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Robbert Kivits
Sukanlaya Sawang

# The Dynamism of Stakeholder Engagement

## A Case Study of the Aviation Industry

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ISSN 1431-1941 ISSN 2197-716X (electronic)
Contributions to Management Science
ISBN 978-3-030-70427-8 ISBN 978-3-030-70428-5 (eBook)
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-70428-5



This Springer imprint is published by the registered company Springer Nature Switzerland AG.
The registered company address is: Gewerbestrasse 11, 6330 Cham, Switzerland

# Preface

This book aims to address the dynamic relationship among stakeholder salience, stakeholder frames of reference and stakeholder networks, using a large complex setting as a case study. To investigate this dynamic relationship, the Australian airport development context has been selected as the environment to apply and test a multidimensional stakeholder analysis approach. The term dynamic, by Merriam-Webster, is here used for its literal sense: 'marked by usually continuous and productive activity or change'. In other words, it is referred to as a 'non-static' state, i.e. a state that is continuously subject to change. For example, the three components, as discussed in this book, are subject to different levels of change. Frames of reference can take years to change, whereas salience can change from day to day. It is the potential of change to the whole context that makes the environment dynamic and therefore ensures that it is not in stasis.

Theoretical fields, such as system dynamics, social dynamics and group dynamics, generally try to analyse and describe the behaviour and mechanics behind the dynamic state of the environment (Ogata 2003). It is not within the scope of this book to describe the behaviour and mechanics—in other words, the reasons why the context is dynamic. The scope of this book is therefore concerned with the fact that a system can be dynamic, and any proposed methodology should be able to deal with the dynamic state of the system, regardless of the behaviour and mechanics that describe the same system.

Usually complex and dynamic environments contain a wide range of stakeholder dispositions, from hostile to conciliatory, and from obstructive to collaborative (Crocker 2007). This diverse range of stakeholders with different interests and expectations requires flexible and indeed specialized engagement tools (Shandas and Messer 2008). Such specialized tools, however, are yet to be developed and require an improved stakeholder analysis to support their development.

In the literature review, three main components of the stakeholder were identified: (1) stakeholder salience, (2) stakeholder frame of reference, and (3) position in the stakeholder network. The three-component stakeholder analysis methods model has first been proposed by Kivits (2011) and is the first known attempt to unify the

existing approaches. The details of the methodology are discussed in this publication and will not be repeated here but form the foundation of the work presented in this book. The three-component stakeholder analysis approach is specifically useful for the complex and difficult infrastructure spaces on which this study has focused. In the case of the Australian capital airports, airport operators were being compelled by the Australian Government to apply a blanket stakeholder engagement approach to all stakeholders. But such a uniform approach is more likely to disengage and antagonize stakeholders than to please them. Therefore, it is necessary to create a more nuanced and directed approach that allows airport corporations to deal with stakeholders in a more targeted fashion, e.g. allowing for individually specified stakeholder engagement approaches, a matter which is beyond the remit of this book.

The research presented in this book creates a platform that uses active input from all the stakeholders in the development stage and afterwards allows all the stakeholders to examine all the information. This ensures that the stakeholders understand how the information has been gathered and used. The method, by virtue of its acceptance of the problem owner as being part of a network of stakeholders, rather than simply the central component, is more likely to obtain cooperation from the stakeholders. This is because the stakeholders that are included have the potential to develop a sense of ownership to the analysis, and because the results stemming from it will be useful to all the stakeholders identified, and not just the problem owner—as would be the case with more traditional approaches to stakeholder analysis. The in-depth information provided thus helps stakeholders to have a more informed understanding of the positions that they have in the stakeholder network, and their relationships with other stakeholders.

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# Chapter 1
# Stakeholder Theory


Interest in stakeholder theory has grown considerably since Freeman (1984) fully articulated a stakeholder framework in his seminal work *Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach.* Freeman drew on a variety of studies to develop his stakeholder approach. Using corporate planning, systems theory and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), he argued that existing management theories were not prepared enough to address "the quantity and kinds of change which are occurring in the business environment" (Freeman 1984, p. 5). Freeman defined a stakeholder as "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives" (Freeman 1984, p. 46). Thereafter, the notion of stakeholding gained increasing presence in academic texts, media and government publications (Friedman and Miles 2002).

According to Laplume et al. (2008), stakeholder theory has reached a mature stage, with a significant increase in attention to the theory by managers, especially with regard to social issues through various discussions around CSR and its implications to business (Laplume et al. 2008). Issues identified in the Australian aviation arena in the early 2000s present good examples of the changing business environment that demands the incorporation of social issues within its management. The Australian Government's stipulation that each privatized airport has to form a community consultation group (Australian Government 2009) implied that stakeholder engagement is the way forward for these organizations.

While having its origins in strategic management, stakeholder theory has been applied to a number of fields of enquiry including, but not limited to, CSR (Clarkson 1995; Friedman 2009; Hillman and Keim 2001), education (McDaniel and Miskel 2002), environmental management (Jonker and Foster 2002; Starik and Rands 1995), ethics (Agle et al. 1999), health (Lim et al. 2005), information technology (de Bussy et al. 2000, 2003; Pouloudi 1999), management (Donaldson 2002; Donaldson and Preston 1995; Greenwood 2001; Ramirez 1998), public policy (Brugha and Zsuzsa 2000; Martin 2003), and research management (Bunn et al. 2002; Elias et al. 2002).



R. Kivits, S. Sawang, *The Dynamism of Stakeholder Engagement*, Contributions to Management Science, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-70428-5_1

As interest in the stakeholder concept increased, so too has the number of perspectives on the subject (Friedman and Miles 2002). Indeed, different opinions have emerged regarding how to theoretically define '*the stakeholder'*. According to Friedman and Miles (2002), over thirty strands of stakeholder theory exist. This has resulted in contestation and confusion over which is better or more practical, thereby leading to a limited successful implementation of the stakeholder concept in organizations and governments. In a response to the many different theoretical debates, Freeman and McVea (2001) have called for future stakeholder research to eschew debating minor differences in great detail, since they believe that it is detrimental to the progress of the theory. Instead, use should be made of stakeholder theory's insights to examine real-world problems. It is necessary to move attention to the practical approach of connecting stakeholder theory to management practices and validate the research and management practises (Freeman and McVea 2001). An overview of the early development of stakeholder theory is therefore warranted to understand the emergence of stakeholder theory and the development of so many different views. This first section will finish with the definition for the stakeholder as used in this book.

## 1.1 History and Nature of Stakeholder Theory

Stakeholder theory borrows from, and builds on, various other theories, including agency theory, theory of the firm, transaction cost theory, and the evolving theory of property. This section provides an overview of how these theories have informed stakeholder theory. Some of the concepts in these theories are in fact not so different from the goal of current stakeholder theory, since its ultimate strategy is to achieve a higher company performance as a result of more efficient interaction between the firm and its stakeholders, thereby leading to more efficient processes.

There are some notable differences between agency theory and transaction cost theory on the one hand, and the theory of the firm on the other. Within the first two, the concept of agency is regarded as a problem. The approach proposed by either theory is that agents (Hill and Jones 1992; Sager and Ravlum 2005) have to be controlled (or their actions sufficiently influenced) to make sure that agents act in the interest of the principal (Axelrod 1997). According to the theory of the firm, however, agency is regarded as the mechanism that serves evolution. Agents in dynamic economic systems, such as unstable equilibriums, are treated by Schumpeter (1934) as the forces that drive the evolution of these systems from one equilibrium to another.

In a way, stakeholder theory can be seen from both these viewpoints. In the short term, agents, or rather stakeholders, have to be interacted with. The word 'control' is probably not suitable here, since it may have a negative connotation. Through this interaction, shorter-term issues can be resolved and the actor network, or stakeholder network, as a whole, will move towards a single goal. Over time, if one considers a longer-term scenario, it is probably possible to see a Lamarckian evolutionary

scenario developing (Feldman 2008), particularly as viewpoints and goals evolve under influence of all agents, or stakeholders, within the network. As a result, all previously mentioned theories will be considered when stakeholders are addressed.

Freeman and Evan (1988; 1999) were the first to argue in favour of integrating both the firm-as- contract, based on Coase (1937), and the transaction cost economics theory, based on Williamson (1981), into stakeholder theory. In doing so, Freeman and Evan demonstrated that an organization is a conglomerate of multilateral contracts between actors. They also addressed the importance of dynamics over time. Within this conglomerate, all parties have an equal right to bargain over decisions. It follows that a minimal condition to reach acceptance of contractual arrangements is the mutual notion of fairness, if it is assumed that both parties voluntarily accept agreements and bargains. To reach this minimal notion of fairness, the firm has to be seen as a vehicle that coordinates stakeholder's interests (Evan and Freeman 1988). This process of achieving fairness between stakeholders in the interest of the firm requires, in the view of Evans and Davies (1999), an open network. Here, multilateral contacts, and hence contracts, exist among all stakeholders. This perspective is in contrast with Hill and Jones (1992), who conceptualize the interconnectedness of stakeholders as a hub-and-spoke network. Though most of the theories adduced have strong explanatory power with regard to stakeholder-manager relations, the combination of them within stakeholder theory provides instrumental power to explore this relationship in depth.

Freeman (1984) originally set out to explain the relationship between an organization and its external environment, and its behaviour towards that environment (Mainardes et al. 2011). After the theory took shape, stakeholder management became an important aspect for organizations, as it was hypothesized that stakeholder management would lead to improved organizational performance (Mainardes et al. 2011). Correspondingly, analysing who the stakeholders are, identifying their interests, and how they act is fundamental to contemporary organizations, especially in terms of (i) those stakeholders of greatest importance to organizational survival, and (ii) being able to meet their respective needs.

The previously described theories—agency theory, firm-as-contract theory, and transaction cost theory—although arising from different sources, are closely related to each other and share a common terminology and a common emphasis: efficiency. In fact, this original goal is not so different from the goal of current stakeholder engagement theory, since its ultimate strategy is to achieve higher company performance as a result of more efficient interaction between the firm and its stakeholders, thereby leading to more efficient processes. In short, no individual theory offers systematic answers to the questions about stakeholder identification and salience. Though, most of the theories adduced above have much explanatory power with regard to stakeholder-manager relations, it is the combination of these theories within stakeholder theory that provides the tools to address the stakeholder debate more adequately.

## 1.2 Stakeholder Identification

In most organizational theories, stakeholder identification, and therefore stakeholder analysis by extension, is usually only partially addressed. No systematic answers to stakeholder importance have so far been identified. The real reason for this is unknown, but it could partly be explained by the complexity and potential criticism connected to it. Because of the complexity of the stakeholder arena, it is difficult to model this complexity without selecting what is and is not important, and hence reduce the information. This reduction process, inherent to modelling, sets up any analysis method to critique, as different persons will have different opinions on what is and is not important. Before stakeholder identification is addressed in this study, it is useful to look at the context: the stakeholder arena itself. According to Andriof and Waddock (2002), each organization has three basic impacts within this arena: environment impacts, social impacts, and economic impacts. These are referred to as the 'triple bottom line'. As Andriof and Waddock (2002, p. 26) propose, each of these impacts "ripple through society like a stone being thrown into a pond". The reverse of this ripple effect also holds true. Small disturbances in the third layer can also work their way back inwards towards the organization.

In the case of Australian airports, the local community, which is affected by the disturbance caused by airport expansion, will try to limit or mitigate negative effects of this through whatever means they have available. This backlash or counter effect on organizations is usually costly and time consuming (Freeman et al. 2010). Good business practise for any organization is to secure operational sustainability. Direct profit maximization without stakeholder engagement is, in the long run, likely to have less satisfactory results compared to indirect profit maximization by quality shared decision making with stakeholders (Frooman 2010).

No matter what the ostensible reasons are for engaging with stakeholders, be this from a CSR perspective, or from an economic, capitalist perspective, an organization needs to be able to identify its stakeholders correctly and perform a solid stakeholder analysis to determine the best ways of investing its resources. Without appropriate stakeholder identification, organizations are more likely to antagonize stakeholders by either over, or under, engaging, or by engaging stakeholders on the wrong topics. It follows that the debate about whether stakeholder engagement is based on CSR or capitalism is without foundation (Reed et al. 2009). More importantly, from both perspectives, the interaction with the stakeholders should be based on the *same* stakeholder analysis. Moreover, even with good intentions, no matter from what perspective, a bad engagement practice based on poor stakeholder analysis will still harm the organization. Therefore, regardless of the debate about whether stakeholder engagement is needed from a CSR or an economic sustainability perspective, it is important to have accepted frameworks in place for stakeholder identification and analysis.

Though interaction with stakeholders will not necessarily lead to changes in their attitudes and behaviour, it may enable diverse groups of potentially conflicting stakeholders to (i) appreciate the legitimacy of each other's views and (ii) arrive at

new ways of working together (Reed et al. 2009). In a highly contested and complex arena such as airport expansion, stakeholder engagement can be a first step to resolving the interface issues that arise between the airport and the city.

With regard to the presented problem within the airport arena, stakeholder identification represents the identification of all the communities, NGOs, government bodies, and businesses affected by airport operations and expansion. Freeman's (1984, p. 46) original definition of a stakeholder as any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives is now considered very broad. Indeed, it almost gives every entity even remotely connected to the issue the legitimacy to be regarded as a stakeholder (Agle et al. 2008; Laplume et al. 2008; Parent and Deephouse 2007; van Huijstee and Glasbergen 2008). As a result, numerous refinements have been made in an attempt to make the definition more practical and relevant to stakeholder studies.

There is little disagreement among stakeholder theory academics regarding what kind of entities can be regarded as a stakeholder (Heath and Norman 2004). A wide range of entities such as persons, groups, neighbourhoods, organizations, institutions, societies and even natural environments can all qualify as stakeholders (Laplume et al. 2008). In general, four main groups of stakeholders are identified, these being communities, NGOs, government, and the private sector (Amaeshi and Crane 2006; de Haan 2007). The defining difference among stakeholders is in the existence and nature of having a *stake*, or claim to interest. A potential stakeholder will need to make a 'claim' to having a 'stake' in the issue under consideration. That is, the potential stakeholder will be able to affect, or will (potentially) be affected, by the issue[1] (Agle et al. 1999). The fundamental question thus becomes whose claims will be accepted and whose claims will be denied. The substantial debate in the literature regarding the definitions of stakeholders is therefore partly due to the problem of defining what constitutes a legitimate stake (Reed et al. 2009). This points the debate away from the diverse body of potential stakeholders to a more defined acceptance of who has most legitimate right to have a say. In other words, legitimacy defines who is a stakeholder. Using legitimacy as a defining factor, Freeman's (1984) original definition of a stakeholder as any group or individual that can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives is closely associated with the descriptive stakeholder identification. This is the broadest identification possible and describes in general how stakeholders behave, thereby giving legitimacy to all potential stakeholders.

As an extreme opposite, Ring (1994) argues that the goal, and obligation, of an organization is to produce profit for the shareholder. No other legitimate stakeholders exist. This normative approach focuses heavily on shareholders having legal relationships with the organization. This emphasizes the legitimacy of

[1]The stake in this case is an issue, identified by the person who makes the claim to the stake, i.e., the stakeholder. The stakeholder therefore is a person, or a collective, representing one or more issues, i.e., stakes. The stakeholder can have a certain level of salience, and attribute a certain level of urgency to the stake. A stakeholder however will not be attributed an 'urgency', and the stake itself cannot be assigned 'salience'.

stakeholder involvement and empowerment in decision-making processes (Reed et al. 2009). Most stakeholder theorists depart from this narrow perspective by arguing that the involvement of entities is based on (national) capital investment (Schlossberger 1994), externalities (Freeman 1994), and property rights (Donaldson and Preston 1995). Other theorists give legitimacy to entities based on organizational relations (Mitchell et al. 1997), ethics and property rights (Pejovich 1990), and stakeholder-network perspectives (Rowley 1997).

In contrast to the notion of legitimacy as a key element in defining a stakeholder, Frooman (1999) and Friedman and Miles (2006) propose dismissing legitimacy as a notion entirely. They contend that, as soon as an actor has the actual ability to influence the decision-making process, they become a stakeholder, whether the actor's claim is theoretically valid or not. This notion, however, does not necessarily need to dismiss legitimacy, since it could simply broaden the original concept and suggests that *any* actor that can influence the process one way or another constitutes an additional legitimate stakeholder. Yet Jonker and Foster (2002) draw attention to the original meaning of the term 'legitimacy' as used by Freeman (1984), who viewed legitimacy as whether or not it was appropriate for the firm to engage with the stakeholder. This approach did not take into account any consideration of morality, ethics or social evaluation of the stakeholders' claim. Jonker and Foster (2002, p. 4) thus conclude that, "if the actions of a stakeholder can affect the firm [,] then it would be appropriate to address them".

If both views are taken into account, it can be concluded that either legitimacy is dependent on the power of the stakeholder, or is discounted and replaced by the power of the stakeholder. The notion of legitimacy thus becomes irrelevant to the question of who will count as a stakeholder. The definition as provided by Freeman (1984) does not, then, change considerably for the purposes of this research. This is because the ability of the stakeholder to influence decisions is not dependent on legitimacy. Hence, a stakeholder is any actor (group or individual) that is influenced *by* a decision, and/or that can influence *on* that decision. The stakeholder analysis following this definition has to be pragmatic (Jones 1995), as well as rational (Jonker and Foster 2002), and should be concerned with explaining reality, as stakeholders now become dependent on the context, rather than being primarily defined by theory. Taking a pragmatic and rational approach requires the analysis to include stakeholders with contractual or institutional claims, as well as those parties directly or indirectly affected by the organizations' objectives, with either moral or legal stakes outside the institutional framework (Friedman and Miles 2004; Mitchell et al. 1997; Rowley 1997).

In an attempt to simplify the wide field of different stakeholder identification theories, Friedman and Miles (2006) have subdivided them into three categories: descriptive, instrumental, and normative. Several authors (Beach 2009; Reed 2002; Reed et al. 2009) have accepted this subdivision and have refined the respective definitions of these subdivisions discussed further below.

1. ***Descriptive*** stakeholder identification is the original and broadest definition of a stakeholder. This encompasses all groups or individuals who can actually

(or potentially) affect, or are actually (or potentially) affected by the achievement of organizational goals, as proposed, for example, by Freeman (1984) and Donaldson and Preston (1995). The descriptive approach, however, is rarely used in practical stakeholder analysis, since it has no purpose beyond *describing* the relationships between stakeholders (Donaldson and Preston 1995). Despite this, it is important to understand the current state of stakeholder relationships to be able to perform either a normative or an instrumental analysis. This makes the descriptive approach a necessary precursor to any stakeholder analysis (Reed et al. 2009).

2. ***Normative*** stakeholder identification, stakeholders are considered on the basis of their valid claim on the organization, as discussed by Ring (1994), Donaldson and Preston (1995), and Mitchell et al. (1997). The normative approach traditionally focuses heavily on stakeholders having actual relationships with the organization, thereby emphasizing the legitimacy of stakeholder involvement and empowerment in decision-making processes (Reed et al. 2009), based on, for example, property rights, contractual obligations, or common goods (Beach 2009). Normative identification is regarded as a very narrow approach to stakeholder identification. It is usually criticized because it does not sufficiently account for latent stakeholders. To compensate for this gap, some researchers have suggested that stakeholders with a moral responsibility in their legal and institutional context should also be included (Boatright 1994; Friedman and Miles 2006). This, however, only addresses the issue partially, since stakeholders outside the legal and institutional context are not recognized.
3. ***Instrumental*** stakeholder identification is the most widely used in practice (Mainardes et al. 2011). Instrumental identification strikes a balance between the previously mentioned broader and narrower methods. It defines the stakeholders the organization could take into account using organizational (Mitchell et al. 1997), stakeholder-focal group (Friedman and Miles 2004), and stakeholder-network perspectives (Rowley 1997). Instrumental stakeholder analysis is regarded by most (e.g., Laplume et al. 2008) as more pragmatic than the other approaches. This is because, in addition to stakeholders with contractual or institutional claims, it also includes stakeholders who are directly or indirectly affected by the organizations' objectives, yet who have moral and legal stakes outside the institutional framework. Instrumental stakeholder analysis is thus more devoted to understanding how organizations can identify, explain and manage the behaviour of stakeholders, with the ultimate goal of achieving desired objectives (Reed et al. 2009).

