

Building on Chaos

Public Sector Project Management in Post-Conflict Countries¹

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the project management dynamic of non-governmental transnational entities that are referred to as ‘Public Entrepreneurs’ who are participating in the re-building of the public sector in post-conflict countries. The research highlights the significance of post-conflict peacebuilding through the resurrection of old public institutions as well as the initiation of new ones by the means of entrepreneurial initiatives. In this context, we decided to review the current project management work dynamic of transnational organizations working to rebuild post-conflict public sectors. Our revisions indicate the many challenges faced in managing public-sector projects in a post-conflict environment as well as the efforts made to overcome these obstacles. This study contributes to existing literature on the many methods and tools that have proven useful in public sector project management. This research addresses a specific environment that is not usually a mainstream topic in project management, which is the post-conflict one. The study adopts the chaos theory as a conceptual framework to further understand the unpredictable and unstable post-conflict environment initial condition’s impact on project outcomes. The paper offers a new managerial perspective that aims to enable public-sector project managers take the actions necessary to create project deliverables that meet socio-organizational needs.

KEYWORDS: Post-conflict environment; Project Management; Public Sector; Public Entrepreneurship

INTRODUCTION

The agreed upon definition of project management can be outlined as the achievement of project objectives through implicated experts and involving the organization, planning and control of resources assigned to the project (Harrison, 2017). Thus, project management can be considered as the practice of initiating, planning, executing, controlling, and closing the work of a team (taskforce) to achieve specific goals and meet specific success criteria at the specified time (Phillips, 2003). On another note, it is still considered a relatively modern practice that aims to attain planned objectives within a specified timeframe and cost limits through the optimum use of available resources while employing an integrated planning and control system (Abbasi & Al-Mharmah, 2000).

Implementing project management principles in the Public Sector is not a recent concept nor was it poorly treated, but it remains, nevertheless, in rather much of its perspectives subject to marginalization, misunderstanding, and even ambiguity. Public sector entities are currently facing an ever-increasing pressure from stakeholders and taxpayers to demonstrate accountability and

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transparency when implementing policies and adapting to change (Crawford & Helm, 2009). The need to implement project management as a means of planning and organizing work within the public sector is considered a pre-requisite for legitimizing any potential public policy.

The evolution of public management models as well as the various institutional reforms put into place with the aim of making public entities more competitive while guaranteeing quality public service, have all been impacted by the change in the institutional logic (Bernier, 2012). Such change was initiated by ‘Public Entrepreneurs’ who created new practices that they sought to legitimize as explicit norms (Moore, 1995). Such practices aim to create new public services or improve the efficiency of existing ones. Public sector projects will require appropriate skills and techniques that go beyond technical expertise as in the works of private entities; however, they are rather conditioned by ideological as well as political decisions rather than on project management decision making tools (Pūlmanis, 2014; Chevallier, 2019). According to economists, the distribution of public resources by political entities affects their future, hence the interdependence between socioeconomic equity and these institutions (Gibbons, 2005; Wolfrum, 2005). According to sociologists, a country's history and culture will condition the extent to which its public institutions address issues of social cohesion and express their management process (Jun, 1986; Greene, 2004; Dahl-Ostergaard et al., 2005; Ajakaiye & Ali, 2009; Narayan & Petesch, 2010). Also, the evolution of existing socio-political arrangements and conditions is crucial to understanding the possibilities of change (Jun, 1986; Pierson, 2004). We therefore understand that the public administration of each society is not limited to the principles of technical duty but is effectively linked to several environmental contexts which frame its particularities (Arrington & Sawaya, 1984; Wolfrum, 2005; Narayan & Petesch, 2010).

In almost all cases, the adoption of any new form of change model with its accompanying projects has been met with resistance as any proposed model can lead to the deinstitutionalization of the old public administration (Pesqueux, 2006) which can even contest the state's mission as is (Bezes et al, 2011). But what is the case of countries where the state is paralyzed and cannot serve the interests of the citizens? And more precisely, what is the case of post-conflict countries where violent acts have either paralyzed or annihilated the existing public sector? Within the chaos of a post-war environment, the reconstruction project of the post-conflict public sector championed by public entrepreneurs will be a complex and difficult task.

In this study, the following dilemma was examined thoroughly to answer the following question: *How can we explain the dynamic of post-conflict public project management?*

This study sort to examine the public sector's project management dynamic of the works conducted by the involved transnational entities currently operating in post-conflict environments. The paper outlines the mechanism of the operational processes of their work. The study also provides a conceptual framework for understanding and analyzing the emergence the new institutional logic that was injected and how it has impacted the public sector.

PUBLIC PROJECT MANAGEMENT

General Outline

When it comes to the private sector, organizations must adapt to the changing needs and conditions of the market – which usually necessitates structural organizational changes and redefining strategies (Kerzner, 2003). The same applies for public administrations (the backbone of state

apparatus) that are also forced to adapt public service delivery not only to political and legislative changes, but also to the perception that citizens have towards the common goods and public services (McLaughlin et al., 2002). The situation in the private sector is usually considered easier to manage (given that the basic evaluation criteria is profit analysis – even if it is not the only one). However, when it comes to public entities, things become more complex given that the purpose is to satisfy the needs of citizens (where needs are considered as basic rights) by balancing social goals with economic ones. This is done through the effective use of public resources to deliver public services (e.g. health, safety, housing, education, etc.). Therefore, it is necessary to properly coordinate public entities' projects; it is here that project management in public administrations emerge.

Project Management in the Public Sector

Typically, public projects are clustered in portfolios within policy programs. Effective public project management is essential for the success of service delivery. This requires establishing definable goals and measurable potential project outcomes that relate to a public administration's strategic goals, ensuring that project outputs are attained by utilizing the project team, and managing the interrelationship between all stakeholders and involved third-party players (Van der Waldt, 2011). Therefore, project management plays a pivotal role when it comes to determining the success or failure of public projects.

Increasingly public institutions and administrations use projects as vehicles to operationalize policy programs and strategic objectives for service delivery. Even though not every public project impact society in the same way, but each one has the capability to improve the lives of citizens or the effectiveness and efficiency of state apparatus (Wirick, 2009). All projects will bring about many challenges, especially if they involve several stakeholders, the injection of a new managerial model, new technology, changing project requirements, limited resources, etc. Such project challenges multiply in the public sector (Lawton & Rose, 1994). Indeed, the uniqueness of this sector (public) requires additional skills from managers working on related projects given the many multi-opinionated stakeholders involved who can influence the outcome. We are saying this as very often, public works are not based on results-oriented public project management but on political interference which adds complexity to the entire situation (Van der Waldt, 2011). It is important for public project managers to appreciate the drivers behind projects since they should be traced back to the broader policy and strategic framework of governance (Treasury, 2007). In this context, the risk elements arise within the fluid political environment. In other words, projects will only be successful when the right environmental political conditions exist. It is important to ensure that project ideation, selection and planning are done with a good understanding of these conditions (Blampied, 2003). Therefore, public sector project management plays a crucial part in determining how a society behaves and accepts the quality of deliverables.

Peculiarities of Public Sector Project Management

It would be appropriate to explore the many particularities of projects in the public sector. Below are some of the peculiarities that highlight the uniqueness of public sector project management:

- **A Nascent Concept:** Project management in the public sector is still considered by many experts as a relatively new paradigm. Its applications are hence less apparent, and immature compared to those of the private sector (Van der Waldt, 2011). However, researchers and experts alike have highlighted the importance of deepening the integration of project

management into the public sector works, service approach, organizational culture, etc. (Fraser-Moleketi, 2003).

