IJGPPA

International Journal of Governance and Public Policy Analysis

International Journal of Governance and Public Policy Analysis
IJGPPA - 2023

Volume 05
Issue 02

International Journal of Governance and Public Policy Analysis (IJGPPA) – 2023
Volume 05 - Issue 02

Panel of Reviewers: IJGPPA - 2023
Volume 05 - Issue 02

1. Senior Professor R. Lalitha S. Fernando   University of Sri Jayewardenepura
Sri Lanka

2. Senior Professor Tikiri Nimal Herath   University of Sri Jayewardenepura
Sri Lanka

3. Professor K. A. S. P. Kaluarachchi   University of Colombo
Sri Lanka

4. Professor P. J. Kumarasinghe   University of Sri Jayewardenepura
Sri Lanka

5. Professor M. A. K. Sriyalatha   University of Sri Jayewardenepura
Sri Lanka

6. Professor Sashika Manoratne   University of Colombo
Sri Lanka

7. Professor M. A. M. Fowsar   South Eastern University
Sri Lanka

8. Dr. Padmini Jayasekara   University of Sri Jayewardenepura
Sri Lanka

9. Dr. P. P. Lalanie   University of Sri Jayewardenepura
Sri Lanka

10. Dr. G. K. Hemamali Ganewatta   University of Ruhuna
Sri Lanka

11. Dr. H. A. Nishantha Hettiarachchi   University of Sri Jayewardenepura
Sri Lanka

12. Dr. A. K. Jeewaka Saman Kumara   University of Peradeniya
Sri Lanka

13. Dr. Ramesh Ramasamy   University of Peradeniya
Sri Lanka

14. Dr. P. I. Anuradha   University of Sri Jayewardenepura
Sri Lanka

15. Dr. Thusitha Abeysekara   University of Sri Jayewardenepura
Sri Lanka

16. Dr. Risini Ilangasingha   University of Sri Jayewardenepura
Sri Lanka

The Influence of Ethical Guidance on Academic Staff's Teaching Performance in Public Universities in Tanzania

Elias Mseti[1]
The Open University of Tanzania
msetielias@gmail.com

Wilfred Lameck Uronu
Mzumbe University, Tanzania
wilfred.uronu@mu.ac.tz

Stella Kinemo
Mzumbe University, Tanzania
smkinemo@mzumbe.ac.tz

Abstract

This study examines how ethical guidance affects academic staff teaching performance in Tanzania's Public Higher Learning Institutions (HLIs). Among 4863 academic staff members from Tanzania's public higher learning institutions, 350 respondents were selected using a stratified simple random selection technique. Public HLIs were chosen because staff members are required to enhance their teaching abilities to offer a high-quality educational service. Additionally, staff members are directed by moral principles and codes of conduct. Nonetheless, it is not clear how much ethical guidance influences academic staff's teaching performance. A self-administered questionnaire of closed-ended questions was used to collect the data. Descriptive Statistics and Regression Analysis were used for data analysis. The results demonstrate that providing ethical guidance has a favorable impact on teaching performance. Consequently, this study adds to the body of knowledge by shedding light on the relationship between HLI leaders' moral leadership behaviors and the academic staff's performance in HLIs. The research facilitates the government's understanding of ethical guidance and allows researchers to investigate new aspects of ethical guidance in HLIs for possible future study topics.

Keywords: Ethical Leadership, Academics Teaching Performance, Higher Learning Institutions, Tanzania

---

[1] Corresponding Author

1.   Introduction

The educational system of any nation is the foundation for its ability to progress, and academic staff are expected to play a major role in this process (Shaheen et al., 2013). It is impossible to exaggerate the role played by academic personnel in the progress, prosperity, and development of the nation. This is because academic staff members are responsible for doing research and consulting, providing students with academic advice and counseling, developing curricula continuously and executing effective classroom instruction (Palamarchuk, 2018). Universities, like any other business entity, depend on the performance of their academic staff. However, there are allegations of unethical activities among academics, despite the fact that ethical instruction is crucial for academic workers. Unethical conducts such as engaging in sexual activities under inappropriate circumstances (PCCB, 2019), lying on exams (Yildirim et al., 2016), dressing unethically (Lawrent, 2022) and alcoholism (Mfaume & Bilinga, 2017) are widespread among academic staff. According to Mfaume and Bilinga (2017), misconduct is becoming more common among academic staff. Lameck (2018)asserted further that a high prevalence of unethical behavior exists among public servants. If this issue is not resolved, it could jeopardize the government's well- meaning attempts to bolster the nation's educational system and develop a committed teaching workforce.

Academic staff is essential in implementing HLIs' core functions: teaching, research, and community services. The performance of employees in Tanzanian High Learning Institutions (HLIs) is one of the most significant factors (Mgaiwa, 2021). To better achieve HLI aims and provide better education services for social, economic, and political development, Tanzanian HLI personnel's performance must be improved (Tanzania Commission for Universities, 2019). The performance of academic staff in HLIs is measured by teaching, research, and consultancy services (Muriisa, 2015). Evidence indicates that Tanzania produces a great deal less research and teaching than other African nations (Sangeda & Lwoga, 2017; Confraria & Godinho, 2015; Fussy, 2019). For example, 64% of the region's 2014 World Future Council (WFC) was accounted for by South Africa, with Egypt, Kenya, Algeria, and Tunisia following (Sangeda & Lwoga, 2017). According to nearly identical results from another study, South Africa, Egypt, Tunisia, and Nigeria were the top five nations in terms of research outputs (Confraria & Godinho, 2015). The literature suggests that academic staff performance is impacted by upholding ethical values (Muya &Tundui, 2020; Katundano, 2019). However, ethical guidance has not been studied much as a predictor for academic staff teaching performance.

Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU) mandates that all its academic staff members uphold the highest standards of academic integrity, ethics, and transparency in all of their teaching, learning, research endeavors, and community engagement (TCU, 2019). Ethical guidance is defined as rules or principles for moral decision-making and behavior in a certain context or domain, based on the Social Learning Theory (SLT). Such rules work as a moral compass, directing people or groups of people to behave morally and according to ideals. Through the establishment of norms of conduct, the promotion of justice, the defense of rights, and the reduction of harm, ethical guidelines aid in ensuring responsible and ethical action.

HLI leaders can enhance employees' teaching performance and deliver better services by adhering to ethical guidelines, treating participants fairly, allowing them to participate in decision-making, outlining roles, objectives, and performance goals, making morally right decisions, and encouraging appropriate behavior (Katundano, 2019). Studies examining the connection between ethical guidance and employees' performance in HLIs are still scarce. To address this gap, the study investigated how ethical guidance influences academic staff's teaching performance in HLIs. In a nutshell, the current study intends to examine the following research questions: What is the performance of academic staff in teaching activities in public HLIs? What are the ethical guidance practices in public HLIs? and to what extent does ethical guidance influence academic staff's teaching performance in public HLIs in Tanzania? To answer these research questions, the main objective of the study is to examine the effects of ethical guidance on academic staff's teaching performance in public HLIs in Tanzania.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Employee's Performance

Various scholars have contended that the concept of employees' performance places a greater focus on the aim, quality, and outcome delivered, and less emphasis on the economic components of efficiency and effectiveness. According to Tahir et al. (2014), employees' performance is the accomplishment of goals set out by the organization within a specified time frame. According to Pradhan and Jena (2017), achieving the goals that were assigned to an individual within an organization is considered as employees' performance. Performance, in this view, is the outcome of a comparison between the outcome and the target rather than just a finding of an outcome. According to Ibrahim et al. (2012), employees' performance ought to

consider how well a business operates in terms of efficiency and effectiveness. Both qualitative and quantitative expressions are possible for this quantification. Performance is directly related to efficacy and efficiency. According to Zeb et al. (2018), an employee's performance is determined by his or her ability to accomplish goals at predetermined times. Concerning this viewpoint, performance is evaluated objectively. Many organizations use outcomes to evaluate employees' performance. Vuong and Nguyen (2022), for instance, suggested that goals and outcomes that have been attained should be used to gauge the employees' success. According to other research (Pradhan & Jena, 2017; Tahir et al., 2014; Zeb et al., 2018), employees' performance is evaluated based on standards established by the company, efficiency, effectiveness, goals achieved within a given time frame, and profitability. The achievement of HLIs' objectives by academic staff in public HLIs in teaching activities within a certain timeframe is referred to as academic staff's teaching performance for this study. Teaching performance, in this study, is defined as conducting scheduled instructional tasks such as timely attendance to lectures, research supervision, marking, and submitting results on time, attending to students' inquiries, and answering students' questions.

2.2. Social Exchange Theory

The Social Exchange Theory (SET) is a social behavior theory. This theory views ethical leadership as a form of social trade. This theory's basic idea is that followers can respond to a high-quality relationship based on who they interact with, how they interact with them, and their experiences with them (Walumbwa et al., 2011). The idea of reciprocity underpins this notion. Reciprocity is a kind and unkind action in which individuals reward good behaviors and penalize harsh actions. The theory holds that one is repaid what one has received from others (Su et al., 2021). According to Social Exchange Theory, reciprocal action is portrayed as the behavioral response to an unkind or kind deed. It means that when self-interested parties exchange with other parties, the exchange connection ends when the two parties discover that the exchange is not reciprocal. People, typically, strive to form social interactions based on positive interpersonal communication as well as reciprocal standards, according to the positive reciprocity principle (Su et al., 2021). Brown et al. (2005) demonstrated the connection between the Social Exchange Theory and ethical leadership. Employees regard ethical leaders as amazing individuals who can be trusted and believed in.

As a result, this study employs Social Learning Theory, which has been validated in a variety of contexts, as the theoretical foundation for understanding the mechanism of ethical leaders in HLIs' impact on teaching performance. According to this study, ethical guidance predicts employees' performance because ethical guidance conduct promotes high-quality social reciprocity with followers. Academic staff's teaching performance is improved as a result of high-quality social reciprocity.

2.3.   Ethical Practices and Teaching Performance

Communicating about ethics, outlining ethical guidance, encouraging, and rewarding ethical behavior in subordinates are all part of ethical guidance (Yukl et al., 2013; Treviño et al., 2003; Brown et al., 2005). Leaders establish norms, principles, and codes of conduct that serve as standards for moral behavior (Yukl et al., 2013). Through communication, leaders bring such rules to the attention of their subordinates. Reward and punishment systems are used by moral leaders to make their followers accountable for their deeds (Treviño et al., 2003).

According to Social Exchange Theory (SET), employees are presumed to learn not only from firsthand experience but also from witnessing the acts of others and the results of those activities. This suggests that leaders provide an example for others to follow, drawing attention to their moral behavior and standards for making decisions. As a result, followers copy their leaders and ethical behavior spreads throughout the firm. Furthermore, Brown et al. (2005) contended that moral leaders should establish moral guidelines, honor moral behavior, and penalize noncompliant behavior.

Previous studies (Brown et al., 2005; Hassan & Umar, 2016; Su et al., 2021) have demonstrated that ethical leadership improves workers' performance through exchange relationships. Numerous researchers select this claim. Krasikova et al. (2013), for instance, show that workers tend to modify their ethical inclinations in response to what they see in their leaders. These results suggest that managers should model moral behavior for their staff and set normative standards for them to follow, which will encourage moral behavior that benefits the firm. As a result, when there is a lack of ethical behavior inside an organization, people perform poorly because they are not given any advice. Brown et al. (2005) claim that moral leaders help followers make decisions and resolve moral conundrums. This argument leads us to the research hypothesis, which states that employees' teaching performance in Tanzanian HLIsis not positively correlated with ethical guidance.

2.4. Role of University Leaders in Influencing Academic Staff's Performance

A leader influences others by persuading them to act in a particular way. This process is known as leadership. A leader is thought to have an impact on others' behavior to achieve objectives (Kelloway & Barling, 2010). The Vice Chancellors, Deputy Vice Chancellors, Deans, and Directors of HLIs are in charge of overseeing the efficient operation of HLIs and making sure that staff members are raising their game and achieving the organization's objectives. Since leadership entails influencing, HLIs leaders are accountable for influencing workers' performance to accomplish HLIs' objectives (teaching, research, and community services). To be able to influence others, leaders need to exhibit effective traits and behaviors (Brown et al., 2005). A leader can impact the performance of their subordinates by modeling ethical behavior. This is known as ethical guidance.

HLI leaders are in charge of providing direction and leadership in research by creating policies and procedures that facilitate research activity. In addition, they bear the responsibility of furnishing guidance, materials, and supervision to guarantee the effective execution of established protocols and guidelines for investigative endeavors. They are also in charge of informing and educating academic staff members about the rules and procedures that have been developed (TCU, 2019). Vice Chancellors and Deputy Vice Chancellors are in charge of creating and carrying out excellent research projects as well as creating and upholding an environment of compliance among academic employees. Similarly, leaders of HLIs are in charge of arranging funds and seeking out sources of funding for research projects. They also must ensure that academic staff members follow research guidelines and protocols. They anticipate areas of research and encourage academic staff to pursue them (Muriisa, 2015).

HLIs leaders are in charge of organizing, creating, planning, leading and assessing academic programs, rules, processes, and guidelines when it comes to teaching. They are responsible for initiating, taking part in and overseeing academic planning.They also plan and design curricula, organize lesson plans, and make necessary plans for relevant teaching facilities such as lecture hall adequacy and ICT equipment, monitoring the progress of the lesson to ensure that all sessions are attended, and quality control is followed. Implementing the fundamental operations of HLIs is a requirement for academic staff members (URT, 2019). It is mandatory for all academic staff members to enhance the learning environment by means of teaching, research, and scholarly activities and by offering services that align with HLI's aims. It is a fundamental tenet that all academic staff members, regardless of status, should always be held responsible for competently and effectively carrying out their duties and workload demands and fostering cooperative relationships with supervisors, other students, and HLIs.

Academic staff members in HLIs are expected to participate in HLI governance by offering suggestions on curriculum creation, serving on committees, attending lectures and tutorials, offering academic advice and counseling to students, doing research, and performing community duties. Effective leadership is necessary for academic personnel to perform their responsibilities in an efficient manner (Muriisa, 2015). For HLIs to carry out their tasks in an ethical, just, transparent, and good manner (URT, 2019). Research by Haski-Leventhal (2020) and Jones & Hughes (2011) have demonstrated that HLI leaders are important in guiding because they facilitate interagency cooperation and mutual understanding, advance role and responsibility understanding, and build academic staff collaborations and teamwork. By promoting staff dedication and performance enhancement, HLI leadership also helps academicians effectively fulfill their jobs.

HLI leaders are expected to establish academic freedom, which is defined as academic staff members' freedom to teach, do research, and publish without interference from the HLIs they work for (Vrielink & Parmentier, 2011). Academic freedom gives faculty members the ability to design curricula, modify existing ones, conduct research, and publish papers, present, and discuss materials in the classroom, alter pedagogy and structure the content of their expertise (Owusu-Ansah, 2015). Academic staff and other stakeholders must be included in the decision-making process when it comes to matters that impact HLIs according to HLI leaders. Leaders have to foster an environment of open communication and regular discussion of matters impacting academic personnel. Academic staff members are given the authority and responsibility to perform their jobs to the best of their ability by HLI leaders who involve them in decision-making processes and inspire followers through a shared future vision (Vrielink & Parmentier, 2011).

Chancellors, vice chancellors, deans, and directors of HLIs are ethical leaders who have a duty to inform their subordinates (academic staffs) of the necessary ethical standards. When subordinates in hierarchical learning environments are informed about ethical standards, they will act with greater credibility; facilitate better decision-making and foster trust between leaders and subordinates, all of which will increase performance. According to Wang et al. (2015) and Eisenbeiss etal. (2015), ethical leaders must treat others with respect and dignity and view them as goals rather than as means to an aim. Academic staff members must be treated with decency and respect by HLI officials in Tanzania, including chancellors, vice chancellors, deans, directors, and heads of department. When academic staff members are treated with decency and consideration, a nurturing and understanding of work environment is established, and employees' rights and welfare are acknowledged; this fosters a pleasant psychological state in workers that increase dedication and engagement at work (Barrick et al., 2015).

3.   Methodology

3.1.   Study Design and Approach

This study looked at the possible association between academic ethical guidance and staff performance using a quantitative survey design. Standardized scales were employed to gather numerical data on the study's primary variables. This design allows us to explain our hypothesized relationships, drawing a cause-effect relationship.

3.2.   Population and Sample

This research was carried out in Tanzanian public HLIs–because they play a significant role in shaping individuals' personalities and preparing people for social, economic, and political growth. The public HLIs were chosen based on three criteria: nature of ownership, accreditation status, and experience in providing services. The study chose accredited HLIs, because they meet the criteria for offering services as full-fledged HLIs (TCU, 2019). The researcher chose public HLIs based on ownership criteria because workers in these institutions are guided by ethical codes of conduct and ethical values, and workers in these institutions are mandated to improve performance to provide quality teaching services to the community. Experience in providing service is considered to ensure employees' long-term performance. Based on these standards, all eleven (11) fully operational public HLIs in Tanzania were selected for the survey. The study population consisted of 4863 academic staff members from 11 public HLIs. A sample size of 350 participants was determined using Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) formula (Bukhari, 2020). This ensured that the information gathered was relevant tothe study and the respondents were able to provide answers with increased accuracy and confidence.

3.3.   Procedure

The list of academic employees at each of the HLIs was made available to the researchers to do this. The selection process in the faculties, schools and colleges involved two stages of sampling. Twenty-two faculties, schools or colleges were chosen in the first step. Two (2) faculties, schools or colleges were chosen at random from each of the 11 HLIs. In the second step, a total of 44 departments were selected, with two departments chosen at random from each Faculty, Department or College. Each department's professors, assistant lecturers, lecturers, tutorial assistants and senior lecturers made up the five strata of the population. Each member of the academic staff in each stratum was then given a number between 1 and a predetermined number. At the end, there were five lists from each group, one for

every designation category. By using the fishbowl method in combination with basic random sampling, one academic staff member from each stratum was chosen. 350 academic staff members from eleven (11) public HLIs in Tanzania completed a self-administered questionnaire that was used in the study.

Since the study examines the casual relationship between variables, the closed- ended questionnaire with attitude scale was used with 5-points Likert Scale. The researcher used ethical guidance items from Kalshoven et al. (2011) Ethical Leadership Work (ELW) questionnaire to measure ethical guidance. Furthermore, in measuring teaching, the researcher adopted a measure which was previously usedby Moreno-Murcia et al. (2015); the measure contained a 5-Point-Likert-Scale response format (1= strongly disagree (SD), 2= disagree (D), 3= neutral (N), 4= agree (A), 5= strongly agree (SA)). These metrics were chosen because they, more explicitly, quantify teaching than other metrics. The study employed the benchmark for Siswaningsih et al. (2017) to ensure the questionnaire's reliability. This benchmark suggests that the following criteria for Cronbach's Alpha are used to establish internal consistency reliability: excellent ($\alpha>0.9$), good ($0.7<\alpha<0.9$), acceptable ($0.6< \alpha<0.7$), poor ($0.5< \alpha<0.6$), and unacceptable ($\alpha<0.5$). The pilot study's analysis of Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient for the questionnaire constructs shows that the questionnaire was deemed reliable based on the values of 0.923 for ethical guidance and 0.944 for academic staff's teaching performance.

3.4.   Data Analysis

To make the data analysis for the study easier, IBM's Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS) version 21 was used. Three different analyses were then conducted. It means that the study employed three primary statistical methods: 1) descriptive statistics to provide a description of data and frequencies; 2) Pearson "r" to analyze the correlation between the study's important variables; and 3) standard multiple regression to identify the major predictors of research performance. The significance of the study's hypothesis was fixed at 0.05 level of analysis. The following hypothesis served as the basis for the multiple regression: Academic staff's teaching performance in Tanzania's public HLIs is not influenced by ethical guidance.

4.   Analysis and Discussion

The data analysis and discussion in this section start with a descriptive analysis of the sample's demographics, the ethical leadership variable (ethical guidance) and the employees' teaching performance variables. This part concludes with a multiple regression analysis comparing employees' teaching performance to ethical guidance, along with conclusions and recommendations.

4.1.   Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

About 64.9% of respondents were males compared to female who were 35.1% in total. The distribution of sample by designation varied with 10.3% tutorial assistant, 36.9% assistant lecturer, 30.9% lecturer, 13.7% senior lecturer, 5.7% associate professors and 2.6% full professors. Also, 40.9% of the sample had work experience above 10 years while 22% had 4 to 6 years of working experience and 21% had 7 to 9 years of working experience, and the rest which is 15.4% had 3years of working experience as summarized in Table 01 below.

Table 01: Demographic characteristics of the sample (N=350)

Basic characteristics	Classification	Frequency and Percentage
Designation	Tutorial Assistants	36 (10.3%)
	Assistant Lecturer	129 (36.9%)
	Lecturer	108 (30.9%)
	Senior Lecturer	48 (13.7%)
	Associate Professor	20 (5.7%)
	Full professor	9 (2.6%)
	Total	350 (100%)
Working Experience	3 years	54 (15.4%)
	4-6 years	77 (22%)
	7-9 years	76 (21.7%)
	10 years and above	143 (40.9%)
	Total	350 (100%)
Sex	Male	227 (64.9%)
	Female	123 (35.1%)
	Total	350 (100%)

Source: Data Analysis

4.2. Descriptive Analysis Concerning Ethical Guidance

This section presents descriptive results concerning ethical guidance. To begin 47.7%, 44.3%, 41.7%, 45.7% and 43.4% of respondents agreed that leaders often clearly explain integrity related codes of conduct, explains what is expected from employees in terms of behaving with integrity, clarifies integrity guidelines, ensures that employees follow codes of conducts, and elucidates the probable consequences of possible unethical behavior to subordinates respectively. In contrast, 36.6% agreed that, sometimes, leaders stimulate the discussion of code of conduct guideline issues among employees as summarized in Table 02.

Table 02: Descriptive analysis concerning ethical guidance (N=350)

Statement	Frequency and Percentages				
	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often
Explains integrity related codes of conduct.	6 (1.7)	33 (9.4)	83 (23.7)	167 (47.7)	61 (17.4)
Explains what is expected from employees in terms of behaving with integrity.	6 (1.7)	18 (5.1)	95 (27.1)	155 (44.3)	76 (21.7)
Clarifies integrity guidelines.	7 (2.0)	35 (10.0)	91 (26.0)	146 (41.7)	71 (20.3)
Ensures that employees follow codes of conducts.	4 (1.1)	22 (6.3)	109 (31.1)	160 (45.7)	55 (15.7)
Clarifies the likely consequences of possible unethical behavior to subordinates.	4 (1.1)	21 (6.3)	116 (33.1)	152 (43.3)	57 (16.3)
Stimulate the discussion of code of conduct guideline issues among employees.	6 (1.7)	50 (14.3)	128 (36.6)	114 (32.6)	52 (14.9)
Compliments employees who behave according to	18 (5.1)	47 (13.4)	106 (30.3)	127 (36.3)	52 (14.9)

the	integrity
guidelines.	

Source: Data Analysis

4.3.   Descriptive Analysis Concerning Employee's Teaching Performance

According to the survey, academic staff members in Tanzania's public Higher Learning Institutions (HLIs) have been encouraging students' collaboration and individual growth during the past three years, as well as connecting instruction in the workplace. In addition, they have been attending to and answering queries from students, supporting interactions between students and lecturers, encouraging critical thinking and research, and providing assignment feedback by deadline.Nonetheless, a small percentage of respondents disagreed; and a smaller percentage strongly disagreed with these claims, as depicted in Table 03 below.

Table 03: Descriptive results on teaching performance

Statement	SD	D	N	A	SA
I have been providing clear, and scientific information for the last three years.	8 (2.3%)	10 (2.9%)	16 (4.6%)	152 (43.4%)	164 46.9%)
I have been promoting individual and teamwork among students for the last three years.	10 (2.9%)	5 (1.4%)	14 (4.0%)	177 (50.6%)	144 (41.1%)
I have been relating teaching to the professional environment for the last three years.	10 (2.9%)	5 (1.4%)	12 (3.4%)	159 (45.4%)	164 (46.9%)
I have been attending and responding to students' questions asked in class for the last three years.	7 (2.0%)	2 (0.6%)	12 (3.4%)	138 (39.4%)	191 (54.6%)
I have been facilitating student-student and student-lecturer interactions for the last three years.	11 (3.1%)	3 (0.9%)	10 (2.9%)	152 (43.4%)	174 (49.7%)
I have been fostering research and critical spirit for the last three years.	6 (1.7%)	11 (3.1%)	30 (8.6%)	179 (51.1%)	124 (35.4%)

I have been easily accessible and available for students regarding teaching activities for the last three years.	8 (2.3%)	10 (2.9%)	16 (4.6%)	152 (43.4%)	164 (46.9%)
I have been meeting deadline in giving feedback for whatever assignments(i.e supervising research, marking and providing results) for the last three years.	10 (2.9%)	9 (2.6%)	17 (4.9%)	184 (52.6%)	130 (37.1%)

Source: Data Analysis

4.4. Correlation

The correlation between the predictor variable (ethical guidance) and the teaching performance of the employees is displayed in Table 04. The correlationresults show that there is a statistically significant positive relationship (R = 0.718, p<0.01) between ethical guidance and teaching performance.

Table 04: Correlation table

		Teaching Performance	Ethical Guidance
Teaching Performance	Pearson Correlation	1	.718**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
Ethical Guidance	Pearson Correlation	.718**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
Source: Data Analysis

4.5. Regression

The findings in the Table 05 indicate that the coefficient of determination R^2 = 0.515 for teaching performance, at significance level of 0.00. This implies that, 51.5% of the total variations in teaching performance is influenced by ethical guidance. This implies that, there is a positive contribution of ethical guidance by 51.5%, on influencing teaching performance in public HLIs in Tanzania.

Table 05: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
Ethical Guidance	.718[a]	.515	.514	.36604

Dependent variable: Teaching Performance
Independent variable: Ethical Guidance
Source: Data Analysis

The overall findings of regression analysis between the ethical guidance and academic staff's teaching performance were utilized to examine incidental relationships. According to Table 06, academic staff's teaching performance and ethical guidance have a substantial and favorable link (Beta=0.487, t=19.229, p<0.00). The more ethical guidance academic staff members receive; the better they perform in teaching.

Table 6: Multiple Linear Regression

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	2.124	.094		22.62	.000
Ethical Guidance	.487	.025	.718	19.22	.000

Dependent variable: Teaching Performance
Independent variable: Ethical Guidance
Source: Data Analysis

The study concludes that employees' teaching performance is influenced by ethical guidance based on the variability of workers' teaching performance supplied by ethical guidance. This suggests that a leader's moral governance affects followers' behavior in the classroom. In addition, the study by Muya and Tundui (2020) on the strategies for improving the performance of HLIs in Tanzania stated that HLI staff members must observe ethical values for better employee' teaching performance. These findings are in line with the study by Katundano (2019) on Rebuilding Ethical Leadership in African Universities, which revealed that ethical principles are key principles for universities promoting staff's performance in teaching, research, and consultancy.

Social Exchange Theory (SET) highlights the significance of ethical instruction. According to the two ideas, when leaders prioritize moral principles and objectives during the decision-making process, it has a favorable impact on performance (Obicci, 2015). Furthermore, SET contends that managers should reward and penalize employees in a way that ensures they follow ethical principles and standards of conduct. This suggests that leaders establish norms, principles and codes of conduct that serve as standards for moral behavior. Through communication, leaders bring such rules to the attention of their subordinates. Reward and punishment systems are used by moral leaders to make their followers accountable for their deeds. By doing this, leaders set an example for workers, drawing their attention to their moral behavior and standards for making decisions. As a result, followers imitate their leaders and ethical behavior proliferates throughout the company. Employees adapt their ethical orientations to the behavior they witness in their leaders when they are guided in an ethical manner.

Many organizations use outcomes to evaluate employees' performance. Vuong & Nguyen (2022), for instance, suggested that goals and outcomes that have been attained should be used to gauge employees' success. According to other researchers (Tahir et al., 2014; Zeb et al., 2018), employees' performance is evaluated based on standards established by the company, efficiency, effectiveness, goals achieved within a given time frame and profitability. Additionally, Kelidbari et al., (2016) found that ethical guidance had an impact on employees' performance at Guilan University of Medical Sciences. Lameck (2022) found that ethical guidance had an impact on the provision of agricultural advisory services by Tanzanian local government authorities in Tanzania.

As stated by Jones and Hughes (2011) ethical guidance in the HLI "builds support for the university and establishes an environment that is conducive to success". These findings agree with the studies conducted by Choi et al. (2020) and Caza et al. (2015), which found that moral leadership enhances workers' role performance by fostering a sense of trust in their supervisor, which, in turn, boosts workers' role performance. Additionally, the Rahim et al. (2020) study discovered that workers who believe that their leaders are moral role-models receive significantly clearer communication from them, which improves their understanding of expectations and increases their likelihood of demonstrating those expectations in role performance. According to research by Iqbal et al. (2015), employees' performance is directly impacted by their fair task distribution and treatment, which, also, has a positive impact on their desired attitudes and behaviors. Krishnan et al. (2018) also demonstrate that treating employees fairly, treating them with respect and dignity and providing them with correct information about matters that are important to them in a timely and honest manner increase employees' performance.