Every practical stakeholder analysis requires the application of acceptable and justifiable criteria defining who will be and who will not be considered a stakeholder by defining the boundaries of the research. Freeman (2008; 2010) addresses the subdivision of what is descriptive, normative or instrumental. Freeman argues that any debate regarding which is the best theoretical method of stakeholder identification is meaningless, for stakeholder identification is as much a business question (represented in the normative identification) as it is an ethical question (represented

in the descriptive identification). In the current political and social climate of the Western world, both questions are equally important. Without ethical considerations, businesses will not survive in the long term (Gioia 1999). From an ethical viewpoint, businesses and executives are responsible for the effects of their actions, and thus are responsible to precisely those groups and individuals that they can affect, or be affected by (Agle et al. 2008). Freeman (2008) argues that, to achieve the set goal, every stakeholder needed to achieve this goal, be it those in favour or those against, will need to be considered in the negotiation process. This means that, in practice, almost every researcher will end up with the instrumental identification method (Gomes and Gomes 2008; Hare and Pahl-Wostl 2002).

Identifying stakeholders from an instrumental perspective requires a wider understanding of the entrenched positions that stakeholders take with respect to either the principal problem owner, or the problem itself (Patton 2008). The growth of civil aviation numbers among the most difficult problems in transportation policy. The fundamental social, economic and environmental challenges that airport expansion poses are cast in a complex setting where a polar view of *for* and *against* simply does not exist. Several authors have identified multiple distinct policy frames around aviation and airport expansion (e.g. Kroesen and Broer 2009; van Eeten 2001). When identifying stakeholders associated with a problem, it is therefore most important to have a clear understanding of the policy frame in which a stakeholder sits (de Bruijn and ten Heuvelhof 2004; van Eeten 2001).

As per Bryson et al. (2011), a broader and more inclusive approach is adopted here and stakeholders are defined as: *individuals, groups, or organizations that can affect, or are affected by, an organization's operation and objectives*. The definition itself is purposefully broad, so that the full range of potential stakeholders is considered at the onset of the research (Bryson et al. 2011). During the research process, the focus narrowed the final selection of stakeholders, based on the context. This approach helped to create consensus. It also validated the final suite of stakeholders (who constituted the sample for the research) as all potential stakeholders were given the chance to participate (Patton 2008; Bryson and Patton 2010).

As stated in the introduction, this study will not focus on which specific stakeholder engagement strategies should be applied to certain stakeholder categories. This does not mean that stakeholder engagement literature should be omitted from this review. Instead, the focus is on how to perform stakeholder analysis. To understand how stakeholder analysis takes places, it is imperative to understand the theory behind it. The stakeholder theory as described and discussed in the previous section, informed the use of instrumental stakeholder identification throughout the applied research. The following chapter will examine stakeholder engagement in more detail, and will unpack the links between stakeholder theory and stakeholder engagement. This exercise has a dual purpose. First, it allows a theoretical understanding of what 'stakeholder engagement' is, and how it is connected to stakeholder theory. Second, by understanding what stakeholder engagement is, and what the components to stakeholder engagement are, the theoretical framework used to identify stakeholder engagement in practices is provided.

# Chapter 2
# Stakeholder Engagement


Whereas stakeholder theory deals with determining which stakeholders are to be involved in issues, e.g., airport planning, stakeholder engagement deals with determining which tools can be chosen to optimize interaction with the stakeholders. To date, little effort has been made to specify the link between stakeholder salience (as discussed in the previous chapter) and stakeholder engagement, which will be discussed in this chapter. Either subject is often treated separately from the other, even though most authors recognize the apparent link between the two. For example, Carroll (1989) used the principle of stakeholder engagement as a final step in the stakeholder analysis framework, thereby showing the importance of the link between the classification or differentiation of stakeholders and the resulting different engagement strategies.

Another example is (Goodpaster 1991), who shows that the concept of the relationship between managers and non-owner stakeholders is significantly different from the relationship between the managers and the owners and should therefore be treated accordingly. The distinction that Goodpaster (1991) makes between non-owner stakeholders and owner stakeholders can be viewed as a rudimentary delineation in stakeholder identification, as discussed earlier. From this broad differentiation, Goodpaster (1991) suggests different engagement strategies for each group, to increase participation and make it more efficient.

Donaldson and Preston (1995) go a step further and recommend that the ultimate implication of stakeholder theory is that managers should acknowledge the validity of a diverse range of stakeholders, and should attempt to respond to each of them within a mutually supportive framework. Donaldson and Preston (1995) use a much broader differentiation of stakeholders (as shown in the stakeholder theory section). Their suggestion thus underscores the principle of having different engagement strategies. When the number of different stakeholders increases, as is likely to happen when the definition of stakeholders is broadened, a larger number of different engagement strategies will also be required.

Clarkson (1995) was one of the first authors to provide a basic framework of what engagement strategies could look like. He used CSR theory to create a four-point



R. Kivits, S. Sawang, *The Dynamism of Stakeholder Engagement*, Contributions to Management Science, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-70428-5_2

scale framework of strategies that organizations generally use in dealing with stakeholders. This scale consists of: (1) reactive (doing less than required); (2) defensive (doing the least that is required); (3) accommodative (doing all that is required); and (4) pro-active (doing more than is required). In this framework, however, Clarkson (1995) did not differentiate between various types of stakeholders and kept his framework one-dimensional by ignoring other aspects of the stakeholder.

More recent examples of the link between stakeholder theory and stakeholder engagement are given by Achterkamp and Vos (2007), Reed et al. (2009), and Beach (2009). Of these authors, both Achterkamp and Vos (2007) and Reed et al. (2009) specify that stakeholder engagement should be informed by the salience of the stakeholder; however, they omit to specify how a final classification actually informs the engagement strategies. The first study to clearly show how stakeholder salience actually influences engagement is Beach (2009), who used a model adapted from Mitchell et al. (1997), which expands the three factors of power, legitimacy and urgency into four factors: power, legitimacy, temporality and criticality.

## 2.1 Towards a Definition of Stakeholder Engagement

The definition of stakeholder engagement used in this work is informed by Achterkamp and Vos (2007), Ashworth and Skelcher et al. (2005), Greenwood (2007), Donaldson and Preston (1995), Mitchell et al. (1997), and Reed et al. (2009). Donaldson and Preston (1995) and Mitchell et al. (1997) argued that stakeholder engagement is a mechanism to influence stakeholders in favour of the problem owner. Ashworth and Skelcher et al. (2005), among others, identify the need for trust, participation and fairness. Achterkamp and Vos (2007) and Reed et al. (2009) specifically identify the variety of tools and practices available to perform stakeholder engagement. Stakeholder engagement theory is seen here as the knowledge that helps us to answer the following question: How should an organization engage with its identified stakeholders, while acknowledging the difference among stakeholders? By drawing on the literature, this book defines stakeholder engagement as: *the wide range of tools and practices an organization can use as a mechanism for consent, control, cooperation, accountability, employee involvement and participation, enhancing trust, enhancing fairness and corporate governance by involving stakeholders in its organizational activities*.

Within the wider stakeholder engagement literature, a clear differentiation can be made between community engagement, and 'other' stakeholder engagement. Community engagement can generally be described as the engagement initiated by the government with community and NGOs (Brown and Keast 2003; Ison and Collins 2008; McCabe et al. 2006b). Stakeholder engagement is generally recognized as the engagement initiated by a corporate problem owner with other businesses, government, shareholders, and employees (Freeman 1984; Mitchell et al. 1997; Donaldson 2002; Friedman and Miles 2004). Though community engagement and stakeholder engagement seem to receive different attention in the literature, as if they were

different theories, community engagement is, in principle, just one of the branches within stakeholder engagement.

Community engagement has been discussed by various authors, such as Adams and Hess (2001), Barnes (1999) and Edwards (2006), who argue for the collaborative inclusion of community in government decision making, and Bradshaw (2000), who advocates the inclusion of the community in complex planning projects. Brown and Keast (2003) discuss the engagement of community by government through the use of networks, while Crowley (2008) questions whether or not deliberative democracy that includes the community is actually practically possible. By way of contrast, stakeholder engagement practices outside community engagement have received significantly less attention. Most authors to date have focussed on the theory and process of differentiating or classifying stakeholders, rather than on specific engagement strategies. Nevertheless, Greenwood (2007), Monteduro (2008), Reed et al. (2009), and van Huijstee and Glasbergen (2008) have added valuable knowledge to the field of stakeholder engagement by describing successful stakeholder engagement strategies (Greenwood 2007; Monteduro 2008), detailing the engagement process (van Huijstee and Glasbergen 2008), and expanding on stakeholder differences and the engagement processes (Beach 2009).

The aim of the remainder of this section is to provide an overview of identified engagement strategies and their enablers and barriers from both literatures: community engagement and stakeholder engagement. This overview generates an understanding of actual practices that are being used as stakeholder engagement, and is essential to understand how stakeholder engagement can be differentiated.

### *2.1.1 Engagement Strategies*

A shift in the governance arena has been observed in recent years, especially as the community has become a more important actor in governance (Monteduro 2008; OECD 2005). The power of governments, in their various forms, has eroded somewhat as a result of globalization and the growth of international corporations with global supply chains spanning several continents (Hart and Sharma 2004). There is little doubt that the current socio-economic, political, cultural and natural environments of most liberal democracies are very different from those that used to be in place (Keast and Callaghan 2002; Kooiman 2008; NMC 2009). NGOs and community groups have shifted from the periphery to the centre,[1] thereby assuming the role of monitor and, in some cases, enforcer of social and environmental standards (Hart and Sharma 2004). Not only have corporations become globalized, but also, with significant technological advances over the past decades, citizens have gained increased access to a wide array of communication tools, including the

[1]For example, in 2004, there were more than 50,000 international NGOs compared to less than 20,000 only a decade before (Hart and Sharma 2004).

Internet and mobile telephones, all of which have sped up the transfer of information. While news in the late 1980s could still take days to travel the world, nowadays everyone can report anything and almost instantly everyone in the world is able to know what happened (NMC 2009). This widespread nature of communication media has enabled not only organized groups, but also millions of individuals to communicate with each other in ways that were almost unimaginable merely a decade or so ago. As a result, society as a whole has increased in knowledge, yet this has come with the increased expectation of better and more responsive actions from government and corporations (Davis and Rhodes 2000).

It is only natural that government's role has also changed dramatically, especially in view of the greater scrutiny placed on government and government agencies (Hames 1999). Stakeholder management has become increasingly important, especially since a negative public perception of an organisation's activities has been linked to negative impacts on performance (Adams and Hess 2001; Hart and Sharma 2004; Mainardes et al. 2011). Communities are now more verbal and outspoken about issues impacting on them, yet have also become cynical about receiving a genuine and meaningful response to their concerns (McCabe et al. 2006b). They are more able and willing to articulate their opinions, judgements, and needs (Hames 1999). Since this process has rapidly evolved alongside the more slowly-evolving notion of collaborative governance, a gap has thus arisen between society, on the one hand, and governments, on the other (Blind 2006; Edwards 2008). As society becomes increasingly aware of how cognate problems are dealt with in other communities, citizens will no longer settle for services and treatment perceived as inferior and want to move beyond the limited, and often tokenistic, consultation processes previously offered (Keast and Callaghan 2002). This not only holds true for government initiated projects, but also the same shift in attitude of the community towards planning from private organizations has also been observed (Swift 2001).

Engagement is the key strategy for governments, organizations and community groups in the development of coherent policies and projects (Evans and Davies 1999). Such a strategy harnesses knowledge directly from the community—an important resource for government that has remained largely untapped (Ryan et al. 2006). In addition, it is able to strengthen networks and assist in the creation of collective governance (McCabe et al. 2006a). In essence, engagement empowers stakeholders, informs organizations and limits misunderstanding between parties.

Despite attempts to establish the concept of engagement, experiences regarding community consultation and engagement practices have proved unsatisfactory for affected parties (Adams and Hess 2001) . Practices are regarded as unsatisfactory because the common perception by the public is that, though words such as *consultation* and *engagement* are used, these processes are merely used to ratify or publicize decisions, rather than to negotiate a possibly different and mutually acceptable outcome (Edwards 2008). This has led to barriers of distrust being experienced in new rounds of 'consultation', together with a loss of interest in the process. An adversarial relationship necessarily ensues. This negative spiral in itself has led to new research to investigate why initial engagement failed and to find ways

**Table 2.1** Outcomes of analysis: framework for community engagement practices (adapted from Keast et al. 2006) and Beaumont and Loopmans 2008)

| Efficiency Factors (Enablers) (Enablers) | Deficiency factors (Barriers) |
|---|---|
| High communication focus | 'The stakeholder rhetoric': Community and government disconnect to the program design will inherently exclude citizens who cannot, will not, or are not, allowed to participate. |
| Partnership strengthening | Short-term objective planning |
| Surveyed needs and interest before initiatives undertaken | Under-resourced initiatives |
| Provide ownership of initiative development | Program resistance by both community and government |
| Quick wins (small outcomes or milestones) | Ill-defined and diffuse systems of authority lead to absence of accountability and transparency |

to improve the processes in the future (Goldstein and Butler 2010). Results from this body of research are discussed below.

### *2.1.2 Enablers and Barriers*

Keast et al. (2006) and Beaumont and Loopmans (2008) have undertaken research on enablers and barriers in community engagement. A broad summary of their findings is found in Table 2.1. Enablers include a significant focus on communication, in addition to the strengthening of partnerships to increase trust and willingness to cooperate between actors. Before negotiations commence, actors' interests and needs should be surveyed so that the problem owner can gain a satisfactory awareness of the various viewpoints and, perhaps more importantly, the actors' willingness to compromise (de Bruijn and ten Heuvelhof 2000). A final enabler for effective engagement is 'quick wins'. Given the time that active participation can take, it is important to have a number of quick wins such as formalizing a shared purpose or establishing how the group will function. These quick wins help members to feel like the group is going somewhere and is achieving something. They can also help to secure long-term funding and support for planning projects (Ison and Collins 2008).

Barriers, however, can result from a lack of awareness within the community regarding available programs, thereby leading to the exclusion of citizens or communities. In addition, short-term objective planning by the problem owner that ignores the long-term impacts of decisions can lead to public resistance (van Eeten et al. 2002). Under-resourced initiatives, whereby citizen activity is overestimated, or where the problem owner assigns insufficient time and money to the engagement program, can also result in sub-optimal outcomes (McCabe et al. 2006b). Worst of all is that there is an entrenched, stubborn resistance from either the community or the problem owner towards the possibility of engagement. Furthermore, engagement

processes without a positional leader and an ill-defined system of authority will create an absence of accountability and transparency, thereby making it more problematic to establish legitimacy (Beaumont and Loopmans 2008).

### 2.1.3 Level of Engagement

To overcome these barriers and make the best use of the enablers, many researchers, for example, Brown and Keast (2003), Edwards (2008) and McCabe et al. (2006a), have tried to identify best practices with respect to engagement. A general consensus is that effective participation is where all relevant stakeholders take part in the decision-making process (van de Riet 2003). All stakeholders should be able to influence decisions in such a way that, with the decision-making process concluded, all feel that their views have been given due consideration (van de Riet 2003; Edwards 2008). That should not be to say, however, that all views are able to be taken entirely into consideration. It is the process, and satisfaction with that process, that is of paramount importance (de Bruijn and ten Heuvelhof 2000).

Edwards (2008) identified three levels of engagement, ranging from simply providing information to citizens and relevant groups, to the other extreme of empowering them with actual control over the final decision. Edwards' work is very similar to an earlier policy brief issued by the OECD (2001), where the same three levels are discussed. The OECD used slightly different titles for each level, but the principles are the same. These three levels, based on Edwards (2008) and OECD (2001) are as follows:

1. When *information* alone is provided, it is a one-way relationship, with the problem owner effectively keeping the public or relevant stakeholders informed; it covers both 'passive' access to information upon demand by citizens and 'active' measures by organizations to disseminate information.
2. When the organization *consults*, it is a two-way relationship, with the problem owner going beyond merely providing information to listening to the public and gaining feedback, and hopefully, also providing feedback on how the public input affects decision making.
3. If active *participation* occurs, it is a relationship based on partnership. It would be expected that the problem owner would work with the public to not only provide feedback on how their input affected decisions, but also develop options reflecting their concerns. It acknowledges equal standing for citizens in setting the agenda, proposing policy options, and shaping the policy dialogue; but the responsibility for the final decision or policy formulation rests with the organization.

This shows that there are varying levels of engagement, which range from information dissemination to active participation. With regard to organizational objectives, it is important to determine if community engagement is beneficial and, if so, what level of engagement is the most appropriate. Active participation is a

relatively new concept for government. Such an engagement breaks down the traditional government and community hierarchies so that each party has equal leadership, ownership, and responsibility. Partnership equality within community engagement requires government to work in new ways, both internally and externally with the community, where the focus is relational and outcomes are based on negotiation and consensus.

As Edwards (2008) states, engagement is a two-way relationship. This means that it is not only up to the problem owner to engage with stakeholders, but also up to the stakeholders to engage back. Furthermore, when an engagement program is active, this does not mean that all demands and concerns from the stakeholders will be addressed to their complete satisfaction. The process, however, should be broad and transparent in scope, in addition to incorporating a multi-actor point of view in the exploration of solutions (van de Riet 2003). After this process, all actors should demonstrate willingness to compromise and acknowledge where demands cannot be met. Indeed, unsolvable issues that remain present after the engagement process might have to be taken into a second round of negotiations (Hart and Sharma 2004; Mainardes et al. 2011). By maintaining equality among the members with reference to both community and government, strength is increased through equal responsibility (Beaumont and Loopmans 2008). Equal and shared responsibility may lead to higher interest and could possibly even lead to a perception of ownership by stakeholders, and therefore enhanced input.

Engagement activities have to be chosen wisely, and have to take into account the readiness of both the community and the leading organization to take joint responsibility for developing a solution. Together with choosing the correct tools for the correct level of engagement, it is important to keep the stakeholder informed at all times of the intention of the engagement, so as not to generate false expectations on the part of the stakeholders. Information disseminated to the community has to be complete, objective, reliable, relevant and easy to find and understand. Any consultation processes that take place require clear goals and rules that define the limits of community influence (i.e., there may be non-negotiables), how feedback can be given, and how feedback is going to be used in decision-making processes.

This translates into six principles that have to be adhered to when engaging with stakeholders:

1. *Inclusiveness*: connecting with those who are hardest to reach.
2. *Reaching out*: changing the way government and community work together.
3. *Mutual respect*: listening, understanding and acting on experiences different from our own.
4. *Integrity*: engagement as a means of promoting integrity in the democratic process of government.
5. *Affirming diversity*: changing the processes of government to incorporate diverse values and interests.
6. *Adding value:* working productively together to add value in policy development and program and service planning.

**Table 2.2** Type of consultation and appropriate instrument (adapted from Edwards 2008)

| Information | Consultation | Partnership | Delegation | Control |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Surveys | Key contacts | Advisory | Public enquiries | Referenda |
| Toll free phones | Interest groups | Committees | Impact assessment studies | |
| Public information | Meetings | Policy | Citizens' forums | |
| Campaign | Focus groups | Communities | | |
| Meetings | Public hearings | | | |
| Circulation of proposals | | | | |

Edwards (2008) identified a set of tools deemed most appropriate for the principal problem owner to communicate on each level of engagement. Table 2.2 outlines these mechanisms for each level of involvement.

Most authors (e.g. Agle et al. 1999; Blind 2006; Parent and Deephouse 2007) in general agree that five important steps have to be taken into consideration when establishing engagement. These steps are described below.

1. **Shared vision:** It is important to first create a long-term vision for the collaboration network, thereby affirming diversity among stakeholders. A shared vision or a shared purpose is paramount in order to achieve positive outcomes. This could mean that processes of governance might have to be changed to incorporate diverse values and interests (Agle et al. 1999).
2. **Legitimation:** There is a need to ensure that engaging members have the authority to make decisions. The reality is that stakeholders with decision-making power are often busy and send proxies to meetings who do not have formal decision making authority. This sends a message that the collaboration is not a priority and can slow up an already time-consuming process. From the start, it is important to ensure that stakeholders actively involved with the actual process have formal or delegated decision-making power (Blind 2006; Parent and Deephouse 2007).
3. **Trust:** Stakeholder engagement requires interaction to be managed through trust. Trust can take the group to a much higher level of involvement and obligation, and is obtained by long-term relationships involving working together and supporting each other. The more that members trust each other, the longer they will be happy to remain in the relationship, despite the fact that sharing of information based on trust is inherently risky and may put some members in a potentially vulnerable position (Leach and Sabatier 2005; Williams 2002).
4. **Quick wins:** Given the time that active participation can take, it is important to have a number of 'quick wins' (small outcomes or achievable milestones) initially, and indeed throughout the engagement process. Quick wins help members to feel as if the group is going somewhere and is achieving something. They can also help to secure long-term funding and support. Quick wins can be

relatively simple steps such as formalizing a shared goal or establishing how the group will function (Ison and Collins 2008; Veeneman et al. 2009).