- **Political Context:** Even though the basic elements of project management remain the same, the political context of the public sector differs from the business context of private sector projects. Projects are usually identified by politicians, or are on the agenda of a public policy, or the result of policy formulation. From being piloted by steering committees to governance assured by politicians or civil servants, public projects are the subject of political interference (O'Donnell, 1966). The success of these projects is measured in political terms rather than in quantifiable terms (a project may be considered a success even though it may have run over both budget and time) (Muthien, 1996).
- **The Market-Origin of Public Projects:** Citizens who are consuming / utilizing public services are often subjected to a limited choice given that services may be rationed (e.g. health care provision), monopolized (e.g. energy supply), socially-ordered (e.g. security and legal services) (Kirkpatrick & Lucio, 1995). Thus, applying private-market-based models to public administration projects will not always be appropriate.
- **The Nature of Public Projects:** Any project that is initiated or led by public managers must be compliant and respondent to the public's needs (Cloete & Wissink, 2000). Citizens are even encouraged to participate in such projects within the context of policymaking. Here, we see the emergence of the state-building framework and societal change rather than profit / product-oriented projects in the private sector (Nel, 1997).
- **The Regulatory Nature of Public Projects:** Project managers in the public sector are obliged to operate within the strict boundaries of national legislations and departmental policies (Van der Waldt, 2011). Thus, when it comes to initiating, designing, and planning projects, public sector project managers must consider, not only the views of project beneficiaries and stakeholders, but also those of government policies (Chaston, 1995).
- **The Managerial Culture of Public Projects:** Public projects are usually subjected to stricter public and political supervision than private projects. This is mainly due to public bureaucracy which tightens with each gradual climbing of the public echelon (national-level projects are subjected to more bureaucracy and less managerial freedom in terms of functional processes, job design, budget, etc. than departmental ones) (Van der Waldt, 2007).
- **Managerial Structures and Organizational Practices:** The public administrations' organizational environment, structure, mission, politics, systems, culture, and processes will always impact and influence the way projects are managed (Fraser-Moleketi, 2003).
- **Project Funding Dynamic:** Public entities projects are mostly financed from taxes, which means that their outcomes are in fact public property. The process of issuing a budget, getting it approved and subsequently implemented is usually much longer than in the private sector

(Caiden, 1998; Blampied, 2003). On another note, when it comes to setting perspectives regarding the potential cost and benefits of new public projects, public administrations are usually more focused on the quality of services rather than the value of the spent budget (Van der Waldt, 2011; Pülmanis, 2014).

Challenges of Public Sector Project Management

When it comes to appropriately managing a project with efficiency and effectiveness in the public sector, many challenges arise (OECD, 1995; Aucoin, 1998; Caiden, 1998; Peters & Savoie, 1998):

- The need for further effective control to reduce public spending.
- Gap reduction when it comes to the outcome of both private (deemed superior in terms of quality, efficiency, and effectiveness) and public sector projects.
- Enhancing the competitiveness of national vs. departmental projects.
- Amplifying the competitiveness of national vs. internationally piloted projects.
- The never-ending high-expectations and changing standards from citizens and businesses alike when it comes to their perception of public projects.
- The many unreviewed areas of new information technologies.
- The lack of proper planning and reliance on old strategic models.
- The many political challenges that might slow down the project management process as is.
- Poorly used operations management processes, tools, procedures, risk metrics, etc.
- Etc.

Public Sector Project Management Effectiveness

Public sector project management can be evaluated in terms of effectiveness based on the usage of resources and how service delivery impacts the citizens. In other words, we are talking about a cost-benefits approach for evaluating projects (Gray, 1995). The cost-effectiveness analysis requires the fulfilment of the following conditions (Kazanovski, 1968):

- (1) determining a common goal or application that must be achieved;
- (2) the existence of alternatives to the achievement of the goal; and
- (3) the existence of limiting factors in the solution of the problem.

For such conditions to be met, and for the analysis to be correct, the following steps must be fulfilled (Kazanovski, 1968; Pülmanis, 2014):

- Defining the goals, purpose, outcome, and desired impact for the project.
- Specifying the pre-requisites that are primordial for attaining the project's goals.
- Scenario building and subsequent alternatives setting for attaining goals.
- Determining valuation procedures for the set alternatives based on pre-established criteria (e.g. availability, reliability, sustainability, etc.).
- Choosing the approach for determining fixed success and fixed cost criteria.
- Identifying the advantages and disadvantages of each alternative via valuation procedures.
- Analyzing each alternative based on the variable of success and cost-consideration criteria.

- Analyzing the sensitivity of alternatives, to see how small changes in assumptions or conditions cause changes in alternatives.

PUBLIC SECTOR ENTREPRENEURS

Contextualization and Disciplinary Clarifications of Public Entrepreneurship

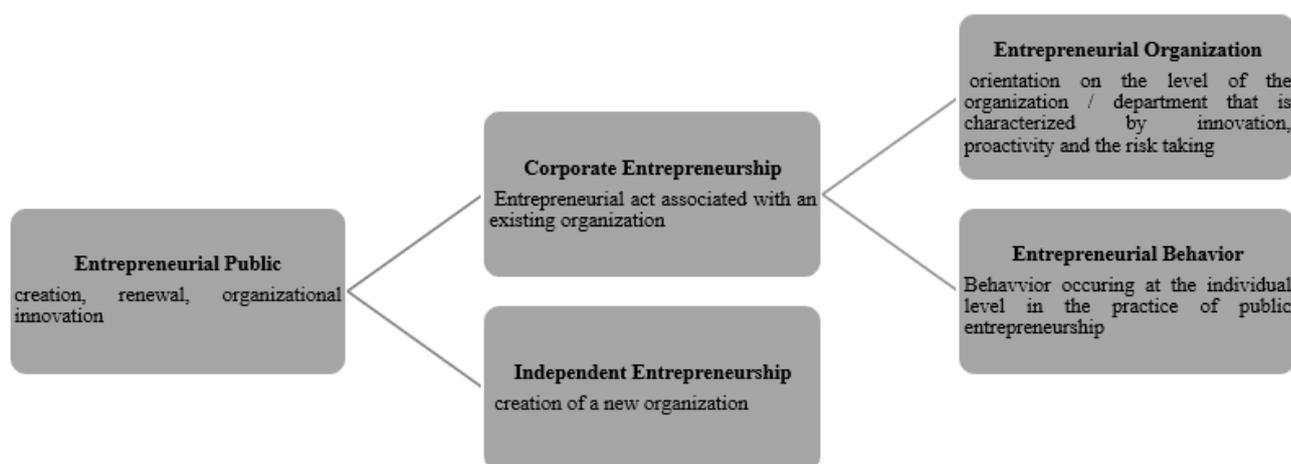
Entrepreneurship in the public sector usually occurs when a social actor (involved in politics or not) is attentive and acts on potential opportunities to move the state's body towards balance (Roberts, 1992; Shockley et al., 2006; Diefenbach, 2011, p.31). In this context, public entrepreneurship as a process is characterized by innovation, risk taking and proactivity (Miller, 1983; Covin & Slevin 1991, Roberts & King, 1991; Morris & Sexton, 1996; Morris and Jones 1999; Currie et al., 2008), which defines the activity initiating a gradual change in the status quo of (a) public organization(s) (Kearney et al., 2007; Holcombe; 2002; Hayter et al., 2018). We understand that public entrepreneurship is defined as the generation and implementation of a new or innovative idea in public sector practice (Roberts, 1992) to deliver value to citizens by combining public resources and / or private ones to exploit opportunities, maximize the productivity and efficiency of public institutions, etc. (Bellone & Goerl, 1992; Linden, 1990; Osborne & Gaebler, 1993; Morris & Jones, 1999). This is seen as the enactment of innovative public policy initiatives through the means of creative activities (Leyden & Link, 2015). Through this transformation, public entrepreneurship increases the efficiency of knowledge networks (Link, 2016) and subsequently spurs the development of new innovations throughout the public environment (Roberts, 1992).