5.   Conclusion and Recommendations

To improve employees' teaching effectiveness, this study makes the case that HLI leaders must restore ethical practices among HLI executives and personnel. Academic employees are influenced by ethical leadership to produce the expected academic results, which include dedication to teaching. Teaching performance cannot take place in a vacuum. It is bifurcated. The leadership of HLI must arm itself with essential ethical principles that are molded in selflessness for the good of the university and staff members in their respective fields of expertise, among other things. By abiding by laws and regulations, the leadership of HLI should take the lead in fostering ethical leadership among its employees (codes of ethics). Since codes of ethics are the fundamental guidelines that govern how members of a particular profession should behave, HLI leaders have a responsibility to set a good example for the entire HLI community by treating employees fairly, allocating all activities fairly and making morally sound decisions among academic staff. While unethical behavior results in subpar performance, HLI leaders who act morally and exhibit good leadership ethics can create a lasting impact on employees' teaching performance. The leaders of HLIs must establish a morally sound workplace to improve the teaching performance of academic staff members.

To improve employees' teaching performance in HLIs, it is recommended that HLI leadership adopts ethical guidance as human values and put them into practice. Employees in HLIs need to feel listened, respected, involved, appreciated, and directed on ethical values.

6.   Limitations and Future Research Directions

This study investigated the relationship between ethical guidance and employees' performance in public HLIs in Tanzania. Surveying public HLIs only could not somehow depict variations in leadership and culture. Public HLIs' culture is different from private HLIs' culture. Therefore, future researchers can cover privateHLIs in Tanzania. Also, this study focused on academic staff employee only; other supporting staff were not studied; studying about academic staff with other supporting staff will accommodate and depict the variation of respondents in specialization. Future research can cover academic and other supporting staff in HLIs as well.

.

References

Barrick, M. R., Thurgood, G. R., Smith, T. A., & Courtright, S. H. (2015). Collective organizational engagement: Linking motivational antecedents, strategic implementation, and firm performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 58*(1), 111–135.

Brown, M. E., Trevino, L. K. & Harrison, D. A. (2005). Ethical Leadership: A Social Learning Perspective for Construct Development and Testing. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 97*(2), 117-134. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2005.03.002

Bukhari, S. A. R. (2020). *Bukhari Sample Size Calculator*. Research Gate Gmbh. https://doi.org10.13140/RG.2.2.27730.58563

Caza, A., Zhang, G., Wang, L., & Bai, Y. (2015). How do you really feel? Effect of leaders perceived emotional sincerity on followers' trust. *Leadership Quart, 26*(3), 518–531.

Choi, Y., Yoon, D.J. & Kim, D. (2020). Leader Behavioral Integrity and Employee In-role Performance: The Roles of Coworker Support and Job Autonomy. *International Journal* of *Environmental Research and Public Health, 17*(3), 4303-4320.

Confraria, H. & Godinho,M.M. (2015). The Impact of African Science: A Bibliometric Analysis Scientometrics. *Springer Akadémiai Kiadó, 102*(2), 1241-1268. https://doi:10.1007/s11192-014-1463-8

Eisenbeiss, S. A., van Knippenberg, D., & Fahrbach, C. M. (2015). Doing Well by Doing Good? Analyzing the Relationship between CEO Ethical Leadership and Firm Performance. *Journal of Business Ethics, 128*(3), 635–651.

Fussy, D. S. (2019). The Hurdles to Fostering Research in Tanzanian Universities. *Higher Education*, *77*(2), 283–299. http://www.jstor.org/stable/45116914

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2018). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (8th ed.). United Kingdom: Cengage Learning.

Haski-Leventhal, D. (2020). *Leading Universities towards Purpose: The Role of University Leadership, Purpose Driven University.* Emerald Publishing Limited.

Hassan, S.H., & Umar, B.A. (2016). Impact of Gombe State University Leadership Style on Employees' Performance. *Journal of Advanced Research in Social and Behavioral Sciences 2*(1), 102-113.

Ibrahim, M., Sulaiman, M., Kahtani, A., & Abu-Jarad, I. (2012). The Relationship between Strategy Implementation and Performance of Manufacturing Firms in Indonesia: The Role of Formality Structure as a Moderator. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, *20*(7), 955-964.

Iqbal, A., Ijaz, M., Latif, F., & Mushtaq, H. (2015). Factors Affecting the Employees' Performance of Banking Sector in Pakistan. *European Journal of Business and Social Sciences, 4*(8), 309-318.

Jones, D. & Hughes, C. (2011). Public School Leadership, Ethics, and Student Achievement. *National Forum of Educational Administration and Supervision Journal, 27*(2) 50-73.

Kalshoven, K., Den Hartog, D. N., & De Hoogh A. H. B. (2011). Ethical leadership at work questionnaire (ELW): Development and validation of a multidimensional measure. The Leadership Quarterly, 22(1), 51- 69. https://doi.org/10.1027/1866-5888/a000056.

Katundano, T. (2019). Rebuilding Ethical Leadership in African universities: A Review of Some Principles of Staff motivation. *International Journal of Educational Theory and Practice*, *22*(4), 24-33.

Kelidbari, H.R.R., Fadaei, M., & Ebrahimi, P. (2016). The role of Ethical Leadership on Employee Performance in Guilan University of MedicalSciences. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *230*(2016), 463-470.

Kelloway, E. K., & Barling, J. (2010). Leadership Development as an Intervention in Occupational Health Psychology. *Work and Stress*, *24*(3), 260–279. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2010.518441

Krasikova, D. V., Green, S. G., & LeBreton, J. M. (2013). Destructive Leadership: A Theoretical Review, Integration, and Future Research Agenda. *Journal of Management,* *39*(5), 1308-1338. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206312471388

Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 30*(3), 607–610.

Krishnan, R., Loon, K. W., Ahmad, N. A. F., & Yunus, N. A. S. (2018). Examining the Relationship between Organizational Justice and Job Performance. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 8*(3), 466–477.

Lameck, W.U. (2018). *Ethical Culture, Tanzania*. In: Farazmand, A. (eds) Global Encyclopedia of Public Administration, Public Policy, and Governance. Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-31816-5_3579-1

Lameck, W.U. (2022). The influence of ethical leadership in the delivery of agricultural advisory services in Tanzania local government authorities, *Public Administration and Policy: An Asia-Pacific Journal*, *25*(1), 78-88. https://doi.org/10.1108/PAP-05-2021-0031

Lawrent, G. (2022). Teacher Ethics in the Tanzanian Context and their Implications, *Teaching and Teacher Education, 120* https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2022.103900

Mfaume, H., & Bilinga, M. (2017). Prevalence of Teachers' Professional Malpractices in Tanzanian Public Secondary Schools: What Ought to be Done? *Journal of Education and Training Studies, 5*(2), 43-52. https://10.11114/jets.v5i2.2106

Mgaiwa, S.J. (2021). Fostering Graduate Employability: Rethinking Tanzania's University Practices. *Sage Open Journals*, *11*(2). https://doi.org/10.1177/21582440211006709

Moreno-Murcia, J. A., Torregrosa, Y. S., & Pedreño, N. B. (2015). Questionnaire evaluating teaching competencies in the university environment. Evaluation of teaching competencies in the university. *Journal of New Approaches in Educational Research*, *4*(1), 54-61.

Muriisa, R. K. (2015). Rethinking the Role of Universities in Africa: Leadership as a Missing Link in Explaining Performance in Uganda. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa*, *12*(1), 69-92.

Muya, F., & Tundui, H.P. (2020). Strategies for Improving the Performance ofHigher Learning Institutions in Tanzania. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education Studies*, *7*(1), 27-41. https://doi.10.23918/ijsses.v7ip27

Obicci, P.K. (2015). Effects of Ethical Leadership on Employee Performance in Uganda. *Net Journal of Business Management, 3*(1), 1-12.

Palamarchuk, O. (2018). The functions of academic staff in the effective governance of university. *International Scientific Journal of Universities and Leadership*, (5), 37-47. https://doi.org/10.31874/2520-6702-2018-5-1-37-47

Pradhan, R. K., & Jena, L. K. (2017). Employee Performance at Workplace: Conceptual Model and Empirical Validation. *Business Perspectives and Research, 5*(1), 69-85. https://doi.org/10.1177/2278533716671630

Prevention and Combating of Corruption Bureau (PCCB). (2020). SexualCorruption Research in Higher Education Institutions: A Case of Study of the University of Dar es Salaam and Dodoma. https://swahilitimes.co.tz/wp-content/uploads/2021/10/RUSHWA-YA-NGONO-FINAL-JULAI-2020.-3.pdf

Rahim, N. A., Omary, K., & Kamaruddin, A.A. (2020). Integrity and Employee's Job Performance. *Journal of Critical Review*, *7*(16), 517-521.

Sangeda, R.L., & Lwoga, E. T. (2017). Research Growth and Citation Impact of Tanzanian Scholars: A 24 Year's Scientometric Study. *International Journal of Library and Information Science, 9*(8), 66-77.

Shaheen, A., Naqvi, S. M., & Khan, M. A. (2013). Employees training and organizational performance: mediation by employees' performance.

Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business, 5(4), 490-503.

Siswaningsih, W., Firman, H., Zackiyah., & Khoirunnisa, A. (2017). Development of Two-Tier Diagnostic Test Pictorial-Based for Identifying High School Students Misconceptions on the Mole Concept. *Journal of Physics: Conference Series, 812* (1), 1-7. https://doi:10.1088/1742-6596/812/1/012117

Su, X., Lin, W., Wu, J., Zheng, J., Chen, X., & Jiang, X. (2021). Ethical Leadership and Knowledge Sharing: The Effects of Positive Reciprocity and Moral Efficacy. *Sage Open Journals, 11(2),* 1-12. https://doi.org/10.1177/21582440211021823

Tahir, N., Yousafzai, I.K., Jan, S., & Hashim, M. (2014). The Impact of Training and Development on Employees' Performance and Productivity: A Case Study of United Bank Limited Peshawar City Pakistan. *The International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 4(2), 86-98. http://dx.doi.org/10.6007/IJARBSS/v4-i4/756

Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU), (2019c). Handbook for Standards and Guidelines for University Education in Tanzania (3rd eds). Dar es Salaam, Tanzania UNESCO. https://www.tcu.go.tz/sites/default/files/Handbook%20for%20Standards%20and%20Guidelines%20for%20University%20Education%20in%20Tanzania%20-%203rd%20Edition.pdf

Treviño, L. K., Brown, M., & Hartman, L. P. (2003). A Qualitative Investigation of Perceived Executive Ethical Leadership: Perceptions from Inside and Outside the Executive Suite. *Human Relations, 56*(1), 5-37. http://dx.doi.org/10.19044/esj 2017.v13n29p10

Vrielink, J., & Parmentier, S. (2011). Academic Freedom as a Fundamental Right, *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 13*(5) 117-141 https://doi.org/1016/j.sbspro.2011.03.009

Vuong, T. D. N., & Nguyen, L. T. (2022). The Key Strategies for Measuring Employee Performance in Companies: A Systematic Review. *Sustainability, 14*(21), 1-21. https://doi.org/10.3390/su142114017

Walumbwa, F. O., Mayer, D. M., Wang, P., Wang, H., Workman, K., & Christensen, A. L. (2011). Linking Ethical Leadership to Employee Performance: The Roles of Leader–Member Exchange, Self-efficacy, and Organizational Identification. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 115*(2), 204-213. http://doi:10.1016/j.obhdp.2010.11.002

Wang, D., Feng, T., & Lawton, A. (2015). Linking Ethical Leadership with Firm Performance: A Multi-Dimensional Perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly, 145(1), 95-109*. https://doi.10.1007/s10551-015-2905-9

Yildirim, I., Akan, D., & Yalcin, S. (2016). Teacher Behavior Unwanted According to Student Performance, *International Education Studies, 9*(11), 201-127.

Yukl, G., Mahsud, R., Hassan, S., & Prussia, G.E. (2013). An Improved Measure of Ethical Leadership. *Journal of Leadership and Organisational Studies, 20*(1) 38-48.

Zeb, A., Ahmad, S., & Saeed, G. (2018). Leadership Effectiveness and Organisational Performance: Exploring Gaps in the Existing Literature.*Business   and Economic   Review, 10*(1), 95-106 https://doi.org/10.22547/BER/10.1.4.

Unveiling the Impact of Project Governance on Performance of Public Sector Development Projects in Sri Lanka

G. R. M. Gamlath[1]
University of Jaffna, Sri Lanka
muthugamlath@vau.ac.lk

Y. Nanthagopan
University of Vavuniya, Sri Lanka
ynanthagopan@vau.ac.lk

L. Kengatharan
University of Jaffna, Sri Lanka
lingesiya@univ.jfn.ac.lk

Nigel L.Williams
University of Portsmouth,U.K
nigel.williams@port.ac.uk

Abstract

The governance of public sector development projects has become an increasingly complex theme in the diverse nature of managing stakeholders, structuring project formation and development, planning, monitoring, and surveillance, and their expectations. Thus, stakeholders' interests should be addressed by the governments. The main objective of this research is to investigate project governance and its basics, for the application in the Sri Lankan public sector development projects to increase project performance in terms of public sector growth and sustainability. Funding agencies, policymakers, government regulators, and other associated partners attempt to support smooth project execution and accomplish the desired project outputs and outcomes by emphasizing the importance of project governance.The study conducts a literature review on project governance to bridge a knowledgegap in investigating the function of project governance and the efficiency of the Sri Lankan public sector development projects. It employs a qualitative research approach and reviews the related literature including scholarly journal articles. The findings indicate that project governance must be practiced achieving project objectives related to optimal economic and social benefits for the country's accelerative development plan and from the standpoint of the government, project governance and performance serve as cornerstones of a development plan. Finally, this study comprehensively examines the roles and practical implementation of project governance within Sri Lankan projects, providing invaluable insights and recommendations for enhancing project performance, fostering growth, and ensuring sustainability within the public sector.

---

[1] Corresponding Author

1.   Introduction

The objective of this research is to shed light on governance issues and problems within the context of development projects in Sri Lanka. The emphasis is on examining the intricate relationship between governance challenges and the execution of development initiatives in the country. By delving into this research area, the aim is to illuminate the specific issues that impede effective governance in the context of development projects, providing valuable insights for improving the overall success and impact of such initiatives in Sri Lanka. Organizations often embark on projects with the best intentions, but numerous initiatives fail to achieve their intended objectives (Zaman et al., 2022). To enhance project outcomes, both academics and practitioners have focused on empowering project employees with the necessary skills and leveraging effective tools and procedures (McGrath & Whitty, 2015; Ahola et al., 2014). Traditionally, project success has been measured by how well they were completed within the constraints of scope, time, cost, and quality (Turner & Zolin, 2012). However, the evaluation criteria for projects have evolved to encompass broader aspects such as stakeholder management (Yang etal., 2021) and the ability to align with strategic objectives. This expanded perspective has given rise to the concept of "project governance" in recent decades, addressing pertinent issues and providing guidelines to steer projects effectively (Aliza et al., 2011).

At its core, project governance represents a transformative approach to oversight, implemented at the project level. Project management experts have offered valuable insights and solutions at every stage of a project's development (Brunet, 2018; Brunet & Aubry, 2016; Ahola et al., 2014). This comprehensive perspective on projects seeks to optimize success rates and ensure alignment with organizational goals, elevating the overall project management landscape.

Public sector development projects face multifaceted responsibilities, including stakeholder management, project structuring, planning, execution, monitoring, and actualization (Aaltonen & Sivonen, 2009). As stakeholders become increasingly involved, effective project governance is crucial for achieving project objectives (Alade et al., 2022). Inadequate control in this area can lead to project failure, while proficient management benefits all stakeholders (Khan et al., 2019a). However, the complex nature of these projects and ambiguity can lead to issues from poor stakeholder participation (Derakshan et al., 2019). Therefore, careful attention to project governance and stakeholder involvement is essential for successful outcomes (Hjelmbrekke et al., 2014).

The evaluation of public sector project performance in development initiatives has become a growing focus of research, with project governance becoming a critical topic (Artto et al., 2008). This emphasis is aligned with the growing demand for improving the effectiveness of public-sector organizations in implementing development projects (Khan et al., 2019b). In Sri Lanka, successful project implementation has significantly contributed to the country's progress and accomplishments (Jeyakanthan & Jayawardene, 2012). Strategic development projects are crucial for sustainable infrastructure provision and meeting global and regional economic demands (Gunawardhane et al., 2021; Gunawardhane & Karunasena, 2016).

This study underscores the imperative necessity of grasping the intricate dynamics of project governance within the framework of development initiatives in the Sri Lankan public sector. This investigative endeavor serves as the bedrock for a comprehensive analysis of how the efficacy of project governance can exert its influence on project performance, growth, and sustainability within the region. It is poised to deliver invaluable insights and recommendations to various stakeholders and policymakers alike. Consequently, this thorough, exploratory, and sequentially conducted data mining effort in the study area holds immense promise in illuminating the far-reaching consequences of project governance and its associated management practices. The ultimate goal is to ensure and optimize governmental contributions to the economic, social, and environmental well-being of the nation. Therefore, the performance of public sector development projects in Sri Lanka requires improved project governance and practices. The importance of successful projects in emerging nations like Sri Lanka is growing (Athukorala et al., 2017). This study, as per Samarathunga and Pillay (2011), thoroughly explores the functions and pragmatic implementation of project governance in Sri Lankan projects, offering valuable insights and recommendations to elevate project performance, foster growth, and ensure sustainability within the public sector.

Public sector projects in Sri Lanka assume a pivotal role in meeting national imperatives aligned with government agendas, aspiring to disseminate socioeconomic, environmental, cultural, health, educational, and political benefits to both citizens and the government (Athukorala et al., 2017). Despite these noble objectives, developing countries like Sri Lanka often grapple with challenges in their projects, manifesting as poor performance, delays, or outright failure (Weerasekara et al., 2021). Recent years have witnessed impediments to the enhancement of performance in public sector development projects, as documented by various scholars (Athukorala et al., 2017; Jeyakanthan & Jayawardane, 2012).

2.   Literature Review

2.1.   The Importance and Need for an Effective Project Governance

Project governance is essential for managing unique events across various functions, but public-sector development projects differ significantly from private- sector projects (Kodithuwakku, 2022; Davis, 2017). These initiatives aim to expedite the distribution of socioeconomic, environmental, cultural, health, educational, and political benefits to both people and the government. Despite their noble intentions, public sector projects have faced challenges, leading to lower performance improvements in recent years (Flyvbjerg, 2013). The impact of these projects on individuals, communities, and public resources often hampers organizational strategies, resulting in sub-optimal benefits and reduced public support (Bruzelius et al., 2002). Therefore, recognizing the importance of project governance in public sector projects becomes imperative to ensure transparency and accountability of public funds managed by the General Treasury of governments (Di-Maddaloni & Davis, 2018).

Public sector projects require effective governance to achieve financial and non-financial performance, meeting societal needs and fulfilling beneficiary expectations (Brunet, 2018; Ma et al., 2017; Joslin & Müller, 2016). This integrative mechanism requires active government and public involvement to facilitate efficient socioeconomic project governance (Ma et al., 2017; Mazibuko, 2007). This approach fosters shared and sustainable value for stakeholders throughout the project's lifecycle, confirming project performance through various governance practices during the front-end decision-making phase. This approach ensures project sustainability while optimizing resource utilization (Ma et al., 2017).Thematic project governance provides a framework for contextualizing the adoption of governance practices in enhancing public sector project performance. By addressing these critical concerns, project governance is perceived as an ethical conduct, enabling productive and successful project implementation, leading to long-term sustainability and alignment with the project's mission (Scheepers et al., 2022; Too & Weaver, 2014).

2.2.   Internal and External Project Governance

Public sector projects can be categorized into internal and external project governance. Internal project governance focuses on aligning the governance structure with internal factors like organizational capabilities and external factors like regulatory practices (Mullar et al., 2016; Artto & Kujala, 2008; Olsen et al., 2005). Public sector projects are designed to fulfil national needs based on government agendas (Williams et al., 2010; Klakegg et al., 2008). External project governance

Emphasizes ensuring project execution efficiency aligning with organizational strategy through a principal-agent relationship between prescribed organizations and the project-based firm. This approach has led to a growing demand for project managers to demonstrate the value of their projects to sponsoring organizations (Khan et al., 2021; Khan et al., 2019a; Khan et al., 2019c; Jugdev & Muller, 2006) and maximizing their returns from public investments (Ward et al., 2007).

2.3. The Role of Project Governance

Henceforth, project governance is a framework that ensures projects, programs, or portfolios deliver maximum benefits to all stakeholders (Di-Maddaloani & Davis, 2018). It focuses on optimizing the utilization of material and financial resources to achieve economic and social advantages. Effective project resource utilization leads to optimal financial and physical performance, resulting in sustainability (Muller et al., 2016). In public sector development projects, project governance addresses stakeholder management, conception, development, planning, monitoring, surveillance, and actualization (Khan et al., 2021). Governance in these projects focuses on addressing social and economic obligations, fostering collective actions to manage power dependencies, and ensuring efficient project execution independently of the governmental apparatus (Ismail et al., 2021). It emphasizes the achievement of specific accomplishments by all stakeholders within a framework of distributive justice (Klakegg et al., 2008).

Project governance is essential for managing unique events across various functions, but public-sector development projects differ significantly from private- sector projects (Davis, 2017). These initiatives aim to expedite the distribution of socioeconomic, environmental, cultural, health, educational, and political benefits to both people and the government. Despite their noble intentions, public sector projects have faced challenges, leading to lower performance improvements in recent years (Flyvbjerg, 2013). The impact of these projects on individuals, communities, and public resources often hampers organizational strategies, resulting in sub-optimal benefits and reduced public support (Bruzelius et al., 2002).Therefore, recognizing the importance of project governance in public sector projects becomes imperative to ensure transparency and accountability of public funds managed by the General Treasury of governments (Di-Maddaloni & Davis, 2018).

2.4.   Challenges in Public Sector Project Governance

Project governance is crucial for achieving optimal project performance in public sector development initiatives. It involves the efforts of project governors and stakeholders, aligning with their needs and requirements (Mutambuki et al., 2022; Musawir et al., 2017). These issues often stem from underlying project governance challenges, affecting project initiation, planning, funding, disbursement, and technical aspects. The main reasons behind poor performance and project setbacks are the failure to adopt sound project management practices, leading to adverse effects such as vague project structuring, inadequate planning, scope and resource mismatches, undue pressure due to tight timelines, political interventions, corruption, procurement issues, unforeseen regulatory changes, lack of competent expertise, and advisory deficiencies (Ihuah et al., 2014).

2.5.   Public Sector Oriented Project Governance Framework

Examining successful project governance in other countries through the lens of the Public Sector Oriented Project Governance Framework reveals key best practices. These include robust stakeholder engagement, proactive risk management, continuous capacity building, rigorous performance monitoring, strict legal and regulatory compliance, transparent financial oversight, and strategic technology integration. Adaptation to the specific context of each country, considering cultural and economic factors, is crucial for ensuring the effectiveness of these governance practices. By leveraging lessons from global successes, a comprehensive and tailored governance framework can be developed to enhance project outcomes in the public sector. In this spiritual context of using this framework, an effective legal, procedural, and regulatory framework is essential for project stakeholders' success (Scheepers et al., 2022). Project governance plays a vital role in aligning projects with their objectives and regulating resource utilization and deliverable completion (Ochungo & Amollo-Odinga, 2019). Traditionally, project scope, budget, and schedule were the primary parameters for evaluating project governance (Department of Project Management and Monitoring Progress of Large and Mega Scale Development Projects Second Quarter - Year 2021, 2021). However, there is a growing trend towards integrated projects, particularly in public sector development initiatives (Muller et al., 2016). Effective collaboration between project management and governance is crucial for stakeholder satisfaction and achieving targeted goals (Kodithuwakku, 2022; Di Maddaloni & Davis, 2018; McGrath & Whitty, 2015; Too

& Weaver, 2014). Efficient project regulation mechanisms support project aims and national development plans (Biesenthal & Wilden, 2014), fostering a cohesive effort between management and governance, ensuring projects meet objectives and contribute effectively to broader development goals.

Concentrating to the above-mentioned logical floor of project governance in the public sector in developing countries like Sri Lanka, the authors re-emphasized that project governance is an integrated effort to achieve the public sector project performance (Kodithuwakku, 2022; Weerasekara et al., 2021). They further emphasized that the integrated project governance is an approach that emphasizes the seamless alignment of project management and governance practices to ensure the successful execution of projects and the achievement of strategic objectives. In this approach, project management and governance are not viewed as separate entities but are closely interconnected and work together to deliver project outcomes efficiently and effectively. Further, integrated project governance is acomprehensive approach that encourages collaboration among project managers, governance bodies, and stakeholders, fostering a shared environment where all parties work together toward common objectives. It prioritizes the alignment of project goals with an organization's broader strategic objectives to ensure long-term success. This approach also emphasizes collective responsibility for risk management, addressing risks at both project management and governance levels throughout the project's lifecycle. Furthermore, integrated governance optimizes resource utilization, employs quality assurance measures, incorporates performance measurement and reporting mechanisms for real-time progress tracking, and underscores the importance of actively engaging relevant stakeholders to address their interests and concerns during the project's lifecycle. Integrated project governance is a comprehensive approach that encourages collaboration among project managers, governance bodies, and stakeholders, fostering a shared environment where all parties work together toward common objectives. It prioritizes the alignment of project goals with an organization's broader strategic objectives to ensure long-term success (Weerasekara et al., 2021). This approach also emphasizes collective responsibility for risk management, addressing risks at both project management and governance levels throughout the project's lifecycle. Furthermore, integrated governance optimizes resource utilization, employs quality assurance measures, incorporates performance measurement and reporting mechanisms for real-time progress tracking, and underscores the importance of actively engaging relevant stakeholders to address their interests and concerns during the project's lifecycle (Gunawardhane et al., 2021; Gunawardhane & Karunasena, 2016). Levitt et al. (2010) emphasize the importance of formal and informal processes in facilitating integrated relationships among project management setups, including public sector development projects. These projects involve diverse

activities like execution, monitoring, evaluation, and performance appraisal, catering to the interests and involvement of each stakeholder (Shiferaw & Klakegg, 2012). Parnell et al. (2013) emphasize the growing significance of project governance in project performance, regardless of stakeholders involved in different phases or processes. Therefore, effective project governance is crucial in accelerating project implementation and contributing to overall success, with robust practices ensuring smoother execution and optimal outcomes for all stakeholders involved in development initiatives.

In response to these findings, researchers, policymakers, and regulators, as highlighted by Rajablu et al. (2014), have underscored the pivotal and contentious role of project governance in modern global perspectives on performance, recognizing its critical significance in ensuring the success of public sector development projects. An effective project governance framework is fundamental to overcoming challenges, optimizing project implementation, and delivering meaningful socio-economic benefits to the public and the nation.

3.   Methodology

This study adopts a qualitative research approach, relying on literature including scholarly journal articles. A comprehensive search was conducted to review previous studies concerning the performance and governance processes of public sector development projects in Sri Lanka. Two hundred and seven papers were subjected to an interpretive approach to contextualize the research theme's significance and relevance (Ihuah et al., 2014). The thematic analysis was then performed to identify and describe implicit or overt patterns in the content of the selected papers (Ismail et al., 2021). To ensure a robust literature review, online scholarly databases such as Emerald, Elsevier, Science Direct, and Springer were meticulously searched. Out of the retrieved papers, those specifically related to project governance and the performance of public sector development projects werecarefully selected [90 papers] for thorough analysis. Subsequently, thematic areas were identified through abstracts, literature context, and keywords such as "Project Governance", "Project Governance Practices", "Project Performance", and "Public Sector Development Projects" to filter out gaps specific to the Sri Lankan context. The researcher employed a three-phased strategy for the literature review process: retrieving relevant articles from databases, eliminating irrelevant papers through filtering, and assessing the selected articles based on their alignment with the study'saims and analytical framework. Finally, the findings from the literature review were synthesized to address and bridge the empirical gap of the study.

4.   Analysis and Discussion

Creating a more effective project governance framework for the Sri Lankan public sector development projects involve tailoring a system that addresses the specific needs, challenges, and context of the country. In response to the unique characteristics of the Sri Lankan public sector development projects, there is a pressing need for an enhanced project governance framework. This framework aims to improve the efficiency, transparency, and accountability of project management, ensuring successful outcomes in line with national development goals. Adaptation of an effective project governance framework to the Sri Lankan context are two things that the project governors should concentrate extraordinarily as; to consider cultural, social, and economic nuances in the design of the framework to ensure relevance and acceptance, and to collaborate with local experts and stakeholders to tailor governance practices to the specific needs and challenges of Sri Lanka.