5. **Maintain momentum:** This stage is all about keeping the engagement active by ensuring that goals remain compatible and that control and responsibility is shared between the collaborative partners. This stage also focuses on securing continuing funding and the demonstration of leadership through inclusion and communication (Muir and Rhodes 2008).

By using the principles identified in the stakeholder engagement literature, it is theorized that engagement can become smoother and more efficient. The identified outcomes of engagement in practical research include: (i) improved relationships and understanding; (ii) gaining knowledge and expertise; (iii) a decrease in negative feedback; (iv) improved quality of the decision-making process; (v) improved project implementation; and (vi) improvement of corporate policies. Stakeholder engagement itself is dependent on a thorough and in-depth analysis. Understandably, the stakeholder engagement process identified above resonates closely with 'interest-based negotiation' (Waterhouse et al. 2011). Though this close relation is acknowledged in this book, the matter itself is not discussed further. This is because the addition of another theoretical field of research, as interesting as it may be, will not add significant to the strength of the book.

# Chapter 3
# Communicative Planning


Communicative planning is an umbrella term for a number of planning processes that emphasize discourse, communication, and consensus building (Olsson 2009). It has become an established normative goal in planning theory and practice (Verma 2007). In turn, a 'planning process' is an ongoing and multi-faceted process that is publicly or privately undertaken (Olsson 2009).

Participating in a planning process might include participating in one or more of the facets of the process. In practice, however, planners regularly seem to have difficulties grasping the complex dynamics of contemporary society interaction (Graham and Healey 1999). It is widely recognized that society is becoming increasingly fragmented, complex, and dynamic in character (Kooiman 2000; Koppenjan and Klijn 2004). Fragmentation increases as a result of the functional differentiation of society into relatively autonomous subsystems and the proliferation of relatively independent public and private organizations (Torfing 2005). The increased fragmentation brings communicative planning to the fore. Increased fragmentation requires more intense communication and collaboration in order to reach mutually agreeable outcomes in decision-making and planning processes.

The identified problem is that many planners, in practice, continue to maintain the reductionist assumption that complex and dynamic cities and places, which are multiple space-time subjectivities, can, without difficulty, be considered as a single, integrated, unitary and material object (a single space-time representation) to be addressed by planning instruments (Blomgren Bingham and O'Leary 2006; Graham and Healey 1999). Such views have become deeply embedded in the routines of practice and thinking of planning professionals, and the policy communities that cluster around the practice of planning systems (Graham and Healey 1999). Harvey (1996) argues that attempting to represent multiple space-time subjectivities of a place as single space-time representations will inevitably lead to major distributive challenges.

These challenges are shown in the problems arising from the clash in planning by both the airport, and the neighbouring city. The increasing complexity of society, as discussed by Graham and Healey (1999), has also been identified within the



R. Kivits, S. Sawang, *The Dynamism of Stakeholder Engagement*, Contributions to Management Science, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-70428-5_3

stakeholder literature by, for example, Crocker (2007), Reed et al. (2009) and Kroesen and Broer (2009). Planners, such as those working for either the airport or the city, are often locked within their single space-time representations of the entities outside their scope, e.g., other stakeholders outside their planning areas. These stakeholders, outside their scope, are commonly identified as single-dimensional homogeneous groups by the planners. On account of this poor identification, these stakeholders are not appropriately included in planning processes, if they are engaged with at all. Problems such as those identified in the introduction, such as when the planning body and the surrounding stakeholders clash and oppose each other, which often results in legal complications, are more common than the exception.

## 3.1 Commonalities Between Planning Literature and Stakeholder Literature

Planning problems, however, are not solely owned by the planners themselves, but are also owned collectively by the broader range of stakeholders that they involve and affect (Anderson 2008). Issues of participation, responsiveness and relevance are fundamental to the health and vitality of planning decision making (Anderson 2008; Hague 2000). With the realization of the need to include this broader range of stakeholders in planning literature, modern planning literature in metropolitan regions and other communities is therefore often described as having taken the 'communicative turn' (Khakee 1998; Verma 2007; Voogd 1998). The term 'communicative planning' has been used to denote a variety of planning strategies and theories focused on discourse, communication, consensus building, and process (Forester 1999; Sager and Ravlum 2005; Verma 2007).

The many types of planning termed 'communicative', or 'consensus building', generally share a conceptualization of planning as an ongoing communicative process, with more attention paid to dialogue than decisions (Verma 2007). It also includes a range of diverse actors (Booher 2004; Innes 2003). Communicative planning processes may facilitate visioning, communication among diverse actors, and innovative alternatives (Booher and Innes 2002; Forester 1999; Healey 1999; Olsson 2009). In this communicative context, planners have an important and new role in helping to frame communicative and interpretive processes through which collective meanings of space and time are identified, negotiated and maintained, for the purposes of mediating the challenges of co-existence in 'places' of shared space-time (Graham and Healey 1999).

The resemblance of the message brought across by communicative planning is strikingly similar to the message articulated by stakeholder theory. Both fields focus on bringing together multiple actors, or stakeholders, on a common issue. These stakeholders, because of their different backgrounds, ideas and motivations, will have different opinions and interests. To find solutions to solve a common issue,

**Table 3.1** Alternative rationales for consensus building (adapted from Healey 1998)

| Instrumental | Political and Social | Normative and Ethical |
|---|---|---|
| Building support for decisions, and in particular overcoming known differences over what a decision should be. | Consensus building as an arena for working through, and overcoming, ideological and political differences. | People have a democratic right to be involved in decisions that affect them. |
| Bringing in more expertise and knowledge, in particular bringing in lay knowledge to complement expert knowledge. | Building social capital, on the assumption that the process itself develops relations of trust and new linkages between participants (Amdam 2006). | |

however, each stakeholder's opinion and proposed solutions need to be listened to and given due regard in the problem-solving process. This interaction, or engagement, is achieved through genuine dialogue. The main focus of the dialogue is to understand the differences. Through this understanding, agreements can be reached where most, if not all, of the stakeholders will accept the outcomes. The communicative engagement processes, as detailed above, are thus not only identified within stakeholder literature, but also within the planning literature. The common identification of engagement processes indicates the importance of genuine stakeholder engagement in planning and decision-making processes.

Decision-making processes based on communicative planning and consensus building are increasingly regarded as a useful approach when dealing with existing or anticipated conflicts over infrastructure planning issues (Brand and Gaffikin 2007; Connelly and Richardson 2004). Consensus building has become an everyday activity in planning practices, and its use is often regarded as a symbol of a fair, transparent and fully participative process (Graham and Healey 1999). Consensus building has several advantages, such as sustainable supply chains (Rowlinson and Cheung 2008), in addition to overall improvement in the company's performance (Galbreath 2006). Table 3.1 shows a list of different rationales for consensus building, all of which closely resemble the normative vs. instrumental debate discussed within the stakeholder theory.

Consensus building is not always used to its fullest potential, and is not always used for the right reasons. Consensus-building practices are sometimes misused to legitimate decisions, without actual collaborative decision making taking place. To address these issues, it is helpful to take a further look at the core of consensus building.

According to Connelly and Richardson (2004), consensus building should be understood as more than simply a method of public participation, and more than an element of partnership. Here, partnership can be understood as organizations coming together for 'collaborative advantage' to achieve an objective that no single organization could achieve alone (Wilson and Charlton 1997, p. 10). Consensus-building processes can contain elements of both participation and partnership, thus blurring the boundaries between the two. Its distinguishing characteristic in both cases is its approach to decision making: the norms of common goals, absence of coercion, and

inclusion of all relevant actors, whether they are members of the public, civil society groups, businesses, or public sector organizations (Connelly and Richardson 2004). Consensus-building processes could potentially include a widely divergent array of actors.

Important within the consensus building process is the communication between the actors involved. Using Habermas (1979) argument, Hillier (2003) has shown that the very point of communication is to bring about an agreement that terminates in the inter-subjective mutuality of reciprocal understanding, shared knowledge, mutual trust, and accord with one another. Agreement is based on recognition of the corresponding validity claims of comprehensibility, truth, truthfulness, and rightness (Habermas 1979, p. 3). Though this agreement might sound idealistic, it should be the kind of agreement that is strived for in the consensus-building process, for the principal reason that such an agreement would, by definition, be rational (Hillier 2003). Such rational consensus is grounded in the communicative structure of rational discourse. At the same time, this makes the communicative action, in essence, morally grounded (Habermas 1979; Hillier 2003).

Booher (2004) and Innes (2003, 2004), however, disagree with Hillier's (2003) use of Habermas' ideal notion of communication. Their model of consensus building, which uses authentic dialogue (which will be explored later in this review), is in concept similar to Habermas' notion of communicative rationality, but it is far from identical. In particular, unlike communicative rationality, it is not primarily an epistemological view or ideal-type process, but rather a practical view of what it takes to make robust choices about the future in a real-world situation, especially given that it takes into account diverse views and multiple 'knowledges' and understandings (Booher 2004; Innes 2004). Even when a consensus is reached, this consensus exists only within the context in which it has been placed, and is therefore always open to challenge as the context changes (Brand and Gaffikin 2007). In addition, rationality is likely to be affected in these highly complex situations of environmental and social issues by decisions based on political grounds rather than on moral or rational grounds (Connelly and Richardson 2004). These observations and arguments are reflective of what has been discussed within the stakeholder engagement literature. The process followed to reach consensus as described by stakeholder engagement is not a one-size-fits-all prescribed strategy, but nor is it a process whereby all stakeholders gain maximum outcomes and all stakeholders agree with the consensus reached.

The primary aim of the process is creating understanding among the stakeholders about each other. Only after this understanding, and after 'a practical view' (Hillier 2003) has been formed, is it possible to start talking about real solutions—"robust choices about the future in a real-world situation" (Hillier 2003, p. 54). In view of this, Habermas' notion of communication provides a basis for successful stakeholder engagement, while the notion of communicative planning, as brought forward by Hillier (2003) and Booher and Innes (2002), can be entirely transplanted within stakeholder engagement literature without requiring any adjustment.

The purpose of both consensus building and stakeholder engagement is to articulate and resolve, to the greatest extent possible, the tensions between the

political, economic, and civil issues of a society as its diverse human membership tries to find their place and fulfil their needs (Hibbard and Lurie 2000). However, the efficacy of deliberative processes in any given situation also depends on another element: it is the presence in the local social structure of those things that enable the actions of individuals working toward a collective goal of what has come to be called social capital (Hibbard and Lurie 2000). By social capital, Putnam (1993) refers to the combination of dense social networks and shared norms of trust and reciprocity that create a robust environment for civic engagement. It is suggested that, where social capital is strong, citizens should usually be able to work through their differences on community issues, even in the face of firm divisions (Bryson 2004; Greenwood 2007; Hart and Sharma 2004).

Individuals with group affinity organize around a mutual identification and offer a collective vision for progressive social change (Gutmann 2003; Putnam 2003). It is therefore not surprising that coalitions based on similar ideologies are more successful than those based on similar interests (Jones-Correa 2001). That said, deliberation on substantive matters converts ideological positions into interests (Baxamusa 2008). These interests can be negotiated through a process of deliberation (Baxamusa 2008; Healey 1998). This suggests that, for successful stakeholder engagement, the identification of ideologies, such as frames of reference, is an important addition to the identification of interests.

The participation of a multitude of stakeholders involved in the communicative planning process will lead to the creation of new networks (Olsson 2009). Networks are patterns of social relations among interdependent actors that coordinate policy decisions, and which represent shared problem formulations or interests (Koppenjan and Klijn 2004). Comunicative planning creates networks that coordinates actors and mediates the flow of information regarding a specific issue, thereby creating institutional environments to achieve shared problem formulations (Olsson 2009). This does not imply that other forms of planning cannot build networks, only that communicative planning by definition seeks to build networks. Individual networks of actors can become interconnected through the creation of a new network consisting of actors from each individual network, brought together as stakeholders of a certain problem. A simple example could be a network of businesspersons, a network linking environmental interests, and a third network as an association of municipalities. Communicative planning provides a space where these individual networks (represented by the actors) meet and create a new network (the black lines linking actors from different networks). In this concept, Olsson (2009) is not alone, for Rowley (1997); (Rowley 2000) has also expressed the same view, from the stakeholder theory perspective.

## 3.2 Power and Uncertainty

It is difficult to make any real difference with consensus building, more so given that power is unequally distributed and that some stakeholders have fewer resources and influence outside the dialogue than others do (Booher and Innes 2002). According to its critics, consensus building is nothing more than an elaborate form of co-optation. Simply talking among a group and sharing opinions does not make any real difference when (i) the material sources of power, such as money, formal authority, or the access to force, remain, and (ii) when the group represents only a small subset of the actors.

Yet this perspective, or so it has been argued, is largely based on a view of power as the ability of one actor, organization, or class to make another person or group do something that they would otherwise not do (Galbraith 1983). Though this ability is a form of power, and is relevant to decision- making processes, it is also a limiting concept of the past and no longer as relevant given the widespread use of social media—a tool which the community is capable of exploiting (Booher and Innes 2002). Nowadays, powerful actors that exert their power receive acquiescence, but not results– or sometimes even results contrary to their intentions. Without a proper understanding of the environment in which an organization operates, and the different stakeholders within that environment, the reaction, or backlash, to decisions impacting the stakeholders (on which the stakeholders have not been consulted) is uncertain. Such an exertion of power is unlikely to produce consistent or sustainable results. By using consensus-building processes, or other forms of collaborative planning, an alternative form of power emerges. This is known as network power (Huxham and Vangen 1996; Innes 2004; Keast and Mandell 2011).

Network power comes into play when participants build relationships, mutual understanding, and share problem solving experiences, together with an understanding of the system. These developments, in turn, mean that the participants of the network collectively have a power to influence change or produce their desired outcomes. This is a form of power that grows as it is shared. It is not a zero-sum game where one gains and the other loses. Network power is a form of power from which both the most, and least, powerful can benefit (Innes 2004). Creation of this power can be one of the most potent incentives for participants to stay at the table and continue to work together, even after the immediate project is completed. Network power is the glue for collaboration over time, and a countermeasure for the uncertainty of the future; or, as Booher (2004) has put it: often what looks like a significant cost for collaboration is relatively small next to the cost of problems embedded in a business-as-usual approach.

From there, it is important to understand why self-interested actors, who are perceived to have a significant amount of power to achieve goals by themselves, would want to participate in planning processes with communicative goals, and what such participation could lead to in terms of decision making (Olsson 2009). The main reason expressed in communicative planning is consistent with the stakeholder engagement literature and focuses on uncertainty and a lack of viable alternatives.

Stakeholders who are perceived as being powerful might, in fact, not have enough power to achieve their desired goals on their own. Moreover, most stakeholders are well aware of the obstructive powers of other stakeholders and wish to remove uncertainty about whether other parties will oppose them. Should other stakeholders oppose the process, they might not have viable alternatives at hand to overcome these challenges. For these reasons, it is understandable that even self- interested actors with complex power relations would want to participate in the communicative planning processes (Agger and Lofgren 2008; Anderson 2008; Andriof and Waddock 2002).

## 3.3 Positive Outcomes of Communicative Planning

Despite evidence of processes where communicative planning has not always had the desired effect, the dialogue itself can still change minds and perceptions of what is in one's interest. Participants learn about opportunities for collective action, build social and political capital among themselves, and learn about other actors' perspectives and needs (Goldstein and Butler 2010). Conflict is ever present throughout any engagement process. Stakeholders grow angry, threaten to leave, and are constantly aware of the fundamentally different interests that separate them and the conflicting strategies that their constituencies have traditionally followed. This very conflict, however, is what makes consensus building capable of producing robust results. The ideas and knowledge are tested and developed in a crucible of constant tensions (Bourne 2010; Johnston 2008). In the process of collaborative dialogue, participants often discover ways in which they can jointly meet their own interests and those of others (Voogd 1998; White 2008). Participants discover that there are options more beneficial to their interests, than what they had in mind when they thought they had to act alone (Innes 2004).

In particular, those weaker, disadvantaged groups represented at the table may never have been able to participate meaningfully in a policy discussion before. For them, participation can be empowering as, first, they meet powerful actors face to face, second, learn about realities that they have not been exposed to before, and, third and most importantly of all, they get to express their needs and perceptions in a context where they are heard by these powerful actors. While this does not mean that these powerful stakeholders will do something fundamentally against their interests because of what they learn, it often means that the collective norms, values and interests of all the stakeholders participating in the discussion become, to some degree, incorporated in the thinking of the powerful actors (Thabrew et al. 2009).

Actors may change their expectations because they can still get what they want without compromising their welfare, more so if they provide some benefit to the weaker stakeholders. The incorporation of all the stakeholders' norms, values and interests can occur for various reasons. When powerful stakeholders seek legitimacy for their decisions from other stakeholders, they will have to accommodate the other stakeholders to some extent. Alternatively, they may learn facts from the other

stakeholders of which they were unaware before the interaction, and thus change their own opinions. In some cases, powerful stakeholders learn of solutions that incorporate other stakeholders' wishes, yet do not significantly impact their goals or bottom line. This kind of dynamic within the stakeholder engagement group depends heavily on the building of trust and social capital among the actors (Thomas 2001).

On occasion, some stakeholders are not happy with the outcomes. Even so, they may decide not to oppose these outcomes if every effort has been made to meet their interests, and if they have received some of the things that they initially wanted. The package itself creates an incentive for continuing joint support after the process is over, because there are aspects that are valuable to everyone (Innes 2004). Perhaps the most important reason that stakeholders are apt to stick with their agreements is that they want to work with the other actors in the future—it becomes important to them to be trusted. In any case, they have built working relationships with other actors that often extend into other aspects of their work. They recognize that, in a rapidly changing world, the agreement may become obsolete in a short time, but they also know that they will have the means and trust to develop, in collaborative fashion, required adaptations in the future, thereby decreasing the uncertainty (Olsson 2009).

Shandas and Messer (2008) show that programs encouraging the public to participate in planning need flexibility to allow innovation and accommodation in the planning process. They observe that community partners experience great success completing projects that they themselves initiate, and that are physically located nearby (Shandas and Messer 2008). Community-based stewardship programs, if designed correctly, have the potential to increase citizen trust in government (Greenwood 2007). Involving the community in urban management programs fills gaps between what public institutions can achieve, and what the community needs. This co-production provides opportunities for citizens to develop a sense of ownership of the project, which may, in turn, increase the number of community groups involved in the process (Shandas and Messer 2008).

A good example of how communicative planning processes work is shown in the case of the Los Angeles Airport (LAX). Los Angeles World Airports (LAWA) deliberated with the local community in an extensive process on the expansion of LAX and the noise impact that this would have on surrounding residential communities, as there are twenty schools and fourteen preschools under the existing and proposed flight paths of LAX. LAWA initially designed and proposed plans without the consultation of the local community. After spending ten years of research and approximately $147 million on the plans, community groups felt threatened by the expansion and could not be convinced to agree. In contrast to ten years of LAX pushing its own proposals onto the community with no result, it only took a two-year genuine engagement process, facilitated by the mayor of Los Angeles, and in which all local stakeholders were represented, to come to a Community Benefits Agreement (CBA). In exchange for their support for the airport's expansion, the community groups that were part of the agreement received an estimated US$500 million worth of community benefits. This included about US$230 million to the nearby schools to soundproof their buildings (Baxamusa 2008). The LAWA deemed

this agreement to be better than the prospect of operational losses resulting from community protests in the future. In other words, LAWA decided that $500 million was the price that they were willing to pay to turn an uncertain future into a more certain one.