Those who conceptualize and / or implement innovative ideas that challenge existing models and work to overcome any resistance that may take place (Peterson, 1981; Schneider et al., 1995) in the public domain are called public entrepreneurs. This definition of "public entrepreneurs" is based on Schumpeter's principle of private entrepreneurship: the main function of the entrepreneur is innovation (Schumpeter, 1939). Failures of public organizations represent their inability to achieve their goals or meet social needs (Moore, 1995), and provide opportunities for public entrepreneurs (Morris & Jones, 1999) to create and deliver value through innovations (Bernier & Hafsi, 2007; Morris et al., 2008; Diefenbach, 2011). Innovation is seen as a new idea (e.g. technology, products and services, procedures, policies, organizational models, etc.) (Daft & Becket, 1978) which breaks with what constitutes standard operating procedures and the routines of ongoing-accepted practice (Schumpeter, 1939; Peltz & Munson, 1982; Roberts, 1992), in this case, from the public sector. In other words, a public entrepreneur can be is a person (e.g. politician, public official, etc.) or a moral entity (e.g. consulting cabinet, NGO, private company, etc.) that undertakes an intentional activity to initiate, maintain or change one or more public organizations (Cole, 1959; Ramamurti, 1986; Ostrom, 1990). A public entrepreneurs' actions must be reconciled with the fundamental democratic values of accountability, citizen participation, open policy making and concern for the long-term public good (Bellone & Goerl, 1992). In other words, a public entrepreneur contributes to building a public organization or increasing its capacity to provide public services and create value (Bernier & Hafsi, 2007; Currie et al., 2008).

Levels of Analysis of Entrepreneurship in the Public Sector

The existing definitions of entrepreneurship in the public sector are diverse and remain a heavy subject of debate as many researchers and experts have seen that reinventing or transforming the public sector is not limited to the injection of the spirit of private-sector companies (; Roberts & King, 1991; Boyett, 1997; Morris & Jones, 1999; Kearney et al., 2007; Currie et al., 2008; Morris et al., 2008). As in the private sector, entrepreneurship is not equally applicable in all cases in the public body (Covin & Slevin, 1989). It should be noted that the value of public organizations is created by entrepreneurial behavior in some areas, as well as by adherence to certain norms in others (Kelly et al., 2002). Within this framework, there are several types of public entrepreneurs (check Figure 01.).

Figure 01. The Different Types of Public Entrepreneurs (according to Diefenbach, 2011)



According to published studies, there are four levels for analyzing public entrepreneurship and its relationship to private entrepreneurial behavior (Klein et al., 2009):

- First, public entrepreneurship contextualizes the situation of the public sector by identifying new objectives and establishing the necessary conditions for the pursuit of public interests (Ostrom, 1965).
- Another manifestation of public entrepreneurship is the creation of new public organizations (Bartlett & Dibben, 2002; Schnellenbach, 2007).
- Also, public entrepreneurship initiates the *creative management* of public resources (Klein et al., 2009) which are either publicly owned or integral to the public interest (Lewis, 1980; Roberts & King, 1996).
- Finally, the impact of private actions on the public domain (Klein et al., 2009) results from the actions of private entrepreneurs who seek to create public infrastructures, institutions, standards, and procedures because their absence strategically limits those of private third parties.

The Limits of Public Entrepreneurship

Several themes and elements have emerged highlighting the limits of public entrepreneurship (deLeon & Denhardt, 2000; Diefenbach, 2011):

- **Lack of Legitimacy:** Given that public managers must act in compliance to the consent established by elected politicians, the manipulation of political will through a commitment to entrepreneurial activities represents for some a threat to democratic and transparent governance (Terry, 1998; Morris & Jones, 1999; deLeon & Denhardt, 2000).
- **Public Values vs. Private Values:** Experts have seen that entrepreneurial management and the public sector are intrinsically incompatible, due to the different systems of value in the two said sectors (Roberts & King, 1996; Du Gay, 2000).
- **Public Resources and Limited Risk-Taking:** There is a potential conflict between entrepreneurial risk-taking and the obligation of public managers to use public resources adequately (Bellone & Goerl, 1992).
- **Public interests vs. Interests of Public Entrepreneurs:** The entrepreneurial spirit deriving from the private sector is based on the attenuation of private interests even if it is to the detriment of those of the public (Terry, 1998; Currie et al., 2008; Klein et al., 2009). Some authors have seen that to achieve their own personal interests, entrepreneurs can go as far as to abuse public funds, public institutions, etc. (Bellone & Goerl, 1992; Terry, 1998; deLeon & Denhardt, 2000; Diefenbach, 2011).
- **Unintended Consequences:** Entrepreneurial activities that are not fully in line with the objectives of their organization can have unintended consequences (e.g. neglect of essential activities, competition with other private or public organizations, etc.) (Morris & Jones, 1999; Currie & Procter, 2005; Rhodes & Wanna, 2008).

Leadership Dilemma in Public Management

With the establishment of public administrations, structural, functional, operational, etc. changes must be based on a *Reformist Leadership* that is both accountable and efficient as well as oriented towards transformational results (Wilson, 1887; Barnard, 1938). Researchers have also seen that public administrations reforms can only be made through a flexible exercise of power on the part of public officials (Bruere, 1912; Schiesl, 1977; Roberts, 1994); this must be made on the operational level of the administrative systems to accelerate the performance of their tasks and guarantee quality public services (Knott et al., 1987; Charih et al., 1997; Behn, 1998). The emergence and success of the New Deal in the United States, as well as the rise of neoliberalism (Barnard, 1938), encouraged many initiatives aiming to create innovative reformist policies in the public sector. Over time, ideas relating to entrepreneurship, innovation, flexibility, creativity, etc. became intricately linked to the period of the *Trentes Glorieuses* (1945-1975) in Europe, the American Dream, and the Japanese Miracle (in the post WWII years) (Selznick, 1957; Gow et al., 2000; Beerel, 2009). In this context, researchers were interested in the lessons learned from the leadership style of those who innovated and transformed private markets and industries (Anderson, et al., 2010). Over time, following the many financial crises and economic stagnations of the 1970s, experts began to initiate reforms in the public sector while drawing inspiration from private models giving rise to the concept of Public Entrepreneurship (Lewis, 1980; Maltais et al., 2007). The application of Public Entrepreneurship then emerged and was adopted by many Public

Managers who broke the mold of Leadership based on conforming to conservatism (McGraw, 1984). Studies that dealt with the concept of public leadership from a private sector entrepreneurial approach have highlighted two points of view:

- Creative change in public structures takes place through flexible managerial actions making public administrations catalysts of Public Entrepreneurs (Gore, 1994; Feldman et al., 2001; Bernier, 2012). According to this concept, if public managers had the same freedom and flexibility as those in the private sector, civil servants and public organizations would be more efficient in delivering public value (Drucker, 1990; Moore, 1995). This is achieved by setting up structures that encourage managers' (in this case public servants) creativity (Boston et al., 1996; Kettle, 1997).
- Public Leadership emerges from the ability of public managers to lead, but too much freedom in a public administration can lead to a lack of responsibility on the part of the public manager (Moore, 1995; Terry, 1998; Feldman et al., 2001).

However, experiences have shown how the actions of public managers and state structures are conceptually separable (Giddens, 1984). However, in practice, the action is initiated by public entrepreneurs and is incubated by structures which recreate its actions, accelerate them, and make them more effective and efficient (Bourdieu, 1977; 1990; Giddens, 1979).