Therefore, the development and implementation of a more effective project governance framework for the Sri Lankan public sector development projects require a holistic approach. By addressing the unique characteristics of the country and incorporating best practices in project management, the framework can contribute to the successful and sustainable realization of development objectives. Developing economies worldwide strive to achieve incremental progress in enhancing their public sectors (Jałocha et al., 2014). Irfan et al. (2019) emphasize that countries consistently adopt various techniques to identify their strengths and opportunities, aiming to accelerate their development endeavors for the betterment of their communities. This empirical project has gained significant attention, leading to multiple efforts to expedite the overall development process and optimize resource utilization. By implementing project-based strategies under stringent control mechanisms and leveraging their extensive infrastructural potential (Irfan et al., 2019), these economies seek to achieve sustained development growth and pave the way for economic and social prosperity (Badewi, 2021) beyond the present times.

Developed nations have successfully achieved their development objectives by employing efficient project management and project governance methods (Lawani & Moore, 2016). In contrast, developing nations, including Sri Lanka, face challenges in managing public sector development initiatives effectively (Ika et al., 2012). Sri Lanka aspires to become the "Wonder of Asia" through various economic development strategies, emphasizing ports, shipping, aviation, tourism promotion, and industrial development to position itself as a regional hub for growth and

investment (Central Bank of Sri Lanka, 2021). To attain rapid growth and connectivity with the global economy, infrastructure expansion through well- planned public sector development strategies is essential (Jeyakanthan & Jayawardene, 2012). Collaborations with developed economies have been instrumental in enhancing Sri Lanka's development efforts, improving exchanges within communities, and overcoming resource transfer obstacles (Kodithuwakku, 2022). However, challenges persist, including limited financial resources, lack of standards and capacity, and political interference, hindering the efficient execution and performance of public sector development projects (Abednego & Ogunlana, 2006). The Department of Project Management and Monitoring oversees various infrastructure development projects, reflecting the public sector's commitment to economic growth (Khan et al., 2021). Nevertheless, projects often face difficulties due to poor planning, unclear scopes and goals, role ambiguities, and procurement delays (Ahmad et al., 2014).

These challenges result in incomplete projects, with a significant number failing to reach completion due to inadequate planning and procurement delays (Jeyakanthan & Jayawardene, 2012). To promote economic growth and prosperity, it is crucial for Sri Lanka to focus on effective governance, logical planning, clear scopes and objectives, and efficient resource allocation and procurement in public sector development projects (Khan et al., 2021; Ismail et al., 2021). By addressing these issues and strengthening project governance, Sri Lanka can better fulfil its development goals and create a thriving public sector infrastructure for the benefitof its people and economy.

The performance of public sector development projects in Sri Lanka has been a focal point of efforts, with various standardized methodologies and approaches employed in developed countries (Gunawardhane et al., 2021; Ismail et al., 2021). However, the existing project governance procedures in Sri Lanka and Pakistan have been deemed inadequate, necessitating the adoption of logical project governance frameworks to mitigate delays, subpar performance, and project failure (Ismail et al., 2021). To enhance project success, it is essential to report progress within the specified planning framework to allocate work responsibilities effectively among relevant authorities and governors (Bernardo, 2014). Implementing an efficient communication network within and outside the projects, resource mapping, risk planning, and project team cohesion are crucial requirements to reduce project failure and achieve optimal performance in Sri Lanka's public sector development projects (Jeyakanthan & Jayawardene, 2012).

Project-driven businesses depend on essentialism to thrive and achieve strategic goals, emphasizing the importance of good governance (Haq et al., 2019). To bridge the gaps and ensure project success, it is imperative to strengthen project governance by incorporating well-structured frameworks and methodologies in Sri Lanka's public sector development projects. This will enhance efficiency, effectiveness, and overall project outcomes, leading to sustainable development and prosperity in the country.

Based on an empirical examination of the literature, it is evident that project governance plays a crucial role, particularly in the context of public sector development projects, as a mediator between the project-driven framework and project administration (Irfan et al., 2019). All stakeholders involved, including the project team and various management levels, must diligently fulfil their duties and responsibilities, utilizing project resources in line with the project's scope, cost, and work breakdown structure (Abdul-Azis et al., 2013). To ensure compliance with legal and structural mandates, particularly in the public sector governed by national constitutions, effective control measures must be implemented (Zwikael & Meredith, 2018).

Conceptualizing project governance is essential to achieve targeted project results, transparency, and the realization of strategic goals, thus improving project performance (Maddaloni & Davis, 2017; Zuofa & Ochieng, 2014). The review revealed that the Sri Lankan public sector scholars have not fully explored the role of project governance (Jeyakanthan & Jayawardene, 2012) and its impact on performance in public sector development initiatives (Kodithuwakku, 2022). In addition, the review identified key factors contributing to poor performance or project failure in Sri Lanka, such as delays in third-party confirmations and approvals, land acquisitions, contractor performance, material shortages, procurement delays, public protests, and issues with financing and treasury management (Bandara, 2015). Addressing these challenges and enhancing project governance practices will be instrumental in achieving successful outcomes and sustainable development in Sri Lanka's public sector projects (Wang et al., 2021).

5.   Conclusions and Implications

Project governance is crucial for the success of public sector development projects in Sri Lanka. Research shows that effective practices prioritize stakeholder satisfaction and credibility in decision-making processes. Leveraging project management expertise, standards, procedures, and guidelines is crucial for optimal performance and sustaining progress. In addition, for public sector development efforts in Sri Lanka to reap possible future benefits, a proper project governance system is required. The system will ensure that stakeholders' minority and majority opinions are represented, and it will impart legitimacy to project-related choices. Without effective governance processes, only the most vocal voices are heard, and the likelihood of project failures increases. The suggested project governance framework will aid in the resolution of shortcomings and risks associated with public sector development projects in Sri Lanka. This research effectively addresses the critical gap in the understanding of the relationship between project results and the

early stages of public sector projects by rigorously applying empirical methodologies. It underscores the essential nature of robust project governance in influencing the performance of public sector projects. Public sector projects, being inherently time-sensitive and outcome-driven initiatives undertaken by governments worldwide, play a pivotal role in expediting the delivery of public utilities and essential goods and services, all funded by taxpayers'money. A comprehensive empirical analysis also sheds light on the pressing needfor effective project governance, particularly within the context of developing countries. Consequently, this study represents a significant contribution to the ongoing discourse on the importance of project governance in enhancing the performance of public sector projects, and it does so by offering a thorough and enlightening exploration of these dynamics through early-stage research. This qualitative research endeavor holds the potential to significantly augment the existing theoretical and empirical knowledge base, building upon prior research findings. By delving deeper into the intricacies of project governance practices, this study offers an opportunity to enhance our comprehension of this critical area and expand the insights into project-oriented institutions. Notably, it helps reconcile certain contradictions that have been identified within the body of previous literature, thus promoting a more cohesive and coherent understanding of the subject matter.

A comprehensive project governance system is crucial in Sri Lanka to ensure optimal project performance and successful execution of public sector development projects. Key stakeholders should be actively involved in project activities, and timely approvals and recommendations from relevant line agencies are essential. Efficient procurement processes are vital to minimize delays and impacts. Collaboration with project beneficiaries is essential in preparing bid documents and defining scope of work. Political influences can hinder project objectives, so rigorous post-monitoring and evaluation by funding and executing agencies are necessary. Cost-benefit analyses should be conducted during project planning, and the National Planning Department of Sri Lanka must evaluate projects to avoid duplication and ensure effective resource allocation. Regular updates to guidelines, methodologies, and regulations promote good governance and prevent malpractices. Alternative methodologies should be explored to cope with delays and ensure timely completion. Stakeholder voices should be represented, and project staffing should be adequately planned and qualified. Safety and welfare considerationsshould be considered when planning project timelines. Independence from political interference is essential for achieving project objectives.

This evaluation serves as a catalyst for advancing additional research on project governance procedures within public-sector development projects across other developing nations. Nevertheless, it is imperative to acknowledge certain limitations

inherent in this study. The researcher conducted this investigation primarily relying on published research evidence, lacking direct observations of the tangible outcomes of the projects under scrutiny. Moreover, in the context of data collection and analysis, there exist inherent constraints specific to individual countries or projects, hindering a comprehensive overview of the actual conditions. These restrictions are instrumental in identifying research gaps and underscore the necessity for further studies aimed at devising targeted solutions. Henceforth, it is imperative to strategically plan a more pragmatic study to deepen the comprehension of the governance framework within project-based organizations. This endeavor aims to enhance our insight into project governance practices and foster a more comprehensive understanding of their dynamics. In addition, further research is needed to explore the role of project governance in the Sri Lankan context and other developing nations' projects.

Therefore, further research is needed aiming to provide a comprehensive understanding of this critical topic by exploring the sides including; the effectiveness of project governance mechanisms and structures in place in Sri Lanka's public sector projects in terms of oversight, decision-making, and resource allocation, development and refining performance metrics to accurately measure the success and economic, social, and environmental impact of public sector development projects, understanding of how different stakeholders, such as government bodies, local communities, and international organizations, influence project outcomes, and assessing projects across different sectors, regions, or timeframes to identify best practices and areas for improvement. In addition, attention should be given to explore the possibilities to investigate the challenges faced in implementing effective project governance and what types of suggestions to overcome these challenges and enhance project performance to overcome these challenges and enhance project performance of the public sector in Sri Lanka. Furthermore, the future research may focus to explore how well-governed projects affect the socioeconomic development of Sri Lanka contributing to poverty reduction, job creation, infrastructure development, and other key development goals under the trendiness of appropriate legal and regulatory enforcements with the applicability of the studies, knowledge and exposure sharing initiatives, and project sustainability from the international context. By exploring into these areas, future research can shed light on the elaborate impact of project governance and the performance of public sector development projects in Sri Lanka, providing valuable insights for policymakers, practitioners, and scholars aiming to enhance the effectiveness and impact of such projects.

References

Aaltonen, K., & Sivonen, R. (2009). Response strategies to stakeholder pressures in global projects. *International Journal of Project Management*, *27*(2), 131–141. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2008.09.007

Abdul-Azis, A. A., Memon, A. H., Rahman, I. A., & Abd. Karim, A. T. (2013). Controlling Cost Overrun Factors in Construction Projects in Malaysia. *Research Journal of Applied Sciences, Engineering and Technology*, *5*(8), 2621–2629. https://doi.org/10.19026/rjaset.5.4706

Abednego, M. P., & Ogunlana, S. O. (2006). Good project governance for proper risk allocation in public-private partnerships in Indonesia. *InternationalJournal of Project Management*, *24*(7), 622–634. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2006.07.010

Ahmed, R., Mohamad, N. A. B., & Ahmad, M. S. (2014). Effect of multidimensional top management support on project success: An empirical investigation. *Quality & Quantity*, *50*(1), 151–176. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-014-0142-4

Ahola, T., Ruuska, I., Artto, K., & Kujala, J. (2014). What is project governance and what are its origins? *International Journal of Project Management*, *32*(8), 1321–1332. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2013.09.005

Alade, T. A., Bukoye, O. T., Roehrich, J. K., & Edelenbos, J. (2022). Cross-national collaboration in strategic transport projects: The impact on benefits realization. *International Journal of Project Management*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2022.03.009

Aliza, A. H., Stephen, K., & Bambang, T. (2011). The importance of project governance framework in project procurement planning. *Procedia Engineering*, *14*, 1929–1937. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.proeng.2011.07.242

Artto, K., & Kujala, J. (2008). Project business as a research field. *International Journal of Managing Projects in Business*, *1*(4), 469–497. https://doi.org/10.1108/17538370810906219

Artto, K., Kujala, J., Dietrich, P., & Martinsuo, M. (2008). What is project strategy? *International Journal of Project Management*, *26*(1), 4–12. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2007.07.006

Athukorala, P. C., Ginting, E., Hill, H. and Kumar, U. (2017). *The Sri Lankan economy charting a new course*. [online]Available at: https://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/publication/373316/sri-lankan-economy.pdf.

Badewi, A. (2021). When frameworks empower their agents, the effect of organizational project management frameworks on the performance of project managers benefits managers in delivering transformation projects successfully. *International Journal of Project Management*, *40*(2).

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2021.10.005

Bandara, D. (2015). Impact of foreign contractors on development of Sri-Lankan construction industry through technology transfer. *Dl.lib.uom.lk*. http://dl.lib.mrt.ac.lk/handle/123/10694

Bernardo, M. do R. (2014). performance indicators for enhancing governance of projects. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *119*, 55–64. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.009

Biesenthal, C., & Wilden, R. (2014). Multi-level project governance: Trends and opportunities. *International Journal of Project Management*, *32*(8), 1291–1308. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2014.06.005

Bruzelius, N., Flyvbjerg, B., & Rothengatter, W. (2002). Big decisions, big risks. Improving accountability in mega projects. *Transport Policy*, *9*(2), 143– 154. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0967-070x(02)00014-8

Brunet, M. (2018). Governance as practice for major public infrastructure projects: A case of multilevel project governing. *International Journal of Project Management,* XX X-XXX, DOI: 10.1016/j.ijproman.2018.02.007

Brunet, M., & Aubry, M. (2016). The three dimensions of a governance framework for major public projects. *International Journal of Project Management*, *34*(8), 1596–1607. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2016.09.004

Central Bank of Sri Lanka. (2021). *Annual Report 2021 | Central Bank of Sri Lanka*. Www.cbsl.gov.lk.https://www.cbsl.gov.lk/en/publications/economic-and-financial-reports/annual-reports/annual-report-2021

Davis, K. (2017). An empirical investigation into different stakeholder groups perception of project success. *International Journal of Project Management*, *35*(4), 604–617.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2017.02.004

Department of Project Management and Monitoring Progress of Large and Mega Scale Development Projects Second Quarter - Year 2021. (2021). *Publicfinance.lk*. https://publicfinance.lk/en/report/Progress%20_2021Q2_depprojectmanagement

Derakhshan, R., Turner, R., & Mancini, M. (2019). Project governance and stakeholders: a literature review. *International Journal of Project Management*, *37*(1), 98–116. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2018.10.007

Di-Maddaloni, F., & Davis, K. (2017). The influence of local community stakeholders in megaprojects: Rethinking their inclusiveness to improve project performance. *International Journal of Project Management*, *35*(8), 1537–1556. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2017.08.011

Di-Maddaloni, F., & Davis, K. (2018). Project manager's perception of the local communities' stakeholder in megaprojects. An empirical investigation in the UK. *International Journal of Project Management*, *36*(3), 542–565. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2017.11.003

Flyvbjerg, B. (2013). Quality control and due diligence in project management: Getting decisions right by taking the outside view. *International Journal of Project Management*, *31*(5), 760–774. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2012.10.007

Gunawardhane, K. A. P., & Karunasena, G. (2016). Gaps in public procurement process in Sri Lankan construction industry. *Dl.lib.uom.lk*. http://dl.lib.uom.lk/handle/123/17268

Gunawardhane, K. A. P., Sandanayake, Y. G., Karunasena, G. I., & Jayawickrama, T. S. (2021). Problems and related causes of public procurement process to achieve sustainability in developing countries. *Proceedings of the 9th World Construction Symposium 2021 on Reshaping Construction: Strategic, Structural and Cultural Transformations towards the "next Normal."* https://doi.org/10.31705/wcs.2021.40

Haq, S. U., Gu, D., Liang, C., & Abdullah, I. (2019). Project governance mechanisms and the performance of software development projects: Moderating role of requirements risk. *International Journal of Project Management*, *37*(4), 533–548.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2019.02.008

Hjelmbrekke, H., Lædre, O., & Lohne, J. (2014). The need for a project governance body. *International Journal of Managing Projects in Business*, *7*(4), 661–677. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijmpb-03-2013-0012

Ihuah, P. W., Kakulu, I. I., & Eaton, D. (2014). A review of critical project management success factors (cpmsf) for sustainable social housing in Nigeria. *International Journal of Sustainable Built Environment*, *3*(1), 62–71. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijsbe.2014.08.001

Irfan, M., Hassan, M., & Hassan, N. (2019). The Effect of Project Management Capabilities on Project Success in Pakistan: An Empirical Investigation. *IEEE Access*, *7*, 39417–39431. https://doi.org/10.1109/access.2019.2906851

Ika, L. A., Diallo, A., & Thuillier, D. (2012). Critical success factors for World Bank projects: An empirical investigation. *International Journal of Project Management*, *30*(1), 105–116. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2011.03.005

Ismail, I., Khan, A., Waris, M., Haron, H., & Simamora, B. H. (2021). Exploring the role of project governance and stakeholder management in public sector infrastructure projects. *International Journal of Organizational Business Excellence*, *2*(1). https://doi.org/10.21512/ijobex.v2i1.7141

Jałocha, B., Krane, H. P., Ekambaram, A., & Prawelska-Skrzypek, G. (2014). Key Competences of Public Sector Project Managers. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *119*, 247–256. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.029

Jeyakanthan, J., & Jayawardane, A. K. W. (2012). Mitigating delays in donorfunded road projects in Sri Lanka. *Engineer: Journal of the Institution of Engineers, Sri Lanka*, *45*(1), 65. https://doi.org/10.4038/engineer.v45i1.6950

Jugdev, K., & Müller, R. (2006). A retrospective look at our evolving understanding of project success. *IEEE Engineering Management Review*. https://www.academia.edu/2882994/A_retrospective_look_at_our_evolving_understanding_of_project_success

Khan, A., Waris, M., Ishak, I., Adeleke, A. Q., & Ahmed, I. (2019a). *Conceptual Framework for Project Governance of Public Sector Infrastructure Project in Pakistan*. https://doi.org/10.15405/epsbs.2019.08.8

Khan, A., Waris, M., Ismail, I., Sajid, M. R., Ali, Z., Ullah, M., & Hussain, A. (2019b). Investigating the Practices of Project Governance in Public Sector Infrastructure Program in Pakistan. *Advances in Civil Engineering*, *2019*, 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1155/2019/7436592

Khan, A., Waris, M., Ismail, I., Sajid, M., Ullah, M., & Usman, F. (2019c). Deficiencies in project governance: an analysis of infrastructure development program. *Administrative Sciences*, *9*(1), 9. https://doi.org/10.3390/admsci9010009

Khan, A., Waris, M., Panigrahi, S., Sajid, M. R., & Rana, F. (2021). Improving the Performance of Public Sector Infrastructure Projects: Role of Project Governance and Stakeholder Management. *Journal of Management in Engineering*, *37*(2), 04020112. https://doi.org/10.1061/(asce)me.1943-5479.0000886

Klakegg, O. J., Williams, T., Magnussen, O. M., & Glasspool, H. (2008). Governance frameworks for public project development and estimation. *Project Management Journal*, *39*(1_suppl), S27–S42. https://doi.org/10.1002/pmj.20058

Kodithuwakku, R. (2022). Incorporating sustainable procurement practices in the construction industry in Sri Lanka: Benefits and challenges. *PM World Journal*, *XI*, 2330–4480. https://pmworldlibrary.net/wp-content/uploads/2022/10/pmwj122-Oct2022-Halwatura-Kodithuwakku-sustainable-procurement-in-sri-lanka-construction-industry.pdf

Lawani, A., & Moore, D. (2016). Project Management Practices in Government Organizations of Developing Countries: A Systematic Review. *The International Journal of Business & Management*, *4*(9). http://internationaljournalcorner.com/index.php/theijbm/article/view/127096

Levitt, R. E., Henisz, W. J., W. Richard Scott, & Settel, D. (2010). *Governance Challenges of Infrastructure Delivery: The Case for Socio-Economic Governance Approaches*. https://doi.org/10.1061/41109(373)76

Ma, H., Zeng, S., Lin, H., Chen, H., & Shi, J. J. (2017). The societal governance of megaproject social responsibility. *International Journal of Project Management*, *35*(7), 1365–1377. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2017.01.012

Mazibuko, J. (2007). Enhancing project sustainability beyond donor support. an analysis of grassroots democratisation as a possible alternative. [online] Available at: https://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/2366/dissertation.pdf

McGrath, S. K., & Whitty, S. J. (2015). Redefining governance: from confusion to certainty and clarity. *International Journal of Managing Projects in Business*, *8*(4), 755–787. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijmpb-10-2014-0071

Muller, R., Zhai, L., Wang, A., & Shao, J. (2016). A framework for governance of projects: Governmentality, governance structure and projectification. *International Journal of Project Management*, *34*(6), 957–969. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2016.05.002

Musawir, A. ul, Serra, C. E. M., Zwikael, O., & Ali, I. (2017). Project governance, benefit management, and project success: Towards a framework for supporting organizational strategy implementation. *International Journal of Project Management*, *35*(8), 1658–1672. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2017.07.007

Mutambuki, D. M., & Kabui, A. C. (2022). Effect of resource allocation on service delivery by Water Works Development Agencies in Kenya. *African Journal of Business Management*, *16*(7), 147-156. https://doi:10.5897/AJBM2022.9377

Ochungo, E., & Amollo Odinga, R. (2019). Project Management Readiness: A glimpse into the Troubled Rhetoric and the Expected Delivery of 2020 Priority Action Projects in Africa. *Journal of Business and Management Sciences*, *7*(2), 64–71. https://doi.org/10.12691/jbms-7-2-2

Olsen, B. E., Haugland, S. A., Karlsen, E., & Johan Husøy, G. (2005). Governance of complex procurements in the oil and gas industry. *Journal of Purchasing and Supply Management*, *11*(1), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pursup.2005.03.003

Parnell, G. S., Bresnick, T. A., Tany, S. N., & Eric R, J. (2013). *Handbook of Decision Analysis* (pp. 1–424) [Review of *Handbook of Decision Analysis*]. Published by John Wiley & Sons, Inc., Hoboken, New Jersey. http://library.wbi.ac.id/repository/135.pdf

Rajablu, M., Marthandan, G., & Yusoff, W. F. W. (2014). Managing for Stakeholders: The role of stakeholder-based management in project success. *Asian Social Science*, *11*(3). https://doi.org/10.5539/ass.v11n3p111

Samaratunge, R., & Pillay, S. (2011). Governance in developing countries: Sri Lanka and South Africa Compared. *International Journal of Public Administration*, *34*(6), 389–398.https://doi.org/10.1080/01900692.2011.570003

Scheepers, H., McLoughlin, S., & Wijesinghe, R. (2022). Aligning stakeholders' perceptions of project performance: The contribution of Business Realisation Management. *International Journal of Project Management*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2022.03.002

Shiferaw, A. T., & Klakegg, O. J. (2012). Linking policies to projects: The key to identifying the right public investment projects. *Project Management Journal*, *43*(4), 14–26. https://doi.org/10.1002/pmj.21279

Too, E. G., & Weaver, P. (2014). The management of project management: A conceptual framework for project governance. *International Journal of Project Management*, *32*(8), 1382–1394. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2013.07.006

Turner, R., & Zolin, R. (2012). Forecasting success on large projects: Developing reliable scales to predict multiple perspectives by multiple stakeholders over multiple time frames. *Project Management Journal*, *43*(5), 87–99. https://doi.org/10.1002/pmj.21289

Wang, G., Zhou, K., Wang, D., Wu, G., & Xie, J. (2021). Tensions in governing megaprojects: How different types of ties shape project relationship quality? *International Journal of Project Management*, *39*(7), 799–814. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2021.08.003

Ward, J., De Hertogh, S., & Viaene, S. (2007). Managing Benefits from IS/IT Investments: An Empirical Investigation into Current Practice. *2007 40th Annual Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences (HICSS'07)*. https://doi.org/10.1109/hicss.2007.330

Weerasekara, D. T., Disaratna, V., Withanage, K. T., & Perera, B. A. K. S. (2021). Procurement management in the foreign-funded construction projects implemented in Sri Lanka. *International Journal of Construction Management*, 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1080/15623599.2021.1956674

Yang, X., Wang, L., Zhu, F., & Müller, R. (2021). Prior and governed stakeholder relationships: The key to resilience of inter-organizational projects. *International Journal of Project Management*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2021.10.001

Zaman, U., Khan, M. N., Raza, S. H., & Farías, P. (2022). Fall seven times, stand up eight: Linking project management innovation, project governance, and high-performance work practices to project success. *Frontiers in Psychology*,

13. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.902816

Zuofa, T., & Ochieng, E. G. (2014). Project failure: The way forward and panacea for development. *International Journal of Business and Management*, *9*(11). https://doi.org/10.5539/ijbm.v9n11p59

Zwikael, O., & Meredith, J. R. (2018). Who's who in the project zoo? The ten core project roles. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, *38*(2), 474–492. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijopm-05-2017-0274

Constitutional Provisions for Peace Building: A Qualitative Inquiry of the 1978 Constitution of Sri Lanka

M. S. Dimuthu Kumari
University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka
samamaleed@sjp.ac.lk

Abstract

The term 'peace' encompasses various meanings, from denoting 'the absence of war' to representing 'the establishment of equity'. Societies pursue peace through action-oriented endeavors, institutional mechanisms, and constitutional reforms. Among these, constitutional provisions are crucial in establishing a stable foundation for peace. Consequently, authorities conscientiously incorporate peace- related clauses when formulating or amending constitutions, a widespread global practice in post-conflict contexts. In contrast, despite being a nation marked by conflicts, Sri Lanka has faced criticisms for perceived neglect of 'constitutional peace provisions' even after the civil war. Hence, this paper focused on exploring the coverage of the concept of 'peace', including its comprehensive categories (negative peace, positive peace, and structural peace) within the articles of the 1978 Constitution of Sri Lanka. Commencing with an exploration of critiques surrounding Sri Lanka's post-civil war peace building efforts, the paper proceeds to explain the concept of 'peace', focusing on its broad categories. Finally, each facet of peace is examined through the lens of available constitutional provisions. This paper relies predominantly on secondary data and adopts a document review method. The study concludes that the Constitution of Sri Lanka encompasses numerous clauses targeting 'positive' and 'structural' peace building while remaining silent on 'negative peace'. Consequently, critics who appear uninformed about the broader aspects of the peace concept may be unjust in their assessments of the overall constitutional peace provisions in Sri Lanka. However, the effectivenessof implementing these provisions warrants a separate and detailed analysis.

Keywords: Negative Peace, Positive Peace, Structural Peace, Constitutional Provisions

1. Introduction

Peace is a term connected with many goals and visions of an honorable society (Linda, 2018). People highly recognize it by its absence (Barash & Webel, 2016).

Peace can be defined in a narrower or broader sense (Rummel, 1981). Regarding its conceptual extension, 'peace' indicates 'negative peace,' 'positive peace,' and 'structural peace'. To fully understand the concept, one should understand these different aspects of the term. First, negative peace refers to the 'absence of war or fear of direct violence' (Galtung, 1969), the most fundamental approach. Second, positive peace implies the presence of desirable states, like attitudes, institutions, and systems that create equity and a sustainable, peaceful society (Barash & Webel, 2016). The third category, structural peace, is often merged with positive peace in academic discussions as 'structural positive peace,' denoting the absence of all kinds of indirect discriminations created by the society's culture, systems, and structures (Rummel, 1981).

John Locke described a society where peace and security naturally exist (Munro, 2023). There is, however, no longer a possibility of natural peace in modern complex societies. Social conflicts radically weaken peace (Press.un.org), so the authorities deliberately implement various institutional reforms, constitutional arrangements (Edirisinha, 1998), and action-oriented projects (Chapman et al., 2009) to maintain peace and stability, particularly in post-conflict contexts. Reconstruction efforts at the ground level in war-torn societies, like disarmament, resettlement, and rehabilitation projects, can be identified as action-related peace building projects (De Zeeuw, 2001). In contrast, the formation or modification of institutions that support transitional justice, such as Truth-Revealing Commissions (TRCs) and Human Rights Commissions (HRCs), can be identified as institutional reforms (Dukalskis, 2011). The inclusion, modifications, or exclusions of provisions/chapters of the Constitution can be identified as constitutional reforms (Wahiu, 2011). In the case of deliberate peace efforts, it is indeed imperative to strike a balance among the different reforms mentioned above. When a country lacks such a balance, it usually faces many far-reaching repercussions.

This matter can adequately be understood in Sri Lanka's scenario. Despite many ground-level projects and institutional reforms taken toward peace after the civil war, the international community and some local groups criticize Sri Lanka for the imbalanced nature of its peace building endeavors (Uyangoda, 2007). Being a multi-ethnic and multi-religious country, Sri Lanka has undergone various conflicts, including ethno-nationalist conflicts (1918, 1950, 1983-2009) and ethno-religious conflicts (2014, 2018, 2019) in different parts of the country. Among them, the ethnic conflict between the Tamil minority separatist group and Sinhalese (1983- 2009) was a hard-hit peace and stability in Sri Lanka (Uyangoda, 2007). In response to that prolonged ethnic clash, different ruling parties in Sri Lanka have tried various action-related peace attempts and institutional reforms to bring national unity back (Edirisinha, 1998). Though the effectiveness of those efforts remains questioned, and the commitment is diverse across different ruling regimes, it is necessary to showcase

the efforts that Sri Lanka has taken. For instance, numerous institutional reforms have been introduced in Sri Lanka after the civil war (Keerawella et al., 2022), such as the Lessons Learned & Reconciliation Commission (LLRC) (2010) (Wedagedara, 2012), the Office of Missing Persons (OMP) (2018), the Office of National Unity and Reconciliation (ONUR) (2015), the   Bureau of the Commissioner-General of Rehabilitation, the Consultation Task Force on Reconciliation Mechanism. Moreover, numerous rehabilitations, resettlement, disarmament, land release, cultural, and educational projects (Keerawella et al., 2022) are evident for the 'action-oriented peace building attempts' after the conflict in Sri Lanka.