## 3.4 Enablers and Barriers

To conclude the discussion on communicative planning, three common barriers to consensus building, identified by Hibbard and Lurie (2000), need to be discussed. These barriers are similar to the barriers identified by Keast et al. (2006) and Beaumont and Loopmans (2008) in networks. Such barriers mainly relate to improving clarity in communication and on realizing what is actually possible. These are as follows:

1. Be clear and open about what issues can and cannot be dealt with. The first order of business for the principal problem owner is to help other stakeholders identify and articulate their aspirations regarding both critical issues and the process for addressing them. Then, all stakeholders can work together to make the issues that can realistically be dealt with more explicit, together with those that need to be addressed through other efforts, or simply cannot be resolved (Hibbard and Lurie 2000).
2. Design a realistic process for dialogue. Underestimating the significance of the process to the other stakeholders is a common mistake. Those responsible for convening and managing the process need to be skilled at identifying potential and existing power imbalances, and at reaching out to various publics, to ensure that all viewpoints in the community have an equal chance to be heard, and that persons or groups wanting to participate in the decision-making process are allowed to do so. They should also budget for process management professionals as necessary (Hibbard and Lurie 2000).
3. Be clear about who is making what decisions. Citizens, elected officials and professional staff often hold different assumptions about the extent to which citizens should be a part of decision making. It is essential to establish at the beginning the public's expectations regarding participation in generating alternatives and deciding on policy, and to make explicit how far elected officials can legally accommodate shared decision making (Hibbard and Lurie 2000).

# Chapter 4
# Stakeholder Analysis


The previous chapters on stakeholder theory, stakeholder engagement and communicative planning have shown that stakeholders are important to any decision-making and planning process. This is particularly true for contentious projects where significant problems demand solutions, yet where stakeholders are not satisfied with their options by working alone, and where acceptable solutions are not emerging from traditional decision-making processes (Booher and Innes 2002). These problems often coincide with a complex social, economic and environmental setting. Such contentious projects attract large numbers of stakeholders, each with different backgrounds, perspectives, and objectives (Crocker 2007). This leads to a complex set of stakeholders holding many different positions with respect to the problem itself, and with respect to other stakeholders. A simple polarized dichotomy of for and against does not, as a consequence, exist in these contexts. This complicates the analysis and, subsequently, the classification and categorization of the stakeholders (Ashworth and Skelcher 2005; Achterkamp and Vos 2007; Greenwood 2007). The question thus becomes: how can these stakeholders be differentiated from each other and different attention be given to different stakeholders? In other words, how can the stakeholders be analysed to understand the uniqueness of each stakeholder. By examining the available literature on the topic, three main components that define a stakeholder will be identified: stakeholder salience, stakeholder interests, and stakeholder relations with each other.

Over time, a wide range of factors has been used to analyse stakeholders. These factors include: cooperation and competition (Freeman 1984); cooperation and threat (Savage et al. 1991); stakeholder predictability and power (Mendelow 1991); stakeholder interest and power (De Lopez 2001; Eden and Ackermann 1998); power, urgency and legitimacy (Mitchell et al. 1997) and stakeholder's preferred outcomes and relationships (Jonker and Foster 2002). Cooperation, competition, threat, predictability and outcomes can all be considered within the overarching term of 'interests' of the stakeholder, or what later will be called 'the frame of reference'. Within a level of interest, labels such as 'supportive' and 'unsupportive' or 'competitor' can be used to distinguish different interests. The



R. Kivits, S. Sawang, *The Dynamism of Stakeholder Engagement*, Contributions to Management Science, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-70428-5_4

interests of the stakeholders, as argued earlier, are not always as obvious as analysts might desire, especially given that outspoken interests might differ from underlying interests. Categorization based on frames of reference such as strategic perspectives analysis (Dale and Lane 1994) or policy discourse analysis (de Bruijn and ten Heuvelhof 2004), might be better suited to uncover this information, as will be detailed later.

Relationships, one of the two criteria used by Jonker and Foster (2002), can quite clearly be understood as a part of a stakeholder network. Social network analysis, as discussed by Borgatti et al. (2002) might be regarded as better suited to investigate stakeholder relations. For the purposes of this book, the two criteria are focused: power and urgency. Power has been used by Mendelow (1991), De Lopez (2001), and Eden and Ackermann (1998), and both are used within Mitchell et al.'s (1997) model. Mitchell et al. (1997) are widely cited on this topic (Agle et al. 2008; Laplume et al. 2008; Reed et al. 2009). Mitchell et al.'s model will therefore be used here as a guideline to discuss the factors of stakeholder salience.

In sum, three overarching components have been identified from the literature: stakeholder salience (power and urgency), stakeholder's frames of reference (interests), and stakeholder networks (relationships).

## 4.1 Traditional Stakeholder Groups

In this book, the concept of stakeholders will be applied to the airport arena. Within the context of airports, a number of 'traditional' stakeholder groups are generally used to identify and categorize airport stakeholders. These stakeholders are, at this very broad level, grouped together solely on the fact that they belong to the same 'industry' sector, and are therefore assumed to behave in a homogeneous fashion (Gomes and Gomes 2008). This is often the very first categorization that analysts apply to a set of stakeholders. By comparing other stakeholder research around airports, the following groups are identified as airport stakeholders, in the broadest sense of categorization: the community, NGOs, industry, and government (van Eeten 2001; Amaeshi and Crane 2006; de Haan 2007). Within the Australian context, three tiers of government are relevant: Local, State or Territory government, and the Federal government. When a more detailed categorization of stakeholders is required, usually only one of three components is used to analyse the stakeholders; for example, the most commonly applied component is stakeholder salience, which is used to determine categorization of the stakeholders by importance. These three components will be discussed directly below.

## 4.2 Stakeholder Salience

The first component widely recognized within literature and practice is the differentiation of stakeholders based on salience. Stakeholder salience is the degree to which stakeholders have the potential to influence decisions (Mitchell et al. 1997). The first factor in Mitchell et al.'s (1997) model is power. When a stakeholder has access to coercive, utilitarian or normative means of power, it can impose its principles onto its relationship with an organization (Etzioni 1964). Access to power, or the means to exert power, are often variable and are not in a steady state (Parent and Deephouse 2007). Power may be gained, as well as lost, over time. Stakeholder power has been a widely debated attribute of stakeholders, and the definition of power is not unanimous across the different literature. The word 'power' lies at the centre of a semantic field that includes authority, influence, coercion, force, violence, manipulation, strength, and so on. These terms are used all the time in everyday conversation, and generally everyone knows what is meant. Yet scholars have endlessly debated their definitions. At its most general, power simply means the capacity to bring about outcomes. It is important to avoid two fallacies about power. The first is the 'exercise fallacy', which occurs when power is equated to its exercise (Crosby and Bryson 2005). For example, power can be defined based on 'winning', as achieving success in decision making, or as prevailing over others. The use of the term power thus leads to the desire to make the concept operational. Power, however, is a dispositional concept; it names a potentiality that may never be actualized (Lukes 1974).

The second fallacy is the 'vehicle fallacy', which occurs when power is equated with the means or resources of power (Lukes 2004). Sociologists sometimes identify power with wealth or status (Lukes 2004), and military analysts sometimes measure it in terms of military forces and weaponry (Lukes 2007). But, as the United States discovered in Vietnam and Iraq, simply having the means of power is not the same as being powerful. Within the political science literature, it is argued there are three dimensions of power (Lukes 1974). The first dimension is what is observable; the second dimension consists of the rules, modes, media, and methods that underpin or provide the platform for what is observable, i.e., the first dimension; and the third dimension is the deeper social structures underpinning the rules, i.e., the second dimension (Lukes 1974).

This three-dimensional view, according to Lukes (2007), proposes that power can also consist in the securing of consent to dominant power relations through the shaping of desires and beliefs. To the extent that this occurs, observable, or even covert, conflict can disappear, and the processes and mechanisms involved need no longer be intentional and active, though they must still be specifiable if power is to be attributed. On account of this, power in its third dimension is not inimical to the preferences or the grievances of those subject to it, since this level of power helps to shape the former and suppress the latter, it is then characterized as working against the real interests.

This three-dimensional view suggested by Lukes (2007) incited severe criticism, such as that advanced by Scott (1991), who claimed that the third dimension is non-existent, or at best very rare. In line with Scott, Young (1978) contends that the provided description of power is so general as to be ubiquitous: one cannot imagine a situation where at least one of the dimensions would not be present. This leads to Young's (1978) second critique that defining power in terms of "deeper social structures underpinning the rules", as (1974) proposes, invites contestation and forces the adoption of a meta-theory according to which this, and not reasonable inference, is the norm. As Gallie noted, the mutual recognition of essential contentedness can either raise the debate to a higher level, or lead one side to prosecute heretics and make itself right (Gallie 1978).

Two broad conclusions from the debate around power can be derived. First, the use of the terms power, powerful, and powerless are, in practice, generally interest-driven, and several distinct interests in locating and assessing the impact of the power of agents in social and political life exist. Three main interests are attached this level of assessment. The first is to identify the extent to which agents are able to advance their interests and/or the interests of others. The second is the interest to identify the extent to which they are able to harm the interests of others. The third is to identify the extent to which an agent can induce and reproduce the subordination, dependency, or control of others in ways that may or may not involve their willing consent.

The second conclusion is that there is no neutral, canonical, incontestable way of conceiving power that is free of controversial political implications. This is due in part to the links between power, responsibility, and interests. To attribute responsibility and to identify where agents' interests lie is inherently controversial. Power can be conceived narrowly or broadly, and as incorporating one or more dimensions, all of which yields different pictures of how power is configured.

First and foremost, it is in the interest of this research to identify the power of stakeholders, and not to contribute theoretically to the existing debate around the use of the term power. For this reason, the research will confine the definition of power as used in the component of stakeholder salience, to the first dimension identified by Lukes (1974), viz., the observable dimension. It is understood that this might incur certain limitations to the research. However, throughout mainstream existing stakeholder analysis practice, only that first level of power is addressed. It is therefore argued, in order to maintain consistency in the application of the component of stakeholder salience, that this more widely accepted definition of power should be used. The other two components of the stakeholder analysis framework (i.e. stakeholder frames of reference, and stakeholder network) will address the notion of power from the underlying perceptions stakeholders hold. It will thus underpin the platform of their observable power, i.e., the second dimension of power as identified by Lukes (1974), and the deeper social, or network structures that underpin the other two dimensions.

## 4.3 Power within Management Literature

The most widely accepted definition of power in the management literature is based on resource dependency theory (Bardach 1998; Pfeffer 1981), which assumes that an organization is dependent on a stakeholder for resources. Institutional theory (Oliver 1991) explains dependency based on economic necessity or contractual agreements. Both theories allocate power to the stakeholder in control of the resources (Mitchell et al. 1997). An organization's choice is hence limited by the power imbalance between it and the stakeholder (Oliver 1991). Resource dependency theory and institutional theory consider resources as an important form of power for actors to exert (Eden and Ackermann 1998; Mendelow 1991). Following Agle et al. (1999), resource power will be included as an attribute of stakeholder power.

A second type of power is the formal, or legal, aspect of power. Institutional theory regards formal power based on contractual arrangements as part of resource based power. In line with Uhl-Bien et al. (2007) and (Mayer et al. 2005), formal power, here, is defined by its ability to influence policies, laws, and regulations. (Abers and Keck 2006) show how a lack of formal decision-making power in a decision-making process can undermine this process, regardless of resource-based power. Not only governments possess this power, but also society as a whole wields voting power, which therefore influences formal power (Key 1999). Freeman (1984) and Frooman (1999) also hint at this form of power. Yet Jonker and Foster (2002) argue that the social side of formal power might be more important for stakeholder analysis, and should be regarded as a type of power in itself. Most organizations have developed expertise and experience in dealing with economic and legal forms of power. That said, social power plays an important role in the outcomes of stakeholder relations and it has not been thoroughly addressed or practised by most organizations. The fact is that social power (i.e., the ability to organise and mobilize social forces through community groups, protests, social media, etc.) has become an increasingly important force in the past ten to fifteen years.

As stated before, communities are more able and willing to articulate their opinions, judgements and needs and have become more verbal and outspoken about issues impacting on them. Yet they have also become cynical about receiving genuine response to their concerns (Hames 1999; Muir and Rhodes 2008). There is a natural tendency for communities and, more specifically, community groups to attempt to influence the implementation or postponement or even cancellation of construction projects in line with their individual concerns and needs (Olander and Landin 2008). This holds true for government-initiated projects, and also reflects community attitudes towards the planning activities of private organizations (Swift 2001). A third type of power, social power, is therefore becoming a crucial part of stakeholder salience, yet it has not been investigated extensively in the stakeholder literature (Jonker and Foster 2002). Three categories of power have thus been identified: resource power, formal power, and social power. The access to power, or the means to exert power, are often variable and not in a steady state (Parent and Deephouse 2007). Within the stakeholder relation it is therefore important to

continuously be informed of, and to be aware of the power relationships between stakeholders.

Urgency is introduced by (Jones 1993) as a two-dimensional view consisting of (i) the degree to which managerial delay in attending to the claim or relationship is unacceptable to the stakeholder, and (ii) the importance of the claim or the relationship to the stakeholder. Mitchell et al. (1997) call these two dimensions 'temporality' (or 'time sensitivity') and 'criticality'. They argue that temporality and criticality, by themselves, are not sufficient enough to become important variables, since the power of distinction would be low. Together, they create a sense of urgency, which is, as a result, an 'importance in time', and therefore subject to change over time as interests and context changes. Urgency determines the degree of importance that stakeholders attach to issues. This degree of importance is different for each stakeholder. It is not at all uncommon for stakeholder groups, especially from the community, to be formed around one single issue. When this issue is dealt with, this stakeholder group will disappear again. There appears to be a form of threshold, a level of urgency or indeed importance, to be reached before individuals are willing to spend time and resources on an issue (Jonker and Foster 2002).

Stakeholder salience is thus comprised of two factors, power and urgency. Analysing a stakeholder's salience based on these two factors has the potential to give a clear insight into which stakeholders are regarded as more important relative to other stakeholders. At the same time, it gives an indication of what possible actions each stakeholder could undertake. An organization can therefore decide how it chooses to deal with each stakeholder. Stakeholder salience, as described here, based on power and urgency, is a very dynamic concept and can change rapidly over time (Agle et al. 1999; Mattingly and Greening 2002). Matters that are not perceived as urgent today can become a hot topic tomorrow, with little if any prior indication. Individual actors in powerful positions can leave these positions for various reasons within short amounts of time. This dynamic nature of stakeholder salience needs to be considered within any potential model of classification. In other words, to keep information up-to-date, a classification analysis model needs to be flexible and able to be updated easily.

## 4.4 Stakeholders' Frames of Reference

The second component to a stakeholder is the frame of reference from which the stakeholder views the world (de Bruijn and ten Heuvelhof 2000; Ryan et al. 2006; van de Riet 2003). A person's internal frame of reference, or policy frame, is unique and is shaped over the years by a person's experiences, education, culture and familial relationships (Butts 2008). Though unique for each person, a single person's policy frame on a certain topic can overlap to some degree with those of others. Within a community, multiple groups of persons can exist that share similar policy frames (Barry and Proops 1999; Gasper and Apthorpe 1996). This overlapping part of the policy frames will henceforth be called the policy discourse (Barry and Proops

1999; Kroesen and Broer 2009). A policy discourse describes the way in which a group of people looks at a topic, and how they will consequently behave towards that topic; it also describes how they will interact with other persons on that same topic (Kroesen and Broer 2009; Skelcher et al. 2005).

These policy discourses are highly context specific. When uncovered, they allow for the identification of different sub-groups, or stakeholder groups, within a community. Stakeholder groups that do not share policy discourses are also more likely to use different vocabularies and jargon (van Eeten et al. 2002). This can result in stakeholders using the same language, but attaching different meanings to it, thereby resulting in confusion and miscommunication. Policy discourses also expose the underlying reasons for, or backgrounds to, stakeholder's objectives. That is to say, different stakeholders can have similar goals, yet are driven by different motives. Conversely, stakeholders might share similar motives, yet aim for different objectives. It follows that understanding these stakeholder groups in this way and classifying them accordingly can significantly enhance the effectiveness of engagement practices and, as a consequence, project implementation (Gasper and Apthorpe 1996; McLaughlin 2005).

The frames of reference component therefore allow an insight into the interests of the stakeholders. Within the specified context of the problem, in this instance the airport and aviation context, those interests are likely to provide a certain degree of overlap among the stakeholders, thereby allowing for additional stakeholder grouping based on these overlapping interests. These interests are arguably at an aggregated level, and not necessary at a detailed one. For the application of stakeholder engagement specifics can matter a great deal, although the next sequential step after the stakeholder analysis remains outside the scope of this research.

Although it is difficult to forecast the actual outcome of a frame of reference analysis in advance, previous research, such as that carried out by Van Eeten (2001), Kroesen and Broer (2009), shows that, it is indeed possible, albeit within certain boundaries. When the context and boundaries of the research are defined to a narrow area, such as only perceptions on airports, a frame-of-reference analysis can produce sufficient detail within the given context so as to arrive at the level of analysis needed to group stakeholders by their interests.

The advantage of using frames of reference over traditional 'interest-based surveys' is that frames of reference unpack the underlying, or unspoken interests of the stakeholders, rather than the outspoken interests. It is conceded that outspoken interests may appear more specific and in detail; however, they often obscure the underlying interests that are more essential to understand when devising stakeholder engagement strategies. For example, an opponent to the airport might voice its desire to reducing the number of flights during the night. This would be the outspoken interest. The underlying interest, however, might be that this person has recently bought a small dog that gets frightened by the loud noise of the aircraft flying over at night, and as a result soils the carpet. An alternative approach to this problem might be to facilitate noise-sensitivity training for the dog to remove the problem.

Though the proposed frame of reference analysis might not present specific detail regarding specific problems, it nevertheless provides a significant step forward with

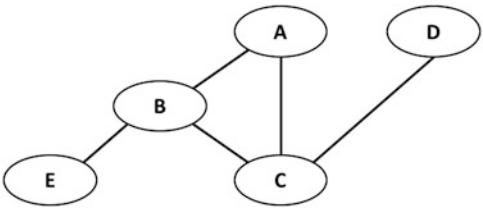


**Fig. 4.1** Example of a simplified network diagram

respect to additional stakeholder differentiation. To use the example of one of the frames of reference uncovered by Van Eeten (2001), the knowledge that one group of stakeholders maintained that airplanes are a significant contributor to environmental pollution. Yet at the same time, it is believed that technological advantages in the future could allow for mitigation of these problems, allowed for the Schiphol Airport Management to address these concerns more specifically in its subsequent engagement strategies. It is therefore up to the problem owner to translate the more aggregated analysis of the frame of reference into specific tactical strategies.

In comparison with the previous component, i.e., stakeholder salience, stakeholder's frames of reference are relatively static. Though research has shown how frames of reference can change over time (see Kroesen and Broer 2009), the scale is significantly larger compared to the rapid changes in the previous component. Whereas fluctuations in stakeholder salience can occur suddenly, and on a daily basis, changes in frames of reference take place gradually and over decades (de Bruijn and ten Heuvelhof 2004; Butts 2008). This component, in comparison to salience, is far more static, which has its own implications for stakeholder engagement practices, as one cannot be expected to change one's view overnight.

## 4.5 Stakeholder Networks

The third component to a stakeholder is the complicated interrelatedness of stakeholders. Rowley (1997) was the first to discuss stakeholder interrelationships. In his view, all stakeholders surrounding a particular issue are intrinsically linked to each other through a social network, which, in this case, represents a stakeholder network. Social networks are more or less stable patterns of relationships between mutually dependent actors that form themselves around policy problems or clusters of resources and are formed, maintained and changed by interaction (Klijn et al. 1995). Since each stakeholder claims to have a stake in a particular issue, they are most likely to be connected to the principal problem owner. According to this rationale, most stakeholders are interconnected with the principal problem owner, which can be represented as the main node, as exemplified in Fig. 4.1. This exemplifies Rowley's point that each stakeholder will be part of a stakeholder network.

Networks collate a number of public, semi-public and private actors that, on the one hand, are dependent on one another's resources and capacities in order to get

things done, and, on the other, are operationally autonomous in the sense that they are not commanded by superiors to act in a certain way (Marin and Mayntz 1991). The interdependent relations between the network actors mean that they are horizontally, rather than vertically, related. However, the horizontal relations between the actors do not imply that they are equal in terms of authority and resources (Keast et al. 2004). There might be an asymmetric allocation of material and immaterial resources among the network actors. But since participation is voluntary and the actors are free to leave the network—and since the actors are mutually dependent on one another's resources—no single actor can exercise their power to exert hierarchical control over anyone else (Torfing 2005).