Entrepreneurship Principles in the Public Sector

Action-based Principles

We have seen how public entrepreneurship was built around the ideas and actions of private sector managers during the *Trentes Glorieuses* (Bryson et al., 1992; Carnevale, 1995) with the aim to better understand how public managers can overcome the multiple challenges within orbit of the public sector (Heifetz, 1994; Luke, 1998; Moore, 1995). Most of the work dealing with this subject is devoted to the search for rules of action to enable public managers achieve their objectives. Within this framework, three principles can be identified:

- **The Creation of Value by Public Entrepreneurs:** the creation of value by state apparatus should not be limited to the mechanisms and processes of grassroots institutions (e.g. government, municipalities, etc.); it also serves as a main catalyst for the creative entrepreneurial actions of public managers with the aim of discovering new public needs as well as the means to achieve them (Moore, 1995; Feldman et al., 2001).
- **Public Entrepreneurs must manage the mission of administrations:** public managers must work to manage and steer the mission of public bodies (Drucker, 1990) but also develop and make them evolve, thus creating and responding to the needs of citizens (Senge, 1990; Barzley, 1992; Échaudemaison et al., 2009).
- **The Continuous development by public entrepreneurs:** The creation of value requires attention to the mechanism, quality, and content of the added value of public action (Drucker, 1990) on the part of public entrepreneurs (Feldman et al., 2001).

Hence, we understand that these three principles inform the manager what to manage (the mission), how to manage it (through continuous development), and what is the purpose of his / her actions (the creation of public value).

Structural Principles

Action-based principles allowed us to review the role and impact of the mission of administrations in the management of public actions, but also the limits that can slow down the efforts of entrepreneurs to carry out the said actions. In this context, experts underlined the importance of the public entity's structure as a platform allowing public managers to manage according to the priorities of the political principles of their administrations as well as of the public they represent. That said, several experts have recommended a series of structural principles that entrepreneurial public management have set to managers (Aucoin, 1995):

- **Segregation of Duties:** It is the dichotomy of roles between those who organize and plan public policy and those who implement and operationalize it (Wilson, 1887). Structural reforms in Public Management must therefore be based on the separation of tasks as a crucial dimension to (Boston et al, 1996):
 - (a) empower public officials;
 - (b) make them more efficient by specifying their tasks; and
 - (c) guarantee quality results.

- **The Importance of Purpose:** Deriving from New Public Management, this principle defines the established agreements between public administrations and non-profit / non-governmental organizations, but also those of the private sector (PPP) with the aim of (Feldman et al., 2001):
 - (a) competing with the private sector;
 - (b) improving the performance of state administrations; and
 - (c) reducing the costs of the offered services.

- **Meritocratic-Technocracy:** Organizations or ad hoc groups are responsible for performing specific, measurable, and evaluable tasks (NPR, 1997), but each task is carried out by a person who masters it (Feldman et al., 2001). Indeed, Gulick (1937) saw specialization and differentiation of tasks on a meritocratic basis as a key component of the organizational efficiency of public administration.

The structural principles of Entrepreneurial Leadership in Public Management have been impacted by the reforms of Reaganism and Thatcherism (Roberts, 1997); those who defend such reforms perceived them as orienting public organizations towards performance (NPR, 1997). These principles perceive the structure as a key factor in the credibility and responsibility of managerial actions. It should be noted that such principles, although they provide a source of monitoring on what administrations do to guarantee the quality of their services, they do not now allow the identification of the change that might impact the needs of the citizens to be able to respond quickly (Mihm, 1997; Échaudemaison et al., 2009).

Practical Principles

Public managers have adopted some aspects of the action-based and structural principles without really understanding the constraints that accompany them. However, by adopting such aspects, these managers have indeed created new methods to manage and give credibility to their actions. That said, the experts were able to identify principles that can help managers give credibility to their actions within the framework of a flexible system (Feldman et al., 2001):

- **Inclusion:** Managers must master the dynamic of interactions between the different governance structures of public action. Inclusion begins with the proposal of new entrepreneurial ideas from public managers or other stakeholders; however, to avoid the bureaucratization of any project, other qualified third parties will be included to guarantee an end serving the citizens the most. This model advocates a decentralized control of processes and results, but a centralized responsibility for participation. According to this model, top management (state's top officials) controls how participation in the management process is implemented through the power to train and reward people while providing them a certain level of freedom for specific processes and outcomes.

- **Process Primacy:** Even if solving public problems is the ultimate goal, the way to achieve this would be by focusing on the most flexible process. This principle also underlines the importance of the public entrepreneur towards those included in the entrepreneurial process on the one hand and those benefiting from the finality of their collective actions (citizens) on the other hand. This model emphasizes centralized control of managerial processes. We understand then that the primacy of the process directs the efforts of managers and public officials towards those needing to be included and / or served by public efforts (as well as the structures incubating these efforts). This concentration can have three consequences (Feldman et al., 2001):
 - **Consequence 01:** Like Inclusion, it can guide efforts to reduce structural barriers, thereby increasing flexibility.
 - **Consequence 02:** Attention to those needing to be included or served can increase flexibility in serving a well-identified group of individuals.
 - **Consequence 03:** Attention to the process may increase public expectations for coordinated activities and improved services.

The focus on the Primacy of Process does not remove the tension between responsibility and flexibility. The flexibility supported by the focus on process allows public project managers to consider the effects of their decisions on structures, and even adapts to the inevitable (un)expected consequences of such decisions.

What do we understand?

The public demands of managers to tackle increasingly complex and interconnected problems, and financial constraints limits the amount of resources a given organization can draw on to solve these problems. At the same time, the public is asking for accountability and responsibility in return for the use of public funds and authority. Flexible management can go hand in hand with structures or procedures that have traditionally provided some form of legitimacy for the spending

of funds or the exercise of power and authority. These structures cover a whole range of mechanisms for the conduct of public work, including procedures for soliciting public comments on training processes, as well as methods of implementation or evaluation. The alteration of established structures can shatter public acceptance or the degree of comfort with the exercise of governmental authority. One possible way to understand this relationship between flexibility and responsibility is, for example, to make a compromise: maximize one and minimize or diminish the other.

POST-CONFLICT PUBLIC SECTOR

The Contextualization of Post-Conflict Countries

According to economists, the distribution of public resources by political entities will affect their future, hence the interdependence between socioeconomic equity and these institutions (Gibbons, 2005; Wolfrum, 2005). According to sociologists, a country's history and culture will condition the extent to which its public institutions address issues of social cohesion and express their management process (Jun, 1986; Greene, 2004; Dahl-Ostergaard et al., 2005; Ajakaiye & Ali, 2009; Narayan & Petesch, 2010). Also, the evolution of existing socio-political arrangements and conditions is crucial to understanding what the possibilities for change are (Jun, 1986; Pierson, 2004). We therefore understand that the public administration of each country is not limited to the principles of technical duty but is effectively linked to several environmental contexts which frame its particularities (Arrington & Sawaya, 1984; Wolfrum, 2005; Narayan & Petesch, 2010).