However, there are growing debates about the need for more constitutional reforms to establish peace in Sri Lanka. For instance, Goodland (2010) mentions that many peace building attempts in Sri Lanka are mere political promises. The national peace building and reconciliation process in Sri Lanka has primarily focused on limited institutional reforms and political reformations (Wakkumbura & Wijegoonawardana, 2018). The psychological well-being of individuals traumatized during the war has yet to be tackled (Jayawickreme et al., 2012). The grievances of minorities have not been adequately dealt with in the Sri Lankan peace building process (Hoglund & Orjuela, 2013). Sri Lanka's peace building process has been detached from the mainstream political process and has remained unregulated (Uyangoda, 2013). Further, seven years after the war's end, reconciliation and accountability issues still need to be addressed in Sri Lanka (International Crisis Group, 2016). These critiques imply that it is necessary to simultaneously keep working on action-oriented peace projects, institutional reforms, and 'constitutional solutions' to establish stable peace in post-conflict societies.

There is a devoted relationship between 'peace' and 'law' in any society (Dulles, 1959; Rummel, 1981). The Constitution and its articles are prominent among all other laws since it is considered the supreme law of any country (IDEA, 2011). The design of the Constitution, the constitutional making process, and its provisions are integral parts of the peace and security of a State (Dulles, 1959). Particularly in post-conflict societies, the Constitution has become the cornerstone of all peace building efforts (Alif, 2014) to unite and secure the different social groups. As the Bergh of Foundation (2020) the issues regarding constitutional provisions lie at the heart of many internal conflicts in the countries. This situation can be further confirmed by highlighting the constitutional issues that affected the peace processes of countries such as Bosnia, Burundi, Guatemala, the Central African Republic, South Africa, and Nepal (Bergh of Foundation, 2020; Bell & Fulscher, 2016).

However, the constitutions of many countries contain statements related to peace, often emphasizing national and international peace, stability, and conflict resolution.

principles. To illustrate, Article 9 of the Constitution of Japan, renounces using war to settle international disputes and declares that Japan will never maintain military forces for aggressive purposes (Constitution of Japan, 1947). Article 12 of Costa Rica's Constitution abolishes the country's army. It declares that Costa Rica will forever quit using force to settle disputes between nations, and they are committed to maintaining a peaceful nation with the principle of demilitarization (Constitution of Costa Rica, 1949). The preamble of South Africa's Constitution emphasizes principles of peace, justice, and reconciliation following the end of apartheid, and it sets the tone for the entire Constitution and highlights these principles (Constitution of South Africa, 1949). The Preamble to the Irish Constitution also expresses a desire to promote the common good, intending to secure the welfare and dignity of individuals and the nation's unity (Constitution of Ireland, 1937). Section 2 of Article II of the Constitution of the Philippines includes provisions that reject war as an instrument of national policy and promote the peaceful settlement of international disputes (Constitution of Philippines, 1987). Article 9 of the Austrian Constitution emphasizes the country's commitment to peace and international cooperation, stating that 'Austria declares her permanent neutrality and will not join any military alliances nor permit any foreign military base in her territory' (Constitution of Austria, 2004). The examples above are merely a few, but many more have attempted to maintain peace and stability through constitutional provisions.

The additional examples below showcase how various countries embed peace-related principles within their constitutional frameworks, reflecting commitment to peaceful relations, stability, and conflict resolution in the national and international arena. However, whether the constitutional provisions can help 'peace' is an open question; thus, controversies exist. Nonetheless, writing a new constitution or amending the existing articles has been popular advice of many international organizations and a common practice in many conflict-affected countries. The table below exhibits a few examples.

Table 1: Countries adopted new constitutions/ amended constitutional provisions after political or social (ethnic/religious) conflicts.

Country	Year	Reason/s	New/ Amendments	Reforms Focused
Germany	1949	After World War II, Germany adopted a new constitution- the Basic Law (Grundgesetz), in 1949 (Spevack, 1997).	New Constitution	To prevent the emergence of authoritarianism and promote democracy, human rights, and the rule of law.
Liberia	1986	Liberia adopted a new constitution after years of civil war andconflict (AmnestyInternational, 1997).	New Constitution	To address issues with governance, democracy, and human rights.
Sierra Leone	1991	After a brutal civil war, Sierra Leone adopted a new constitution (IDEA-Constitution Net, 2016).	New Constitution	To promote democracy, human rights, and the rule of law.
Cambodia	1993	After the fall of the Khmer Rouge regime and years of conflict, Cambodia adopted a new constitution. UN Peacekeeping (1993).	New Constitution	To establish a liberal democracy, protect human rights, and promote national reconciliation.
Bosnia	1995	Bosnia adopted a new constitution as a part of the Dayton Agreement, aiming to establish a complex power-sharing arrangement to promote peace and	New Constitution	To establish a complex power-sharing arrangement to promote peace and stability.

		stability (Tzifakis, 2007).		
East Timor	2002	East Timor adopted a new constitution after a long struggle for independence and conflict. Garrison, 2005).	New Constitution	To establish separation of powers, Protect and promote human rights, and reconciliation.
Rwanda	2003	Following the genocide in 1994, Rwanda adopted a new constitution (IDEA-Constitution Net, 2016).	New Constitution	To emphasize power-sharing mechanisms and prohibit hate speech.
Iraq	2005	Iraq adopted a new constitution after the fall of Saddam Hussein's regime and subsequent conflicts (Phillips, 2005).	New Constitution	To establish a democratic, federal state that protected various religious and ethnic groups.
Nepal	2015	After a decade-long civil conflict, Nepal adopted a new constitution (UN Constitutional, 2016).	New Constitution	To address representation, identity, and federalism issues.
Indonesia	1999 - 2002	The amendments reinforced Indonesia's national identity, religious pluralism, and regional autonomy (Suharto, 2020).	Amendments	To reinforce Indonesia's national identity, religious pluralism, and regional autonomy.
Pakistan	2010	Apart from other reforms, Pakistan addressed long-	Amendments	To reflect the linguistic and cultural diversity of those regions better.

		standing linguistic and cultural diversity issues in some regions (Ahamad, 2010).		
Afghanistan	2004	After decades of conflicts with the Taliban group, Afghanistan amended its constitution, highlighting ethnic and regional balances through power sharing (Adeney, 2008).	Amendments	To establish post-Taliban reconstructions, which included ethnic and regional balances through power-sharing.
Thailand	1991 - 2007	After a series of political conflicts, Thailand revised its constitution in several years: 1991, 1997, 2006, and 2007 (IDEA-Constitution Net, 2016).	Amendments	To enhance the democratic principles and political issues. Changing the structure of the Senate and the electoral system was the focus.
Myanmar	2008	These amendments focused on transitioning from military to civilian government and addressing long-standing ethnic conflicts (IDEA-Constitution Net, 2016).	Amendments	To create a transition from military to civilian government and to address long-standing ethnic conflicts.

Source: Based on the literature

The above table shows that many countries have tried to adopt a new constitution or amend the existing one to respond to the root causes of conflicts. However, being a conflict-affected country, Sri Lanka's approach was different. Instead of constitutional revisions, Sri Lanka has tried many action-oriented peace efforts and

institutional reforms. Hence, it has been criticized for lacking constitutional treatments to address future ethnic issues (Wakkumbura & Wijegoonawardana,2017; Hoglund & Orjuela, 2013; International Crisis Group, 2016).

However, the term 'peace' is a more profound and vast spreading concept than it appears on the surface. It encompasses many ideas, from the 'absence of war' to the 'establishment of equity'. Though the post-conflict constitutional revisions are lacking, the initial constitutional provisions in the Constitution of Sri Lanka might cover those implicit aspects of the peace concept (positive peace, negative peace, and structural peace) from the beginning. Therefore, it is worthwhile to deeply examine how far the broad meaning of the 'peace' concept is reflected through the constitutional provisions in a particular country. Since Sri Lanka is already subjected to many criticisms about the absence of direct constitutional amendments focusing on peace, this paper attempts to understand how the initial constitutional provisions support the concept of 'peace' in a broader sense referring to the Constitution of Sri Lanka. Accordingly, the study tries to answer the following research questions: To what extent do the initial provisions of the Constitution of Sri Lanka reflect the concept of 'Peace' (with its broader categories)?

2.   Literature Review

Peace, like many other social conditions, is difficult to define. It is a fluid concept connected with many goals and visions of an honorable society (Linda, 2018). The famous peace scholar Galtung (1976) coined the term 'peace' in his work titled, 'Three Approaches to Peace: Peacekeeping, Peacemaking, and Peacebuilding'. Since then, this has been philosophically, religiously, culturally, and politically taken in literature (Webel, 2007), yet the precise meaning of peace and its constituents is unclear (Anna et al., 2010). Some people find the 'philosophy' of peace is still in its infancy (Webel, 2007).

The concept of peace is often explained along with the idea of 'conflict,' usually known as the conflict perspective of peace (Galtung, 1996; Rummel, 1981; Richmond, 2010). Boulding (2002) describes peace as a situation where humans coexist nonviolently, creatively fulfilling all their potential. Ceadel (2003) explains peace as an armed truce. However, some authors have tried to identify this concept holistically. Lederach (1997) identifies peace as a dynamic social construct, and he considers it as a continuing process moving from negative to positive situations in terms of relations, behavior, attitudes, and structures. In support of his idea, Anna et al. (2019) recognized peace as a complex, dynamic process rather than an end state. According to Miller and King (2003), peace is a political condition that ensures justice and social stability through formal and informal institutions, practices, and norms. However, the most popular Western view of peace is the absence of violence, whereas many Eastern works of literature identify peace as the highest value of humanity (Rummel, 1981).

In contemporary academic discourses, the meaning of peace has been altered into the realms of 'peace education' (Bar-Tal, 2002; Bar-Tal & Rosen, 2009; Navarro-Castro & Nario-Galace, 2019; Galtung, 2008; UNESCO, 2008; Davies, 2005), 'peace organizations' and 'peace aid' (Mearsheimer, 1995; Martin & Simmons, 1998; Rosenau & Ernst-Otto, 1992; Rosenau & Czempiel, 1995 cited by Boehmeret al., 2004; Aoi, 2007), 'peace culture' (Boulding, 2002; Bonta, 1993; UNESCO, 1996), and many more. Some scholars have discussed various categories of peace, like negative or positive, at macro and micro levels, and inner and outer peace (Smoker & Groff, 1996). While all categories have their unique contextual value, the following section briefly outlines details, particularly on the negative, positive, and structural peace.

2.1. Understanding of Negative, Positive, and Structural Peace

Peace can be understood either in a narrow sense or a broader sense. As noted by Paul (2016), 'negative peace,' the narrow understanding, lessens the meaning of peace to merely an absence of war, while 'positive peace,' the broader understanding, widens the meaning of peace as a lack of war often supplemented byadditional elements which make peace constructive, just, and democratic. Galtung (1969, 1976, 1990) has repeatedly emphasized points in peace literature to validate this distinction between negative and positive peace. Peace is regularly defined or determined negatively. Negative peace describes peace in terms of 'what is not rather than what is". Hence, negative peace is shown to be pessimistic (Grewal, 2003). It has historically been defined as the absence of warand other forms of violent human conflicts (Galtung, 1969, 1976, 1996; Galtung etal., 2002). Negative peace is interpreted as the absence of bloodshed and war (Leshem & Halperina, 2020). It is also known as the absence of the fear of violence(Webel, 2007). This is a very primary level understanding of peace, but peace in thereal world is a much broader concept than this. Some people call it weak peace; at times of weak peace, peace is a background condition for social existence in generaland personal happiness; something is taken for granted – until it is no longer present(Webel, 2007). Hence, negative peace can be understood as 'peace without justice'. In this context, the term 'positive peace' is vital to realize the holistic idea behind peace. Positive peace attempts to achieve peace peacefully (Galtung, 2007). It is preventive and optimistic (Grewal, 2003) and promotes attitudes, institutions, andstructures to build peace (IEP, 2020). Hence, positive peace is identified as a situation that is created with friendship, solidarity, and harmony (Leshman &Helparin, 2020). 'Positive' peace denotes the simultaneous presence of many desirable states of mind and society, such as harmony, justice, and equity. Positive peace is not a static state but a dynamically conceived aim of international and national communities (Galtung, 1996), and it is characterized by the

presence of harmonious social relations and the integration of human society (Galtung, 1969). Due to this, some authors have claimed that the perfect realization of positive peace is just a utopia. However, when negative peace is considered, the absence of direct violence widens the meaning of peace as the 'absence of both direct and indirect violence created by the society and culture. However, Anna et al. (2019) explain that positive and negative categories of peace can no longer explain the different real-world situations of peacebuilding in post-war societies. In support, some literature (Christie et al., 2001; Tatshushi, 2015; Jason, 2015) discusses positive peace as structural peace, emphasizing the indirect violence created by social structures, systems, and culture. With this tendency, the term 'structural peace' is often used in literature yet highlights the socially constructed indirect violence. As noted by Christie et al. (2001), structurally peaceful social systems are marked by equitably distributed decision powers in the production, allocation, and utilization of economic, political, and cultural resources, and they describe a properly ordered socio-political context. Therefore, the term 'structural peace' is necessary to understand the broader meaning of peace.

3.   Methodology

This qualitative study used the document review method. This paper is mainly based on the Constitution of Sri Lanka and selected a few other countries. Some other printed and electronically stored materials (books, research articles, newspaper articles, and policy documents) were also reviewed and used as additional documents to extract meaningful insights into the research objective. In selecting the documents, the author carefully observed their alignment with the research focus, considering the criteria of relevance, being recent, and credibility of the document. For example, in selecting the constitutions, the conflict-affected countries were considered since they are highly relevant to this study; also, the researcher tried to find the constitutions officially published by each country's government to ensure data credibility. The main steps of the document review method suggested by Bowen (2009), data skimming (rapid general review of selected documents), data scanning (rapid, thorough reading to find specific facts), and interpretation of data were applied in this study, too. The researcher immersed herself in the texts in all three stages to understand underlying meanings, themes, and contradictions. During interpretations, the researcher identified, extracted, and categorized the documents' codes (chapters, passages, and articles of the Constitution) to support their arguments. The article write-up is arranged based on the key themes of the study, 'the negative peace, positive peace, and structural peace' and the status of their reflections within the Constitution of Sri Lanka. The abstracted articles of the Constitution supported each section. In preparing the final narrative of the paper, the selected document contents were synthesized with the researcher's explanations and arguments.

4.   Analysis and Discussion

4.1.   Constitutional Amendments of Sri Lanka after the Civil War

The Constitution of Sri Lanka, officially known as the 'Constitution of the Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka,' has undergone significant transformations since gaining independence from the British Empire. The country adopted two constitutions in 1972 and 1978, respectively, with the latter, the 1978 Constitution, currently in practice. Remarkably, as of February 2023, it has been formally amended 21 times. After the end of the civil war in 2009, four amendments to the Constitution were made, respectively, in 2010 (18th Amendment), 2015 (19th Amendment), 2020 (20th Amendment), and 2022 (21st Amendment) (Parliament of Sri Lanka, 2023).

However, ethnic matters were directly considered only on one occasion during the constitutional amendments in Sri Lanka after the civil war. That was through the 19th Amendment in 2015, which focused on enhancing national reconciliation. However, the many constitutional provisions introduced by the 19th Amendment, including 'national reconciliation,' were repealed by the next government by introducing the 20th Amendment. Hence, none of the above four amendments discuss peace or reconciliation-related provisions. Although no direct peace-related clauses were included in constitutional amendments after the civil war, the following section discusses how the initial constitutional provisions support the negative, positive, and structural peace in the Sri Lankan context.

4.2.   Negative Peace and Constitutional Provisions

Negative peace is interpreted as the absence of bloodshed and war. It is also known for the absence of fear of violence (Galtung, 2008). This is a very primary level understanding of peace. In some countries, the state's bearing on the negative peace is directly expressed by its constitution, as explained in the introduction section of this article. By glancing at the constitutional statements, one can decide whether that country is oriented towards pacifism, militarism, or defencism. Pacifism refers to one's commitment to peace while opposing war (Fiala, 2006). Thee (1977) states that militarism is a political ideology that uses military methods to gain power and achieve its goals. Defencism usually justifies using military forces to protect their country from external invasions and undue influences. For instance, Article 9 of the Constitution of Japan clearly expresses that they reject all kinds of war and violence within and outside the country. Article 9 refers actively and explicitly to negative peace as the absence of organized state violence, which shows their orientation towards pacifism. Unlike militarism or defencism, pacifism often claims that all kinds

of disputes should be settled peacefully, and that war is unjustifiable by all means. However, no direct and clear statements regarding 'negative peace' can be found in the Constitution of Sri Lanka relating to local or international contexts. The Constitution has 24 chapters, yet, except for some indirect statements (Article 33, Chapter VII), no specific area explains the constitutional provisions regarding war or peace. Therefore, this constitution is silent about the State's orientation towards pacifism and militarism ideologies. However, one can claim that Sri Lanka is in the interest of 'defencism' by quoting the implicit meaning of the article below.

> *Sri Lanka (Ceylon) is a Free, Sovereign, Independent, and Democratic Socialist Republic. - (Article 1, Chapter I)*

Because, in the case of defencism, the countries' war efforts are considered fair and just, focusing on the defense and safety of their own country. Such countries, who highly admire internal sovereignty, do not hesitate to admit war and violence to protect their state from its enemies. The Constitution has stated that 'committing to the national interest' and 'fostering national unity' are among the fundamental duties of the Sri Lankan people. Therefore, one can claim that citizens must support the war if the state decides to fight against enemies, particularly in the case of protecting the country from external threats.

> *'It is the duty of every person in Sri Lanka........(b) to further the national interest and to foster national unity. - (Article 28, Chapter VI)*

However, some constitutional provisions stated that Sri Lanka supports international peace and security. The following article will be a sound example of that.

> *The State shall promote international peace, security, cooperation, and the establishment of a just and equitable international economic and social order and shall endeavor to foster respect for international law and treaty obligations in dealings among nations. (Article 27 (15), Chapter VI)*

Although the Constitution of Sri Lanka contains provisions promoting unity and harmony, it does not extensively cover the concept of 'negative peace'. There is no explicit guidance regarding disarmament or a defined military policy. Discussions about violence prevention are not directly included in the Constitution. However, it does grant the Executive President the authority to declare war and peace, as mentioned in the below article.

> *'The President shall have the power to declare war and peace'.*
> *(Article 33, Chapter VII)*

Hence, it empowers the President to make situational decisions regarding declaring war or peace. In this context, ceasefires serve as a tool to establish negative peace. In Sri Lankan history, former leaders have practiced this granted power regarding war and peace in different situations. For example, using Article 32 of the Constitution, in 2002, President Chandrika Kumaranatunga declared a ceasefire with the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE) terrorist group. Further, a peace movement known as "Sudu Neluma" was launched by President Kumarathunga to reach ethnic reconciliation between Sinhalese and Tamil Communities at the grassroots level. Moreover, utilizing this constitutional power, in 2008, President Rajapaksha declared continuous battle until the end of the war in 2009. However, it is noteworthy that different political parties have different agendas for peace and reconciliation in Sri Lanka. For instance, the government made by the UnitedNational Party (UNP) and the Sri Lanka Freedom Party (SLFP) alliance introduced 'national reconciliation and ethnic integration' as one of the functions of the Executive President through the 19th Amendment to the Constitution (Article 33(1) (b) in the 19th Amendment to the Constitution). However, the next government (Sri Lanka Podujana Peramuna - SLPP), which came to power in 2019, repealed that entire article by introducing the 20th Amendment to the Constitution. Accordingly, promoting national unity and reconciliation no longer remains one of the duties of the Executive President after the 20th Amendment. The behavior of some political parties shows that they are rather ethnocentric, and 'reconciliation and integration' are not on their priority list.

4.3. Positive Peace and Structural Peace and Constitutional Provisions

Positive peace refers to the state of societal harmony characterized by the absence of structural violence and the presence of conditions that foster justice, equity, and well-being. It goes beyond the absence of conflict, emphasizing the creation of a positive and inclusive environment. In the Sri Lankan context, numerous indirect statements of the Constitution contribute to the control of structural inequalities, thereby aiding in establishing positive and structural peace. The following article helps establish positive peace where friendship and brotherhood are promoted. The Constitution has recognized 'freedom of speech, assembly, association, and movements' as the fundamental rights of the Sri Lankan people. Therefore, this provision might support creating friendship, brotherhood, and unity among the different groups in society.

> *Every citizen is entitled to – (a) the freedom of speech, (b) the freedom of peaceful assembly, (c) the freedom of association, (h) the freedom of movement (Article 14, Chapter III).*

Structural peace requires avoiding 'structural violence,' which can be posed through economic, gender, health, and racial disparities. Since Sri Lanka is a multi-ethnic nation, establishing equality through the law by avoiding various system disparities is extremely important. Hence, the Constitution seems to have provided adequate provisions to enhance structural peace rather than the other two types of peace. The right to equality has been recognized as one of the fundamental rights of Sri Lankan people under Chapter III (Abeysekara, 2010). It has prohibited discrimination against demographic differences among the people. The following constitutional articles provide evidence for the attempts to establish structural peace.

> *All persons are equal before the law and are entitled to the equal protection of the law. - (Article 12 (1), Chapter III).*

> *No citizen shall be discriminated against on the grounds of race, religion, language, caste, sex, political opinion, place of birth, or any one of such grounds. - (Article 12 (2), Chapter III).*

The above articles try to provide equal legal protection to the people where the people will feel the protection of the law similarly. However, these articles seem like just statements in the documents and politicians and elite people taking special privileges over ordinary people. Though constitutional provisions exist, ordinary people hardly receive their protection.

> *No person shall, on the grounds of race, religion, language, caste, sex, or any one of such grounds, be subject to any disability, liability, restriction, or condition concerning access to shops, public restaurants, hotels, places of public entertainment and places of public worship of his religion.*
> *(Article 12 (3), Chapter III).*

However, the laws and provisions regarding religions could be more straightforward since the Constitution mentions some contradictory clauses. In one aspect, articles mention that no discrimination should exist based on religion, race, caste, etc. However, some other articles argue that 'Buddhism' (the religion of the dominant ethnic group) should have priority over other religions.

> *The Republic of Sri Lanka shall give to Buddhism the foremost place, and accordingly, it shall be the duty of the State to protect and foster theBuddha Sasana, while assuring to all religions the rights granted by Articles 10 and 14(1)(e) - (Article 9, Chapter II).*

Sri Lanka is a multilingual country where different ethnic groups use their languages. However, after gaining independence, only the Sinhala language (the Sinhalese people's language) was considered the country's official language, and minority people suffered a lot due to this barrier posed by the 'Sinhala-Only Act' in1956. Hence, in 1987, by amending the Constitution (13th Amendment), the Tamil language was recognized as one of the country's official languages, and English was introduced as the linking language. This law also affected providing justice to the deprived people due to the minority languages.

> *The Official Language of Sri Lanka shall be Sinhala. (Article 18 (4), Chapter III). Tamil shall also be an official language.*
> *(Article 18 (5), Chapter III) - 13th Amendment, 1987*

> *The National Languages of Sri Lanka shall be Sinhala and Tamil.*
> *(Article 19, Chapter III) - 13th Amendment, 1987*

By broadening this privilege further, the Constitution was amended for the 16th time, enabling the usage of both Sinhala and Tamil languages for administrative and legislative affairs in the country.

> *Sinhala and Tamil shall be the languages of administration throughout Sri Lanka, and Sinhala shall be the language of administration and be used for the maintenance of public records and the transaction of all business by public institutions of all the Provinces of Sri Lanka other than the Northern and Eastern Provinces where Tamil shall be so used. - (Article 22, Chapter IV).*

Further, the Constitution has provided directions to the President, Parliament, and Cabinet for establishing a just and free society in Sri Lanka. The following articles provide evidence for that.

> *The Directive Principles of State Policy herein contained shall guide Parliament, the President, and the Cabinet of Ministers in the enactment of laws and the governance of Sri Lanka for the establishment of a just and free society. - (Article 27 (1), Chapter VII)*

The articles below show that the Constitution has attempted to establish economic and social justice within society.

The Democratic Socialist Society has the following objectives including. the establishment of a just social order in which the means of production, distribution, and exchange are not concentrated and centralized in the State, State agencies, or in the hands of a privileged few but are dispersed among and owned by all the People of Sri Lanka; - (Article 27 (2 f), Chapter VI

The State shall eliminate economic and social privilege and disparity and the exploitation of man by man or by the State- (Article 27 (7), Chapter VI.

However, these articles are often criticized just as statements since politicians and elite people are taking special privileges over ordinary people. All the above articles show how far the Constitution of Sri Lanka has attempted to protect positive and structural peace in society, either directly or indirectly. However, critics exist about their adequacy, significance, and implementation success.

5.   Conclusion

As explained above, while subtly incorporating specific provisions that indirectly contribute to peace building, the Constitution of Sri Lanka does not explicitly address the 'negative' peace. Despite lacking a definitive stance on the state's policy concerning peace or war, it adequately touches upon 'positive peace,' encouraging friendship and brotherhood among the people. Additionally, the Constitution features many provisions dedicated to fostering 'structural peace' within society, prohibiting systemic disparities and discrimination.

A comprehensive understanding of peace is crucial for practitioners and academics involved in constitutional reforms. Criticisms of a state's peace building efforts may need more fairness with this broader perspective. Articulating a country's positionon war and peace through constitutional provisions is essential. The Constitution of a state should sufficiently address all aspects of peace-negative, positive, and structural. An expert panel should review constitutional provisions that may disrupt peace and harmony, with necessary modifications implemented in conflict-affected and vulnerable societies, including Sri Lanka. Among all, a genuine commitment of politicians and favorable public attitudes towards peace is of utmost importance, transcending the written provisions of the Constitution.

6.   Further Research Insights and Limitations

Constitutional provisions represent just one aspect of establishing and maintaining 'peace and stability' in a society. Numerous other legal factors also contribute to this goal. A more in-depth examination is suggested to explore a comprehensive framework of laws, commission regulations, institutional circulars, and other legal documents promoting peace and their effectiveness in the Sri Lankan context. Additionally, conducting comparative studies on constitutional peace provisions in countries facing similar or different ethnic issues would provide valuable insights. It is essential to acknowledge the inherent limitations of the document review method, including reliance on textual data, selection bias, interpretation subjectivity, and limited contextual understanding due to the absence of fieldwork during the study.

References

Abeysekara, T. B. (2010). The Need to Expand Sri Lanka's Fundamental Rights Jurisdiction: A Comparative Analysis of the USA, India and Trinidadand Tobago. *Sri Lanka Journal of International Law, 22,* 59. https://jil.law.cmb.ac.lk/wp-content/uploads/2018/07/Vol22-1-3.pdf.

Adeney, K. (2008). Constitutional Design and the Political Salience of Community Identity in Afghanistan: Prospects for the Emergence of Ethnic Conflictsin the Post-Taliban Era. *Asian Survey*, *48*(4), 535–557. https://doi.org/10.1525/as.2008.48.4.535. Retrieved on 20.08.2023.

Ahamad, Z. S. (2010). Tension and Clashes over Renaming the NWFP, *Peace Insight*, Peace Direct. https://www.peaceinsight.org/en/articles/clashes-over-renaming-nwfp/?location=pakistan&theme=. Retrieved on 20.08.2023.

Alif, S. M. (2014). Peace Building in Post War Societies. *Journal of Social Review*, (2)1. Department of Social Sciences. Eastern University, Sri Lanka. https://www.seu.ac.lk/researchandpublications/social_review_fac/V2N1/4%20Article%20Pages%20from%2037%20to%2050.pdf.

Amnesty International. (1997). Liberia-Time to Take Human Rights Seriously - Placing Human Rights on the National Agenda, https://www.amnesty.org/en/wp-content/uploads/2021/06/afr340051997en.pdf. Retrieved on 20.08.2023.

Anna et al. (2019). Three Approaches to Peace - A framework for describing and exploring varieties of peace, *Umea Working Papers in Peace, and Conflict Studies*, (12). Umea University, Swe den.

Aoi, C. (2007). Peace Support Operations: Contemporary Challenges and the Role of Japan, *RIPS Policy Perspectives (*3). Research Institute for Peace and Security .https://www.rips.or.jp/jp/wp-content/uploads/2018/04/RIPS_Policy_Perspectives_No.3.pdf.

Barash, D. P. & Webel, C. P. (2016). The Promise of Peace & the Problems of War. *Peace and Conflict Studies* (3rd ed), 3-18. Sage Publications. https://www.sagepub.com/sites/default/files/upm-binaries/55624_Chapter_1.pdf. Retrieved on 10.02.2023.