Members of networks interact through communications and negotiations that combine elements of bargaining with elements of deliberation. Network actors may discuss issues to maximize outcomes for all actors. To facilitate the development of coordination (Scharpf 1994), the collaboration process must be embedded in a wider framework of deliberation that facilitates trust building, learning, and common understanding. Nevertheless, deliberation within networks will seldom lead to unanimous agreement (Klijn and Koppenjan 2000). This is because it takes place within a context of intensive power struggles that breed conflict and social antagonism. Unanimous agreements are incredibly rare, especially within complex paradigms, such as those centred on airports, where multiple factors influence stakeholders' intentions. Networks contribute to the production of public purpose within a certain policy area (Marsh 1998). Public purpose is an expression of visions, values, plans, policies and regulations that are valid for, and directed towards, the general public (Ostrom 2000). Hence, the network actors are engaged in political negotiations about how to identify and solve emerging policy problems, or exploit new opportunities (Torfing 2005).

The examination of the way in which social ties link stakeholders together has the potential to clarify the social context in which stakeholder analysis occurs (Prell et al. 2007). Consideration of social context can lead to more informed decisions regarding how to approach particular stakeholders, and how to involve these stakeholders in meaningful dialogue (Cameron et al. 2008). As a consequence, an analysis of social networks looks beyond attributes of individuals so as to examine: (i) the relationships among stakeholders; (ii) how stakeholders are positioned within a network; and (iii) how the relationships are structured into overall network patterns. The four main variables used to define a social network are density, average path-distance, centralization and strength (Borgatti et al. 2002) (Borgatti et al. 2002).

Like stakeholder salience, stakeholder networks are also dynamic (Verbong et al. 2008; Watts 2003). Networks can consist of both personal and institutional relationships linking stakeholders together (Keast and Hampson 2007). Relations on the personal level with an institution can change[1] quickly when actors change positions or jobs, thereby leading to the necessity of creating new relations. Moreover, entire

[1]The actual techniques used to engage in meaningful dialogue are outside the scope of this book, as the primary focus is on the stakeholder analysis framework

stakeholder groups can cease to be part of a network when, for example, they dissolve themselves, or opt to sever their ties with the network. Again, this characteristic of stakeholder networks requires a flexible, easy to be updated, classification model.

## 4.6 Analysing the Stakeholder Arena

Each of the three components discussed highlights a different aspect of the stakeholder. The stakeholder 'as a whole' thus has to be defined by the sum of the three components discussed. Since a full understanding of a stakeholder is a prerequisite for efficient and successful stakeholder engagement, all three components should be analysed and identified. In this section, an overview will be provided of the existing methods for stakeholder analysis. Each of the stakeholder analysis techniques has a specific purpose and may not be adequate for determining the whole picture of stakeholder interests and desires (Bryson et al. 2011; Reed et al. 2009). Stakeholder analyses must therefore be undertaken skilfully and thoughtfully, with a willingness to learn and revise along the way (Bardach 1998; Lynn 1996). For some small evaluation efforts, a one-time use of one or two techniques may be all that is required. For larger evaluation efforts, however, a whole range of techniques will be needed. Bryson et al. (2011) and Reed et al. (2009) both suggest that potentially hybrid techniques or new techniques may need to be invented.

Much of the stakeholder analysis literature, which has presumed that stakeholders are self- evident and self-construed, has focused on methods of categorizing pre-identified stakeholders (Prell et al. 2007; Reed et al. 2009). These methods tend to follow two broad approaches: (i) top-down 'analytical categorizations' (i.e., the main problem owner is asked who it believes are stakeholders in the identified problem,), and (ii) bottom-up 'reconstructive methods' (i.e., all potential stakeholders are targeted and asked whether they consider themselves a stakeholder in the identified problem) (Dryzek and Berejikian 1993). Less attention has been given to examining stakeholder relations within the stakeholder literature. Network relations, however, represent a well-established field of research.

### *4.6.1 Analytical Categorization*

Analytical categorizations constitute a set of methods in which classification of stakeholders is carried out by those conducting the analysis based on their observations of the phenomenon in question. As a result, they are "embedded in some theoretical perspective on how a system functions" (Hare and Pahl-Wostl 2002, p. 50). Examples of analytical categorizations include a long list of stakeholder mapping tools that employ two or three criteria, typically by way of matrices or Venn diagrams (Reed et al. 2009; Bryson et al. 2011). This analytical technique is used in

the following models: cooperation and competition (Freeman 1984); cooperation and threat (Savage et al. 1991); stakeholder predictability and power (Mendelow 1991); stakeholder interest and power (Eden and Ackermann 1998; De Lopez 2001); stakeholder outcomes and relationships (Jonker and Foster 2002) and power, urgency and legitimacy (Mitchell et al. 1997). These methods are often used in the absence of direct stakeholder participation in the analysis (Reed et al. 2009). As a result, they may reflect the bias of the analyst or the problem owner, rather than the real perceptions of the stakeholders themselves. An analytical approach can be a valuable addition to a stakeholder analysis, provided that it eliminates researcher bias by using multiple sources and triangulation (Reed et al. 2009).

### *4.6.2 Reconstructive Categorization*

Reconstructive methods for categorization allow parameters to be defined by the stakeholders themselves, so that the analysis reflects their concerns more closely (Reed et al. 2009). For example, Hare and Pahl-Wostl (2002) asked participants to sort cards listing all the stakeholders into groups according to their own criteria. This was used as a way of identifying the structure of groupings and interactions between stakeholders from the stakeholders' perspectives. This process enabled the models developed during the research to reflect the understanding of the stakeholders themselves (Hare and Pahl-Wostl 2002). By way of contrast, Strategic Perspectives Analysis (Dale and Lane 1994) uses interviews or workshops with stakeholders to identify and compare the goals of different groups, and the perceived opportunities and constraints that they have with respect to reaching their goals. In this way, categories of stakeholders sharing similar goals can be identified. The information collected during this process may also be useful for negotiations between conflicting groups.

Policy discourse analysis (de Bruijn and ten Heuvelhof 2004), another method, identifies the ways in which people think and talk about an issue and, in particular, the shared perceptions and common ground between individuals. Q methodology is then employed to group individuals into 'social discourses' based on these shared perceptions and commonalities (van Eeten 2001). Q methodology uses a card-sorting approach. It asks participants to rank statements on a specific topic according to a forced distribution. Factor analysis is then applied to extract social discourses. Through this method, the categorization of stakeholders is based on an empirical analysis of stakeholder perceptions rather than on theoretical perspectives (Barry and Proops 1999). None of these methods, however, is widely applied to stakeholder analysis (Reed et al. 2009), even though Van Eeten (2001) has shown how effective the application of these methods can be.

### *4.6.3 Stakeholder Relations*

Besides the top-down and bottom-up approaches based on the stakeholders' individual attributes, methods have been developed to investigate stakeholder relationships. The most simplistic method to visualize relationships is to develop actor-linkage matrices (Biggs and Matsaert 1999). Actor-linkage matrices require stakeholders to be listed in the rows and columns of a table, thereby creating a grid. Within this grid, the relationships between stakeholders can be described, using key words such as: in conflict, complementary, or cooperation. Social Network Analysis (SNA) is a more advanced version of actor-linkage matrices based on quantitative data representing (i) the presence/absence of a tie, (ii) the relative strength of the tie, (iii) the density of the network, and (iv) the centrality of the network (Borgatti et al. 2002). Analysis of these matrices uncovers the structure of the stakeholder network. This allows the researcher to identify which stakeholders are more central, which are marginal, and how stakeholders cluster together (Marsden 1990).

## 4.7 Summary

The previous sections have given an overview of: (i) stakeholder theory, answering the question of why 'stakeholding' is an important management practice; (ii) stakeholder engagement, answering the question what different types of engagement exist; and (iii) communicative planning, showing the fundamental similarities in the engagement practices within planning theory and those discussed in stakeholder literature, thereby further strengthening the notion that 'stakeholding' is an important management practice. Together, these sections have failed to answer sufficiently the question of how to analyse the stakeholder.

Stakeholder literature and communicative planning both emphasize the importance of understanding the stakeholder, and inherently concur that analysing the stakeholder is a critical step in stakeholder engagement. However, as Key (1999) has noted, concepts and processes that provide integrated approaches for dealing with multiple stakeholders on multiple issues are sparse, if existing at all. An integration between and across stakeholders and issues is needed. There are linkages between external and internal stakeholder groups that impact and affect the firm, which are not adequately addressed. This leads to a failure to analyse the relevance of stakeholders (Key 1999).

The topic of stakeholder engagement has, for good reason, received greater attention in recent years. Stakeholder engagement can appear deceptively simple. Yet its application is conceptually complex and needs to be based on a thorough understanding of the stakeholder (Jonker and Foster 2002). Though specific stakeholder engagement strategies are outside the scope of this research, since its focus is necessarily on presenting a model to ensure more effective stakeholder analysis, it should be clear that an improved stakeholder analysis can lead to improved

stakeholder engagement. Aside from the need for a robust and valid stakeholder analysis, several gaps to the theory have been identified.

First, much of the literature the stakeholder environment has been discussed as being complex (Graham and Healey 1999; Crocker 2007; Shandas and Messer 2008). As Mainardes et al. (2011) have shown, however, this complexity, together with the interconnectedness of all the actors, is a theoretical conjunction, and has not been empirically tested. The theory lacks the production of knowledge able to explain the complex and multi-faceted social relationships between an organization and its stakeholders (Mainardes et al. 2011). Various researchers have created models to demonstrate this complexity (e.g., Rowley 2000; van Eeten 2001; Kroesen and Broer 2009; Mitchell et al. 2011). Yet the outcomes of these models have only highlighted part of the complex problem with which they set out to deal. In fact, each of all the identified stakeholder analysis techniques from the literature review have a specific purpose and reveal some things, all the while overlooking, or at least not highlighting, others (Reed et al. 2009; Bryson et al. 2011). Together with complexity and the interconnectedness is the perceived dynamic nature of the stakeholder environment.

Mainardes et al. (2011) show that there is no provision for understanding how to manage change in the dynamic nature of the stakeholders. Though multiple authors acknowledge that analysis is not a one-off procedure (Mitchell et al. 1997; Reed et al. 2009; Freeman et al., 2010), no actual proficiencies have been put in place to deal with the dynamic environment, apart from Rowley's (1997, 2000) suggestion to use the network environment to keep track of change.

Second, Stoney and Winstanley (2001) label stakeholder theory as an excessively simplistic conceptualization of power as a good that may be negotiated between the organization and the groups of stakeholders. Their work is therefore very limited in its explanation of the means by which different stakeholder groups interests emerge and are generalized by society. The salience literature identifies and explains three categories of power, as used in this research: resource power (Jonker and Foster 2002), formal power (Uhl-Bien et al. 2007), and social power (Frooman 1999), all combined in the variable power, as suggested by Mitchell et al. (1997). Parent and Deephouse (2007) show how access to power, or the means to exert power, are often variable and not in a steady state. Power within network theory remains an under-examined issue that requires further attention (Bonacich 1987; Booher and Innes 2002; Klijn and Skelcher 2007). Stoney and Winstanley's (2001) critique seems to be focussed, in the main, on the short-sightedness of most of the stakeholder models, as already discussed above in the context of complexity. From that perspective, they make a valid point. As part of an integrated framework, power will not present such a simplistic conceptualization, as it will be only a small part of the framework. However, as power can be a difficult concept with which to work, it merits additional attention. By using the outcomes of the analysis, the role of power within stakeholder theory can be re-examined. The fact that the concept of power within the context of stakeholder theory has often been criticized has resulted in the necessity to include an examination of 'power' as one of the research goals. As a result, the role of 'power' on the stakeholder analysis will be examined in order to deal with the

varied criticism identified in the literature. The concept of urgency, however, has not received the same level of criticism, and 'urgency' seems to be generally interpreted and measured in the same way across the literature.

Third, several researchers criticize the 'vagueness' of the term stakeholder (see, e.g., Waxenberger and Spence 2003; Fassin 2009). They claim that stakeholder theory does not provide any clarification on the way in which stakeholder groups should be selected or defined. Indeed, most of the literary debate around stakeholder theory and stakeholder analysis focuses on this point and aims to develop clear boundaries to the term stakeholder. In accord with Bryson et al. (2011), this research has adopted a broader and more inclusive approach and has consequently defined stakeholders as individuals, groups, or organizations that can affect, or are affected by, an organization's operation and objectives. The definition itself is purposefully broad, so that no potential stakeholders are excluded at the onset of the research. It is proposed that, via collaboration with the stakeholders, the focus will be narrowed to the final selection of stakeholders, based on the context.

Finally, some authors who are opponents to, or at least critics of, stakeholder theory perceive stakeholder theory as suggesting that a company should take into account the aspirations of all participants, and that they should all be treated equally (Phillips 1997; Gioia 1999; Trevino and Weaver 1999). This is regardless of the fact that some clearly contribute more than others to the organization (Mainardes et al. 2011). Stakeholder interests are frequently mutually incompatible, a fact necessarily preventing any clear decision by the management. Mainardes et al. (2011) pose the question of how management might face different stakeholders, more so since it is known that deliberation within complex networks will seldom lead to unanimous agreement (Klijn and Koppenjan 2000).

The above summary identifies the greatest weakness with existing analysis tools, specifically the narrow focus of individual tools. This narrow focus is unlikely to provide the best possible result. For this reason, an integrated framework for stakeholder analysis has been presented. The integrated framework depends on three different methodologies, a mixture of both quantitative and qualitative approaches. There is no one-size-fits-all approach to any contentious problem that exists, so the application relies heavily on the context, as demonstrated by the Q-method advocated herein. A contextual and qualitative understanding is required before a sample set can be created, and frames of reference can be extracted. Yet salience analysis relies heavily on quantitative numbers, created by the perceptions of participants, to calculate stakeholder importance. The integrated analysis will compare, analyse and evaluate the individual parts, scrutinize results, and explain differences. An overarching framework for this analysis is identified by Kivits (2011) and visualized in Fig. 4.2.

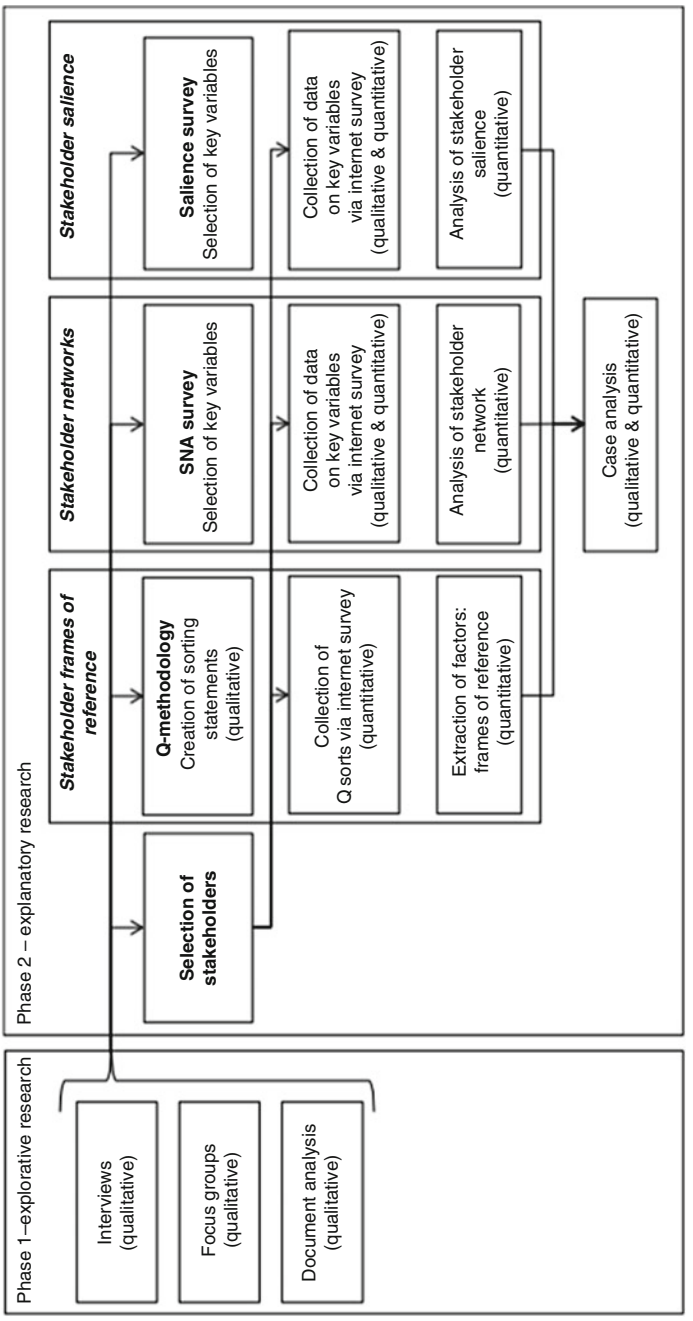


**Fig. 4.2** Mixed method framework for the integrated stakeholder analysis (Kivits 2011)

# Chapter 5
# The Evolution of Airfield to Airport


To create a thorough understanding of the Australian context to the book, a historical review of the evolution of the earliest airfields to the current state of the modern airports will be given. This review allows for a clearer understanding of why Australian airports are located where they are, and how the mismatch between on- and off-airport planning came to exist.

## 5.1 Australian Airfields

In Australia, similar drivers for the establishment of airfields can be discerned. Some airfields were simply located next to an airplane manufacturer (Mascot, Sydney), another was subsidized by a local newspaper agency (Mt Gambier at Fishermen's Bend, Melbourne). Most, however, were simply chosen by Australia's aviation pioneers because of the availability of open space and close proximity to the city (Eagle Farm, Brisbane; Maylands, Perth; Captain Butler's Aerodrome, Adelaide). On some occasions, and particularly with respect to airfields established closer to the 1940s, it was the military that chose the location of the airfield (Darwin Military Airfield; Archerfield, Brisbane; and Cairns Airport). All over Australia, there was the same enthusiasm for aviation as seen in the rest of the world, as the attention of a sensation loving public was concentrated on the dramatic incidents in aerial enterprises (Anon. 1927).

Compared to now, the understanding of airport planning and engineering was very basic.

Advancement of technology between 1903 and the late 1930s was rapid, but had thus far had little impact on airfield planning itself (Payne and Fitzpatrick 1999). Engine technology increased and larger power to weight ratios became available, which meant that aeroplanes could go faster and consequently grow in weight and



R. Kivits, S. Sawang, *The Dynamism of Stakeholder Engagement*, Contributions to Management Science, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-70428-5_5

size.[1] The impact on airfields themselves was not yet great, as the aircraft were still able to use existing grass landing and take-off strips. It would not be until the introduction of the WWII heavy bombers that paved, longer runways would become necessary. In the late thirties and early forties, Cochrane (1947) and (Loxton 1950), among others, developed Australian standards for airport and runway design. The earliest mention of airports in relation to town planning in Australia is found in early works of (Taylor 1914) and (Sulman 1921), who predicted that there would be a need to reserve space in the location of a town or city for aviation activities.

Up to the 1930s, only some provincial cities throughout the Federal had established aerodromes under local control. The Australian Government, influenced by the future possibilities of aviation as part of the military, perceived an urgent need for these facilities if civil aviation were to develop (Payne and Fitzpatrick 1999). Australia, however, experienced a general apathy of local authorities towards flying (Anon. 1936). In an endeavour to encourage the development of civil aviation generally, the Federal government provided and maintained landing grounds at widely scattered centres throughout the nation, thus boosting the growth of aviation. Airfields had to be close enough to larger communities to attract passengers and spectators and remain accessible by rail and/or road. By the same token, they also had to be far away enough from the developed area not to cause major disturbances within the community as a result of aircraft noise and possible accidents. With the help of the government, Australian city airfield sites were being chosen on the fringe of developed areas. For the first time, there had to be the right balance between convenience for passengers and inconvenience for non-passengers (Blow 1996). Around this time, the Civil Aviation Branch and the Department of Defence was established to administer aviation acts and regulations. Evolving over time, it changed its name and function, and became the Department of Civil Aviation in 1938 (Flamer 1962).

In these times, aviation was still largely a spectator event. Airfield crowds came to watch their aviation heroes such as Sir Charles Kingsford Smith, Amelia Earhart and Charles Lindbergh, and spectators at air races resembled the crowds at modern sporting events. Most of these people were obviously not there as commercial passengers. At the time, as Bednarek (2005) relates, local governments often administered their airfields in the same way as public parks, owing to the similarity between them. Now, some of these old fields have become municipal airports, industrial parks or simply open space (Alexander 2004), but the most strategically located fields have emerged as international airports. It would not be until well into the 1930s before the view of aviation as a spectator event subsided (Bednarek 2001), since the events of WWII would change aviation dramatically.