Following the end of the Cold War (1947-1991), the world had to deal with an unprecedented number of conflicts and their destructive repercussions on the affected countries. This has led the international community to actively work to better understand how to prevent conflict and build peace (OECD, 2002, Ahmad, 2006). Initially, international initiatives in post-conflict countries were largely limited to peacekeeping and humanitarian aid (Hillman, 2013), but have broadened to include direct public model interventions (Ahmad, 2006). These interventions are justified by the emergence of a consensus that the weakness of public institutions was the main cause of conflicts (Blair, 2009; Brinkerhoff, 2010; UN, 2010; World Bank, 2012). One of the major challenges in post-conflict countries was building an effective public sector (Collier, 2009b; Boex et al., 2010; Hillman, 2013). During this period, the international community had already heavily invested in supporting democratic elections within such countries as a process of guaranteeing lasting peace (Paris & Sisk, 2009); but experiences have shown that these initiatives were effectively insufficient to mitigate such an objective. In many cases, the governing political class in post-conflict countries have taken public actions that countered social cohesion and even exacerbated the violence by creating new areas of conflict (Collier, 2009a). In this context, international entities saw that no progress can be made (e.g. promotion of peace, legitimate sustainability of governments, etc.) if appropriate governance and public administration institutions are not put in place (Ahmad, 2006; UN, 2007; World Bank, 2011) capable of playing their role (including providing essential services to populations) (Fukuyama, 2013; Hillman, 2013) to gain the trust of the impacted community (Hillman, 2013).

It should be noted that the provision of basic public services is inherently difficult in a post-conflict context (Wolfrum, 2005; Collier, 2009b). Therefore, more and more post-conflict reconstruction programs initiated by international entities (UN, 2007; Boex et al., 2010), that go beyond humanitarian aid (OECD, 2002; Ajakaiye & Ali, 2009; UN, 2012) are considered a focal condition

to the establishment of peace and public development via the initiation of effective and legitimate state institutions (Ahmad, 2006; Brinkerhoff, 2010; Chandy, 2011a; 2011b; Naudé et al., 2011).

The Public Management Model in Post-Conflict Countries

We see how the public sector management in the post-conflict countries presents itself as an import product and not as the result of an autonomous evolutionary dynamic of the concerned communities (Narayan & Petesch, 2010). It is a mimetic reproduction of an external model that has adapted to foreign data and not to local needs. This allows us to decrypt the dialectic of relationship that exists between public administration rebuilding and social needs (Wolfrum, 2005). Indeed, even if this model lacks any social relations with the concerned communities, the affected population perceives it as a vector for developing (or an emancipation from) the old model - considered as the main source as well as the residue of the conflict (Ajakaiye & Ali, 2009; Chandy 2011; Naudé et al., 2011).

At first glance, the idea of dependence of one state on another is incompatible with the principle of equality which governs relations between states (Arrington & Sawaya, 1984). This principle does not consider the inability of post-conflict countries, subjected to external constraints, to control the variables that condition and determine their development, and that of the public (Chevallier, 2019). To regenerate post-conflict countries, a new form of development completely dependent on foreign intervention has taken place. This dependence can indeed take different forms (Narayan & Petesch, 2010; UN, 2012): the reproduction of public management models, the call for referents, the involvement of international organizations, international financial institutions (IFIs), international NGOs (INGOs), development programs of embassies, multinational firms, local private firms, etc. (Obuku et al., 2017; Mohammed & Yalwa, 2018). Thus, we are experiencing a new wave of modeling the public sector by various parties who are incarnating the concept of states within the state to the point where certain new players are delimiting their own sovereignty within the post-conflict countries (Wolfrum, 2005).

In most cases, the financing of development projects is conditioned by reforms modeling the management of the public sector according to principles that are pre-established by its donors. Indeed, these parties will plan, inject, manage, and control, etc. public sector projects in a post-conflict country (Wolfrum, 2005). This system subsequently confirms that the complex relations existing within the state, its sovereign interests, etc. are secondary to external relations.

Post-Conflict Public Sector Reconstruction

Since the late 1990s, the notion of post-conflict environments has been forged by multilateral parties involved in peacebuilding and peacekeeping processes (Belaid, 2012). In this context, post-conflict reconstruction can be perceived as any action aimed at identifying the procedures that tend to strengthen and solidify peace to avoid a return to conflict (Noel, 2005; Ahmad, 2006; Nhema, 2008). This concept has become a key element in the peacebuilding policies of international bodies (e.g. UN, INGOs, IFIs, etc.) with the aim of achieving a lasting positive peace (Galtung, 1969; Belaid, 2012; Earnest & Dickie, 2012; Obuku et al., 2017). This process thus involves the creation of attitudes, institutions and structures that build more peaceful societies in vulnerable areas even before a conflict breaks out (Ferguson, 2010; Belaid, 2012). It is a process of artificial reconstruction of post-conflict countries which is initiated, launched, and financed by international parties (public entrepreneurs). This actually justifies their long-term presence (Ahmad, 2006; Brinkerhoff, 2007; Nhema, 2008; Elbadawi et al., 2008; Belaid, 2012) with the

aim to eradicate any kind of devastating redeployment of public policies (Ankersen, 2008; Dosse, 2010), by intrinsically creating new incentive structures (Fischer & Quéniwet, 2005; Hills, 2009; Belaid, 2012) and establishing a public management model capable of collecting and managing public revenue and spending (Boyce, 2007) in a way that is perceived by citizens as being efficient and equitable and most importantly legitimate given the assurance of public service delivery (Brynen, 2002; Ahmad, 2006; 2011; Belaid, 2012).

CHAOS THEORY: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

A Theoretical Understanding

Management is taught as being the science of strategic and tactical decisions in organizations making it possible to determine the most satisfactory combination in terms of yields and productivity of available means and resources with a view to achieving the objectives previously set within the framework of a determined policy (Martinet, et *al.*, 2008). Hence, those involved in a certain management process do their best to achieve goals through prospective predictions via the development of various possible and sometimes impossible scenarios. However, Business-management experiences (success and failures) have proven that a market, an ecosystem, an environment, a situation, an organization only prove that the only managerial constant certainty is change (Stibel, 2009). When it comes to strategic management, one of the major constraints / obstacles facing the contemporary manager is the lack of tools describing and predicting the possible behavior of the market, the environment, the organization, etc. (Levy, 1994). Thus, a dilemma emerges: a manager must draw scenarios and set prospectives in a targeted market subjected to the complex interactions between the different stakeholders that are involved (e.g. firms, government, clients, support agents, etc.). From a strategic management perspective, we have two types of systems (Phelan, 1995):

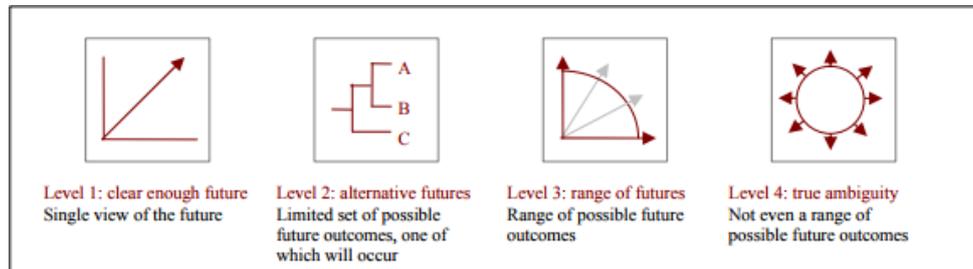
- (1) a stable aperiodic behavior which has no variables where system elements are repeated regularly; and
- (2) an unstable aperiodic behavior which system elements are much more complex, do not repeat and change-react to the smallest disturbance of the status quo.

When it comes to the latter type of system and given the great dependence on the initial conditions: to predict the future state of a system with some degree of certainty, it is necessary to know the initial conditions with precision, as the errors increase with the least degree uncertainty (Alshammari et *al.*, 2016). Experts have distinguished four levels of uncertainty as shown in the figure below with which the manager is confronted (Courtney et *al.*, 1997):

- At the first level there is a single vision of the future;
- At the second level, one of the futures will occur (even if several scenarios have been calculated);
- At the third level there are a multitude of possibilities for possible futures;
- At the fourth level there are real rules of ambiguity about the future.

Dealing with uncertainty is probably one of the most important challenges facing a manager today given its many levels that gradually become more complex.