Bar-Tal, D. (2002). Peace Education: The Concept, Principles, and Practices Around the World. *The Elusive Nature of Peace Education*. In G. Salomon & B. Nevo. Eds. 27–36. Taylor and Francis.

Bar-Tal, D., & Rosen, Y. (2009). Peace Education in Societies Involved in Intractable Conflicts: Direct and Indirect Models. *Review of Educational Research*, 79(2), 557–575. https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654308330969.

Bell, C. & Fülscher, K. Z. (2016). Sequencing Peace Agreements and Constitutions in the Political Settlement Process. *International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance.* Sweden. https://www.idea.int/sites/default/files/publications/sequencing-peace-agreements-and-constitutions-in-the-political-settlement-process.pdf.

Berghof Foundation. (2020). Constitutions and Peace Processes -A Primer (online) Berlin: Berghof Foundation. https://peacemaker.un.org/sites/peacemaker.un.org/files/2021_ConstitutionsPeaceProcessesPrimer_EN.pdf.

Boehmer, C., Gartzke, E. & Nordstrom, T. (2004). Do Intergovernmental Organizations Promote Peace? *World Politics* (57), 01–38. https://pages.ucsd.edu/~egartzke/publications/57.1boehmer.pdf

Bonta, B. (1993). Peaceful Peoples: An Annotated Bibliography. Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press.

Boulding, E. (2002). Toward a Compassionate Society, Afkhami, M. (Eds). *Women Learning Partnership*, Bethesda, MD 20814, USA. https://learningpartnership.org/sites/default/files/resources/pdfs/copanthology.pdf.

Bowen, G. A. (2009). Document Analysis as a Qualitative Research Method, *Qualitative Research Journal*, *9*(2). 27-40. RMIT. http://www.rmitpublishing.com.au/qrj.html. Retrieved on 7.11.2023.

Britannica Dictionary. (N. D). Militarism, In Britannica.com Dictionary. Retrieved from https://www.britannica.com/dictionary/militarism.

Ceadel, M. (2003). The Quaker Peace Testimony and its Contribution to the British Peace Movement: An Overview, *Quaker Studies*, *7* (1). https://digitalcommons.georgefox.edu/quakerstudies/vol7/iss1/2/.

Chapman, N., Duncan, D., Timberman, D., & Abeygunawardana, K. (n.d.). *Evaluation of Donor-Supported Activities in Conflict-Sensitive Development and Conflict Prevention and Peacebuilding in Sri Lanka Main Evaluation Report.* https://www.oecd.org/countries/srilanka/44138006.pdf?fbclid=IwAR2Ai chbG9qGp-hb5wVZGWrR9xU2IaQPJxTnt5x57_KdMiovFaVmDk1rIs

Christie, D. J., Wagner, R. V., & Winter, D. A. (Eds.). (2001). Peace, Conflict, and Violence: *Peace Psychology for the 21st Century*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall. https://psycnet.apa.org/record/2002-17740- 000.

Davies, L. (2005). Teaching About Conflict Through Citizenship Education. *International Journal of Citizenship and Teacher Education, 1,* 17–34.

De Silva, K. M., & Wriggins, H. (1998). Ethnic Conflict in Sri Lanka: Changing Dynamics. Available at https://www.files.ethz.ch/isn/35338/PS032.pdf

De Zeeuw, J. (2001). Building peace in war-torn societies: From concept tostrategy. https://www.clingendael.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/20010800_cru_paper_d ezeeuw.pdf?fbclid=IwAR1Q9DTUEIUGChuBixqoXGoaHNgW22P0 kV0YF5zrJyqGALdNyeFCoHgC4uQ.

Dukalskis, A. (2011). Interactions in Transition: How Truth Commissions and Trials Complement or Constrain Each Other. *International Studies Review, 13*(3), 432–451. http://www.jstor.org/stable/23016717.

Dulles, J. F. (1959). The Role of Law in Peace. *Section of International and Comparative Law Bulletin*, *3*(2),15–21. http://www.jstor.org/stable/25743184.

Edirisinha, R. (1998). Trying times: Constitutional attempts to resolve armed conflict in Sri Lanka. *Conciliation Resources*. https://www.c-r.org/accord/sri-lanka/trying-times-constitutional-attempts-resolve- armed-conflict-sri-lanka?fbclid=IwAR1I8oSln4HQPFXYZcy-CUaPVhOf7GRXUp2U3UIjTgDw8UwMzPFlLih74p4.

Fiala, A. (2006). Pacifism, *The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy* (2023Edition), Edward N. Zalta & Uri Nodelman (eds.). https://plato.stanford.edu/archives/fall2023/entries/pacifism/. Retrieved on 07.11.2023.

Galtung, J. (1969). Violence, Peace, and Peace Research. *Journal of Peace Research*, *6*(3), 167–191. https://doi.org/10.1177/002234336900600301

Galtung, J. (1976). Three Approaches to Peace: Peacekeeping, Peacemaking, and Peacebuilding, *Peace, War and Defense: Essays in Peace Research, 2*, 297-298.

Galtung, J. (1990). Cultural Violence. *Journal of Peace Research, 27*(3), 291–305. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022343390027003005.

Galtung, J. (1996). Peace by Peaceful Means: Peace and Conflict, Development and Civilization. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781446221631.

Galtung, J. (2008). Form and Content of Peace Education. In Encyclopedia of Peace Education. Teachers College, Columbia University; Encyclopedia ofPeace Education, Teachers College, Columbia University. https://www.tc.columbia.edu/epe/epe-entries/Galtung_ch6_22feb08.pdf. Retrieved on 10.02.2023.

Galtung, J., Carl, G., Jacobsen, Fritj, K. & Jacobsen, B. (2002). *Searching forPeace: The Road to TRANSCEND*. London: Pluto Press.

Garrison. (2005). The role of constitutional building processes in democratization- Case study – East Timor, Democracy Building and Conflict Management, IDEA. https://constitutionnet.org/sites/default/files/cbp_timor-leste.pdf.

Goodhand, J. (2010). Stabilizing a victor's peace? Humanitarian action and reconstruction in Eastern Sri Lanka. *Disasters*, *34*(3). DOI: 10.1111/j.1467-7717.2010.01212.x. Retrieved on 10.02.2023.

Grewal, B. S. (2003). Johan Galtung: Positive and Negative Peace, Building Peace Forum.
https://buildingpeaceforum.com/no/fred/Positive_Negative_peace.pdf

Hoglund, K., & Orjuela, C. (2013). Friction and the pursuit of justice in post-war Sri Lanka. *Peacebuilding*, *1*(3), 300-316.

IDEA-Constitution Net. (2016). Constitutional history of Rwanda. https://constitutionnet.org/country/rwanda#:~:text=It%20was%20adopted%20in%20a,fight%20against%20the%20genocide%20ideology. Retrieved on 20.08.2023.

IDEA-Constitution Net. (2016). Constitutional history of Thailand. https://constitutionnet.org/country/thailand. Retrieved on 20.08.2023.

IDEA-Constitution Net. (2016). The Constitutional Implications of Myanmar's Peace Process. https://constitutionnet.org/news/constitutional- implications- myanmars-peace-process.

Institute of Economics and Peace (IEP). (2020). *Positive Peace Report 2020: Analyzing the factors that sustain peace*. https://www.economicsandpeace.org/. Retrieved on 20.08.2023.

International Crisis Group. (2016). Sri Lanka: Jumpstarting the Reform Process, Peace Justice and Reconciliation. https://www.crisisgroup.org/asia/south-asia/sri-lanka/278-sri-lanka-jumpstarting-reform-process. Retrieved on 20.08.2023.

International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA). (2011). *Constitution Building After the Conflict*, Bulls Graphics, Sweden. https://www.idea.int/sites/default/files/publications/constitution- building-after-conflict.pdf. Retrieved on 20.08.2023.

Jason, A. (2015). Structural and Cultural Violence in Religion and Peacebuilding, in Atalia Omer, R. Scott Appleby, and David Little (eds), *The Oxford Handbook of Religion, Conflict, and Peacebuilding*, Oxford Handbooks Online. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199731640.013.0006, Retrieved on 3 Mar. 2023.

Jayawickreme N., Mooto C., Fountain C., Rasmusen C., & Jayawicreme A. (2017). Post-conflict struggles as networks of problems: A network analysis of trauma, daily stressors, and psychological distress among Sri Lankan war survivors, *Social Science Methods*, (190), 119-132. doi: 10.1016/j.socscimed.2017.08.027. Epub 2017 Aug 24. PMID: 28858697; PMCID: PMC5607106.

Keerawella, G., Sarjoon, A., Menik, W., Ramasamy, R., Jayathilake, N., Silva, S., & Ramesh, A. (2022). Post-war Democracy Building Initiatives in SriLanka (2015-2019)- Lessons Learned. *Regional Center for Strategic Studies*. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/362468884_Post-war_Democracy_Building_Initiatives_in_Sri_Lanka_2015-2019_Lessons_Learned.

Lederach, J.P. (1997). *Building peace: sustainable reconciliation in divided societies*, 20 (75), 84-85. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Institute of PeacePress. https://pestuge.iliauni.edu.ge/wp-content/uploads/2017/12/John-P.Lederach-Building-Peace.-Sustainable-Reconciliation-in-Divided- Society.pdf.

Leshema, O.A., & Halperina, E. (2020). *Lay theories of peace and their influence on policy preference during violent conflict. PNAS*. 117 (31). https://www.pnas.org/doi/pdf/10.1073/pnas.2005928117.

Linda, G. (2018). What is Peace, how have Our Concepts of Peace Evolved, and what is a Holistic Vision for the Twenty-First Century? *The Routledge History of World Peace Since 1750*. CRC Press. https://www.routledgehandbooks.com/doi/10.4324/9781315157344-35.

Miller, C., & King, M. (2003). A Glossary of Terms and Concepts in Peace and Conflict Studies. *University for Peace*, Costa Rica. http://maryking.info/wp-content/glossaryv2.pdf.

Munro, A. (2023). Social contract. *Encyclopedia Britannica*. https://www.britannica.com/topic/social-contract. Retrieved on 9 November 2023.

Navarro-Castro, L., & Nario-Galace, J. (2019). *Peace Education: A pathway to a culture of peace* (3rd ed.). https://www.peace-ed-campaign.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/07/PeaceEducation_3rdEdition_2019.pdf. Retrieved on 12.02.2023.

Parliament of Sri Lanka. (2023). *The Constitution of Democratic Socialistic Republic of Sri Lanka (1978) - (As amended up to 29th October 2020) Revised Edition – 2021.* <u>https://www.parliament.lk/constitution/main</u>. Retrieved on 9 December 2023.

Paul, D. (2016). Exploring Peace: Looking Beyond War and Negative Peace. *International Studies Quarterly*, 60, 1-10. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/304576881_Exploring_Peace_Looking_Beyond_War_and_Negative_Peace.

Phillips, D. L. (2005). Power Sharing in Iraq, *CRS6*, Council of Foreign Relations. https://www.files.ethz.ch/isn/14813/2005-04_Iraq_CSR.pdf. Retrieved on 20.08.2023.

Press.un.org. (2021). Addressing Root Causes of Conflict Vital for Sustaining Peace as COVID-19 Reverses Peacebuilding Gains, Facilitates Intolerance, Speakers Warn Security Council, UN Press (online). https://press.un.org/en/2021/sc14659.doc.htm?fbclid=IwAR2YIHAJ0b3 1qaYCl-8EH1VtT_b2Y5ZXbWW7XVpb3FzRbioganbdyOKgoqc.

Richmond, O.P. (2010). *A Genealogy of Peace and Conflict Theory*. In: Richmond, O.P. (eds) Palgrave Advances in Peacebuilding. Palgrave Advances. Palgrave Macmillan, London. <u>https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230282681_2</u>. Retrieved on 07.11.2023.

Rummel, R. J. (1981). Understanding Conflict and War, *The Just Peace. 5*. Sage Publications, California. https://www.hawaii.edu/powerkills/TJP.CHAP4.HTM.

Smoker, P., & Groff, L. (1996). Creating Global-Local Cultures of Peace. *Peace and Conflict Studies.* https://nsuworks.nova.edu/pcs/vol3/iss1/3/.

Spevack, E. (1997). American Pressures on the German Constitutional Tradition: Basic Rights in the West German Constitution 1949. *International Journal of Politics, Culture, and Society, 10*(3), 411–436. http://www.jstor.org/stable/20019899. Retrieved on 20.08.2023.

Suharto, R. B. (2020). Strengthening the Law in order to keep existence the Unitary State of the Republic of Indonesia, *International Journal of Law Reconstruction, (4)*1. file:///C:/Users/MSII/Downloads/9680-21242-1-PB%20(2).pdf.

Symonides, J. & Singh, K. (1996). From a culture of violence to peace: *Peace and Conflict Issues*. UNESCO Publishing. https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000105029.

Tatsushi, A. (2015). Toward a Buddhist Theory of Structural Peace: Lessons from Myanmar in Transition, *Peace and Conflict Studies. 22* (1). DOI: 10.46743/1082-7307/2015.1272.
https://nsuworks.nova.edu/pcs/vol22/iss1/3. Retrieved on 10.02.2023.

The Constitution of Austria. (2004). Government of Austria, Available at https://constitutionnet.org/sites/default/files/Austria%20_FULL_%20Constitution.pdf.

The Constitution of Costa Rica. (1949). Government of Costa Rica, Available at https://wipolex-res.wipo.int/edocs/lexdocs/laws/en/cr/cr110en.pdf. Retrieved on 20.08.2023.

The Constitution of Ireland. (1937). Government of Ireland, Available at https://assets.gov.ie/6523/5d90822b41e94532a63d955ca76fdc72.pdf. Retrieved on 20.08.2023.

The Constitution of Japan. (1947). Government of Japan, Available at https://japan.kantei.go.jp/constitution_and_government_of_japan/constitution_e.html. Retrieved on 10.02.2023.

The Constitution of the Philippines. (1987). Government of Philippines, https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Philippines_1987.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. (1996). Government of South Africa, https://www.justice.gov.za/legislation/constitution/saconstitution-web- eng.pdf. Retrieved on 20.08.2023.

Thee, M. (1977). Militarism and Militarization in Contemporary International Relations. *Bulletin of Peace Proposals*, 8(4), 296–309. http://www.jstor.org/stable/44480611.

Tzifakis, N. (2007). The Bosnian Peace Process: The Power-Sharing Approach Revisited. *Perspectives, 28,* 85–101. http://www.jstor.org/stable/23616212

UN Peacekeeping. (1993). Cambodia UNTAC, https://peacekeeping.un.org/sites/default/files/past/untacbackgr2.html. Retrieved on 20.08.2023.

UNESCO. (1996). UNESCO and a Culture of Peace: Promoting a Global Movement, In from a Culture of Violence to a Culture of Peace. Paris: UNESCO, 251-268.

UNESCO. (2008). UNESCO'S Work on Education for Peace and Non-Violence, Building peace through education (2008). UNESCO. https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000160787.

Uyangoda, J. (2007). *Ethnic conflict in Sri Lanka: Changing Dynamics.* East-West Center Washington, Cop. https://www.files.ethz.ch/isn/35338/PS032.pdf?fbclid=IwAR1I8oSln4HQPFXYZcy-CUaPVhOf7GRXUp2U3UIjTgDw8UwMzPFlLih74p4.

Uyangoda, J. (2013). *Healing after war: thinking beyond solitude*. In D. Herath & K.T.Silva (Eds.), Healing the Wounds-Rebuilding Sri Lanka after the war, Sri Lanka, 18-22. International Centre for Ethnic Studies.

Wahiu, W. (2011). A Practical Guide to Constitution Building. International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA). https://www.idea.int/sites/default/files/publications/chapters/practical-guide-to-constitution-building/a-practical-guide-to-constitution-building-chapter-1.pdf.

Wakkumbura, M. & Wijegoonawardana, N. (2018). A study on reconciliation of post-war peacebuilding in Sri Lanka, *Colombo Journal of Multi- Disciplinary Research, 03*(1), 23-38. https://cjmr.sljol.info/articles/10.4038/cjmr.v3i1.25.

Webel, C. & Johansen, J. (2012). Peace and Conflict Studies: A Reader. In Charles Webel and Johan Galtung, (Eds). *The Handbook of Peace and Conflict Studies*, Routledge, New York.

Webel, C. (2007). Toward a philosophy and metapsychology of peace, In Charles Webel and Johan Galtung (Eds). *Handbook of Peace and Conflict Studies.* Routledge, New York.

Wedagedara, A. (2012). Lessons Learnt and Reconciliation Committee Report: A Valuable Process, *IDSA Issue Brief*. Institute for Defence Studies and Analyses.https://www.files.ethz.ch/isn/144050/IB_LLRCSriLanka.pdf?fbclid=IwAR2CkIvIFdAyC9MdR2WHtDcAAMKuQfl-Pp4NLHXghTxSCi_gevy-kUdG7T0.

Public Value and Level of e-Government in Sri Lanka: Problems and Prospects

R. Lalitha S. Fernando[1]
University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka
rlsf@sjp.ac.lk

H. O. C. Gunasekara
University of Sri Jayewardenepura, SriLanka
oshanidi@gmail.com

Achieving public value and maintaining a higher public value in e-Government is considered as the ability of e-Government systems to provide efficient and better services to the citizens. The government of Sri Lanka has started e-Government developments since early 2000 investing more than 2000 million Sri Lanka rupees annually on e-Government implementation and adoption, but the level of e-Government and public value of some websites must be further improved for a better service delivery. This study examines public value and level of e-Government in Sri Lanka based on selected ten government websites which provides most essential services to the public. The level of e-Government has been examined by using criteria of the UN-ASPA model and the public value of the selected websites has been examined through a survey. Among 1200 final year undergraduates for the year 2023, 75 of them were selected from a purposive sample who are following e-Government subject as a part of their degree program at the Faculty of Management Studies and Commerce, University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka. Data were collected from a structured questionnaire to examine the public value of the websites and used descriptive statistics to analyze the data. The level of e- Government has been examined using the UN-ASPA model and results were analyzed based on a scoring method. The study revealed that the selected government websites have a relatively higher level of public value and e- Government level. Accordingly, the highest scored e-Government website is the Central Bank (23 scoring marks out of 25), and the least scored website is the Department of Registration of Persons (19 scoring marks). The public value of all the selected websites ranges from a high level to a moderate level. The Ministry of Education has scored the highest public value (the mean value is 4.2) among the ten-government websites and the Ministry of Higher Education has the lowest public value (3.8). The study observed that a higher level of public value tends to have a higher level of e-Government. A further study is necessary however, to confirm this relationship. This study contributes to the existing body of knowledge on e-Government services on Value and concludes that a higher level of public value represents a higher level of e-

---

[1]Corresponding Author

Government services based onSri Lankan government websites. Finally, the study proposed recommendations to further improve public value level and e-Government level of the websites in Sri Lanka.

Key words: Public value, e-Government, Sri Lanka

1.   Introduction

E-Government has rapidly increased around the world, due to many government departments recognizing the importance of providing quality services to citizens' online (Shackleton, 2006). The use of information and communication technologies in public governance and public administration processes is an essential element in building public value within the boundaries of the government (Bojang, 2021). The creation of public value for individuals/citizens through services depends on quality standards such as service availability, satisfaction levels, priority, equity issues, and cost (Karkin & Janssen, 2014). Properly planned and implemented e-Government can improve the efficiency of government service delivery, simplify compliance with government regulations, strengthen citizen participation and trust in government, and save costs for citizens, businesses, and the government itself (Karkin & Janssen, 2014). Therefore, it is not surprising that policymakers and managers are looking to adopt e-Government in countries around the world, from the most developed to the least developed (Ntulo & Otike, 2019).

The Sri Lankan government sector also started shifting to e-Government practices since 2000. With the rapid advance in ICT, the Government of Sri Lanka recognized the need for effectively adopting latest technologies for improving the delivery of public services (Karunasena et al., 2011a). Supported by several major international funding organizations, the Government of Sri Lanka launched a program of e-Sri Lanka in 2002, and millions of dollars have been invested in implementing numerous e-Government practices there onwards (Karunasena et al., 2011a). Through the implementation of such a program, the government aims to foster social and economic developments to improve the quality of life of its citizens (Hanna, 2008).

E-Government is projected as means to determine and increase the public value created by public management systems which indirectly means that e-Government strategies can be measured better as per their potential to intensify the public governance capacity of generating public value (Lindgren & van Veenstra, 2018).

There is a problem with the level of e-Government involvement and the public value of the service delivery in the country. E-Government in Sri Lanka is unsatisfactory in all the dimensions of public value generation and developments in government are at a crucial stage, due to the lack of e-services, the security threat to public information in public organizations, the low adoption of information and

communication technologies in government, and the low uptake of available e-Government initiatives (Karunasena et al., 2011a). However, as there is a lack ofrecent surveys conducted regarding this, the level may be improving in 2023 due to the increasing government investment towards the e-Government infrastructure. Sri Lanka has a low rank in Online Service Index due to the inability to identify the exact website of a national portal, the lack of accessibility or usability features, the weaknesses in the active maintenance of the "contact us" feature, service-delivery capability features, citizen participation and interconnectedness features (Rajapaksha & Fernando, 2016).

There is a lack of research on the public value of e-Government, especially, in the context of developing countries and more importantly a total absence related to the least developed countries (LDCs) (Twizeyimana & Andersson, 2019). Public value of e-Government in Sri Lanka is far from satisfactory exemplified by the lack of e-transaction services and the low uptake of available e-Government initiatives (Karunasena & Deng, 2012). Sri Lanka has a lack of rigorous assessment of the public value of e-Government, with the huge investment from government and aid organizations; there is an urgent need for the timely evaluation of the performance of various e-Government initiatives (Karunasena & Deng, 2012). Such an investigation helps the government to justify its investment in e-Government and provides aid organizations with convincing arguments on the value for their money (Karunasena & Deng, 2012). ICTA (2012 as cited in Sufna & Fernando, 2015) reported that the Sri Lankan government invests more than 2000 million Sri Lankan rupees annually on e-Government implementation and adoption; these expenditures are incurred from the taxpayers' money.

In addition to that e-Government Development Index 2023 highlights the status of the Sri Lanka e-Government level. "The e-Government Development Index (EGDI) presents the state of e-Government Development of the United Nations Member States. Along with an assessment of the website development patterns in a country, the e-Government Development index incorporates the access characteristics, such as the infrastructure and educational levels, to reflect how a country is using information technologies to promote access and inclusion of its people. The EGDI is a composite measure of three important dimensions of e-Government, namely: provision of online services, telecommunication connectivity and human capacity" (United Nations, 2023).

In 2020 Sri Lanka was ranked in the 85th place and in 2022 it has shifted down to the 95th place. The ranking of this index indicates the e-Government status of a country and Sri Lanka has been lower ranked compared to previous years which portrays the problem of e-Government status of the country.

Table 01: e-Government Development Index ranking – Sri Lanka

e-Government Development Index	2018	2020	2022
Sri Lanka (Rank)	94	85	95
Sri Lanka (Value)	0.57510	0.67080	0.62850

Source: United Nations, (2023)

"Public value of e-Government has a direct influence on the behavioral intention to adopt e-Government services. The managerial and practical implications of these research findings on the public value of e-Government and the acceptance of e-Government services are dissected meticulously" (Mensah et al., 2022). The deep relationship between ideals of public value and e-Government has been vividly discussed by scholars (Bouaziz, 2020; Chohan et al., 2020 as cited in Mensah, et al., 2022).

Sri Lankan e-Government status has been identified as crucial and requires a special attention. Therefore, this study will conduct an examination of the public value and the level of e-Government in Sri Lanka, based on selected most frequently used ten government websites which provide essential government services to the public particularly, for university students have been selected in this study. These websites are University Grants Commission (UGC), Ministry of Education (MoE), Ministry of Higher Education (MoHE), Department of Examination (DoE), Department of Registration of Persons (DRP), Department of Immigration and Emigration (DIE), Department of Motor Traffic (DMT), Department of Census and Statistics (DCS), Department of Labour (DoL), Central Bank websites (CB).This study conducted to assess the e-Government level and public value of the Sri Lanka government websites to address the following research objectives:

- To identify the level of e-Government and the level of the public value of the selected government websites in Sri Lanka.
- To examine whether a higher level of e-Government represents a higher level of public value.
- To identify issues and problems of the e- Government development in Sri Lanka
- To provide recommendations to improve the level of e-Government and public value of the selected websites in Sri Lanka.

2. Literature Review

2.1. E-Government

E-Government is described as any kind of use of information and communication technology within the public sector (Bhatnagar & Singh, 2010). Governments use ICT to modernize and increase internal efficiency as well as improve Service Delivery (Bhatnagar & Singh, 2010). Electronic government is commonly referred to as the delivery of government information and services using information and communication technologies (ICT) (Akman et al., 2005; Horan & Abhichandani, 2006 as cited in Karunasena et al., 2011a). E-Government describes the legacy of any kind of use of information and communication technology within the public sector (Bhatnagar & Singh, 2010) and it is the application of information technologies to provide higher standards of innovation in the administration of government operations and systems (Mouna et al., 2020). E-Government activities should have the capacity to enhance the comprehensive and totality of government and public sector performance (Mensah et al., 2022).

2.2. Public Value

The public value concept is that the value to citizens should guide the operations of public services (Moore, 1995). Public value is derived from three dimensions of trust, services, and desirable outcomes (Moore, 1995 as cited in Grimsley & Meehan, 2007) and it has been seen as a source of critical factors, benchmarking, and analytical frameworks to evaluate public services and the impact of technologies on service production and provision (Panagiotopoulos et al., 2019). Public value is considered as the value produced by government through services, laws, and regulations, and can be an important factor in determining the performance of activities such as government programs and e-Government programs (Criado & GilGarcia, 2019). It can be used broadly to measure results, the means utilized to provide them, in addition to confidence and lawfulness, and tackles matters like ethos, parity, and responsibility (Mensah et al., 2022).

2.3. Relationship between Public Value and e-Government Level

Public value has emerged as a new dimension in e-Government (Mensah et al., 2022). Public value is considered as the value produced by the government via services, laws, and regulations, and can be a vital factor in determining the performance of government programs and activities such as e-Government programs (Savoldelli, 2013; Faulkner & Kaufman, 2018; Criado & Gil-Garcia, 2019as cited in Mensah et al., 2022). The effect of e-Government on public administration effectiveness can

best be demonstrated through the public value generated for citizens and the general public (Castelnovo & Simonetta, 2008 as cited in Mensah et al., 2022).

The deep relationship between ideals of public value and e-Government has been vividly discussed by scholars (Bouaziz, 2020; Chohan et al., 2020 as in Mensah et al., 2022). It has been stated that public value-based e-Government systems can be examined by looking at the value that people/citizens believe or perceive to get as they consume services delivered by such systems of e-Government services (Luna-Reyes et al., 2016; Roy, 2019; Bouaziz, 2020 as cited in Mensah et al., 2022).

It is expected that higher the public value created through e-Government in terms of open data, data privacy, and anti-corruption measures, tends to higher the adoption of e-Government services (Valle-Cruz, 2019 as cited in Mensah, et al., 2022). There is a lack of empirical work exploring the relationship between the level of public value and level of e-Government is based on Sri Lanka. Research has indicated that public value created through e-Government has a direct significant impact on citizens adopting e-Government and mobile government services (Li & Shang, 2020; Wang et al., 2020 as cited in Mensah et al., 2022). The quality of information of e-Government services such as accuracy, timeliness, relevance, and precision will enhance the citizens' comprehension of the public value of e-Government and the public value of e-Government has a direct influence on the behavioral intention to adopt e-Government services, the openness and responsiveness of e-Government (Mensah et al., 2022).

2.4. Concepts and Theories

2.4.1. Ndou's e-Government framework

Ndou's e-Government framework (2004 as cited in Twizeyimana & Andersson, 2019) elaborates and expands models of e-Government. Ndou's framework was developed from an in-depth analysis of the basic definitions of e-Government available in the literature. According to Ndou, the existing definitional network of the state is subject to three main components that characterize a state framework. Those are: (i) transformation areas; (ii) users, stakeholders, and their interrelationships, and (iii) e-Government application domains (Twizeyimana & Andersson, 2019).

2.4.2. E-Government systems success model

Wang and Liao (2008 as cited in Omar et al., 2011) proposed an e-Government systems success model, including six success variables: information quality, system quality, service quality, use, user satisfaction, and perceived net benefit. Wang and Liao's model does not take a public value perspective of e-Government into considerations. However, there is a need for a public value perspective as evaluating the success of e-Government initiatives (as cited in Omar et al., 2011).

2.4.3.   Public value theory

Public value theory directs public sector management within organizational boundaries to society from how to better produce public services to how to deliver public services that best satisfy those who consume them (Panagiotopoulos et al., 2019). The proliferation of digital technologies has fueled this transition and created a strong argument for public value creation as the goal of digital government initiatives (Panagiotopoulos et al., 2019). Public value theory has been particularly successful in providing an alternative to the narrative of new public management that conceives of digital technologies as tools of administrative efficiency (Bannister & Connolly, 2014; Cordella & Bonina, 2012 as cited in Panagiotopoulos et al., 2019).