WWII stimulated the greatest injection of government spending in airfields all over the world (Payne and Fitzpatrick 1999). During the interwar years, the first

[1] As an indication of the growth in weight, the original Wright Flyer (1903) weighed 520 kg, the Curtiss J.N.4D2 (1918) weighed 960 kg, the Martin MB-2 (1920) weighed 5500 kg, and the Boeing B-17B (1938) weighed 22,300 kg.

upgrading of the mostly grassy airfields to paved runways occurred. The reasons for upgrading these grassy fields were two-fold. First, grass fields are easily damaged under wet or frosty conditions. As aviation increased in frequency, it was simply not feasible to keep the pastures in a good enough condition to allow more aeroplanes to land. Second, as aviation technology rapidly advanced, aeroplanes became heavier and were more likely to damage the field (Stussman 1999). By paving the landing strips, it was possible to increase the frequency of landings and takeoffs at the same location, and to allow heavier aircraft to operate on the airfield. In contrast to the omni-directional take-off and landing possibilities of a square grass field, it was rather impractical and expensive to pave the complete grass field, so as to allow omni-directional take-off and landing on pavement as well. It was for this reason that long rectangular runways were introduced, though only sparsely in the first years. For the direction of the runway, local weather and wind conditions were the main drivers.

In hindsight, WWII was the main driver in the evolution from grassy airfields with wooden hangers to concrete paved airports with tin corrugated hangars, terminals, and control towers. Many of these airports reverted back to civilian use once the war had ended, thereby leaving civil aviation with airports of much greater utility than had previously been the case (Bakewell 2002). In addition, during WWII, aeroplanes became mass-produced. The civil aviation industry now had access to a wide international network of airports and a surplus of aircraft, in addition to well-trained pilots. The incredible advances in military aviation technology in the war years and the application of these advances to civil aviation would result in a tremendous growth for civil aviation in the post-war years (Glidden 1946). As the concept of aviation for both military and civil transport purposes was by now well and truly accepted, people were beginning to see the practical use of aviation as a commercially viable transport mode. In the post WWII years, national and international networks of aviation trading routes were established.

As aviation kept expanding, airport infrastructure failed to keep pace. Airports soon reached full capacity, which started to impede their efficiency. This led to a wider research and assessment of airport expansion plans, both from a short-term through to a long-term perspective. Relations between the airport and the surrounding community became tenser as their respective needs for space started to collide, with increasing aircraft noise becoming an important issue for the local residents. At this point in time, however, most airports were owned and run by the government. Hence, the decision-making power pertaining to airports remained within the government. In the 1980s, increasing globalization became responsible for another growth burst for aviation as worldwide trade increased. Having quick access to other continents meant that companies did not have to rely only on their local market to sell products. Just-In-Time (JIT) strategy, as envisaged by Henry Ford in 1926 (Ford and Crowther 1926) and made famous by Taiichi Ohno (Ohno 1988) in the Japanese auto industry, became the world standard of inventory management. As a result of the ever-changing commercial environment at a global level, aviation continued to grow quickly. Airports faced the need for new investments, and

governments around the world turned to the private sector to help manage, finance, and develop airports (Megginson and Netter 2001; Koppenjan et al. 2008).

Until 1987, the main policy objective of the Australian Government was to support national and local airport systems through government ownership and the provision of subsidies to airport operations. The need to improve the degree of cost recovery from users became an impending agenda as the financial burden on the government increased (ICAO 2008). In the lead up to airport privatization, the Australian Government established the Federal Airports Corporation (FAC) in June 1986, a government Business Enterprise (GBE, a wholly government-owned unlisted company), and 17 airports subsequently came under the operational control of the FAC, together with six other airports added in 1989. These airports were the major capital city airports, the secondary airports in those cities, and the major regional airports. Since the start of its operation, FAC had been successful in improving the performance of its airports and reducing dependence upon aeronautical revenues through the expansion of commercial and property development activities (ICAO 2008). In the air navigation area, the Civil Aviation Authority was formed in July 1988 under the Civil Aviation Act 1988. CAA was a semi-commercial independent statutory authority, and was responsible for both safety regulation and air traffic services. In June 1990, the CAA became a GBE as well.

Within a hundred years, aviation has grown from wood and cloth flying machines to aluminium mass-transport aeroplanes. At the same time, airfields have grown from grassy landing strips to multi-million dollar infrastructure assets. Before the importance of the location of airports was fully realized, they had already become too expensive to relocate. Australian cities by this time had grown and urban areas had reached towards the airport boundaries. In some cases, airports are completely surrounded by urban or industrial development. Airport planning had by now become an important part of the city planning. The spatial proximity of airports and cities has increased the impact of externalities on one another. Decisions on land use and development by both the airport and the city now increasingly conflict with each other (Nero and Black 2000; Stevens et al. 2009).

## 5.2 Australian Airport Privatization

By the early 1990s, the Australian Government's overall economic policy shifted towards the privatization of GBEs. This change was aimed mainly at reducing the government's net debt. The main considerations taken into account by the Federal government were as follows:

- Increasing economic efficiency in the provision of aviation services, including investment and pricing reforms and removal of cross-subsidies among airports.
- Improving managerial efficiency and flexibility at Australia's airports to reduce costs and increase global competitiveness of the Australian aviation industry and its users.

- Avoiding the large capital investments required by airports and make resources available for other public programs.
- Understanding that the private financial market was capable of funding major transport and infrastructure investments and had an appetite for such investment.
- Removal of disincentives to the deployment of new technology and working practices in airport management and operation (TTF 2007).

The arguments for the privatization of Australian airports as stipulated above were constituted in the Airports Act 1996 released by the Australian Government. After the initiation of the Federal government's Airports Act in 1996, all major capital airports were put up for privatization, together with a range of smaller airports such as Gold Coast (Coolangatta) and Bankstown. The Airports Privatization Program began in April 1994, when the government announced its intention, in principle, to privatize the twenty-two FAC-owned airports (Cambridge Airport, in Hobart, Tasmania, was already sold in March 1993). In April 1995, a formal decision was made to lease these airports by way of individual trade sales to private entities in two phases. The first airports leased out under the Airports Act were Melbourne, Brisbane and Perth, followed by the sale of Adelaide, Canberra and the Gold Coast, with the remaining smaller airports being sold off in 1998. The process was completed with the sale of Sydney Airport in 2002, and the sale of the Sydney Basin Airports of Bankstown, Camden and Hoxton Park in late 2003.

With this multi-stage process the government netted billions of dollars from the sale of 22 airports in total, each with a 99-year leasehold agreement[2] (TTF 2007). Despite the Asian Economic Crisis from 1997 to 1999, the price-earnings ratios for Australian airports were high because of limited opportunities to purchase international airports in the Asia Pacific region, the high degree of corporate autonomy bestowed, and the significant geographic monopoly power involved (Hooper et al. 2000). Airport operators also purchased a wide range of development rights with few restrictions on land uses other than compliance with the Airports Act 1996. The government sales team actively marketed the investment potential and opportunity for property development, car parking and commercial initiatives (Freestone et al. 2006).

The CAA was not privatized but split into two bodies. This led to the creation of Air Services Australia (ASA) and the Civil Aviation Safety Authority (CASA, an independent statutory authority) in July 1995 under the Air Services Act 1995. While CASA assumes responsibility for aviation safety regulations, licensing pilots and aviation engineers, and certifying aircraft and operators, ASA has a statutory right to be the sole provider of air traffic control, air navigation support, and aviation rescue and firefighting. ASA is not prescribed as a GBE, but is treated as such (ICAO 2008).

[2]In some instances, 50-year leaseholds were signed, which contained the option to extend for an additional 49-years.

## 5.3 The Australian Aviation Issues

The privatized Australian airports are constantly exploring options to expand their business and thus increase revenue. These potential expansion plans impact on many stakeholders around the airport. The Issues Paper, published by the Australian Government, had been designed to explore the important airport-related issues for the broader Australian community. By recognising a wide set of issues, and asking the Australian community to respond to these issues, it was possible to extract the most essential issues. All the responses to the Issues Paper, as well as the subsequent responses to the Green Paper, were collated, while a Leximancer analysis was performed to extract the main themes of the responses. A report has been generated (Kivits et al. 2008) that distils the following four discussed aviation issues: 'aviation generated noise', 'airport generated noise', 'the integration of on and off-airport planning and non-aviation related developments on airport land', and 'airport access'.

### *5.3.1 Aviation Generated Noise*

A significant part of any airport's impact on the surroundings is created by the main function of the airport: aviation. The noise generated by aviation is not contained within the airport perimeter, and a large part of the community around the airport is therefore affected by this noise. Expansion of the airport, at least with current and foreseeable aviation technologies, is generally regarded as something that will increase the frequency of noise incidents, thereby potentially leading to more noise complaints. Aviation noise is viewed as a primary reason to oppose airport expansion. Many submissions comment on aviation noise as an important issue that has to be addressed in future expansion plans and decision-making processes.

### *5.3.2 Airport Generated Noise*

A smaller but still significant part of the airport impact is represented by noise generated by on-the- ground operations at the airport. On-the-ground noise is created by airport operations such as stationary engine testing, cargo transport, construction works, and general traffic. Compared to aviation noise, airport noise has a far smaller impact on the surrounding area, and is contained by the neighbourhoods closest to the airport. This noise, however, can be very intrusive and generate strong objections to expansion plans from surrounding communities. The smaller impact of on-the-ground noise results in the fact that fewer submissions are received commenting on the impact of airport generation noise compared to aviation noise proper.

### 5.3.3 The Integration of On-airport and Off-airport Planning & Non-aviation Related Developments on Airport Land

The integration of on-airport and off-airport planning is a major part of the conflict between the airport and the stakeholders around it. In Australia, airport planning falls under Federal jurisdiction, rather than Local or State jurisdiction. This divergence in jurisdiction is the reason for many arguments around planning and integration. One of the main arguments within this issue is focussed on non-aviation related developments. Most aviation-related developments on the airport are often perceived as necessary and part of the core aviation business (Airport Guides 2009; Zwaans 2009). Non-aviation developments, on the contrary, are not perceived as essential elements of airport operation, and are perceived as unfair competition to developments on off-airport land, where policies and regulations are generally more restrictive (Stevens and Walker 2008). A large number of submissions make observations on this difference in jurisdiction. As a result, it is perceived as one of the most important issues within the airport stakeholder arena.

### 5.3.4 Airport Access

The last issue identified within the Australian context deals with access around airports. Multiple modes of transport are mentioned within this issue, such as road transport by car and taxi, in addition to public transport by bus, train and light rail. General concerns regarding airport access revolve around traffic congestion, prices of transport and parking, and the frequency of public transport, in addition to issues pertaining to the infrastructure related to access. A relatively large number of responses comment on these issues, which are perceived as important to the stakeholder arena.

## 5.4 Salience

The identified issues are an important part for the salience analysis, as salience is built from the two components power, and urgency. The second component, urgency, is dependent on the context—the issues. Stakeholders attach different levels of urgency to the different issues, and hence their salience per issue is different. From an engagement perspective, it is therefore important to consider separating the issues, since not every stakeholder needs to be engaged with on every issue based on their salience. This separation of salience by issue leads to more precisely targeted engagement and less over-engagement with, for example, those stakeholders that are highly salient on one issue, and might therefore be engaged on all issues if difference per issue was not taken into account. Of course, it is likely that

most stakeholders will be interested in more than one issue. An additional differentiation can be considered by attaching higher importance to those stakeholders that are salient in multiple issues. A stakeholder with definitive salience in all four issues might require different engagement strategies compared to a stakeholder with definitive salience in only two issues. When considering engagement strategies based on the analysis, it is important to find the right balance between giving attention to stakeholders, and the direct result in the decision-making process. A salience analysis based on the identified issues is presumed to make it easier to find this balance.

## 5.5 Frames of Reference

The stakeholders' frames of reference are described as the lenses that stakeholders wear when they observe the airport and its context. These lenses, unique to every individual, are composed of the individual's culture, upbringing, experiences, and position. Even though individuals operate from a certain professional standpoint, these lenses will always influence the individual's perception of the world, be it a small or a large influence. When a more narrow aspect of the world is investigated, such as an airport, an individual's frames of reference can overlap, and distinct frames of reference can be identified. The identified frames of reference provide an in-depth explanation as to why stakeholders perceive the identified aviation issues as important, or urgent, and why they perceive certain issues as more important over others.

By using the insight gained from the frames of reference, the identified issues can be re-examined, and explained from different perspectives. Each frame of reference explains the different fundamental reasons as to why stakeholders perceive an individual issue to be urgent and important. Each frame of reference therefore adds additional knowledge to each of the issues. Through this understanding of the fundamental reasons, different for each frame of reference, it is possible that alternative possibilities and solutions can be identified that better address the worries and concerns of each of the stakeholders. As a result, re-casting the identified issue using the frames of reference is important knowledge for potential stakeholder engagement strategies.

## 5.6 Stakeholder Networks

It has already been demonstrated that the salience of a stakeholder is dependent on the issues, and that the frames of reference add extra nuance to the issues. For stakeholder networks to be representative of the case and the context, different stakeholder network maps have to be generated for each of the different issues. Since not all of the stakeholders engage in communication or collaboration around

each of the issues, the stakeholder networks are obviously different for each issue, and the network metrics change per issue. A stakeholder central to one issue, is not necessarily central to another issue, and future stakeholder engagement strategies can be adapted to incorporate that knowledge. The network maps differentiated per aviation issue provide a comprehensive visual overview of each of the three components. The grouping of this information in a single overview indicates which stakeholders are important (based on salience and network centrality) and why they are important (based on the frames of reference) for each of the aviation issues.

For the purpose of showing the integration of the three components, and discussing the results, it is not necessary that all four of the aviation issues are discussed individually as separate network maps. Rather, to minimize repetition and increase the readability of the case study, one issue will be chosen to show how salience and the frames of reference can be integrated within the network maps. The first identified issue, aviation noise, has been chosen for this purpose because it is considered one of the most important and ongoing issues pertaining to Australian airports. The issue of aviation noise is the driver for curfew reviews, an important limitation for airports, and aviation noise is the number one source of complaints coming from the community (Kivits et al. 2008). For these reasons, aviation noise is chosen as the issue used to discuss the integration of the three research components. The analysis that will be applied to this issue is the same as would be applied to the other three issues.

# Chapter 6
# Adelaide Airport


Adelaide officially opened its first aerodrome just after WWI, in 1921. Captain Butler's Aerodrome, as it was called, was nine kilometres north-west of the city in the suburb of Hendon. It provided the facilities for airmail services between Adelaide and Sydney (AAL 2009). A move to a second airfield was undertaken in 1927 as aviation continued to grow, and Parafield was acquired by the government. By 1941, however, it became evident that Parafield was too small for the future aviation needs of Adelaide. 785 hectares of marshy land in West Torrens, also known as West Beach, were chosen for Adelaide Airport in 1944 (LINC 2006). Construction started in 1947 and, within the next 10 years, Adelaide International Airport was developed, with the first flights commencing in 1954. It would not be until 1957 before the first passenger terminal was officially opened, funded by the Federal government. Designed to be only a temporary terminal, it remained in use until 2005. As with other airports in the world, the introduction of the jet engine prompted the need to extend the runway in the mid-1960s. In 1982, Adelaide Airport's International Terminal was opened and the first scheduled international services into and out of Adelaide commenced (AAL 2007).

In 1988, the management of the airport was transferred to the Federal Airports Corporation (FAC). 10 years later, in 1998, the airport land and its assets were leased to the privately owned Adelaide Airport Limited (AAL), following a runway extension in that same year to 3100 m. This runway extension allowed unrestricted use of the airport for aircraft up to the size of a Boeing 747 (LINC 2006). Construction on a new multi-user integrated terminal (integrated international and domestic) started in 2002, and was completed by 2005. Adelaide Airport is currently operating under a Federally-mandated curfew, which restricts use of the airport between the hours of 11 pm and 6 am. Over the years, Adelaide Airport has won a number of significant awards, including 'Australian Capital City Airport of the Year' and, in 2009, was ranked as the second-best airport of its size (5–15 million passenger movements per annum) in the whole world (Airport Guides 2009).

Over time, both the originally minor residential area located in West Torrens, as well as the main residential area of Adelaide, expanded and encroached on the



R. Kivits, S. Sawang, *The Dynamism of Stakeholder Engagement*, Contributions to Management Science, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-70428-5_6

airport. By 2009, Adelaide airport has been almost completely surrounded by residential, commercial and industrial developments. The approximate distance from the main airstrip to the nearest residential area is 0.6 km. A sizeable part of the City of West Torrens, and the City of Adelaide developed area falls within the ANEF 20 contour.

## 6.1 Adelaide Airport Circa 2010

Adelaide airport is the major gateway to the State of South Australia and services international, domestic and regional flights, with a total passenger throughput of some 7 million passengers per annum and 100,000+ aircraft movements (2007 figures). The airport is located 6 km west of the CBD of Adelaide City, and 2 km from the shores of the Gulf of St Vincent. It is surrounded by residential, recreational, and light industry developments. The airport itself is entirely located within the borders of a relatively small Local Government Area (LGA), specifically the City of West Torrens. On account of the relatively small size of the City of West Torrens, Adelaide airport also directly impacts five other LGAs, these being the City of Adelaide, the City of Charles Sturt, the City of Holdfast Bay, the City of Marion, and the City of Unley. Over time, residential areas located in both West Torrens, as well as in Adelaide, have expanded and encroached upon the airport. By 2009, Adelaide airport had been almost completely surrounded by a variety of developments. The approximate distance from the main airstrip to the nearest residential area is 0.6 km.

Adelaide airport is operated by a private organization, this being Adelaide Airport Limited (AAL). This arrangement commenced in 1998. In 2000, the Federal government determined that Adelaide airport's aircraft movements were to be restricted by a curfew, as stipulated in the Adelaide Airport Curfew Act 2000 (Australian Government 2000). A noise insulation program for residential dwellings was initiated in 2002. By the end of the project in 2010, 648 homes and 7 public buildings had been insulated, thereby reducing aircraft noise for the inhabitants (Australian Government 2002, 2010).

Like most privatized airports (Kasarda 2006), AAL seeks to increase its revenue streams by expanding non-aviation related developments on their airport land. Developments such as an IKEA on AAL property are a direct result of this strategy. Before the approval of the 2009 Master Plan, a public consultation process identified several issues important for Adelaide airport's future, among others: the upgrade of the main access road to the airport, Sir Donald Bradman Drive, and intersections, and the need to manage the impact of urban infill on aviation growth and airport management. It also identified unease and uncertainty about the Master Plan among several stakeholders.

## 6.2 The Adelaide Airport Stakeholder Arena

The number of potential stakeholders surrounding Adelaide airport is large, as is the case for many large infrastructure assets. The research surrounding this book has examined a large number of potential stakeholders that are directly and/or indirectly affected by any developments on airport land. This has created a long list of potential stakeholders. Candidates were approached and asked whether they regarded themselves a stakeholder, and if they were willing to participate in this independent research. Table 6.1 details the final set of stakeholders constructed so as to form the Adelaide airport stakeholder arena. Each of these stakeholders has its own importance within the stakeholder arena, and each maintains its own particular values, interests and priorities regarding the airport. This information will be uncovered in the following sections using the three components as described: stakeholder salience, stakeholders' frames of reference, and the stakeholder network.

## 6.3 Adelaide Stakeholders' Salience

The more traditional and often applied stakeholder salience analysis, and subsequently the categorization of stakeholders following this analysis, will be the first of the three components identified in this book to examine the stakeholder arena. As discussed in the literature, the two variables, power and urgency, are measured. When combined, these two variables provide four combinations of salience. These are definitive stakeholders (high urgency, high power), demanding stakeholders (high urgency, low power), dormant stakeholders (low urgency, high power), and non- stakeholders (low urgency, low power). Table 6.2 shows all identified stakeholders (column 1), their respective traditional stakeholder group, and their perceived salience on the four identified issues (columns 3 to 6). For example, it can be seen that Air Services Australia (ASA) is a definitive stakeholder for the issue of Aviation Noise, yet is not salient in any of the other issues. By way of contrast, the City of West Torrens is a definitive stakeholder across all issues.