Figure 02. The Four Levels of Uncertainty (according to Osterwalder, 2004)



This brings us to chaos theory which can be applied to analyze the change in relations between interacting managerial elements (Young & Douglas Kiel, 1994) based on the following principles (Kellert, 1993; Rudy, 2009):

- The non-linearity but rather the self-similarity of system dynamics.
- The qualitative transformation towards new state dynamics.
- The gradual and progressive complexity of results.
- The appearance of new forms of order deriving from even the most chaotic status quo.

Chaos theory as is, focuses on the unpredictability in occurrences and behaviors, considering that systems naturally gravitate toward complexity, thus increasing their volatility. Thus, organizations will require further efforts to maintain their systems and stability (Peters, 1987). Within the context of project management, chaos theory can be used to understand guiding behaviors in an environment, sector, or organization that depends on project-based work for its vitality. In other words, rigid structures will ultimately harm a sector or an organization’s ability to react to any ever-present randomness (Englund, 2009). Hence the need for responsiveness to changing needs and wants through organizational change and / or project components or work methods.

Chaos Theory and Post-Conflict Public Sector Project Management

Based on the above, we aim to review chaos theory in post-conflict public sector project management to show how we can find underlying rules and structures that are sometimes quite simple in many systems where reigns supreme at first sight a great disorder (Plüss, 2009). By applying chaos theory as a theoretical framework for their work, public project managers can improve the practices of their actions. Project managers, regardless of their field, must learn to operate within a state of continuous unpredictability and instability. Hence, public project managers must identify and exercise appropriate tools and practices that enables them to be more creative and productive – to counter such obstacles. In other words, project managers are ought to employ tools, techniques and processes that can lead to a certain logic of equilibrium in an ever-changing environment (e.g. pre-war – war – post-war status). Putting into action nudges or working on sudden change catalyzers, project managers can uncover transformational forces that shifts the status quo towards a stable point (the target-desired future goal(s)). Instead of perceiving chaos as an “unfortunate” state, project managers should take advantage and work on the natural forces deriving from the environment and operate accordingly. This usually done by (Englund, 2009):

- Reevaluating the current and prospective environmental factors that (will) impact(s) project success.

- Overcoming the natural first-on confusion.
- Refocusing efforts on the initial purpose, vision, and mission while remaining open to change.
- Applying more specific and appropriate tools, techniques and processes to harness chaos and achieve results.

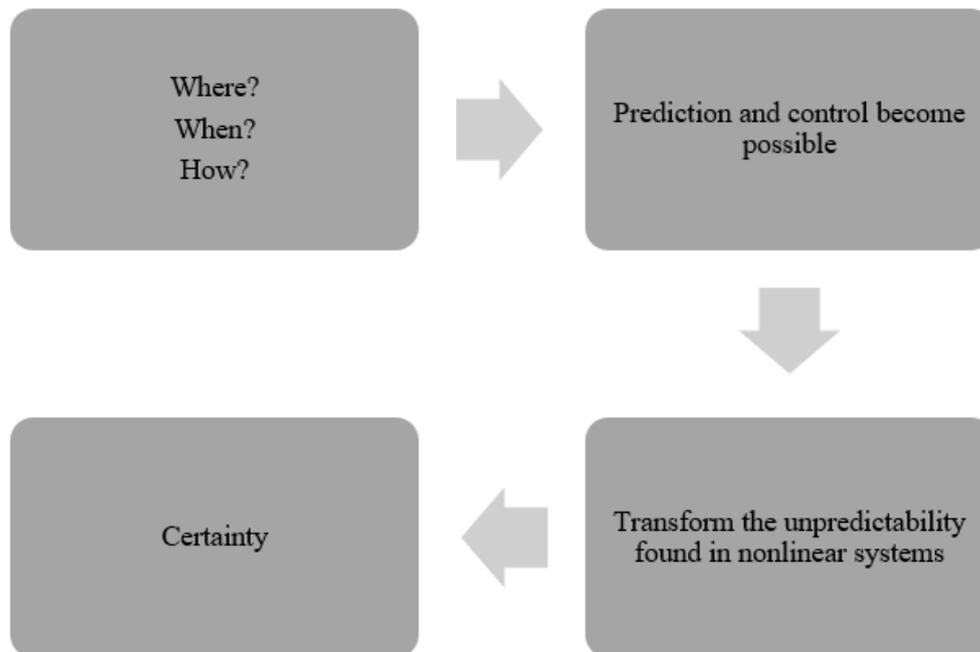
As we have previously stated, rather than viewing chaos as undesirable, a project manager must learn to creatively work on the natural forces that derive any project and / or organization. Thus, a project manager must focus on alignment, execution, and optimizing results in the best ways possible. This is done by effectively managing unpredictable and disorderly small changes in initial conditions that create enormous consequences, which will require a renewal or a revitalization of the entire project process (Englund, 2009). Thus, within the context of our study, chaos theory can be used to understand the unpredictable, uncontrollable, and unstable post-conflict environment in general and the dynamic of the country's public sector's related project management actions. This theoretical framework is used to study the environment's initial condition's impact on project outcomes.

BUILDING ON CHAOS: A CONTEXUTAL ANALYSIS

Public Sector Project Management in a Chaotic Post-Conflict Environment

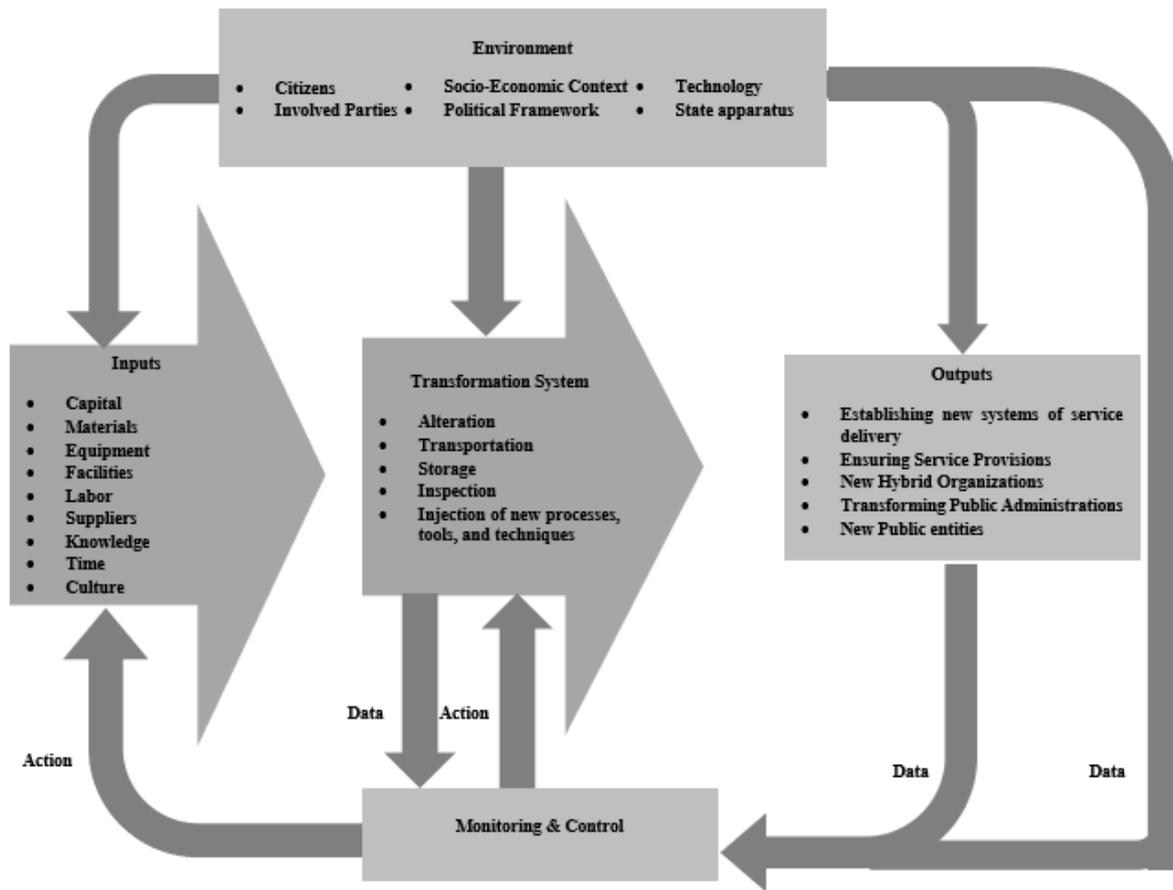
Managing public projects in a chaotic system with a deep sensitive dependence on initial conditions is a rather difficult exercise given the fact (and as we have already seen), even small errors in the specification of the initial conditions can be amplified exponentially as the system evolves. Chaos Theory has had a qualitative application to the planning process as: managers try to create stability in the planning process as Chaos Theory allows managers to observe: Where? What? And how? an event has occurred to work accordingly. Changing events are intrinsically linked to the organizational needs, social particularities, political beliefs, etc. Once done, such identification process will help the project manager to accurately set possible prospective scenarios and work based on an unstable environment (where nothing is impossible). In other words, any changes that might occur in the external environment will be considered for the project to be planned (internally) in a way to remain compliant to the initial goals while remaining open to the emergence of new ones as well. This technique will establish a level of certainty in the planning process.