2.4.4.   UN-ASPA's five-stage model

United Nations Division for Public Economics and Public Administration (2001 as cited in Al-Hashmi & Darem, 2008) identifies the five stages for analyzing the progress of e-Government. This study identified e-Government stages as representative of the government's level of development based primarily on the content and deliverable services available through official websites (Al-Hashmi & Darem, 2008). The proposed five stages are (i) Emerging presence; (ii) Enhanced presence; (iii) Interactive presence; (iv) Transactional presence; and (v) Seamless or fully integrated presence.

According to the United Nations Division for Public Economics and Public Administration (2001 as cited in Al-Hashmi & Darem, 2008) the emerging presence, is the stage where an official government online presence is established through a few independent official sites, information is limited, basic and static. The enhanced presence is the stage where government sites increase information and it becomes more dynamic, while content and information are updated with greater regularity. Through the interactive presence, users can download forms, e-mail officials, interact through the web and make appointments and requests. The transactional presence is users can pay for services or conduct financial transactions online. Seamless or fully integrated presence is the full integration of e-services across administrative boundaries. There is a total integration of e-functions and services across administrative and departmental boundaries (Al-Hashmi & Darem, 2008).

2.5.   Empirical Review

Karunasena et al., (2011b) investigated the public value of the service delivery through e-Government and revealed that most of the respondents are satisfied with the government effort on the delivery of public services though e-Government in Sri Lanka. The quality of information, e-services, user-orientation of information and services, efficiency, openness and responsiveness of public organizations, equity, self-development of citizens, trust, and contributions of public organizations to the environmental sustainability are identified as the critical factors for evaluating the public value of e-Government in Sri Lanka (Karunasena & Deng, 2011 & 2012). In addition to the above-mentioned factors noted by Karunasena & Deng (2011 & 2012), Karunasena et al., (2015) revealed that functionalities of electronic services, provision of information and services through e-enabled counters, ensuring confidentiality of citizens' information, achieving social equity, are critical for evaluating the public value of e-Government in Sri Lanka. Mensah et al., (2022) reveled that information quality, service parameters, user orientation, efficiency, openness, and responsiveness were significantly related to the public value of e-Government. Based on the Ministry of Public Administration and Home Affairs in Sri Lanka, Sufna and Fernando (2015) revealed that the most significant determinant of the public value was identified as service delivery and efficiency, user friendliness, quality and content are the four dimensions of the service delivery.

Public value of e-Government needs to be clarified and adequately measured and observed the necessity of in-depth comparative studies at very strategic levels of national, regional, provincial, institutional, and project levels and public awareness, ICT infrastructure, availability of budgets, and interconnectivity of public servicing organizations in delivering successful e-Government initiatives are some factors which determine public value (Hettiarachchi & Lakmal, 2023).

There is a lack of research on a general framework of the stages of e-Government development. Zhang and Kimathi (2022) introduced a general framework of three stages of e-Government development to investigate e-Government evolution approach, which consists of information stage, transaction stage, and engagement stage. According to the author, every stage of e-Government development aims at providing different focus of public value. Rajapaksha and Fernando (2016) also identified several weaknesses of the online services of the government websites of Sri Lanka. Those major reasons are the lower rank of the Sri Lankan Online Service Index, the inability to identify the exact website of the national portal, the lack of accessibility or usability features, the weaknesses in the active maintenance of the "contact us" feature, service-delivery capability features, citizen participation and interconnectedness features.

3.   Methods

The study was conducted mainly based on quantitative and qualitative data using a scoring method and descriptive analysis. Ten government websites which provides essential government services to the public were used to identify the level of e-Government and public value of the websites. University Grants Commission (UGC), Ministry of Education (MoE), Ministry of Higher Education (MoHE), Department of Examination (DoE), Department of Registration of Persons (DRP), Department of Immigration and Emigration (DIE), Department of Motor Traffic (DMT), Department of Census and Statistics (DCS), Department of Labour (DoL), Central Bank websites (CB). Initially the level of e-Government of the selected websites was examined.

Selected ten websites were evaluated based on UN-ASPA five-stage model suggested by the United Nations (UN) and American Society for PublicAdministration. The total score of the model consists of 25 scores and the observation method was used to collect the data and scoring method was used to examine the level of e-Government of each website. The observation has been done using the ASPA Model during a three-month period from 01st of May to 31st of July 2023. Based on the given scores, the websites were ranked and identified as the highest to the lowest in the e-Government level.

To identify the level of public value, the same ten government websites were used. The term public value was operationalized, and a questionnaire was developed with a five-point Likert scale questions based on the definition of "public value" which derives from three dimensions (a) trust, (b) service delivery, and (c) desirable outcomes (Moore, 2015; Grimsley & Meehan, 2007 as cited in Sufna & Fernando, 2015). The questioners were distributed among the sample of 75 undergraduates selected among 1200 of the fourth-year undergraduates of the year 2023 at the Faculty of Management Studies and Commerce in the University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka. The sample was selected purposively, including the undergraduates who follow "e-Government" subject in their degree program. The collected data were processed by using SPSS statistical software and analyzed usingdescriptive statistics. Based on the findings of e-Government level and public valueof the selected websites, the study concluded that a higher level of e-Government represents a higher level of public value in Sri Lanka.

4.   Analysis and Discussion

The following section presents analysis and discussion of the study. In the analysis, the level of e-Government of the ten websites has been initially identified based on the UN-ASPA model and then the public value and level of the public value has been presented.

4.1.   Level of e-Government

Table 02: Evaluation of the websites based on the UN-ASPA model

| UN-ASPA Stage Description	Specific Characteristics	Availability "Yes = 1/No = 0"									
		UGC	MoE	MoHE	DoE	DRP	DIE	DMT	DCS	DoL	CB
Stage One - Emerging Web Presence	• Telephone Numbers	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	• Postal Address	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
• Sites serve as a public information source.	• Email Address	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	• Services Offered	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
• Static information on the government is provided.	• Mandate, Organizational Structure, FAQs, Related Ras	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
• FAQs may be found.											
• Contact information is provided											
Stage Two - Enhanced Web Presence	• Updated in the past 1.5 months	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	• Forms are available (html, word, sometimes zip, pdf)	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
• Access to specific information that is regularly updated.	• Search function / Site Map	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

- A central government homepage may act as a portal to other department sites.
- Useful documents may be downloaded or ordered online.
- Search features, e-mail and areas for comments are accessible.

Stage Three - Interactive Web Presence

- A government website frequently acts as a portal
- Users can search specialized databases
- Forms can be downloaded/submitted online
- Secure sites and passwords begin to emerge

Item										
Message Board / Feedback Form	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Newsletters or Publications / Purchase Information	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Downloadable Forms (pdf, zip)	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Specialized Databases	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
On-Line Forms Submission	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Interactive Elements e.g. Chatroom / Forum / Discussion Board	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
User Log-in and Password (internal use or public)	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1

Stage Four - Transactional Web Presence

- Users will be able to conduct complete and secure transactions online.
- The government website allows users to customize - to directly access services based on needsand priorities
- Sites will be ultimately secure

Stage Five - Fully Integrated Web Presence

- Country provides all services and links through a single portal
- No defined demarcation between various agencies and departments
- All transactional services

Item										
Public Use Log-in and Password (NOT exclusive for internal use)	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1
Secure	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
On-Line Payment	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1
Confirmation of request (e-mail confirmation/acknowledgment receipt)	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Display of Security and Privacy Policy	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
All Department Information and Services accessed through the Portal	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Cohesive interface covering all attached agencies, concerned agencies and all services	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Frontline Services are fully transactional online	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
User may Customize his Department Portal page	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

offered by government will be available online	• Search Engine Encompasses attached Websites	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Total score – out of 25		22	21	21	22	19	22	20	21	21	23

Source: Field data

Figure 01: UN-ASPA model scores of the websites
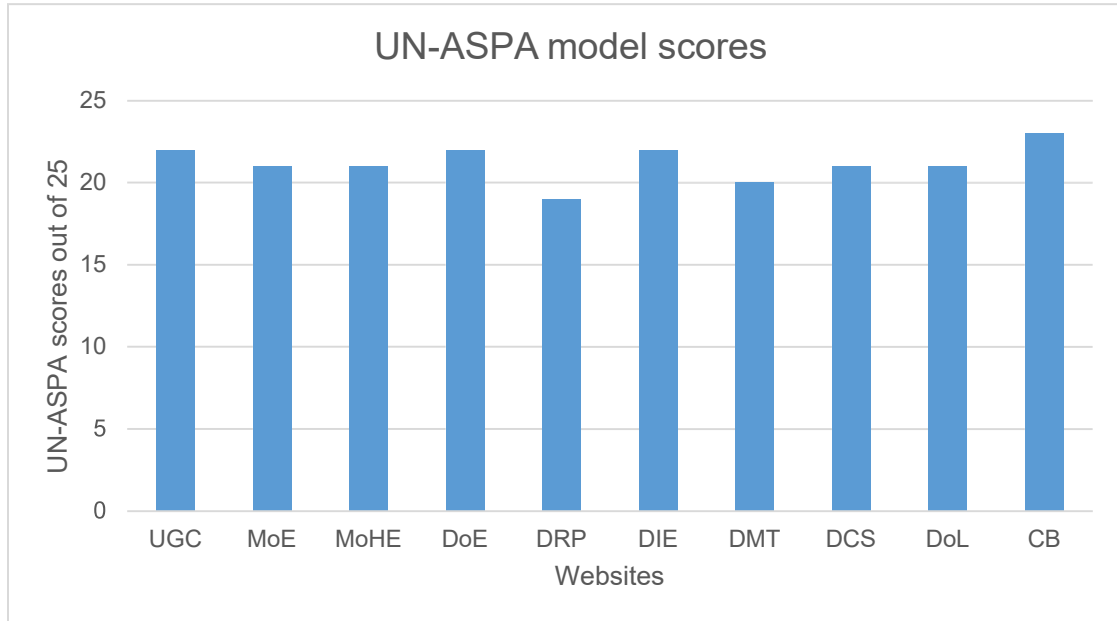
Source: Field data

The UN-ASPA model presents five stages of e-Government development of the websites. Each stage provides unique features. Stage 1: Emerging web presence presents dissemination of administrative information. Stage 2: Enhanced web presence presents the provision of facilities for two-way communication through email, useful information or the application can be downloaded. Stage 3: Interactive web presence presents there is an improvement of value and detail of information, forms can be downloaded, and submission can also be done online. Stage 4: Transactional web presence means that users can conduct a complete and secure online transaction. Stage 5: Fully interacted web presence presents that all the services and links are provided through a single portal.

According to the observations, the availability of the features has been identified and scored. With reference to the UN-ASPA model the highest scored website is Central Bank website, which scored 23 out of 25. Next most scored websites are University Grants Commission (UGC), Department of Examinations, Department of Immigration and Emigration, which scored 22 out of 25. According to the criteria, the next scored websites are Ministry of Education, Ministry of Higher Education, Department of Census and Statistics, Department of Labor, which scored 21 out of 25. The other scored websites are Department of Motor Traffic, which scored 20 out of 25. The least scored website is Department of Registration of Persons, which scored 19 out of 25. Accordingly, all ten websites have performed well in e-Government development as nine websites have scored at least 20 marks or above and only one website scored 19 marks.
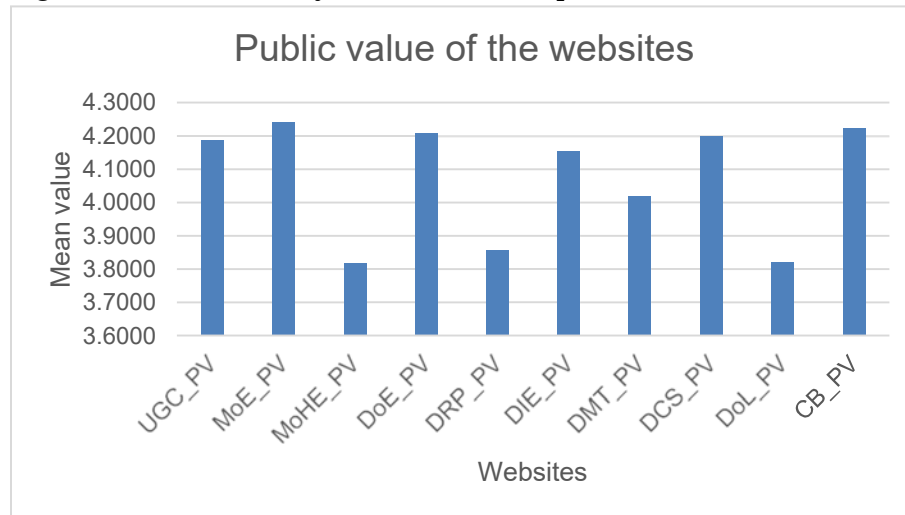
4.2. Public Value of the Websites

The public value was operationalized and developed using five-point Likert scale questions to identify the level of public value of the selected ten government websites and the responses were analyzed descriptively. Composite mean values for each website were taken to identify the public value of the websites. The composite mean value of each website is presented in the following table.

Table 03: Public value - Composite Mean Value

Website	Mean value
University Grants Commission (UGC_PV)	4.1877
Ministry of Education (MoE_PV)	4.2410
Ministry of Higher Education (MoHE_PV)	3.8174
Department of Examination (DoE_PV)	4.2082
Department of Registration of Persons (DRP_PV)	3.8554
Department of Immigration and Emigration (DIE_PV)	4.1549
Department of Motor Traffic (DMT_PV)	4.0195
Department of Census and Statistics (DCS_PV)	4.1979
Department of Labour (DoL_PV)	3.8215
Central Bank websites (CB_PV)	4.2246

Source: Field data

Figure 02: Public value of the websites – composite mean

Source: Field data

Accordingly, the Ministry of Education has the highest mean value among the ten-government website and the highest to lowest public value of the websites could be ranked consequentially as, Central Bank websites, Department of Examination, Department of Census and Statistics, University Grants Commission, Department of Immigration and Emigration, Department of Registration of Persons, Department of Labor, Ministry of Higher Education.

To identify the level of public value, that composite mean value, which ranges from 5 to 1 (5 - "Highly Agree," 4 - "Agree," 3 - "Neutral," 2 - "Disagree," 1 - "Highly Disagree") was divided into five equal intervals and named those intervals from very high-level public value to very low-level public value.

- From 1 to 1.80 – Very low-level public value
- From 1.81 until 2.60 – Low level public value
- From 2.61 until 3.40 – Moderate level public value
- From 3.41 until 4.20 – High level public value
- From 4.21 until 5.00 – Very high-level public value

The responses were analyzed under the above mentioned five intervals and are presented in the Table 04.

Table 04: Level of the public value

Websites	Public value scale – responses (%)				
	Very high Level	**High level**	**Moderate level**	**Low level**	**Very low level**
University Grants Commission	61.3	25.3	13.3	-	-
Ministry of Education	49.3	50.7	-	-	-
Ministry of Higher Education	36.0	50.7	13.3	-	-
Department of Examination	61.3	38.7	-	-	-
Department of Registration of Persons	36.0	37.3	26.7	-	-
Department of Immigration and Emigration	24.0	76.0	-	-	-
Department of Motor Traffic	49.3	24.0	26.7	-	-
Department of Census and Statistics	50.7	49.3	-	-	-
Department of Labour	12.0	88.0	-	-	-
Central Bank websites	60.0	40.0	-	-	-
All government websites	24.0	76.0	-	-	-

Source: Field data

Table 04 illustrates the respondents' ranking on the public value of the ten websites. According to the table, 61% of the respondents ranked UGC Sri Lanka to have a very high-level public value, and about 51% ranked the Ministry of Education Sri Lanka to have a high-level public value. About 51% of the respondents ranked the Ministry

of Higher Education at a high-level public value and about 61% of the respondents ranked the Department of Examination having a very high-level public value. Also, about 37.3% of the sample ranked the Department of Registration of Persons as a high-level public value, and 36% of the sample ranked it as a very highlevel (36%). Referring to the Department of Immigration and Emigration 76% ranked the website as a high-level public value, and 24% of them ranked it as a veryhigh-level public value. About 49% of the sample ranked the Department of Motor Traffic as a very high-level public value, while rest of the respondents ranked it as amoderate level (27%) and also 24% of them ranked the website as a high level. About 51% of the respondents ranked Department of Census and Statistics Sri Lanka to have a very high-level public value, and 49% ranked it as a high-level public value. Most of the respondents (88%) ranked the Department of Labor as a place of high-level public value, while rest of the respondents (12%) ranked it as a place of high-level public value. About 60% of the sample ranked the Central Bank Sri Lanka to have a very high-level public value, while 49% of them ranked it to have a high-level public value. Majority of the respondents (76 %) ranked the government websites of Sri Lanka having a high-level public value, while 24% of the sample ranked it as a very high-level public value.

4.3.   A Higher Level of e-Government Represents a Higher Level of Public Value

Based on the findings from e-Government level and public value, the study examined whether a higher level of government represents a higher level of public value in Sri Lanka. Accordingly, mean public value and the value of the e- Government level (UN-ASPA model scoring) of the ten websites were converted intothe percentages and compared as shown in the below table and the figure.

Table 05: Public value and level of e-Government of the websites

Website	Public value		e-Government level - UN-ASPA Model	
	Mean value	Percentage	Scoring	Percentage
Ministry of Education	4.241	84.82%	21	84.00%
Central Bank	4.2246	84.49%	23	92.00%
Department of Examination	4.2082	84.16%	22	88.00%
Department of Census and Statistics	4.1979	83.95%	21	84.00%
University Grants Commission	4.1877	83.75%	22	88.00%

Department of Immigration and Emigration	4.1549	83.09%	22	88.00%
Department of Motor Traffic	4.0195	80.39%	20	80.00%
Department of Registration of Persons	3.8554	77.10%	19	76.00%
Department of Labour	3.8215	76.43%	21	84.00%
Ministry of Higher Education	3.8174	76.34%	21	84.00%

Source: Field data

Figure 03: Public value and level of e-Government of the websites
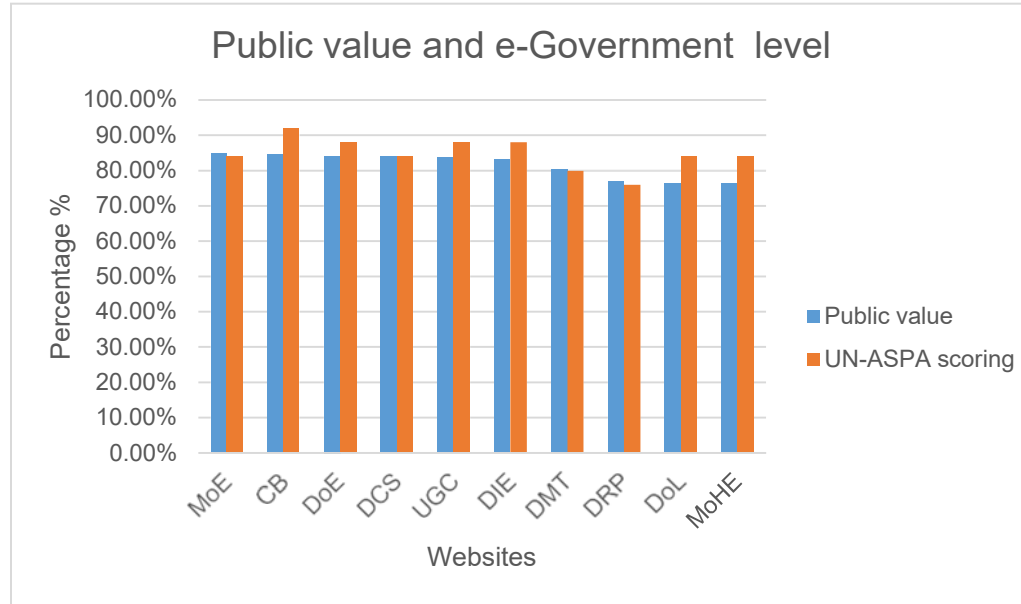
Source: Field data

According to the comparison of the percentage values of the e-Government level and public value of the websites, the study indicated that a higher e-Government level, and a higher public value in Sri Lankan government websites. Thus, it could be argued that when the level of e-Government is high, the level of public value also represents a higher level.

According to the analysis, the study identified the level of public value and level of e-Government services in the Sri Lankan government websites. The UN-ASPA model analysis revealed that all ten websites have performed well in e-Government development due to the nine websites having scored at least 20 marks or above and only one website scoring 19 marks out of 25. According to the level of public value of the websites, all the selected websites have a higher-level of public value to a moderate level public value and no institute bears a value of low or a very low-level.

public value. Thus, it could be concluded that a higher level of e-Government of the selected websites could generate a higher level of public value.

4.4. Problems and Issues of the Selected Websites

According to the UN-ASPA Model e-Government development stages, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Higher Education, Department of Registration, Department of Immigration and Emigration, Department of Motor Traffic, Department of Census and Statistics, and Department of Labor websites have fully completed only the stage one and two. Some of the features are not completed in other stages. Accordingly, the website has no interactive elements like chatroom / forum / discussion board (under the stage three), no on-line payment methods (under stage four), the frontline services are not fully transactional online, and the user may not be able to customize the ministry website (under stage five). Therefore, the website is lacking Interactive Web Presence, Transactional Web Presence and Fully Integrated Web Presence in e-Government development.

University Grants Commission and Department of Examination websites have fully completed its development stage one, two and four. Some features are not completed in the third and fifth stages. Accordingly, the website has no interactive elements like chatroom / forum / discussion board (under the stage three), the frontline services are not fully transactional online, and the user may not be able to customize the commission website (under stage five). Therefore, the website is lacking Interactive Web Presence and Fully Integrated Web Presence in the e- Government development.

Central Bank website has totally completed stage one, two, three, and four while some of the few features have not been completed in stage five. Accordingly, the frontline services are not fully transactional online, and the user may not be able to customize the commission website (under stage five). Therefore, this website is lacking only a Fully Integrated Web Presence in the e-Government development.

4.5. Discussion

The study revealed that the selected ten websites have a satisfactory level of public values and e-Government level in Sri Lanka. All the selected websites' public value level ranges from high level to moderate level and majority of the respondents ranked Sri Lankan government websites to have a high-level public value. Accordingly, the study found that the Sri Lankan government websites have a higher public value level and a higher e- Government level.

Similarly, previous scholars have revealed that the prime objective of e-Government is to provide public value (Yu, 2008). In Sri Lanka, the level of citizens' satisfaction on the available e-Government services is very high (Karunasena & Deng, 2011).

Although the availability of e-services and the level of information provided to the citizens are inadequate, nearly 70% citizens are satisfied with services offered (ICTA, 2008 as cited in Karunasena & Deng, 2011). Majority of the respondents are satisfied with the government effort on the delivery of public services through e- Government in Sri Lanka (Karunasena et al., 2011b; Karunasena et al., 2015;Karunasena & Deng, 2012). The public value of e-Government has a direct impact on the behavioral adoption of e-Government services (Mensah et al., 2022). The relationship between public value and e-Government has been vividly discussed by many scholars (Bouaziz, 2020; Chohan et al., 2020 as cited in Mensah et al., 2022). The supply of public services via e-Government services has been greatly boosted by the growing usage of ICTs by organizations (Kumar et al., 2020). The creation of public value is highly dependent on the level of quality of a service delivered by a public organization (Omar et al., 2011).

5.   Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1.   Recommendations

The study proposes the following recommendations to increase the level of public value and e-Government of the country. Recommendations to increase the level of the e-Government of the country are as follows:

1. Improve interactive web presence of the e-Government websites.

Majority of the websites does not have interactive elements such as chatroom / forum /discussion board and user log-in and password for internal or public users.It is essential to develop interaction between customer and the organization for providing the service. Therefore, the websites should establish some kind of interactive communication elements between the customer and the organization which gives quick response such as chat rooms, forums, and discussion boards. Furthermore, there should be user login at least for internal users such as staff to access the data and information individually.

2. Improve transactional web presence of the e-Government websites.

Majority of the websites lack public user log-in/ password and on-line payment methods. Today online transactions are essential for a best customer service. Therefore, the websites should facilitate public user logins to provide access to the data and information personally. Furthermore, it is very important of provide online payment methods directly with the website instead of bank payment or post office payments which is currently practicing in majority of the Sri Lankan government organizations.

3. Improve fully integrated web presence.

All of the selected websites' frontline services are not fully transactional online, and the users cannot customize the website portal page. If the government expects to provide services through websites, then all the services should be provided via online, and the users should have the ability to use the website customized as per their requirement and convenience. Therefore, websites of the Sri Lankan government should facilitate and provide all the services virtually through thewebsites and the user should have the ability to customize website access and get their services directly from their own login while maintaining a continuous linkwith the website.

Recommendations for enhancing the level of public value of the government websites are presented in the below.

To increase the public value of government websites, major three components which are service delivery, desirable outcomes and the trust of the websites should be strengthened. Accordingly, the websites should be developed with an efficient service delivery process, which delivers desirable outcomes to the citizens, while ensuring the trust of the citizens.

Accordingly, the websites should be developed to perform as a platform of efficient public service delivery of the country. That efficiency should be catered with the performance of the websites. Therefore, the websites should be developed to respond to the users' request on time and the websites should provide up to date and relevant information as per the request of the users.

Furthermore, the websites should deliver the desirable outcomes to the users who are the citizens of the country. Accordingly, the service delivery process should facilitate to fulfill users' desired needs and to satisfy the end users' while reducing corruption through the service delivery via online platforms.

Hence, the websites should enhance the trustworthiness of the users. Accordingly, the website should provide accurate and valid information, and the information should be reliable and trustworthy for the users, the website should ensure the confidentiality of the users.

As per the suggested recommendations, the level of e-government and public value of government websites could be further enhanced.

5.2. Conclusion

The study was conducted to examine the level of e-Government and public value of the government websites in Sri Lanka based on ten selected government websites. The study used the quantitative research method, scoring methods with descriptive data analysis. E-Government level of the websites was identified according to the

UN-ASPA model criteria. Public value of the government websites was examined by descriptively and analyzed the data collected among a purposively selected sample from management undergraduates of the Faculty of Management Studies and Commerce, University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka.

According to the UN-ASPA model analysis, the study identified that all the selected ten websites maintained a higher level of e-Government (nine websites having scored at least 20 marks or above and only one website scoring 19 marks). Among the ten websites, the highest scored e-Government website was the Central Bank. The next scored websites are respectively: University Grants Commission, Department of Examinations, Department of Immigration and Emigration, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Higher Education, Department of Census and Statistics, Department of Labor, Department of Motor Traffic. The least scored website is Department of Registration of Persons. Accordingly, all ten websites have been performed well in e-Government services.

According to the public value of the selected websites, the Ministry of Education has been identified as the highest public value website in Sri Lanka. Among the other websites, the highest to lowest public value of the websites have been identified as, Central Bank, Department of Examination, Department of Census and Statistics, University Grants Commission, Department of Immigration and Emigration, Department of Registration of Persons, Department of Labour, Ministryof Higher Education. Accordingly, the selected websites public value level ranges from high level public value to moderate level public value. Finally, the study revealed that the government websites in Sri Lanka indicates a higher public value and a higher level of e-Government. This study contributes to the existing body of knowledge on e-Government and describes the e-Government and public value interaction to each other, when the level e-Government involvement is higher the public value of the service delivery also reaches a higher level.

6.   Limitations and Further Research

The study was conducted with a smaller sample and the analysis was conducted with descriptive statistics. Therefore, the relationship with the public value and e-Government level cannot be determined and the generalizability of the findings of the study are very limited. Accordingly, the study proposes to conduct future research with a larger sample representing a wider context and inferential statistics to confirm the causal relationship with the public value and e-Government level and to increase the generalizability of the findings.

References

Al-Hashmi, A., & Darem, A. (2008). Understanding Phases of e-Government

Project. *Emerging Technologies in e-Government*, 152–157.

Bhatnagar, S. C., & Singh, N., (2010). Assessing the Impact of e-Government: A Study of Projects in India, *Information Technologies & International Development, 06 (02),* 109–127, ISBN: 978-1-4244-4662-9.

Bojang, M. B. S (2021). Appraising Public Value in the Public Sector: Re- Evaluation of the Strategic Triangle. *SEISENSE Journal of Management 4(2),* 1-10.

Criado, J. I., & Gil-Garcia, J. R. (2019). Creating Public Value through Smart Technologies and Strategies: from Digital Services to Artificial Intelligence and Beyond. *International Journal of Public Sector Management, 32 (05),* 438–450. ISSN: 0951-3558.

Grimsley, M., & Meehan, A. (2007). E-Government Information Systems: Evaluation Led Design for Public Value and Client Trust. *European Journal of Information systems, 16 (07),* 134-148.

Hanna, N. K. (2008). Transforming Government and Empowering Communities: Sri Lankan Experience with e-Development. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

Hettiarachchi, N., & Lakmal, A. H. (2023). The Public Value of e-Government in Sri Lanka: A Literature Review. *JETIR January 2023, 10 (01).*

Karkin, N., & Janssen, M. (2014). Evaluating Websites from a Public Value Perspective: A Review of Turkish Local Government Websites. *International Journal of Information Management. 34 (03),* 351–363.