### *6.3.1 Reflection on Stakeholder Salience*

By drawing on the information presented in Table 6.2, different levels of salience can be observed per stakeholder, for the salience depends on the issue at hand. For example, the City of West Torrens, a definitive stakeholder across the board, would require different engagement on these issues compared to for example the City of Adelaide (definitive in two issues, and dormant in the other two), or the City of Charles Sturt (dormant across the board). This difference in salience and the difference in perceived urgency to the issues makes sense based on the closeness

**Table 6.1** The final set of stakeholders forming the Adelaide airport stakeholder arena

| Stakeholder | Details |
|---|---|
| AAL | Adelaide Airport Limited (AAL): The main problem owner in this context. Leaseholder over the airport land and its assets. Every 5 years, an Airport Master plan has to be created and approved by the Federal government, which requires extensive stakeholder engagement. |
| AFP | Australian Federal Police (AFP): The AFP provides law enforcement services to Australia's Designated Airports to assist the Australian aviation industry in mitigating the threat posed by criminal activity. The principal responsibility for the AFP in aviation is to create a safer and more secure environment at Designated Airports and within the aviation security community. |
| Airlines | A collection of airlines operating at Adelaide airport, including Cathay Pacific, Malaysia Airlines, Qantas, Singapore Airlines, and Virgin Australia. The airlines have been aggregated as one single group for visual ease in network pictures, since the research has shown that they behave almost identically within the context of the book. |
| ASA | Airservices Australia (ASA): A government-owned corporation providing safe and environmentally sound air traffic management and related airside services to the aviation industry. ASA provides the air traffic controllers and is the final approver of flight paths. |
| CASA | Civil Aviation Safety Authority (CASA): CASA has the primary responsibility for the maintenance, enhancement and promotion of the safety of civil aviation in Australia. |
| City of Adelaide | The capital and most populous city of the Australian State of South Australia, and the fifth-largest city in Australia. |
| City of Charles Sturt | The City of Charles Sturt is a LGA in the western suburbs of Adelaide, South Australia, stretching to the coast. |
| City of Holdfast Bay | The City of Holdfast Bay is a LGA in the south-western coastal suburbs of Adelaide, South Australia. |
| City of West Torrens | The City of West Torrens is a LGA in the western suburbs of Adelaide, South Australia, and completely encompasses Adelaide airport. |
| Community | The Community around Adelaide airport is an aggregation of several community groups such as the Netley Resident Association (NRA), Western Adelaide Coastal Residents Association (WACRA) and Residents of Inner North-West Adelaide Inc. (RINWAI). The Community represents the voice of those residents living in the greater Adelaide area who are directly or indirectly affected by the airport. |
| DIT | The Federal Department of Infrastructure and Transport (DIT), formerly known as the Department of Infrastructure, Transport and Regional Development and local government (DITRDLG). DIT is the Federal department leasing out the airports to the lessees under the conditions stated in the Airports Act 1996. |
| DPLG | The South Australian Government's Department of Planning and local government is responsible for the state's planning and development system and associated services, including building rules. |
| DTED | The Department of Trade and Economic Development is the South Australian Government's key economic development agency. |
| DTEI | The Department for Transport, Energy and Infrastructure is the state's department responsible for providing the state's transport network and to |

(continued)

**Table 6.1** (continued)

| Stakeholder | Details |
|---|---|
| | develop, produce, implement and evaluate effective policies, plans and investment strategies on all transport issues. |
| EPA SA | The Environment Protection Authority South Australia (EPA SA) seeks to maintain a clean, healthy and valued environment that supports social and economic wellbeing for all South Australians, now and into the future. |
| On-airport tenants | The on-airport tenants are an aggregation of all aviation and non-aviation related industries located on the airport such as the IKEA, rental car agencies and shops. They have been aggregated as one single group for visual ease in network pictures, as the research has shown that they behave almost identically within the context of the book. |
| SAFC | The South Australian Freight Council (SAFC) is focused on identifying key freight logistics issues for South Australia, and developing solutions to them. |

of these LGAs to the airport. It is therefore clear that stakeholders are quite different, according to their perceived urgency and importance to the issues, more so than their perceived power. Table 6.2 provides a clear overview of which stakeholders are salient in more issues, and therefore warrant more attention. In this case, two stakeholders are definitive in all four issues, DIT and the City of West Torrens, and two stakeholders are demanding in all four issues, the community and the SAFC. These four stakeholders can therefore be seen as the most important stakeholders to be engaged with by AAL in consideration of the identified issues. The on-airport tenants, here identified as non- stakeholders in all four issues, clearly require less attention from AAL when engagement is considered.

The categorization of stakeholders based on the salience analysis closely follows the traditional grouping of the stakeholders when the number of definitive and demanding issues is considered. The government-based stakeholders, as well as the airport itself, are perceived to hold the highest power, and thus have the greatest potential in changing and influencing decisions and policies regarding the airport. The other traditional stakeholders groups, community, aviation and other industry, are broadly regarded as bystanders that might have an interest, but lack the power to influence decisions or policies. This reflects a classification of stakeholders as could be expected based just on the traditional grouping; however, the salience research has added a nuanced dimension to it. For example, rather than assuming based on the traditional grouping, that government based stakeholders are always definitive, and should be engaged with as such on everything, the presented salience analysis differentiates the government stakeholders and indicates the salience per issue. This suggests that the government stakeholders do not need to be engaged with on every single issue.

**Table 6.2** Salience classifications of the Adelaide stakeholders per issue

| Stakeholder | Stakeholder Group | Aviation noise | Airport noise | Planning integration & non-aeronautical developments | Airport access |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AAL | Airport | Definitive | Definitive | Definitive | Dormant |
| Airlines | Aviation | Non-stakeholder | Non-stakeholder | Demanding | Demanding |
| AFP | Australian Government | Dormant | Dormant | Dormant | Dormant |
| ASA | Australian Government | Definitive | Dormant | Dormant | Dormant |
| CASA | Australian Government | Demanding | Non-stakeholder | Non-stakeholder | Non-stakeholder |
| City of Adelaide | Local government | Dormant | Dormant | Definitive | Definitive |
| City of Charles Sturt | Local government | Dormant | Dormant | Dormant | Dormant |
| City of Holdfast Bay | Local government | Dormant | Dormant | Definitive | Dormant |
| City of West Torrens | Local government | Definitive | Definitive | Definitive | Definitive |
| DIT | Australian Government | Definitive | Definitive | Definitive | Definitive |
| DPLG | State government | Definitive | Dormant | Definitive | Definitive |
| DTED | State government | Dormant | Dormant | Dormant | Dormant |
| DTEI | State government | Definitive | Dormant | Definitive | Definitive |
| EPA_SA | State government | Dormant | Dormant | Dormant | Dormant |
| Community | Community | Demanding | Demanding | Demanding | Demanding |
| On-airport tenants | Industry | Non-stakeholder | Non-stakeholder | Non-stakeholder | Non-stakeholder |
| SAFC | Industry | Demanding | Demanding | Demanding | Demanding |

## 6.4 Adelaide Stakeholders' Frames of Reference

Within the context of the Adelaide airport and its stakeholder arena, four frames of reference are identified. All the stakeholders around Adelaide airport adhere to at least one of these frames, and, depending on how many different individuals represent the stakeholder, multiple frames of reference can exist present within one stakeholder. Table 6.3 sets out those stakeholders adhering to one or more of the frames. For example, respondents from AAL have been identified as adhering to

**Table 6.3** Frames of reference for the Adelaide stakeholders

| Stakeholder | Stakeholder Group | Frames of reference | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Aviation—an important economic contributor | Collaboration—the way forward | Aviation—connecting Australians | Back to centralized planning |
| AAL | Airport | X | | X | |
| AFP | Australian Government | X | | | |
| Airlines | Aviation | X | | X | |
| ASA | Australian Government | | | X | |
| CASA | Australian Government | | | X | |
| City of Adelaide | Local government | | X | | |
| City of Charles Sturt | Local government | | | X | |
| City of Holdfast Bay | Local government | | X | | |
| City of West Torrens | Local government | | X | X | |
| Community | Community | X | X | X | |
| DIT | Australian Government | | X | X | |
| DPLG | State government | X | | | X |
| DTED[15] | State government | | | | |
| DTEI | State government | | | X | X |
| EPA SA[3] | State government | | | | |
| On-airport tenants | Industry | X | | | |
| SAFC | Industry | X | | | |

both the first and the third frame of reference. A mark in the table means that at least one respondent scored on that frame, but the total number of respondents is not disclosed in Table 6.3.

The four frames of reference distinct to the Adelaide airport case are discussed below. These frames of reference are distinct to Adelaide in the sense that they are extracted from the responses from the stakeholders around the Adelaide airport. This

set of frames of reference can therefore not be transposed to other cases, as they are context specific.

### 6.4.1 *Frame I: Aviation—An Important Economic Contributor*

The first frame of reference strongly emphasizes the inadequacies of the Federal government's planning of future infrastructure. According to this account, the privatization of the Australian capital airports was a good decision, since these private enterprises are more effective in implementing upgrades to the existing aviation infrastructure. At the same time, the presence of an airport is held to be important for regional economies. This is because aviation is regarded as an important mode of transport for Australia. For these reasons, the airport should be permitted to expand and accommodate the projected growth of aviation. In this frame, the addition of non-aeronautical developments on airport land is seen as introducing healthy competition for the immediate economic region around the airport.

While this frame strongly subscribes to the economic benefits of aviation, and the necessity of aviation as a transport mode, it downplays the negative ecological impact that air transport has on account of noise pollution and other emissions. This is because future advances in technology will achieve significant reductions in this area. It is also strongly believed that an increase in aviation will not increase the risk of accidents. Given the support for airport growth, subscribers to this frame attach low importance to collaboration with and among the major stakeholders, especially when this collaboration could negatively impact on individual decision-making processes. At present, the airport space is governed by Federal regulation. Within this frame, the status quo for airport operations is considered satisfactory. Together, the elements of this frame send a clear message: airports are an important infrastructure asset for Australia and should be maintained as such on account of their economic importance.

### 6.4.2 *Frame II: Collaboration—The Way Forward*

In contrast to frame I, the second frame has an emphasis on an alignment between local, state and airport planning. There is a strong belief within this frame that non-aeronautical developments on airport land should be subjected to local planning laws. The presence of an airport can never be so important that 'the goal of expansion justifies the means'. The alignment between the airport and the major stakeholders is preferably achieved through a close collaboration in the formulation of airport Master Planning documents. Salient issues within this collaboration are the

integration of airport planning and Local/State government planning, the argument being that airport planning should be considered and be evaluated in the same fashion, and under the same regulations, as local/state government planning processes. There is a strong preference for achieving this vision through a specialized facilitating body appointed by the Federal government.

When it comes to airport growth related to aviation, subjects from this frame accept that growth is inevitable. However, any undesirable impacts of this growth have to be mitigated, especially negative impacts on the health of nearby residents. Similar to subjects in Frame I, respondents in Frame II agree that air transport is a vital mode of transport for Australia, though this is subordinate to the issue of alignment in planning and the harmonious integration of the airport and the local surroundings. For this reason, subscribers to this frame believe that the local community should not have to make sacrifices to accommodate airport expansion. The benefits of having an airport for the local economy are well understood, yet subscribers to this frame downplay the importance of the airport as an economic generator. As opposed to Frame I, there is no strong belief that technological advancements will achieve significant reductions in noise and particulate emissions. When these undesirable impacts are taken into account, the real cost of flying is far higher than is represented in current pricing. Subjects of Frame II therefore believe that other modes of transport are possible, such as High Speed Rail (HSR), and should be explored, as discussed by Charles et al. (2011). Frame II collectively gives a clear signal that airport expansion is possible, provided that it is accompanied by mitigating actions, and through collaboration with all the major stakeholders: airports are an important infrastructure asset for Australia and should be maintained and governed as such, on account of their economic importance.

### *6.4.3 Frame III: Aviation—Connecting Australians*

In the third frame, subjects agree that, in general, aviation is of significant value to the community, as it is an important mode of transport. This is because aviation is an important means of connecting remote areas and also provides a fast linkage between the major cities. Substituting air transport with other modes is therefore regarded as currently impractical. As a result, the expansion of airports is desirable since it will allow effective air transport operations into the future. According to adherents of this frame, airport relocation is costly, politically difficult, often results in longer distances from the airport to the CBD, and is therefore not considered an option. There is also a strong feeling that the negative effects associated with airports should be mitigated by the airport and the airlines, though at the same time it is believed that these negative effects will be reduced as technology advances. Achieving more effective mitigation would certainly result from more collaborative communication between the major stakeholders and a specialized facilitating body, such as that proposed by the Federal government.

Compared to Frame I, the importance of an airport as an economic driver is not as salient. This shows a strong focus on the importance of aviation within Australia as an important and socially desirable mode of transport that, where possible, should aim to mitigate its negative effects. It is generally believed that optimum mitigation is best achieved through collaboration with all stakeholders.

### *6.4.4 Frame IV: Back to Centralized Planning*

The final frame is very closely related to Frames I and III, but seems to be directly opposed to Frame II. Similar to the dominant positions within Frames I and III, subscribers to Frame IV believe that the benefits of aviation for Australia are high, both as an essential mode of transport, and as an important economic contributor. In this frame, as opposed to Frames I and III, little faith is held in collaborative planning. It is not believed that the Federal government currently has the ability to influence aviation decision making in an effective manner. Subscribers to this frame do not feel that close collaboration between the airport operator and important stakeholders (Local governments, businesses and communities) will be sufficient to improve the current misalignment between airport and local/state planning. This view is further demonstrated by the belief that communication between State government, Local government and airport operators will not significantly benefit from the establishment of a specialized facilitating body set up by the Federal government. The current engagement between the airport and its surrounding communities is also considered insufficient to mitigate the negative social and environmental effects of the airport on local communities.

Significant emphasis is placed on advances in aviation technology improving the negative social and environmental effects associated with air transport, yet there are fears that the risk of accidents will increase as the sector continues to grow. Mitigation programs for the negative effects of aviation should be minimized so as not to burden the airports and airline operators. Adherents to this frame contend that forcing the sector to improve its social and environmental performance will hinder technological advancement and the ongoing development of aviation infrastructure. Contrary to Frame II, this frame encompasses a fundamental belief that intensive collaborative planning is not the way forward. Aviation is considered important for Australia, as both a promoter of economic activity, as well as a vital transportation mode. At the same time, subscribers to Frame IV believe that the aviation industry is quite capable of solving its own problems.

Table 6.4 sets out these responses, categorized by their traditional stakeholder group in the rows, while the columns indicate where respondents per stakeholder groups adhere to one of the four frames of reference. For instance, it can be seen that Frame IV is only represented by respondents from the State government. This can be explained within the context of the case by looking at what Frame IV represents.

From the analysis of the statements, adherents to Frame IV have little faith in collaborative planning. In short, these respondents believe that it would be better, or

**Table 6.4** Responses categorized by traditional stakeholder group and frame of reference

| Stakeholder group | Aviation—an important economic contributor | Collaboration—the way forward | Aviation—connecting Australians | Back to centralized planning |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Local government | | X | X | |
| State government | X | | X | X |
| Australian Government | X | X | X | |
| Community | X | X | X | |
| Aviation industry | X | | X | |
| Non-aviation industry | X | | | |

easier, for them if the decision-making power concerning on-airport land was more centralized, preferably in the hands of government, rather than those of a private enterprise. This would remove the need for collaborative planning exercises, which they believe are not able to improve the current situation, and would allow the alignment of on-airport and off-airport planning within government departments. From a State government perspective, this would be beneficial, and can partly be interpreted as a response to the fact that state government is often overlooked in decision-making processes. State government is currently responsible for advice on land-use planning, development policy and strategy, the building code, and urban design, and open space policy, but only for the space outside the airport. On-airport planning is governed by the Federal government. It is understandable that certain members of the South Australian (SA) government believe that it would be easier to coordinate with another government department in charge of this planning, rather than a for-profit private organization outside the SA jurisdiction. A step further in this thinking could mean that these respondents believe that the privatization of the airports was not to their benefit, and that a state-run airport, as was the case under the FAC before privatization, is regarded as a better option from a planning perspective.

The first three frames of reference have similar numbers of respondents attached to them. This shows that these frames are equally represented, and equally important to stakeholders within the sample. Frame I is well represented among all stakeholder groups, apart from local government. This is similar to Frame III, which is represented by all stakeholder groups, apart from the non-aviation industry. Frame I represents the point of view that an airport is an important economic contributor to the region. This view was also often expressed during interviews and found in the document analysis. The SA government indicated that Adelaide airport had been recognized as a Specialized Activity Precinct in its Planning Strategy, thereby officially recognizing Adelaide airport as an economic driver. Frame III is constructed around the view that aviation is an important factor in Australian life. Australia is a vast continent with huge empty spaces and aviation is therefore a key

mode of transport that allows Australians to be connected to each other. It seems that, especially around Adelaide, located in a state with widely-dispersed communities, this perceived importance of aviation as a means of connecting Australians is prevalent.

The second frame of reference focuses on collaboration around the integration of land-use planning, particularly the planning of non-aeronautical developments. The suggestion of the White Paper to introduce a specialized facilitating body is therefore welcomed and supported. It is not surprising that this frame is predominantly located with the Local governments and the community. These are, arguably, the parties that have most to gain from closer integration and collaboration around land-use planning.

The analysis has provided a new way of looking at the context, and though most of the findings are not surprising, it is an empirical confirmation of what many stakeholders believed to be true, but could not confirm. This analysis has provided clear summary of how stakeholders view the airport and the policy space around it, and this can be used to further the understanding of the issues and the context.

## 6.5 Recasting the Issues Using the Frames of Reference

These frames of reference present a unique opportunity to examine the aviation issues (Kivits et al. 2008) from a new perspective. Within the previous component, the issues defined the stakeholder salience, as salience is dependent on what issue is at hand. The frames of reference described in this analysis generate a better understanding of why certain issues are perceived as urgent and important by the stakeholders. Table 6.5 shows in one overview the frames of reference identified per stakeholders, in addition to the perceived salience of that stakeholder per issue. This representation of the data helps to recast the four issues from the four different perspectives. For example, the issue of airport access is considered urgent by eight stakeholders, represented by a minimum of fifteen respondents, four adhering to Frame I, four adhering to Frame II, five adhering to Frame III, and two adhering to Frame IV. Stakeholder salience suggested a level of homogeneity among the stakeholders. Yet, by overlaying the frame of reference information, this assumed homogeneity is quickly disproved.

Stakeholders who hold a similar perception of urgency towards certain issues do not necessarily have this perception from a similar frame of reference. For example, the SAFC perceives that ‘aviation noise’ is urgent from an economic perspective, whereas the CASA perceives the same urgency from a ‘connectivity’ perspective. Both stakeholders are classified the same using stakeholder salience (as demanding stakeholders), but should not be treated identically according to their frame of reference. It is clear that homogeneity of the stakeholders cannot be assumed based solely on the salience classification. It is therefore more useful to recast the issues based on the frames of reference as outlined in Table 6.5.

**Table 6.5** Recasting the four issues using the four frames of reference

| Frames of reference | Identified issues | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Aviation noise & Airport noise[a] | Planning integration | Airport access |
| Aviation—an important economic contributor | Acceptable part of airport growth. Future technologies will help mitigate negative externalities of airport expansion, including noise. | Current integration and collaboration practices are inadequate to reach highly ideological goals. There is also a slight fear that too much collaboration could lead to negative impacts. Non-aeronautical developments are also necessary to sustain the economic viability of the airport. | Is important to maintain the airport's economic viability. |
| Collaboration—the way forward | Negative impacts of airport growth and expansion have to be mitigated at all cost. Mitigations should be achieved through collaboration. At the same time, low trust is present that future technologies will help mitigate negative externalities. | Place an emphasis on the alignment between Local, State and Federal Government planning and the airport. In addition, non- aeronautical developments should be subjected to local planning regimes and practices. | Local communities should not have to pay the price for airport growth, and expansion. Decision making on airport access, access to and from the airport, should be a thoroughly collaborative process. |
| Aviation—connecting Australians | Negative externalities will have to be mitigated, as long as mitigation practices do not affect the function of the airport or the price of flying. | Can help to reduce the negative externalities, and is essential for sustainable growth and expansion of the airport. | Is important to maintain the airport's function as a transport hub. |
| Back to centralized planning | Technology will be the key to solving negative externalities of aviation and airport growth. Mitigation practices should be in place to help control negative externalities, but should not negatively affect the airport. | Government would be capable to handle any non-aviation related activities of the airport, reducing the need for planning integration between government and the airport. In particular non-aeronautical developments and airport access are best controlled centrally. | |

[a]The differentiation between aviation and airport noise is negligible within the frames of reference, as they are combined in the airport externalities, which includes noise. The recasting of the issues therefore merged aviation and airport noise into one issue with regard to explaining the context

To create Table 6.5, the descriptions of the frames of reference have been scanned for stakeholder attitudes towards each of the five issues, and those attitudes have been translated into a short statement on each of the issues. The frame of reference

analysis has provided the analyst with a stable and validated framework to assist in recasting the issues according to stakeholders' frames of reference. For example, stakeholders that adhere to the 'economic' frame perceive the issue of non-aeronautical developments as a vital necessity for the economic sustainability of the airport, whereas stakeholders from the 'collaborative' frame perceive the issue from an integrated local planning point of view. Rather than replicating a 'for or against' position, as many traditional stakeholder analysis methods apply (Mendelow 1991; Savage et al. 1991; Eden and Ackermann 1998; Jonker and Foster 2002), this recasting of the issues using the frames of reference has created a more nuanced understanding on the issues and the context from different perspectives. All this allows for a more specialized and targeted approach when stakeholder engagement practices and policies are developed. This is a critical outcome, because it allows the problem owner, or any of the other stakeholders, to clarify and highlight what the real issues are for those stakeholders pertaining to certain frames of reference.