Figure 03. The Qualitative Application of Chaos Theory on the Planning Process



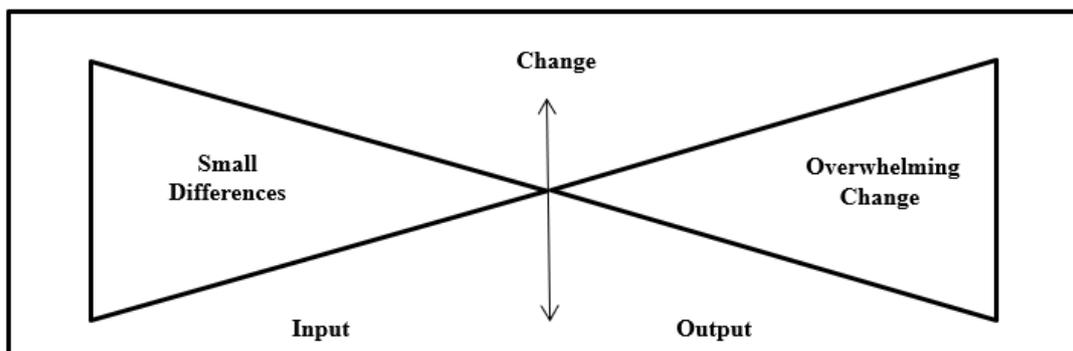
When it comes to project management in general and in the public sector in particular, experts believe that “long-term” planning is downright difficult in non-linear and deterministic aperiodic systems (Phelan, 1995). As it is known, the reason behind any project is the attainment of goals and subsequently the creation added value (Barthélemy, 2015). The delivery of service with an added value involves transforming or converting inputs (e.g. capital, labor, information, etc.) into outputs by using one or more transformation processes (e.g. storing, transporting, repairing, etc.). To ensure that the desired outputs are obtained, an organization takes measurements at various points in the transformation process (feedback) and then compares them with previously established standards to determine whether a corrective action is needed (control).

Figure 04. Operations Management Framework of Public Sector’s Project Management



Considering that public projects exist in a dynamic, complex, and unstable environment – those that are operating in post-conflict environments have much more challenges to face. Such challenges are posed by environmental constraints and the limited rationality decision makes (Van De Ven & Poole, 1995), hence the change in content. If the entire “status quo” depends on the smallest set of differences, hence, when it comes to public projects in a post-conflict country, it is important to consider the smallest disruption there is. Every part of a complex system has the potential to change in a random way and is therefore unpredictable.

Figure 05. Chaos and Change



Using chaos theory as a conceptual framework for decision-making processes in any project became a relative necessity (Peters, 1988). On another note, the emergence of an informal institutional leader and change of apparent sources of power became more evident. This can be perceived in post-conflict countries where the public entrepreneurs (non-elected entities that are addressing public needs – thus, representing the citizens) are now the source of power, legitimacy, and the running motor of public administration. Thus, a new set of behavioral dynamic and social relationships was indeed established between the state, the citizens, and the public entrepreneurs.

Hence, we understand the following – there is:

- A non-linear / informal appointment of a delegate.
- A continuous change in the relationships of internal and external elements.

A post-conflict environment is in a constant state of instability. This can be added to the fact that the global economy as well as geopolitical events are also good representations of instability and evolution, hence, demonstrating a clearly visible chaotic status. Hence, public project managers must learn to cope (flexibility) with a constantly changing environment to respond to citizens, remain compliant to innovation on all levels in relations to the public sector, etc. This is done as part of the strategic process of managing uncertainties resulting from random mutations. This is said as Seemingly minor changes can have an unexpected substantial impact on the system. Indeed, random mutations can be:

- Endogenous to the project (e.g. human capital, discovery of a new technology, etc.);
- Exogenous to the project (e.g. political, economic, security, etc.).

Further Post-Conflict Public Sector Project Management Elements

Complexity

The extent to which a public project process in a post-conflict environment is complex or, conversely, easy to understand depends on several characteristics such as originality, novelty and radicality of innovation (internal or external) of the implemented action as is. Hence, the greater the gap between the required knowledge and skills from people (depending on their functions) on the one hand and their real skills on the other hand, the more the organization must be based on experience, unanalysed intuition, chance, and conjecture rather than known standard methods of designing, developing, and implementing solutions to problems (Perrow, 1967). In this case, the clarity at the level of the work of the public entrepreneur is reduced, thus leading it to a condition of uncertainty.

Uncertainty

Several terms and definitions have been used to designate this aspect of the structural reality of projects. Uncertainty is inevitably linked to the instability of the environment (internal and / or external) due to innovation as well as instability and refers to the extent to which individuals, groups or organizations are informed of the future (Galbraith, 1973). Hence project managers must be able to react flexibly to circumstances and apply the most appropriate strategy to manage the uncertainty presented to them. In other words, by integrating flexibility into strategic processes, public entrepreneurs would be able to better cope with different degrees of uncertainty (Taran, 2011).

Long-Term Planning

In chaotic systems, small disturbances multiply over time due to nonlinear relationships and the dynamic-repetitive nature of such systems. As a result, these systems are extremely sensitive to initial conditions, making any kind of forecasting exceedingly difficult. The fact that systems evolve dynamically, make them subject to small random influences that cannot be incorporated into the model.

Formulating a long-term plan is clearly a key task for any public project manager. This task has always involved models to make predictions in an uncertain future (as we have already explained). The conventional structuring of linear models and the influence of random errors lead us to believe that better models as well as a more precise specification of the starting conditions would give better predictions, useful for perhaps months if not years in the future. However, chaos theory suggests the opposite where we cannot predict the future by studying the past: if history is the sum of the complex and non-linear interactions between people and nations, then history does not repeat itself (Levy, 1994).

Short-Term Planning

Although the unpredictability and instability of chaotic systems has been emphasized, there is also a degree of order in chaotic systems. Short-term forecasting is possible because in a deterministic system, given the conditions at the specific period “t”, we can calculate the conditions at the time period “t + 1” via built simulation models with starting conditions specified with more or less precision to provide useful forecasts at least for several relatively close periods.