Karunasena, K., Deng, H., & Singh, M. (2011a). Measuring the Public Value of e-Government: A Case Study from Sri Lanka. *Transforming Government: People, Process and Policy 5(1),* 81–99.

Karunasena, K., Deng, H., & Karunasena, A. (2011b). Structural Equation Modeling for Evaluating the Public Value of Service Delivery through e-Government: A Case Study from Sri Lanka. Web Information Systemsand Mining, 216–225.

Karunasena, K., & Deng, H. (2011). A Revised Framework for Evaluating the Public Value of e-Government. *PACIS 2011 Proceedings.*

Karunasena, K., & Deng, H. (2012), Critical Factors for Evaluating the Public Value of e-Government in Sri Lanka. *Government Information Quarterly.* 29 (01), 76-84.

Karunasena, K., Deng, H., & Harasgama, K. S. (2015). An Investigation of the Critical Factors for Evaluating the Public Value of e-Government: a Thematic Analysis. IGI Global. Kumar, R., Kumar, R., Sachan, A., & Gupta, P. (2020). An Examination of the e-Government Service Value Chain. *Information Technology & People.* 34 (03), pp. 889-911.

Lindgren, I., & van Veenstra, A. F. (2018). Digital Government Transformation: A Case Illustrating Public E-Service Development as Part of Public Sector Transformation. *Proceedings of the 19th Annual International Conference*

on Digital Government Research.

Mensah, I. K., Zeng, G., & Mwakapesa, D. S. (2022). Understanding the Drivers of the Public Value of e-Government: Validation of a Public Value e-Government Adoption Model. *Front. Psychol.*

Moore, M. H. (1995). Creating Public Value: Strategic Management in Government. London: Harvard University Press.

Mouna, A., Nedra, B., & Khaireddine, M. (2020). International Comparative Evidence of e-Government Success and Economic Growth: Technology Adoption as an Anti-Corruption Tool, *Transforming Government: People, Process and Policy*.

Ntulo, G., & Otike, J. (2019). E – Government: Its Role, Importance and Challenges. School of Information Sciences Moi University Eldoret, Kenya.

Omar, K., Scheepers, H., & Stockdale, R. (2011). E-Government Service Quality Assessed through the Public Value Lens. M. Janssen et al. (Eds.): EGOV 2011, *International Federation for Information Processing 2011*. 431–440.

Panagiotopoulos, P., Klievink, B., & Cordella, A. (2019). Public Value Creation in Digital Government. *Government Information Quarterly, 36(4)*.

Rajapaksha, T. I., & Fernando, R. L. S. (2016). An Analysis of the Standards of the Government Websites of Sri Lanka, *Transforming Government: People, Process and Policy, 10 (01)*, 47 – 71.

Shackleton, P., Fisher, J., & Dawson, L. (2006). E-government Services in the Local Government Context: An Australian Case Study. *Business Process Management Journal 12(1),* 88–100.

Sufna, M. N. N., & Fernando, R. L. S. (2015). Factors Affecting Public Value of E-Government in Sri Lanka: An Empirical Study Based on the Ministry of Public Administration and Home Affairs. *12th International Conference on Business Management (ICBM) 2015*.

Twizeyimana, J. D., & Andersson¸ A. (2019). The Public Value of E-Government – A Literature Review. *Government Information Quarterly, 36 (02),* 167-178.

United Nations, (2023). UN e-Government Knowledgebase. UN E-Government Survey.

Yu, C. (2008), Building a Value-Centric e-Government Service Framework Based on a Business Model Perspective, Vol. 5184/2008, Springer, 160-171.

Zhang, Y., & Kimathi, F. A. (2022). Exploring the Stages of E-government Development from Public Value Perspective. *Technology in Society*, *69,*

Unmasking Opportunities and Challenges in the Colombo Port Mega Hub Transformation

Praneeth Gunawardena[1]
University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka
gunawardenapraneeth@gmail.com

R.G. Ariyawansa
University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka
ariyaw71@sjp.ac.lk

U. Anura Kumara
University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka
uthumanage@sjp.ac.lk

Abstract

Colombo Port is a key transshipment hub in its region due to its strategic location, which connects feeder connections in the Indian sub-continent and main sea routes. Despite its historical significance, the port faces challenges due to evolving ship design and industry growth, leading to the emergence of competitors in nearby countries. Despite only having one of the three terminals initially planned, the Port of Colombo is transforming into a 'mega hub'. Delays in adapting to industry shifts have cost the port its potential market share, allowing newer ports in neighboring countries to compete for transshipment traffic. The transformation journey is hindered by various internal and external factors, including socioeconomic, political, environmental, and technological impacts. This paper aims to uncover the Port of Colombo's challenges in its transformation, exploring potential opportunities through qualitative analysis based on secondary data and existing literature. The study reveals that while the Colombo Port has promising opportunities, such as its strategic location, historical significance, enhanced maritime trade capabilities, regional connectivity, and potential economic growth, challenges like delayed adaptation to evolving trade dynamics impede its progress. Despite these obstacles, the port's aspirations to become a Mega Hub remain promising yet challenging.

Keywords: Port of Colombo, Port development, 'Mega Hub' Port, Transshipment Hub

---

[1] Corresponding Author

1.   Introduction

1.1.   Background and Problem Identification

In the ever-evolving global commerce landscape, ports serve as vital conduits for exchanging goods, acting as catalysts for economic growth. At the center of this dynamic environment stands the Colombo Port, poised for a transformative journey into a Mega Hub - a strategic vision aiming to elevate its prominence in themaritime domain. The maritime industry, characterized by shifting trade patterns and technological advancements, demands a nuanced understanding of factors influencing port development. Colombo, strategically positioned at the crossroads of major shipping routes, has emerged as a focal point for significant investments in port infrastructure.

The Colombo Port Mega Hub Vision is rooted in the strategic response of the Government of Sri Lanka (GOSL) to the escalating demands of the international shipping industry in the late 1990s (MoFP, 2010). This visionary move was driven by the surge in global containerized cargo volumes and the commendable annual throughputs of the Port of Colombo during that period. The subsequent comprehensive study led to the inception of the Colombo Port Expansion Project (CPEP) in 2008, situated west of the existing port, covering approximately 600 hectares, (Lakmali, 2015). The Mega Hub Vision not only aspires to meet the demands of contemporary global trade but also envisions positioning Colombo as a premier maritime hub in the Indian Ocean region (Smith et al., 2021; Jones et al., 2020).

Envisioned under the CPEP were three container terminals, South, East, and West, each with a length of 1,200 meters, and facilities for three alongside berths. The expansion aimed to elevate the Port of Colombo's annual throughput capacity from 4.5 million twenty-foot equivalent units (TEUs) to an anticipated 11.7 million TEUs across three phases (CPEP Report, 2008). Financed primarily through a US$300 million loan from the Asian Development Bank (ADB), supplemented by GOSL funding, the CPEP involved extensive dredging of the approaching channel, inner harbor basin, and the construction of a breakwater to accommodate the phased development of three new container terminals (ADB, 2008).

The foresight behind the expansion was underscored by the evolving landscape of container shipping, marked by the emergence of mega-size container carriers with capacities exceeding 20,000 TEUs. This strategic positioning aligns with the national policy framework outlined in 2010 by the Ministry of Finance and Planning (MoFP, 2010). With a focus on transforming Sri Lanka into a strategically significant economic center by 2020, the policy emphasized the Port of Colombo's role as a Modern Technological Transshipment Hub in Asia, projecting a substantial increase

in net assets and envisioning private sector participation in port-related industrial activities as a dominant feature.

In the maritime landscape dominated by the Port of Colombo, which serves as the nucleus of Sri Lanka's ports and logistics activities, the imperative question arises regarding its potential to transform into a Mega Hub. The current combined annual capacity of 7.5 million TEUs across three container terminals, with an anticipated increase to 10 million TEUs upon completion of the new East Terminal as per the Colombo Port Expansion Project (CPEP) projections, underscores the port's strategic significance (CPEP Report, 2008). The escalating demand in global shipping, marked by repeated orders for ultra-large container carriers by Main Line Operators (MLOs) (Figure 1), necessitates a critical examination of the Colombo Port's adaptability to contemporary trade patterns and capacity to evolve into aMega Hub.

Figure 01: Evolution of the capacity of container ships
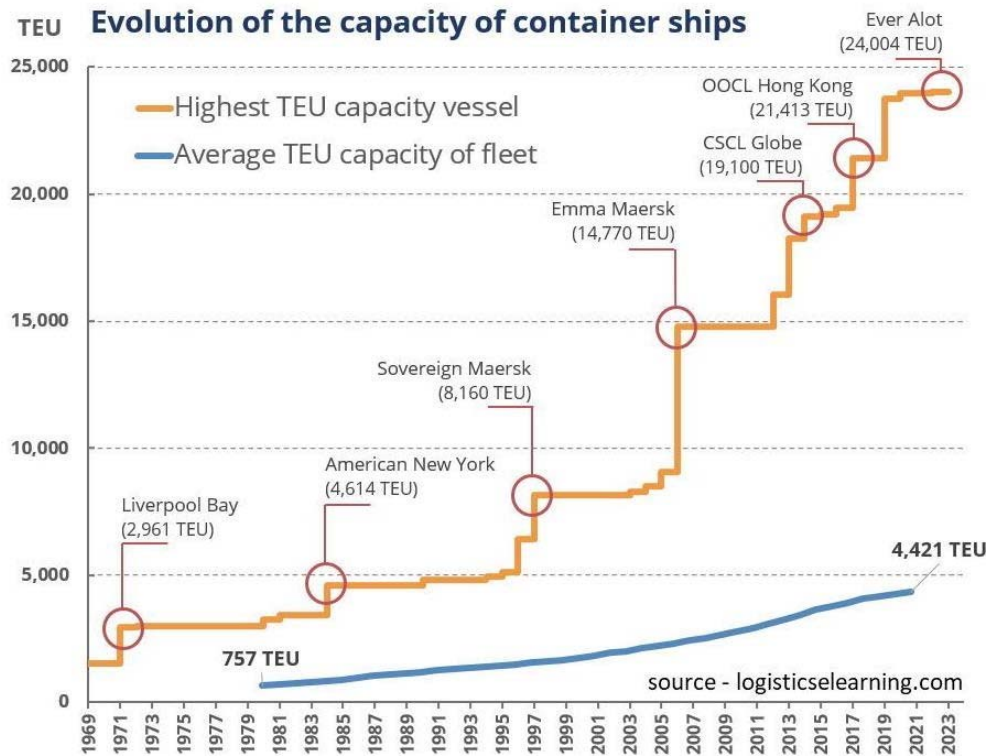
Source: www.logisticselearning.com, (2023)

The advent of mega-size container carriers, exemplified by vessels exceeding 24,000 TEUs, introduces significant economies of scale, enhancing cost- effectiveness, fuel efficiency, speed, and environmental sustainability from the perspective of shipping

lines (Merk & Busquet, 2015). However, the rapid proliferation of these mega carriers exerts substantial pressure on existing container terminals, demanding infrastructure adjustments that many ports had not anticipated. Quay walls must be heightened, strengthened, and lengthened to accommodate these colossal ships and harbor basins often require expansion, while channels need deepening to facilitate safe navigation (Merk & Busquet, 2015).

This juncture of increased shipping volumes and the emergence of mega-size container carriers poses a twofold challenge for the Colombo Port: first, to assess its latent potential to accommodate and thrive in this evolving maritime environment, and second, to identify the obstacles and constraints that may impede its journey towards realizing the Mega Hub Vision (Kawasaki et al., 2022). With their substantial demands and challenges, the modern-day mega carriers underscore the urgency for comprehensive research on the infrastructure and superstructure requirements of seaports and container terminals, examining the Colombo Port's trajectory as a timely and crucial endeavor in the global maritime discourse (MOFP, 2010).

In the dynamic realm of global commerce and evolving maritime industry landscapes, the Colombo Port faces a fundamental query: 'Does the Colombo Port still possess the untapped potential and opportunities to realize its envisioned status as a Mega Hub? Moreover, what formidable obstacles act as constraints to this transformative journey?' Therefore, the primary inquiry of the current study centersaround assessing whether the Colombo Port retains the potential to transform into a mega-hub port while concurrently examining the obstacles that may impede this journey.

1.2. Research Questions and Objectives

1. What latent opportunities could contribute to realizing the Mega Hub Vision for the Colombo Port and enhancing its strategic positioning for the future?
2. What challenges/obstacles hinder this transformation process?

In addressing the above-identified research questions, this paper carries the following objectives.

- To uncover opportunities for the advancements of port technology and its strategic positioning, considering its geographical positioning, existing infrastructure, and adaptability to contemporary industry changes.
- To identify obstacles hindering the expected transformation, considering the aspects of operational and infrastructural challenges.

1.3.   Significance of the Study

The significance of the current study lies in its potential contributions to both local and international stakeholders involved in the movement of global goods and freight transportation systems. Corbett and Winebrake (2008) emphasize the critical role of such movements in various transportation modes. The research provides valuable information for stakeholders to comprehend the importance of national policies in developing infrastructure, establishing multi-modal transportation connections, improving business processes, and enhancing efficiency and productivity. Mainly, in the aspect of local policymakers, this study serves as a guide for understanding the Port of Colombo's potential as a Mega Hub. By exploring the implications of development initiatives, the research aids in attracting transshipment container volumes that are not currently routed through the port. It also highlights the strategic geographic position of the island, presenting an opportunity to position the Port of Colombo as a crucial economic center for Sri Lanka. Moreover, considering its academic contribution, the study contributes to the existing body of knowledge, providing a foundation for future maritime and port development scholars. By addressing the evolving dynamics of container trade and mega hub concepts, the research adds to the expanding literature on global port development.

2.   Literature Review

The literature review provides a comprehensive overview of the key themes related to the research on the Colombo Port Mega Hub Vision. A thorough examination of economic, environmental, and geopolitical dimensions is imperative to comprehend the multifaceted nature of port development (Jones & Wang, 2020; Brown et al., 2019). The review focuses on the keywords identified as central to the study: The concept of Mega Hub, Port Development, Port Infrastructure, Trade Routes, and Opportunities and Challenges associated with the overall mega hub transition process.

2.1.   The Concept of 'Mega Hub'

The concept of a Mega Hub in the maritime industry denotes a strategic vision for ports to elevate their prominence and play a pivotal role in global trade-Mega Hubs, characterized by significant throughput capacities, act as crucial nodes connecting various trade routes. The development of ports into Mega Hubs involves substantial infrastructure enhancements, aligning with the changing dynamics of container shipping and the emergence of mega-size container carriers (Smith et al., 2021). The literature underscores the importance of proactive measures by ports to adapt to evolving trade patterns and shipping industry fundamentals.

Research by GOSL (1990s) highlights the government's strategic response to the surge in global containerized cargo volumes, leading to the Colombo Port Expansion Project (CPEP) initiation in 2008. The expansion aimed to position the Port of Colombo as a Modern Technological Transshipment Hub, responding to the national policy framework outlined in 2010 (MoFP, 2010). Mega Hub development involves addressing current demands and anticipating and preparing for future changes in container shipping dynamics.

The Colombo Port Expansion Project provides dredging and breakwater construction sufficient to accommodate three terminals, which will be constructed sequentially. The project includes establishing a new marine operations center, relocation of a submarine oil pipeline, provision of navigational aids, and construction of shore utilities. The Project will be developed on a public-private partnership basis. The harbor infrastructure works, i.e., dredging, breakwater construction, and other works, will be implemented by the Sri Lanka Ports Authority (SLPA). The first two terminals were operationalized in 2010 and 2015, respectively, and were constructed by operators selected through open competitive bidding under a build-operate-transfer concession agreement. The initial concession bid was for one terminal.

2.2. The Port Development

The port of Colombo is strategically located on the East-West main sea route as a central transshipment hub in South Asia (Kawasaki et al., 2022). However, in recent years, Colombo Port lost its market share in the regional transshipment market because its fundamentals changed and did not adapt (ADB, 2013). Colombo Port cannot offer the additional operating capacity required to compete with the Indian subcontinent transshipment market or the depth required to berth the latest generation container ships. To remain as a transshipment hub port, Colombo Port must develop additional container berths with the required depth to address these capacity and depth infrastructure constraints.

2.3. Port Infrastructure

According to Notteboom et al. (2022) good infrastructure and high accessibility or connectivity are increasingly becoming basic competitive requirements (Notteboom et al., 2022). Port infrastructure has long been recognized as a critical determinant of a nation's competitiveness in international trade (Notteboom & Rodrigue, 2005). Efficient port facilities, including terminals, berths, and intermodal connections, are vital for reducing cargo handling times and transportation costs (Brooks & Pallis, 2014). Ports with robust infrastructure are better positioned to attract shipping lines, leading to increased trade volumes (Tongzon & Heng, 2005).

2.4.   Trade Routes and Patterns

Moreover, the literature stresses the significance of understanding trade routes and patterns in the context of port development. Colombo's emergence as a hub port is attributed to its access to the Indian Ocean and its ability to link feeder connections, reflecting the importance of trade route dynamics in port development (Corbett & Winebrake, 2008).

3.   Methodology

This study employs a qualitative research design, utilizing a document review method to delve into the opportunities and challenges intertwined with the ColomboPort Mega Hub Transformation. Hence, the primary data source for this research consists of scholarly literature about port development, Mega Hub concepts, and maritime infrastructure. The document review entails meticulously examining key sources, including peer-reviewed articles, government reports, policy documents, and industry publications. The inclusion criteria for document selection emphasized relevance to the Mega Hub concept, port development, maritime infrastructure, and associated challenges and opportunities. Additionally, official reports such as the Colombo Port Expansion Project (CPEP) Report (2008) government responses to international shipping demands, and the national policy framework for port development (MoFP, 2010) contribute crucial insights. Rigor and validity are ensured through systematic document selection and analysis. The inclusion criteria enhance the reliability of the study by focusing on reputable and relevant sources. Priority is given to scholarly articles with empirical evidence, reports from reputable organizations, and official government publications. Only documents published in the last two decades were considered to maintain the timeliness of information.

Qualitative analysis through the document review method is conducted descriptively. The document review method is well-suited for this study, given its reliance on secondary data sources such as published documents. This approach is justified by its ability to provide a comprehensive and nuanced exploration ofexisting knowledge on the subject matter (Hart, 1998). Given the reliance on a document review method, ethical considerations are primarily evaluated through proper citations and referencing. Hence, this study adheres to the ethical standardsof academic integrity, providing due credit to selected document authors.

4.   Analysis and Discussion

4.1.   Opportunities and Potentials of the Port of Colombo

4.1.1.   The Strategic Geographical Positioning

The Colombo Port's strategic geographical location, highlighted by Smith et al. (2021) positions it as a critical element in its potential evolution into a Mega Hub. As explained by the author, this positioning, at the intersection of major shipping routes, establishes the port as a vital link connecting feeder connections in Indian sub-continent trade with the main sea routes, as illustrated in Figure 2. As ADB (2007) and Finnigan (2019) noted, the port's natural advantages include a well- protected deepwater harbor and proximity to the crucial east–west trunk routes connecting the Asia-Pacific, Europe, and the United States East Coast regions. Colombo Port is the closest transshipment port to vast and rapidly expanding markets. ADB further points out that, for Europe-bound cargo in the east and south segments of the ISC, utilizing Colombo Port as a hub offers advantages overSoutheast Asian ports due to the shorter distance.

This point in literature can be justified by comparing the alternative ports in Sri Lanka, including Hambantota and Trincomalee, and proximate international ports like Chennai, Karachi, and Male. The port of Colombo has been the most critical in creating container traffic flow in the region (Park, 2020). Despite the unique advantages of Hambantota's deep-sea capabilities and Trincomalee's natural harbor, Colombo maintains preeminence due to its robust logistics, infrastructure, and the pivotal role it plays as a central transshipment hub. These combined attributes underscore the strategic significance of the Colombo Port in facilitating global maritime trade compared to the other ports in Sri Lanka (Samaranayake & Smith, 2019).

Figure 02: Colombo Port's strategic positioning
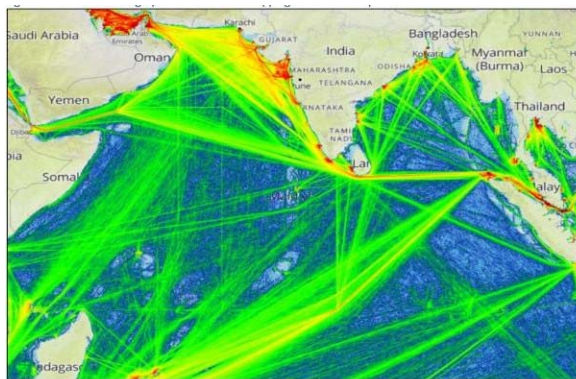
Source: National Port Directions, (2019)

4.1.2. The Expected Economic Benefits

Ensuring the continued transshipment port status of the Colombo Port is not only projected to contribute additional foreign exchange to the country, as highlighted by ADB (2016), but it is also expected to stimulate the growth of ancillary industries such as ship chandlery and bunkering due to a larger influx of ships. This, in turn, will spur economic activities and create employment opportunities that would not have otherwise existed. The maintenance of Colombo Port's transshipment hub status is positioned to transform Sri Lanka into a distribution and logistics hub for the South Asian region, fostering additional economic activities and employment prospects, as noted by the ADB (2007). They further explained that their strategy also involves promoting public-private partnerships (PPPs) in the ports sector, aligning with implementing the landlord port model to enhance efficiency. In 2017, India owned 53% of the regional market in container throughput, followed by Sri Lanka, 24%, and Pakistan and Bangladesh held 12% and 10%, respectively (Finnigan, 2019).

According to ADB (2016), the expansion project is anticipated to boost economic growth by improving national competitiveness in international trade through reduced costs and faster delivery times. They elaborate that the export container traffic handled by the Colombo Port is expected to experience an annual increase of 9.5% from 2011 onwards. The expanded capacity will not only allow the Colombo Port to elevate its market share in ISC transshipment but is also projected to lead to an 8% annual growth in transshipment volumes from 2011. This, in turn, is poised to generate additional income for Sri Lanka through transshipment. If the project progresses smoothly, ADB anticipates that direct payments from transshipment traffic alone could augment the contribution of the ports sector to GDP by an additional 0.1% by 2015 and attract foreign direct investment of approximately. $800 million to the ports sector by 2024.

4.1.3. The Expected Social Benefits

As highlighted by ADB (2007), anticipated significant positive social impacts of the project, center around the creation of direct and indirect employment opportunities during project construction and operation phases. Asian Development Bank reports 1,950 jobs during construction, with specific allocations for tasks such as constructing the breakwater and staging each of the three terminals. Moving into the operation phase, completing the breakwater, and commissioning the three terminals is estimated to generate 3,870 permanent jobs. Proximity to the project is identified as a critical factor influencing the beneficiaries, particularly those residing near quarry sites, land-based transport routes, and barge load-out points. ADB emphasizes that income impacts from quarrying activities are expected to benefit contractors, service

providers (such as transport), and workers, often drawn from unskilled and economically disadvantaged sectors. The projected estimates for quarrying activities indicate varying employment opportunities, ranging from 4,000 to 12,000 per year, depending on the production method employed. ADB also underscores additional social benefits from increased vessel traffic and initiatives beyond the immediate project scope, such as developing a free trade zone. As per ADB's assessments and records, the overall impact suggests that the project will generate numerous social benefits, particularly in new employment opportunities across a spectrum of job categories, encompassing both skilled and unskilled labor and benefiting low-income earners.

4.2. Challenges Faced by the Colombo Port in its Transformation Process

4.2.1. Environmental Challenges

The environmental ramifications of port development, especially within the ambit of Mega Hub aspirations, stand out as a pivotal consideration, as highlighted by ADB (2007). Kumara (2022) underscores that port operations intricately link to various emission-producing sources, encompassing port administration vehicles, power plants supplying electricity to tenant buildings, electrified and fuel-powered cargo-handling machinery, ships, harbor crafts, trucks, and rail locomotives. ADB (2007) notes that while mega-size container carriers bring significant economies of scale, they simultaneously introduce environmental challenges. Merk and Busquet's study (2015) delves into potential environmental barriers rising from the adjustments required in port infrastructure, such as heightened quay walls and expanded harbor basins, necessitated by mega carriers. This, in turn, underscores the need for ports, as emphasized in the literature, to strike a balance between the economic benefits of Mega Hub development and environmentally conscious practices. ADB (2007) stresses explicitly the importance of Colombo Port harmonizing economic benefits with sustainable practices. Additionally, ADB (2007) underscores the project's adherence to various regulatory frameworks, including ADB's Environmental Assessment Guidelines (2003), Sri Lanka's National Environmental Act No. 47 (1980), the Coast Conservation Department's (CCD) jurisdiction, and compliance with Sri Lanka's Coast Conservation Act 57 (1981). Negotiating the Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) of the overall project through these regulatory frameworks poses a considerable and challenging task, as highlighted by ADB (2007). Among all these, adhering to sustainability principles has been a challenge.

4.2.2. Policy-level Issues are Derived from Political Instability in theCountry

MoFP's (2010) evaluation delves into the synchronization between Colombo Port's Mega Hub Vision and the national policy framework delineated in 2010. This scrutiny aims to determine if the policy objectives and strategies articulated in 2010 foster an environment conducive to realizing the Mega Hub Vision, considering contemporary economic and geopolitical realities. Notably, the political landscape witnessed a series of upheavals after the project's initiation. Although instigated under the 'Mahinda Chinthana' policy framework in 2005, subsequent changes in government in 2015 and 2019 led to the introduction of different national policy frameworks. Consequently, the original policy framework faced challenges aligning seamlessly with the evolving national policies of newly appointed governments. This discrepancy stands out as a notable challenge encountered by the ColomboPort Mega Hub conversion project, reflecting challenges shared by various ongoing development projects in the country.

4.2.3. The Inadequate Infrastructure and Operational Capacity

As highlighted by ADB (2007) Colombo Port, with its current depth of 15 meters, faces limitations in accommodating the latest generation of containerships, such as the 9,000 TEU vessels, a capacity handled by its competitors in Dubai, Singapore, Salalah, and Tanjung Pelepas. ADB underscores the prevailing trend in shipping economics favoring larger container vessels, with major shipping lines already introducing 11,000 TEU vessels for the Asia-Europe route. As many experts envisioned at that time, the following generation of mega-size container carriers with carrying capacity above 20,000+ TEUs have now become a reality and are already on the waters in the present day. Each subsequent generation of container ships that evolved has challenged and limited the number of ports of call. Maersk Line South Asia has further raised the issue of insufficient operational capacity in the Colombo port to handle considerable cargo and transshipment volumes by 2019,as cited in Finnigan (2019). Consequently, the existing infrastructure andoperational capacity emerge as significant challenges for Colombo Port in its journey towards becoming a mega hub port. As indicated by empirical evidence from the CPEP Report (2008), a necessary step is the immediate upgrading of infrastructure to handle these larger vessels. This strategic move is deemed essentialnot only to adapt to the evolving landscape of larger vessels but also to embrace technological advancements and maintain competitiveness among globaltransshipment hub ports.

4.2.4. Increased Competition

The competitive landscape for Colombo Port has intensified, as pointed out by ADB (2007). The utilization of larger containerships necessitates Colombo Port to vie for the ISC (Indian Sub-Continent) transshipment market with well-established ports like Singapore alongside emerging contenders such as Dubai, Port Klang, Salalah, and Tanjung Pelepas. ADB highlights that these ports, wholly or partially owned by established port operators and shipping lines, can offer superior productivity and expedited ship turnaround times, providing an inherent advantage. As Finnigan (2019) noted, the Sri Lankan port infrastructure and maritime trade face competition from regional ports such as Dubai, Singapore, and the recently developed Sagarmala Port in India. The expanding Indian port capacities under Sagarmala will make Sri Lanka no longer a significant partner in the transshipment of goods, as per the author. Consequently, Colombo Port's once efficient and strategically located position in the ISC transshipment market has seen erosion due to the entry of new players in Southeast Asia and the Gulf region. These entrants leverage modern institutional structures and advanced equipment, reducing ship waiting and turnaround times, as outlined in ADB's observations (2007).

4.2.5. Lack of Strategic Investments to Address Emerging IndustryTrends

As noted by Notteboom (2022) ports should do their investments strategically. The absence of straightforward strategic investments prevents the port from developing dynamic strategies for the changing environmental contexts. As per the author, port investments should be directed strategically to reallocate existing port resources, reorganize the port management, create new and existing physical (e.g. terminal) or non-physical (e.g. education) assets, implement efficiency-oriented measures, and improve the sustainability of the port and the supply chains.

However, some literature highlights that Colombo port lacks strategic investments (Finnigan, 2019). Notably, the evolving landscape of ship design specialization and the increasing size of vessels are integral to the mega hub development project. Colombo Port's delayed response and limited proactive adjustment to these dynamics have, in turn, hindered its capacity to capture potential market share. Scholars in the field identify this limited sensitivity to emerging industry trends as a pressing challenge that requires attention from the port of Colombo. Both Smith et al. (2021) and the CPEP Report (2008) underline the imperative for Colombo Portto confront these challenges, emphasizing enhanced adaptability to contemporary trade patterns, especially considering the emergence of mega-size container carriers.