## 6.6 The Adelaide Stakeholder Network

The last of the three components applied in this research to examine the stakeholder arena is that of the stakeholder network. The central focus of this evaluation is on gaining a more detailed understanding of the level and nature of connections between the airport and its stakeholders. A set of key measurements is applied to untangle the complexity of the network. These measures are the density and average path distance of the network, the centrality of the actors, and the strength, frequency

**Table 6.6** Network measures and their definitions

| Measure | Description |
|---|---|
| Density | The measure of how much activity there is in the network, as compared to how much there could be. The higher the density ratio of the network is, the higher the level of cohesion is within the network. |
| Average path distance | Average path distance is an indication of how quickly information can be spread; how easy it is to access resources, engage in planning and programming activity or make referrals. |
| Centrality | Describes the extent to which an organization is connected to other organizations (either directly or indirectly) within the web of exchanges that comprises the network, and shows to what degree a network is shaped around single actors. |
| Strength | Relates to the intensity of a network relationship and can include the frequency or duration. Strong ties are ties where actors share an intense relationship with one another. |
| Frequency | Indicates how often network members have interaction with each other. |
| Level of interaction | Indicates the level of engagement recorded between two network members, following Edwards' (2006) differentiation of levels of interaction. |

and level of interaction of the relationship. Table 6.6 reiterates the definition for each measure.

### 6.6.1 The Stakeholder Network Examined

Legend to the network maps as used in this chapter is presented in Fig. 4.2. Network map 1 shows the basic network structure as obtained for the Adelaide stakeholder network. The coloured circles (nodes) represent the stakeholders as indicated by the labels, while the colour of the nodes represents the traditional stakeholder group they belong to, as referenced in Table 6.6. The black lines (links) between the nodes represent the fact that those two stakeholders are linked, and have at least once in the past year had communications with each other regarding issues involving the airport. It is known that some of these stakeholders have interaction with each other on matters other than the airport, but those interactions are outside the scope of this research and are thus not represented in this network map. The network structure displayed in the basic map is used to calculate the two network measures density and average path distance.

The density of the Adelaide stakeholder network is 0.441, a low to medium level of density. Given the nature and the function of the network, this number is not surprising, as a low level of density was expected. Overall, the stakeholders appear not to be extensively interacting with one another. It also indicates a lack of common sense of identity. In other words, the stakeholders do not appear to have the same interests at heart, which has already been confirmed by using the previous two components of analysis.

The average path distance between stakeholders for the Adelaide network is 1.51, which shows that stakeholders, on average, have to go through 1.51 other stakeholders to access or disseminate information. This is a relatively positive number, thus indicating that information is travelling through the network with relative ease. This, in theory, increases the network's ability or capacity to work together, should the level of commitment increase (Ansell 2003; Olsson 2009). Though the airport may play a central role in the network, it does not hold a 'gate-keeping' position from which it can control and manipulate information. The involved stakeholders are capable of learning information through other avenues when desired. These two measures are a useful starting point for gaining a sense of the stakeholder network. Next, the actors occupying the core and the periphery will be assessed using the centrality and strength measures.

### 6.6.2 Network Centrality

The network centrality indicates how well connected a stakeholder is within the network. Network centrality not only takes into account the number of connections

that a stakeholder has, but also takes into account whether the stakeholders to which they are connected are themselves well connected. The three stakeholders most central to the Adelaide stakeholder network, are AAL, DTEI and DIT. As this research points out that these three are important key-stakeholders to the network, this places certain demands on these stakeholders. These stakeholders should be made aware, if they are not already, about their central role in the network and the responsibility that comes with such network centrality.

Stakeholder engagement to resolve issues within the airport arena should, for maximum efficiency and reach, be a collaborative undertaking including each of these key-stakeholders because of their central role. A number of stakeholders have a medium level of centrality, which shows that they are active within the network, but do not have the same reach as the three key stakeholders. These are the City of West Torrens, the City of Adelaide, the community, SAFC, and the on-airport tenants. The centrality measure places these stakeholders in an important role in the network. This is because their connectedness indicates that they are active stakeholders that clearly hold an interest in at least some of the issues around the airport. They also pro-actively, rather than re-actively, engage with other stakeholders to gather and share information.

### *6.6.3 Relationship Strength*

The map for the strength of the relationships is characterized by three different levels. Strong relationships, with high efficiency, usefulness, and trust. Medium levels of relationship, and weak relationships. Weak links are often caused by either antagonized relations with low levels of trust, or relations that are perceived to be not efficient or useful. In this case, only a handful of relations are identified as weak, and the majority is grouped around the on-airport tenants. From anecdotal evidence, the weak relations between the on-airport tenants and the LGAs and the DPLG are mainly caused by the different mind-sets regarding economic developments on-airport land. Overall it was identified that Adelaide airport has created, and is maintaining, strong relations with the majority of the stakeholders. This indicates that the notion that the airport's stakeholder engagement strategy (a way of sharing information and coordinating with others) is performing well. It also shows that the other two central stakeholders, DTEI and DIT, do not reach the same level of strength within their links, which indicates that they are not as actively engaging with the other stakeholders as Adelaide airport is. Adelaide appears to be the main hub engaging in information sharing, demonstrating that this process is quite hierarchical, rather than horizontal, as is preferred in network governance (Klijn et al. 2010).

Related to the strength of the interaction are the frequency of the interaction, and the level of interaction. Analysis has shown a weak, yet significant correlation between the frequency of interaction and the strength, in addition to the level of interaction and the strength. It cannot be determined whether one leads to the other,

or vice versa, but it is clear that stronger relations are related to frequent interaction, and more meaningful interaction in the means of collaboration, together with active participation in relation to problem solving and planning regarding any issues that arise in the stakeholder arena. This further strengthens the notion that Adelaide airport's engagement strategy is paying dividends, since it actively engages with stakeholders on both collaborative and participative levels. It is known that neither DTEI nor DIT is undertaking such an extensive engagement strategy, something which potentially explains the lower strength in their relationships with other stakeholders. This could be caused by the fact that government departments are not solely focussed on the airport, but have competing priorities and cannot spend all their time and effort in engaging with airport stakeholders.

These linkage patterns show where certain stakeholders might want to increase their level of engagement with each other, as well as which stakeholders have good relations and therefore potential to engage coordination and collaboration.

### *6.6.4 Integrated Discussion of the Components and the Issues*

The three different research components used thus far to examine the stakeholder arena each create an exceptional view on the stakeholders. Rather than presenting three different data sets, an attempt has been made to integrate the outcomes of the three approaches into a single source of reference capable of conveying the gathered data and outcomes to the analyst or reader. By using the network map as the main vehicle to display and communicate the information, a basis is created that can potentially be used easily and adjusted for communication purposes. Incorporating the information extracted using the first component, salience, and the second component, frame of reference, is relatively easy, as will be demonstrated in this section. Unlike the straight-forward relations between salience and the issues, and the frames of reference and the issues, integrating the stakeholder network and the issues is slightly more extensive. As indicated in the introduction of this chapter, only one issue will be used in the discussion.

Stakeholder salience was earlier used to categorize the stakeholders based on the four salience types, *Definitive, Demanding, Dormant* and *Non-stakeholders.* The classifications derived for each stakeholder per one of the four issues could be incorporated in the network map so as to allow for an easy visualization of the data. By using this approach, four distinct stakeholders' frames of reference were unveiled, which assisted in recasting the identified issues. Within one stakeholder group, multiple frames can co-exist, since individual persons have their own individual way of looking at the world. For this reason, it is slightly more difficult to display stakeholders' frames of reference in a network map.

## 6.7 Integration of the 'Three Components', Using Aviation Noise Issue as an Example

By narrowing the stakeholder network down, using the issues as a filter, it narrows the scope to allow a clearer examination of the context. It can be identified that there is little correlation between any of the variables incorporated. Salience and Centrality of the stakeholder are concluded to have no apparent relation. The three stakeholders most central to the network, AAL, DIT and DTEI, are indeed all *definitive* stakeholders. At the medium and low centrality level, however, *dormant*, *definitive*, *demanding* and *non-stakeholders* are identified. The incorporation of all the components to one data set, leading to a jumble, enhances the notion that the stakeholder arena is a complex environment, and one which is not able to be defined by a one-dimensional classification of stakeholders using only salience, frame of reference, or network analysis.

However, with the combined knowledge of the three components, engagement between the stakeholders can become more effective, more direct and on-topic by focussing on stakeholders who perceive aviation noise as urgent (the *definitive* and *demanding* stakeholders). This leaves out stakeholders that need not be engaged with intensively on this issue, as they do not perceive aviation noise to be urgent. Such stakeholders include the on-airport tenants, the City of Charles Sturt, the EPA, DTED, and the AFP.

Yet this allows us to connect the frame of reference to which this stakeholder adheres. For example, the city of Adelaide, a stakeholder with medium centrality, perceives aviation noise as urgent, and adheres to the *collaboration* frame of reference. Table 6.7 shows that adherents to the *collaboration* frame perceive that the negative impacts of airport growth and expansion have to be mitigated at all cost, and that this is best achieved through collaboration. At the same time, low trust is placed in future technologies that could help to mitigate these negative externalities.

Engagement with this stakeholder regarding aviation noise is therefore best approached from a collaborative perspective, thereby placing emphasis on solutions that will help to mitigate aviation noise, but do not rely on future improvements, such as, for example, quieter aeroplanes. The strong relations that exist between the City of Adelaide and other salient stakeholders, such as the City of West Torrens, the City of Charles Sturt and the DPLG, are a sign that these stakeholders might, potentially, be collaborating together. When a group of stakeholders that is likely to collaborate is not satisfied, their attitudes can change and a strong opposing block can be formed. This might help stakeholders in their quest for better mitigation of aviation noise, and should be considered by the airport.

An analysis, as discussed above, could be performed for every single stakeholder in the network. But doing so would unduly increase the length of this case study and divert attention away from the argument that is being presented: that, combined, the three research components provide an overview of the Adelaide stakeholder arena. This is a level of depth that could not be obtained if only one, or even two, of the components were to be applied. The combination of all the information outlined,

**Table 6.7** Final overview of the Adelaide airport stakeholders

| Stakeholder | Stakeholder Group | Frames of reference | | | | Salience | | | | Centrality |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Aviation—an important economic contributor | Collaboration—the way forward | Aviation—connecting Australians | Back to centralized planning | Aviation noise | Airport noise | Planning integration& non-aeronautical developments | Airport access | |
| AAL | Aviation industry | X | | X | | Definitive | Definitive | Definitive | Dormant | High |
| AFP | Australian government | X | | | | Non-stakeholder | Non-stakeholder | Demanding | Demanding | Low |
| Airlines | Aviation industry | X | | X | | Dormant | Dormant | Dormant | Dormant | Low |
| ASA | Australian government | | | X | | Definitive | Dormant | Dormant | Dormant | Low |
| CASA | Australian government | | | X | | Demanding | Non-stakeholder | Non-stakeholder | Non-stakeholder | Low |
| City of Adelaide | Local government | | X | | | Dormant | Dormant | Definitive | Definitive | Medium |
| City of Charles Sturt | Local government | | | X | | Dormant | Dormant | Dormant | Dormant | Low |
| City of Holdfast Bay | Local government | | X | | | Dormant | Dormant | Definitive | Dormant | Low |
| City of West Torrens | Local government | | X | X | | Definitive | Definitive | Definitive | Definitive | Medium |
| Community | Community | X | X | X | | Definitive | Definitive | Definitive | Definitive | Medium |
| DIT | Australian government | | X | X | | Definitive | Dormant | Definitive | Definitive | High |
| DPLG | State government | X | | | X | Dormant | Dormant | Dormant | Dormant | Low |

(continued)

**Table 6.7** (continued)

| Stakeholder | Stakeholder Group | Frames of reference | | | | Salience | | | | Centrality |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Aviation—an important economic contributor | Collaboration—the way forward | Aviation—connecting Australians | Back to centralized planning | Aviation noise | Airport noise | Planning integration& non-aeronautical developments | Airport access | |
| DTED | State government | | | | | Definitive | Dormant | Definitive | Definitive | Low |
| DTEI | State government | | | X | X | Dormant | Dormant | Dormant | Dormant | High |
| EPA SA | State government | | | | | Demanding | Demanding | Demanding | Demanding | Low |
| On-airport tenants | Non-aviation industry | X | | | | Non-stakeholder | Non-stakeholder | Non-stakeholder | Non-stakeholder | Medium |
| SAFC | Non-aviation industry | X | | | | Demanding | Demanding | Demanding | Demanding | Medium |

combined in one table, allows Adelaide airport to improve its stakeholder engagement program by creating more efficient, individually specialized ways of engaging. As a conclusion to this case study, Table 6.7 provides a final overview of all the stakeholders in the Adelaide stakeholder arena and shows their respective frames of reference, salience, and network centrality. All of this again indicates that there appears to be no correlation between either of the three research components.

# Chapter 7
# Conclusion


The last chapter had set out an overview of the stakeholders identified in the Adelaide airport stakeholder network. The three main metrics are discussed, *salience, frames of reference,* and *network centrality*. The chapter has indicated to a degree of how complex and intricate the data involved is. There is no relation between either one of the main metrics, which presents evidence that the context and environment to the Adelaide stakeholder arena is indeed complex and multifaceted. After reading this case study, one cannot look at the data and pick 'the most important' stakeholder, nor 'the least important' stakeholder. In fact, the data is so complex that it defies categorization. This implicates that stakeholder engagement within complex and dynamic environments, such as airports, requires a more contingent, and specialized approach, and one which is based on each stakeholder being considered separately. The information compiled using the three pronged approach of the three component stakeholder analysis is for that purpose a rich source of reference that can assist in drafting meaningful and personalized engagement policies.

In all, this book has demonstrated the application of the three component stakeholder analysis framework. The viability and applicability of this framework has been examined by analysing stakeholders within an infrastructure context. The literature review has demonstrated how stakeholder engagement has gained a prominent role as a mechanism for organizations to deal with their respective operating environments. The various methods discussed to perform stakeholder analysis have either not been empirically verified, or else lack widespread acceptance, with the exception of the widespread use of Mitchell et al. (1997) and their framework based on urgency, power and legitimacy. This method, however, also lacks rigorous empirical verification on the relationship between improved stakeholder engagement and organizational performance. The problem identified within this research is the lack of, and a need for, a multi-layered analysis approach, necessary to investigate complex environments of infrastructure such as airports. To unpack the context around stakeholder analysis, a mixed- methods multiple case study approach was adopted. The integration of the information gathered using the stakeholder salience,



R. Kivits, S. Sawang, *The Dynamism of Stakeholder Engagement*, Contributions to Management Science, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-70428-5_7

stakeholders' frames of reference and stakeholder network resulted in an in-depth understanding of the context.

The stakeholder salience analysis presents the level of importance and urgency stakeholders attribute to the identified aviation issues. The salience, in combination with the perceived power, represents a first categorization of the stakeholders.

Stakeholder's salience is an important measure for the creation and implementation of future stakeholder engagement practices and policies: more salient stakeholders will receive different attention as less salient stakeholders. More salient stakeholders are likely to be (1) engaged more frequent at both formal and informal levels, (2) move past information sharing into collaborative planning, and (3) are engaged on more specific issues, rather than general issues. The frames of reference identified within the stakeholder arena have created a different perspective on the aviation issues identified in the desktop research. By combining the four aviation issues with the four frames of reference, a new understanding has been generated to identify the real reasons to why stakeholders attach importance and urgency to the issues, as indicated in the salience analysis. This information adds another dimension to the salience analysis.

The stakeholder network analysis presents an additional dimension to the perceived power of a stakeholder, by computing centrality, a proxy measure of influence. The position within the network brings with it a different kind of power, which was not measured using the salience approach. The analysis from the case studies has shown that the two forms of power are not significantly related to each other. In addition, the network analysis highlights the many relations that exist between stakeholders, and shows on what level stakeholders interact, and how well the relationship is perceived. This analysis has exposed significant positive correlations between three interaction variables, namely the frequency with which stakeholders interact, the level of interaction, and the strength of the relationship.

The existing literature support the validity of the analysis results for each of the cases. This close match between reality and the analysis demonstrates that the multi-dimensional stakeholder analysis framework is successful in unpacking the stakeholder arenas on three separate occasions. In addition, the empirical data generated by this approach allow valuable insight into the stakeholder arena, while the key findings derived from the research project are presented in the paragraphs immediately below.

First, complex stakeholder environments do not allow for standard stakeholder categorization and ranking where one stakeholder is, by definition, more important in comparison with another stakeholder. One-dimensional stakeholder ranking in complex environments, as argued throughout this study, represents an over-simplification of reality and ignores important information found in the context of the infrastructure. The case outcomes demonstrate major differences in stakeholder ranking when environment complexity is taken into account using all three applied components and the four identified aviation issues. Stakeholder ranking is highly dependent on the context, represented by the aviation issues. It would therefore be better to apply a more detailed stakeholder analysis, such as the three-component analysis as proposed in this thesis, to differentiate stakeholders on multiple

dimensions, and unpack the fundamental differences between the various stakeholders involved. A multi-dimensional analysis does not produce a simple ranking of 'the most important stakeholders', but provides a more nuanced overview of in which situations, and why, certain stakeholders become more salient compared to others.

Second, stakeholders are different from each other on multiple levels and therefore require contingent approaches for stakeholder engagement. This is because a one-size-fits-all approach is most likely to be detrimental to the overall stakeholder arena. A one-size-fits all approach will over- engage some stakeholders, and under-engage others, or engage them on the wrong topics. Research by some authors, e.g., that of Andriof and Waddock (2002) and Noland and Philips (2010), has shown that both under- and over-engagement lead to dissatisfaction among the stakeholders and, subsequently, to disengagement. Dissatisfaction and disengagement will lead to annoyed and antagonized stakeholders that, out of spite, may oppose and fight any new propositions.

As stated in the case studies, within a complex environment, there is no unified ranking of the stakeholders. This is because their priorities, opinions, organizational background, level of influence, etc., are not only diverse, but also susceptible to change over time. With an identified set of stakeholders this different, a one-size-fits all stakeholder engagement approach is likely to create a mismatch in the level of engagement desired or expected by the stakeholder, together with the level of engagement delivered by the main problem owner (Bradshaw 2000; Blomgren Bingham and O'Leary 2006), in this case, the airports. A more contingent approach to stakeholder engagement, where individual stakeholders are engaged based on their interests and importance (both extracted from the three component stakeholder analysis) will therefore prove more efficient and effective. It follows from this research that the stakeholder frames of reference are a vital piece of information in developing stakeholder engagement strategies because they highlight the underlying reasons why stakeholders perceive issues as important or urgent, and lead to different methods of addressing the issues.

**Acknowledgements** The research that has been the underpinning of the work presented was carried out with financial support from the Commonwealth of Australia through the Australia Research Council Linkage Grants, No. 0775225, the Airport Metropolis Research Project. Other work from this research has been published in prior papers; 'Three component stakeholder analysis' (Kivits 2011) and 'Aviation planning policy in Australia Identifying frames of reference' (Kivits and Charles 2015). Great care has been taken to ensure minimal overlap with the research papers, and only where required for the understanding of the story has material been duplicated and referenced.

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