the delivery of public services an attempt to return to incremental change? Also are project sponsors in the public sector boundary spanning individuals?

GENERAL

23/07/2003 - 10:23:20

I have just read 'Organizations as Political Systems' in Images of Organization. Many of the aspects of power chime with my thoughts on the role of the sponsors - power, formal and informal, ability to change boundaries. There is a link here...

GENERAL

24/07/2003 - 16:35:54

I have just read Days article on raising radicals. She uses Schumpeter's creative destruction idea. This would go well with Living on Thin Air - Britain is a country with 19th century public institutions trying to live in 21st century. Such institutions are not subject to Scumpeterian forces, only political ones. Also sponsors may be a source of legitimizing power - Weber. Also dual role sponsors are very much like public ones: they are organizational sponsors without all the technical know how, but operate market driven innovation rather than bottom up technically driven innovation. Also Harrison: does the conservative nature of British companies reduce innovation? Management feels threatened by the bottom up approach. So does the conservatism of corporate life transfer across to the public sector institutions and make the problem worse?

GENERAL

29/07/2003 - 14:15:04

I have just read Kirsch: he uses a control theory perspective to look at the control of complex tasks in an organization. He notes that those who control project management tasks in an ISD context must have some knowledge of the task, otherwise they are unable to control it. So project sponsorship is not a context free idea - context is everything. Leonard-Barton notes that for low transferability technology projects, the sponsor is investing in an experiment, rather than a project with a certain outcome. If projects are strange to the Civil Service, then are they all experiments, particularly if they have an organizational context where the resistance may be higher because of its institutional nature.

A significant amount has been written about championing of new products, but little about sponsorship, despite the commonality of the roles. They can be separated by a hierarchical division of labour or by the origin of the project (top down, bottom up).

A table showing differences and common elements between project sponsors and champions is a good idea!

Markham 2000 on political aspects of championing is good, but seems to think that antagonists and champions play fixed roles, rather than project specific roles (champion 1, oppose another). Good links here with Morgan which Markham appears not to have read. Also taking Kirsch's view, antagonists do not arise in other departments for the same reason that sponsors cannot exercise behavioural control over projects whose contents they cannot fully understand.

Also Markham / Aiman-Smith makes a mistake: new product development projects are associated with champions, not vica versa.

Across a wide range of contexts and situations, the role of the project sponsor is seen as important.

The public private split has effectively removed the organizational links that bound sponsor and champion together and replaced them with a more commercial dynamic, in which their interests are not necessarily aligned.

GENERAL

04/08/2003 - 16:02:45

I have started reading the competence material: it is clear that the idea of bracketing (Husserl's epoche) is going to mean trying to forget or clear my mind of the literature prior to carrying out the field research.

GENERAL

09/08/2003 - 18:10:07

Dunleavy and Hood make a point about NPM: organizations as a chain of low trust principal / agent relationships, a network of contracts linked to performance. Wow!

GENERAL

12/08/2003 - 09:39:14

Cunningham makes a point about NPM being about accountability, reporting of results and measures of results. NPM as management control and accountability rather than democratic accountability. Have we replaced democratic accountability with managerial accountability. Barberis' multicentric accountability springs to mind. Cunningham's idea of results and output form of control. Measurable results. Control depends on degree of observability of results (Kirsch). If sponsorship is results oriented then the degree of procedural control is low. Depends on nature of subunit. Strong links here with Hall and Holt. Therefore sponsorship according to what the project does (IT, Construction, Business Change) may need different forms of control and as such may not be a generic activity. Subunit typology is production (waste processing say), procedural (mental health unit), craft (an engineering multi project profit centre in the private sector), coping (emergency management units, where neither inputs nor outcomes are measurable).

GENERAL

17/08/2003 - 21:05:17

Is the government trying to apply a universal form of management in ignorance of context? As per competence discussion? The value free rationality of economic management is being applied despite the presence of public sector values. Are project sponsors trying to rationalise these and is that rationalization possible?