5.   Conclusion

The Colombo Port's aspiration to become a Mega Hub presents a promising yet challenging path. Its strategic location and historical significance offer a foundation for growth. Additionally, enhanced maritime trade capabilities, potential economic growth through increased shipping activities, job creation, infrastructure development, and strengthened regional connectivity can be identified as favorable opportunities. However, the delayed adaptation to evolving trade dynamics and other challenges have hindered its potential. These hurdles encompass logistical complexities, environmental considerations, financial and investment obstacles, regulatory complexities, and the need for effective stakeholder management. Successfully navigating these challenges while capitalizing on emerging trends is imperative for the port's smooth transformation as a mega hub port.

6.   Recommendations

Hence, this research is conducted based on secondary data; this paper does not provide specific and ground-level recommendations regarding the Mega hub transformation journey of Colombo Port, which requires thorough policy-level investigation and a deep understanding of the overall process. However, based on the limited literature, this article can provide general recommendations for successfully expanding and altering any port development project. Those include '*strategic investments*' in infrastructure enhancement and operational efficiency of existing port, '*technological advancements*' by embracing collaborations and partnerships to adopt cutting-edge technologies that will bolster the port's competitiveness, '*proper alignment with the national policy*' to ensure the sustainedprogress even admits the dynamic economic and political contexts and '*focus on sustainability*' as a key priority area of port's development to balance both economic growth with environmental good health.

7.   Limitations and Further Research

7.1.   Limitations

This study is primarily associated with the inherent limitations of the document review method since it excludes recent developments not yet documented in scholarly sources. Another limitation is the inherent biases or limitations within the existing literature that might influence the analysis of the current study. Though there are many other essential aspects in this mega-hub transformation process, the limited scope of the current paper cannot cover every aspect, and this focuses only on possible opportunities and challenges faced by the port of Colombo. Despite

these limitations, based on the available literature, the study aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of the opportunities and challenges the Port of Colombo faces in its expansion life.

7.2.   Further Research Areas

Future studies could delve deeper into specific aspects, such as the environmental impact of Mega Hub development, geopolitical influences on port operations, or a comparative analysis of other successful Mega Hub ports. Primary research involving stakeholders' perspectives could provide richer insights into challenges and opportunities.

References

Asian Development Bank (ADB). (2007). Colombo Port Expansion Project Report. Retrieved from https://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/project-documents/39431-01-sri-emr-03.pdf.

Asian Development Bank. (2013). Sri Lanka: Colombo Port Expansion Project (formerly Colombo Port South Harbor Development) Sovereign Project | 39431-013 Retrieved from https://www.adb.org/projects/39431-013/main

Asian Development Bank. (2016). Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka: National Port Master Plan. Asian Development Bank. Retrieved from https://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/project-documents/50184/50184-001-tacr-en.pdf.

Brooks, M. R., & Pallis, A. A. (2016). The nature of port infrastructure governance. Research in Transportation Business & Management, pp. 20, 26–33.

Brown, et al. (2019). Challenges and Opportunities in Port Development: A Global Perspective. Transport Reviews, 39(6), 765-787.

Corbett, J. J., & Winebrake, J. J. (2008). Global Goods Movement and the Environment: The Role of Maritime Shipping. *Environmental Science & Technology*, 42(12), 4232-4238.

CPEP Report. (2008). Colombo Port Expansion Project Report. Government of Sri Lanka.

Finnigan, C. (2019). South Asia's logistical hub: Challenges and opportunities for Sri Lanka's transshipment future. LSE South Asian Center. Available at https://blogs.lse.ac.uk/southasia/2019/06/21/south-asias-logistics-hub-challenges-and-opportunities-for-sri-lankas-transshipment-future/

Jones, M., & Wang, L. (2020). Port Development in the 21st Century: A Comprehensive Analysis. *Journal of Transportation Geography*, 82, 102603.

Hart, C. (2019, November 28). *Doing a Literature Review*. SAGE Publications Inc. https://us.sagepub.com/en-us/nam/doing-a-literature-review/book257278

Kawasaki, T., Tagawa, H. & Kavirathna, C. A. (2022). Vessel Deployment and De-Hubbing in Maritime Networks: A Case Study on Colombo Port and Its Feeder Market. *Journal of Marine Science and Engineering*, 10(3), p.304. doi: https://doi.org/10.3390/jmse10030304.

Kumara, D. S. (2022). Energy Efficient Smart Port Development, Implementing Renewable Energy in A Port. A case study in the Port of Colombo, Sri Lanka. World Maritime University, Malmö, Sweden. Available at https://commons.wmu.se/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=3109&context=all_dissertations

Lakmali, I. (2015, May 10). Colombo Port Expansion Project. Academia.edu. https://www.academia.edu/12317779/Colombo_port_expansion_project

Merk, O., & Busquet, S. (2015). A New Competitiveness Index for Countries: The World Liner Supply 2015. *Maritime Policy & Economics: Sri Lanka*.

Ministry of Finance and Planning. (MoFP) (2010). The development of policy framework. Sri Lanka. Retrieved from https://www.npd.gov.lk/images/files/2023/A_Robust_National_Planning_Framework_for_Sri_Lanka_Main_8Jun.pdf.

National Port Directions Sri Lanka. (2019). https://www.bing.com/images/search?q=national+port+directions+sri+lanka+2019&qpvt=national+port+directions+sri+lanka+2019&form=IQFRML&first=1

Notteboom, T., & Rodrigue, J. P. (2005). Port regionalization: Towards a new phasein port development. *Maritime Policy & Management*, *32*(3),

Notteboom, T., Pallis, A., & Rodrigue, J. P. (2022). *Port Economics, Management and Policy*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429318184

Park, Y. (2020). Port infrastructure and supply chain integration under the Belt and Road Initiative: Role of Colombo Port in the apparel industry in South Asia. *Transportation Research Procedia*, *48*, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trpro.2020.08.025

Samaranayake, S., & Smith, S. (2019). The Port of Colombo: Challenges and Opportunities for Regional Hub Development. In Proceedings of the International Association of Maritime Economists Conference, 345-358.

Smith, A., Johnson, B., & Williams, C. (2021). Maritime Industry Trends. *Journal of Maritime Studies, 15*(2), 45-62.

Sri Lanka Ports Authority (SLPA). (2019). *National Port Directions*. Retrieved from https://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/project-documents/50184/50184-001-tacr-en.pdf

Tongzon, J., & Heng, W. (2005). Port privatization, efficiency, andcompetitiveness: Some empirical evidence from container ports (No. 2005-01). Institute of Transport and Logistics Studies, The University of Sydney.

www.logisticselearning.com, (2023). Evolution of the capacity of container ships. Retrieved from https://logisticselearning.com/ .

Article Review: Henri Fayol, Practitioner and Theoretician - Revered and Reviled by Mildred Golden Pryor and Sonia Taneja

H. O. C. Gunasekara

University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka
oshanidi@gmail.com

Abstract

The primary objective of this paper is to review an article titled "Henri Fayol, practitioner and theoretician - revered and reviled" written by Mildred Golden Pryor and Sonia Taneja (2010). Pryor and Taneja (2010) critically evaluate Fayol's theory within the contemporary business context. They argued that Fayol's theories are valuable and relevant for organizational leaders because Fayol was a practitioner who documented theories that worked best for him and his co-workers. Even though, there are a few criticisms on Fayol's theories still his theories are applicable with some advancement as a basement for the management implications for the contemporary business world. Pryor and Taneja (2010) compare Fayol's work with the contribution of other scholars namely, Follett, Mintzberg, Taylor, and Porter's, while evaluating the original and current interpretation and application of Fayol's theories. Finally, Pryor and Taneja (2010) appreciate Fayol's contribution specially the 14 principles of management due to its more optimistic features. Therefore, it is necessary for the students, teachers, and practitioners to understand the relevance of the theories and be able to utilize, Fayol's principles and theories for improving the organizational performance and further studies.

Keyword: Article review, Henri Fayol, Practitioner, Theoretician

1.   Introduction

The article "Henri Fayol, practitioner and theoretician - revered and reviled" published by Mildred Golden Pryor and Sonia Taneja in 2010 is a critical evaluation of Henry Fayol's theory in accordance with today's context. Pryor and Taneja (2010) noted that Henry Fayol as the father of modern management who has made a solid foundation on management discipline, theoretically and practically. However, the authors highlight the Fayol's contributions and present optimistic as well as pessimistic critiques on Fayol's theories. The main purpose of the article is to evaluate

the value and relevance of Fayol's theories both from academicians' and practitioners' perspectives. Having compared, Fayol's work with the other authors' contribution such as Follett, Mintzberg, Taylor, and Porter, the authors Pryor and Taneja (2010) demonstrate the original and current interpretation and application of Fayol's.

Pryor and Taneja (2010) presented their discussion based on four themes (1) the historical framework of management perspectives, (2) comparison with other management theorists, (3) contemporary management and (4) the perspective of strategic management and analyzed Fayol's theory along with strategic management perspective using the 5P's Strategic Leadership Model. Pryor and Taneja (2010) argued that Fayol's theories are highly recognized and valued by many academicians as well as practitioners who are organizational leaders due to the practical relevance of his theories while criticizing it based on several grounds as mentioned in the proceeding section of the review and concluded that Fayol's theory of management is well applicable with strategic leadership and management models and theories.

2.   Learning Experiences

The article presented a comparative analysis of Fayol's theory under four themes as follows: the historical management perspectives, other management theorists, contemporary management, and strategic management.

2.1.   The Historical Management Perspectives

Initially, Fayol had found that organizational and business life is an amalgam of six activities including technical; commercial; financial; security; accounting; and management (Fayol, 1949; Parker & Ritson, 2005; Bakewell, 1993 as cited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010) and introduced five functions of management, namely: planning, organizing; coordination; command; and control (Fayol, 1949; Wren, 1972; Breeze, 1985; Robbins et al., 2000 as cited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010). Moreover, he advocated 14 principles of management designed to guide the successful manager which are: division of work; authority; discipline; unity of command; unity of direction; subordination of individual interests to the general interests; remuneration; centralization; scalar chain; order; equity; stability of tenure of personnel; initiative; and esprit de corps (Fayol, 1949; Cole, 1984 as cited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010).

Fayol further elaborated that there are differences between technical and managerial skills. Technical skills are more important to worker level as well as managerial levels. However, managerial skills are essential for personnel at higher levels of management in the organizational hierarchy (Wren, 1994 as cited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010).

Furthermore, Fayol has introduced five basic tools for successful administration (Breeze, 2002 as cited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010) as follows:

i. General surveys must be conducted to assess the organizational achievements.
ii. Business plans must be developed in each department.
iii. Operations reports must be generated on a daily, monthly, or yearly basis.
iv. Generate and communicate minutes of the meetings, for controlling and coordinating the departments.
v. Authority and responsibility should be established throughout the scalar chain for monitoring and ensuring the accountabilities and responsibilities among the hierarchy.

As per Pryor and Taneja (2010), these five tools are important at every stage in an organization's life cycle which is functioning as strategies and tactics. All these tools adopted in performing activities, functions and principles strengthen an organization's capabilities for efficiency and effectiveness which leads to the organizational growth and excellence (Fayol, 1923; Breeze, 2002 as cited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010). Pryor and Taneja (2010) argued that these theories of Fayol laid a foundation to management as other management theories and practices were based on these initial activities, functions, and principles.

2.2. Comparison with other Management Theorists

The article has made a comprehensive comparison on Fayol's theories based on other management authors including Follett (Parker & Ritson, 2005 as cited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010), Mintzberg (Lamond, 2003, 2004 as cited in Pryor & Taneja,2010), Taylor (Berdayes, 2002; Parker & Lewis, 1995 as cited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010); and Porter (Yoo et al., 2006 as cited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010).

Pryor and Taneja (2010) argued that Follett is a contributor to Fayol's Administrative theory and Taylor's Scientific Management theory through the Behavioral science approach by bringing forward the idea that management must berather addressed through human behavior and their relationships.

Theories of Fayol and Mintzberg were different conceptually, but not competing, which means Fayol and Mintzberg contributed to management theories and their theories were not mutually exclusive (Wren, 1994 as cited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010). Mintzberg (1973 as cited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010) has made a step forward in management from Fayol rather than accept with Fayol's theory, stating dramatically different opinions by various authors, including Mintzberg himself, that continue to revile or reject Fayol's theories. Porter's competitive strategies are generic and not easy to understand and implement compared to Fayol's theories. But using Fayol's

theories to implement Porter's theories enhance knowledge and supports strategy execution. Specifically, it has preferable effect of each of Fayol's principles on the implementation of cost leadership and differentiation strategies (Yoo et al., as cited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010). Fayol was more open in terms of maintaining flexibility in the implementation of his theories and in organizational hierarchies compared to Taylor (Berdayes, 2002 as cited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010). Taylor's view is a contingent, bottom-up view and that Fayol's view is a top-down perspective (Brunsson, 2008 as cited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010). Furthermore, Taylor's managerial practice is more accurate than Fayol's concept of "General Management". However, Fayol (1949 as cited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010) was much more flexible in the application of his theories and changing plans to meet circumstances and flexibility.

2.3.   Contemporary Management

There are debates among various authors about the relevance of Fayol's theories for contemporary managers. Several authors (Archer, 1990; Fells, 2000; Hales, 1986 as cited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010) support Fayol's management theories as being meaningful and useful across generations and believe that Fayol's theories are relevant in today's organizations. Some other authors (Kotter, 1982; Mintzberg, 1973, 1989 as cited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010) reject Fayol's theories because of the results of their own work and the results of some contemporary research (Rolph & Bartram, 1992; Secretan, 1986 as cited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010). Accordingly, Mintzberg has somewhat disapproved Fayol's contributions because Fayol's management theories were the result of his lifelong work as a practitioner, but Mintzberg's work was more a snapshot resulting of reality from his work as a researcher and academician (Pryor & Taneja, 2010). "Mintzberg emphatically stated that management is not about functions, instead it is what managers do" (Pryor & Taneja, 2010). "Fayol gave us management as we would like it to be and Mintzberg gave us management as it is" (Lamond, 2004 as cited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010).

However, the article presents a comprehensive analysis on Fayol's theory and its fourteen principles which have been evolved for the current contemporary business context and summarizes in the proceeding section.

Division of work was based on specialization, but in the current context, specialization has been enriched with cross-training among the employees, authority and responsibility should empower and enable people at all levels to contribute to the decision-making process of the organization, discipline must be rather obedience which should be based on self-discipline and respect based on knowledge, unity of command has to be spread into matrix organizations and teams, people receive instructions from multiple people (Pryor & Taneja, 2010). Therefore, employees may

report to one boss who evaluates the employee. Unity of direction under today's strategic management involves in bottom up, top down and cross functional input to integrated plans, subordinate of individual to general interest must be spread to the teams and team members individual, personal, and work goalsshould support the general interest of the organization, remuneration and rewards in the current context should be based on knowledge, core competencies and team based (Pryor & Taneja, 2010). Instead of order, today, creativity and innovation are considered more important than stability, in today's context, equity is determined on the basis of the workers' performance, stability of tenure has border as it is more preferred to retain only the best managers, in the current context initiatives are allowed as broader as empowerment and having the process ownership, Esprit de Corps has become broader as diversity and differences are necessary for creativity and innovation on strength of the team spirit (Pryor & Taneja, 2010). Thus, Pryor and Taneja (2010) argued that Fayol's theory has been applicable to the current context of contemporary management with some advancement to the base of the theory.

2.4. The Perspective of Strategic Management

Pryor and Taneja (2010) argued that Fayol's theories are even more compatible with the 5P's Strategic Leadership Model for integration (Pryor et al., 1998, 2007 ascited in Pryor & Taneja, 2010). Pryor and Taneja (2010) states that the five 5P's model consists of purpose, principles, processes, people, and performance. Furthermore, Fayol's management functions are planning, organizing, coordination,commanding and controlling, when integrating both theories planning determines the purpose of the establishment of organization which are vision, mission, goals, and strategies. Equity/ morality/ courage determine principles, core values; furthermore, organizing and coordination determine people, processes, leaders, and systems of the organizations, while command and control determine performance measurements and key performance indicators (Pryor & Taneja, 2010).

According to Pryor and Taneja (2010) the 5P's model of Strategic Leadership is currently being utilized by practitioners as well as academicians, the elements of the 5P's model are easily integrated with Fayol's theories. This ease of integration and alignment demonstrates the extent to which Fayol's theories are relevant and useful in the contemporary business context.

3. Critique of the Article

The article by Pryor and Taneja (2010) is based on Henri Fayol's theories to evaluate its value and relevance for current management practices comparatively. They appreciate the effectiveness of Fayol's theory which provided a solid foundation

from the evolution of management to this contemporary era and for future of management.

Pryor and Taneja (2010) argued that Fayol initially contributed to the management school of thought with activities, functions, principles, and tools of management as these are equally important in every stage in an organization's life cycle for strengthening its capabilities with efficiency and effectiveness leading to organizational growth and excellence. Pryor and Taneja (2010) comprehensive compared Fayol's theories based on other management authors including Mary Parker Follett, Henry Mintzberg, F. W. Taylor, and Michael Porter. Among them, some theories contribute to Fayol's theories and steps forward (theories by Follett), but on the other hand Fayol's theory is better in action compared to theories by Porter and Taylor and some theories are not mutually exclusive with Fayol's theory (compared to Mintzberg's). When compared to contemporary management theories with Fayol's theory, it is not applicable to the current contemporary business context while only a few were in favor of it (Pryor & Taneja, 2010). However, Pryor and Taneja (2010) appreciated the theory and principles of Fayol's as it could be applicable to the contemporary business context with some advancement for its origin. Several suggestions are presented in the proceeding section to enhance the validity of the argument of the article.

The article was based on a qualitative study on the comparative analysis of the existing theories. The discussion and the arguments could be strengthened if the authors could use empirical data with a larger sample of managerial positions in fortune companies to examine whether the selected companies are successful with the current management practices that they used and also find out which management practices are success or failure and reasons for that.

The article reviews how Fayol's theory has emerged in the school of thoughts of management. Furthermore, that historical evolution should also be based on how other theories have originated. Because, it could clearly be visible how other management theories have emerged based on Fayol's theories.

As per Pryor and Taneja (2010) comparison of Fayol's theory with other theories such as Follett, Mintzberg, Taylor, and Porter, the comparisons were well arranged and seems rational and indicated the applicability of other theories in contrast with Fayol's theory. However, some other relevant theories, namely classical management theories including Scientific management and Bureaucracy theory could be used for the comparison. From the Behavioral approach, Human Relations and Human Resource perspectives could be taken for the comparison. Further, Management Science approach, System approach, Contingency approach could be used to compare with the Fayol's theory.

Pryor and Taneja (2010) argued that Fayol's theory is still applicable for improving the efficiency of organizations. However, a comparison could be undertaken based

on contemporary Management theories such as Supply Chain management, Total Quality management, Diversity management etc.

Strategic management perspective analysis of Fayol's theory was based on only 5P's Strategic Leadership Model. Even though, the analysis provides good account about Fayol's contribution to management theories, strategic management process could be used to analyze Fayol's theory in a broader perspective in terms of strategyformation, strategy implementation, strategy monitoring and evaluation. Furthermore, initially Fayol's theory was introduced by applying to the general administration it could be applicable to both not only in the business and public sectors.

Several researchers have critically reviewed Henri Fayol's theories and concepts. Ali et al. (2021) has reviewed Henri Fayol's 14 principles for application into educational management and recommended Henri Fayol's principles for developingmanagement skills of academic institutional heads and recommended that using Fayol's principles can improve and strengthen the management skills of institutional heads that will have a positive impact on achieving organizational goalsand focusing on excellence in education. The management skills of institutional heads can be strengthened and established by following the main components of the management principles developed by Henri Fayol (Ali et al., 2021).

Bacud (2020) discusses Henri Fayol's adoption of the 14 management principles in the respective organizational settings of the respondents which resulted in effective leadership and governance. According to Bacud (2020) the best management principles the leaders still found to be useful today, i.e. the principles of discipline, division of work, unity, authority and responsibility, equity and unity of command, the biggest challenges encountered by them and their coping mechanisms to address the same have been formulated by Fayol. It concluded that management principles enunciated by Henri Fayol are still widely adopted and applicable today and claimed to have been significant in attaining successful governance, those would give leaders a better understanding of how they should treat their subordinates and guide them how to make appropriate management decisions which would serve as an effective tool to becoming a more responsive and effective organizational leader in the future (Bacud, 2020).

According to Folorunso (2019) the fourteen principles of Henri Fayol was postulated as an administrative theory that would guide the administrators to achieve set goals through employees. Folorunso (2019) stated however, given the innovation in public organization, there is the need to investigate if this century old fourteen principles are still relevant and in use in the Civil Service. Folorunso (2019) discovered that despite the technological advancements in bureaucratic operations, Henri Fayol's principles are still being practiced in the government organizations. Specifically, the study revealed that the perceived workplace productivity increases with the increase in the practice of the 14 principles of Henri Fayol within government organizations. This

study therefore concludes that the adoption and practice of the fourteen principles of administration by Henri Fayol is still relevant for government organizations **(**Folorunso, 2019).

According to Achinivu et al. (2017) even though many start up organizations were technologically driven and managed, the need for human skills in their management is indispensable, the adaptation and application of Henri Fayol's management principles contributed in no small measure to the success of these organizations in their quest to achieve their targets. According to Achinivu et al. (2017) technological advancement has not eroded the need for the use of the principles by organizations that are result oriented.

Popper (2018 as cited in Folorunso, 2019) opined that Henri Fayol's postulations are the foundations of management theories and practice. Despite this, the effectiveness of the principles is dependent on the modifications that organizations can affect in their work environments.

Kumari and Arora (2013 as cited in Folorunso, 2019) sought to investigate if the organization applied the principles of Henri Fayol at work and the extent to which it does so. According to Kumari and Arora (2013 as cited in Folorunso, 2019) the fourteen principles of Henri Fayol were adopted and implemented in the organization, though to varying degrees, and discovered among the fourteen principles, centralization of power is highly applicable and principle of fair remunerations as being the least applied of all the principles. Despite this, the study reiterates the continual adoption and usefulness of the principles in modern administration.

Accordingly, several scholars have identified the applicability of Henri Fayol's theories in both business and public sectors in varying degrees based on the nature of the organization and confirmed that even at present those theories are applicable for organization with appropriate modifications.

4.   Conclusion

The article critically evaluated Fayol's theory within the contemporary business context and attempted to integrate Fayol's theories with a strategic leadership model. Pryor and Taneja (2010) signaled to contemporary practitioners and academicians about the relevance and value of Fayol's theories and appreciated Fayol's theories as the original foundation for management as a discipline and as a profession. Thus, Fayol is considered as the first to advocate management education. This article compared Fayol's theories with others' contribution, such as Follett, Mintzberg, Taylor, and Porter indicating the alignment of Fayol's theories with strategic leadership and management. Pryor and Taneja (2010) emphasized that Fayol's theories are valuable and relevant for organizational leaders but pointed out some negative views as well. The theory of management functions aligns well with strategic leadership and management models and theories. Even though there are a few

criticisms of Fayol's theories are still applicable with appropriate modifications as a basement for the management implications for the contemporary business organizations including the public sector.

References

Achinivu, G., Okwu, H., Wey, A. A., Akpan, E. E., & Fasan, O. J. (2017). Application of the Henri Fayol Principles of management in start-up organizations. *IOSR Journal of Business and Management (IOSR-JBM), 9(10),* 78-85

Ali, I., Nayan, F. K., Sarker, A. R., Kadery, T. R., Firmansah, Y. (2021). Management Skill Development of Academic Institutional Heads in Bangladesh: A Conceptual Study on Henri Fayol's Management Principles.*International Journal of Human Resource Studies, 11 (03).* ISSN 2162- 3058.

Bacud, S. A. D. (2020). Henri Fayol's Principles of Management and Its Effect to Organizational Leadership and Governance, *Journal of Critical Reviews 07(11):*162-167, DOI: 10.31838/jcr.07.11.25

Folorunso, F. A. (2019). An Investigation into the Practice of Henri Fayol'sPrinciples of Management in Ondo State Civil Service, Nigeria. *Journal of Human Resource, 07(06)*, ISSN 2347-825X.

Pryor, M. G., & Taneja, S. (2010). Henri Fayol, practitioner and theoretician – revered and reviled. *Journal of Management History, 16(04),* 489-503. Emerald Group Publishing Limited. DOI 10.1108/17511341011073960.

Authors of IJGPPA 2023 Volume 05 Issue 02

Mr. Elias Mseti (Corresponding Author), an Assistant Lecturer, Department of Political Science and Public Administration, Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, The Open University of Tanzania, E- mail -mseti@gmail.com.

Dr. Wilfred Lameck Uronu, a Senior Lecturer, Department of Public Service and Human Resource Management, School of Public Administration and Management, Mzumbe University, Morogoro, Tanzania, E- mail - wilfred.uronu@mu.ac.tz

Dr. Stella Kinemo, a Senior Lecturer, Department of Public Service and Human Resource Management, School of Public Administration and Management, Mzumbe University, Morogoro, Tanzania, E- mail - smkinemo@mzumbe.ac.tz.

Mr. G. R. M. Gamlath (Corresponding Author), PhD Candidate of University of Jaffna Sri Lanka, & Senior Lecturer in Accounting and Finance, Department of Finance and Accountancy, Faculty of Business Studies, University of Vavuniya Sri Lanka, E-mail - muthugamlath@vau.ac.lk.

Prof. Y Nanthagopan, Professor in Project Management, Department of Project Management, Faculty of Business Studies, University of Vavuniya Sri Lanka, Email: ynanthagopan@vau.ac.lk

Prof. (Mrs.) L. Kengatharan, Professor in Financial Management, Department of Financial Management, Faculty of Management Studies and Commerce, University of Jaffna Sri Lanka, Email: lingesiya@univ.jfn.ac.lk

Dr. Nigel L. Williams, Reader in Project Management, Associate Dean for Research and Innovation, Faculty of Business and Law, University of Portsmouth, U.K., Email: nigel.williams@port.ac.uk

Ms. M.S. Dimuthu Kumari, a Senior Lecturer of the Department of Public Administration, Management Studies and Commerce, University of Sri Jayewardenepura. E-mail - samanmaleed@sjp.ac.lk.

Senior Prof. R. L. S. Fernando (Corresponding Author), Academic Chair of the Department and Director of the Research Centre for Governance and Public Policy of the Department of Public Administration, Course Coordinator of the M.Sc. in Public Policy and Management Program, Department of Public

Administration and Coordinator of the PhD in Management, Faculty of Management Studies and Commerce, University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka. E mail- rlsf@sjp.ac.lk

Ms. H. O. C. Gunasekara, Research Assistant, Research Centre for Governance and PublicPolicy, Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Management Studies and Commerce, University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka. E mail - oshanidi@gmail.com.

Mr. Praneeth Gunawardena (Corresponding Author), PhD Candidate of University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka, E- mail - gunawardenapraneeth@gmail.com, Senior Prof. R.G. Ariyawansa Academic Chair of the Department of Estate Management and Valuation, University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka, E- mail - ariyaw71@sjp.ac.lk

Prof. U. Anura Kumara, Department of Business Economics, Faculty of Management Studies and Commerce, University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka, E- mail - uthumanage@sjp.ac.lk.

Ms. H. O. C. Gunasekara, Research Assistant, Research Centre for Governance and Public Policy, Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Management Studies and Commerce, University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka. E mail - oshanidi@gmail.com.

International Journal of Governance and Public Policy Analysis

The International Journal of Governance and Public Policy Analysis (IJGPPA) is published by the Research Centre for Governance and Public Policy of Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Management Studies and Commerce, University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka. IJGPPA provides a wide range of knowledge in identifying, encouraging, and exchanging ideas on Governance and Public Policies. This journal fills the vacuum of limited publications available in Public Administration and Policy in Sri Lanka and also in other countries.

Call for Papers: 2024 Volume 06 Issue I

Papers are called for the Sixth Volume Issue One of IJGPPA. You are invited to submit original manuscripts, currently not under consideration by another journal, for publication in the forthcoming journal. Please e-mail full-length manuscripts in MS Word format to: ijgppa@sjp.ac.lk

The articles are expected to cover the following areas:

- Public Management and Finance
- Comparative Public Administration and Local Governance
- Development Policy and Law
- E-governance
- Conflict Resolution and Peace Building
- Environmental Management
- Educational Management
- Health Management
- Other related fields in Development, Public Policy and Management

For Any Queries Please Contact:

Senior Professor R. Lalitha S. Fernando
Editor in Chief - IJGPPA
Research Centre for Governance and Public Policy
Department of Public Administration
Faculty of Management Studies and Commerce
University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Sri Lanka.
ijgppa@sjp.ac.lk
(+94) 112802006

IJGPPA

International Journal of Governance and Public Policy Analysis