While taking into consideration that strategic decisions in public projects are made on a monthly or even annual basis, then appropriate simulation models might be able to make useful predictions over a specific time horizon: months or even years (Levy, 1994).

Another characteristic of chaotic systems which gives them a certain degree of order is that they are “conditioned”. Outcome variables such as labour or investments in new capacity fluctuate within certain limits which are determined by the structure of the system and its parameters but not by its initial conditions. In the context of a public project’s strategy, these limits could be set by feedback loops (Levy, 1994).

The Dynamic of Post-Conflict Project Managers

The OECD Development Assistance Committee has defined the orbit of intervention of its members according to eight main areas (OECD, 2002):

- **Fundamental guiding principles:** a long-term commitment to establish the primacy of conflict prevention by initiating sustainable development.
- **Adopt a perspective / culture of conflict prevention:** this is achieved by setting up a foreign policy based on cooperative actions.
- **Security and development:** perceiving security and development as pillars ensuring the good management of public affairs and initiatives aimed at designing lasting peace.
- **Encourage regional cooperation and consultation:** this is done to limit large-scale conflicts.
- **Peace, justice, and reconciliation process:** securing the means to avoid new conflicts.
- **Establish partnerships in the service of peace:** establishing coordination and development partnerships with public authorities and with local and international civil society.

- **Mobilize the business world:** sensitizing the private sector to the potential of the positive impact of its contributions in relation to the issue of conflict prevention.
- **Countering unfavourable economic developments:** ensuring economic stability to secure stability and social cohesion.

The Work Mechanism Dilemma of Post-Conflict Project Managers

In this context, we can outline the work mechanism dilemma of project managers implicated in some public reconstruction activities in post-conflict countries:

- **Centralization vs. Decentralization:** A review of international experiences shows that the extent and way decentralization and local governments have contributed to post-conflict recovery varies considerably from one country to another (Wolfrum, 2005). In some post-conflict countries, a more decentralized structure is an essential part of conflict resolution (e.g. Macedonia), while in other countries decentralization is used as a tactical modality to provide infrastructure or public services during the initial post-conflict period (e.g. Cambodia). On the other hand, in a third group of countries, the post-conflict period is dominated by a tendency towards increased centralization rather than decentralization (e.g. in Afghanistan, Iraq, etc.) (Boex et al, 2010). Hence it is up to the involved organizations in the reconstruction process to carry out their own assessments of post-conflict countries in order to guarantee the best delivery of services (Piriou, 2004; Meier, 2009) An important question to which international development actors must answer is to know under what conditions local governments have a comparative advantage as a modality of public service delivery, reconstruction and recovery in a post-conflict situation, or whether other modalities (e.g. centralized delivery, NGO involvement, etc.) are more effective mechanisms for achieving post-conflict recovery (Fox, 2007; Obuku et al., 2017).
- **Public financial management (PFM) reforms in Post-Conflict Countries:** The nature and level of corruption risks vary across the stages of PFM, ranging from administrative corruption to political corruption (Fritz et al., 2012). While PFM reform is a central element of governance reforms in many developing countries, the fight against corruption is rarely an explicit objective of these reforms, especially in post-conflict countries (UN, 2007; Tavakoli & Saneja, 2012). The impact of PFM reform on anti-corruption parameters in post-conflict countries is difficult to separate from other factors that may have positive anti-corruption results (Wolfrum, 2005). Countries that have seen substantial improvements in the performance of their PFM systems as well as in the rate of corruption, have achieved positive results as part of a broader governance reform that has been supported by strong political commitment from national governments and through the involvement of international organizations (Transparency International, 2005; UN, 2007; Morgner, 2013).
- **(Re)Building trust in the state apparatus in Post-conflict countries:** the lack of trust has been shown to be associated with the onset of violent conflicts and instability (Levi & Stoker, 2000; Fjeldstad, 2004; Ahmad, 2006). The improvement of public services plays an important role in a process of restoring confidence in the State apparatus of a post-conflict country (Gaïti,

2002; Échaudemaison et al., 2009; Kenworth et al., 2015), namely because improving services only works if it reflects the needs of citizens (Sacks & Larizza, 2012; Wong, 2016).

- **The Distribution of Public Services Provision throughout the Post-Conflict Country's Territory:** this is carried out by international organizations which initiate, finance, implement and (co) manage projects aimed at an equitable distribution of public services throughout the post-conflict country's territory - thus avoiding having a part of the community neglected or deprived of these services (thus avoiding future conflict and / or overcoming the reasons for past conflicts) (Wolfrum, 2005; Ahmad, 2006; Todorovski, 2011).
- **The Emergence of PPP:** The set of definitions of PPP include the private sector playing a role in the provision of services initially provided by public entities (Kumaraswamy et al., 2015). The choice of a PPP is justified by the fact that it makes it possible to optimize resources; in other words, the project must be efficient, effective, economical, and delivered on time, as defined in an agreed contract (Rakić & Rađenović, 2011). A PPP involves the combination of roles, relationships, and resources by two or more public and private entities to achieve their distinct goals through the joint pursuit of a common ground of interest(s) (Vigoda-Gadot, 2003).
- **The Emergence of Hybrid Organizations:** hybrid organizations that derive from New Public Management (Baker, 2016), can be described as the combination of different concepts, resources, and practices to create innovative entities (UN, 2007; Gulbrandsen et al., 2015; Nel, 2018), falling between traditional government provision of public services and privatization (Christensen & Laegreid, 2011; Heldeweg et al., 2015; Baker, 2016). Hence the important role that these organizations play when it comes to modernizing public services and solving complex societal problems (Ménard, 2012; Earnest and Dickie, 2012; Bishop & Waring, 2016). Hybrid organizations are generally developed according to their purpose and mandate; hence, there is no single structure of these entities (Vining & Weimer, 2016). Hybrid organizational forms have gradually become important in alleviating resource constraints (Buso et al., 2014). It would be good to highlight the impact of institutional quality on the expansion of hybrid markets in developing countries including post-conflict ones. This is due to the fact that quality becomes a source of transaction costs in the same way as the specificity and uncertainty of assets, on the one hand, and, on the other hand, it affects the magnitude of the impact of an unforeseen exogenous event (e.g. the positive impact of judicial independence and regulatory quality to attract private investors to hybrid markets, regardless of the degree of uncertainty in the trading environment) (Baker, 2016).
- **Hybrid Governance:** The term hybridity suggests a networked governance of the intersection between a variety of organizational arrangements (Muir & Mullins, 2014; Gulbrandsen et al., 2015). Hybrid forms of governance are often characterized by an agreement between the public and private and societal sectors (Wolfrum, 2005). This new form of governance is considered from the perspective of PFM and given the fact that the available resources for activities related to public interest are increasingly rationed (Silem et al., 2008). Some experts

have even called it ‘‘Partner Governance’’ (Meier, 2009). We can characterize the hybrid phenomenon as Hybrid Governance Mechanisms (HGM) that involves a network of governance approaches to global issues, including selective deregulation, voluntary non-regulatory or self-regulatory systems and market-based solutions. (UN, 2007; UNDP, 2010; Mert, 2014).

- **Privatization of some Public Services:** In post-conflict countries, and under the impetus of donor agencies, privatization is one of the tools used to generate economic gains and ensure the delivery of public services (Tavakoli & Saneja, 2012; Estrin, & Pelletier, 2018); privatization will require the private sector to put in place the preconditions, particularly in terms of infrastructure, to improve efficiency and promote equity in the countries concerned (Venugopal, 2012).

The Change in the Logic of Institutional Control

Based on the above, we notice a process of injecting principles of a new institutional logic in post-conflict public administrations following the intervention and the implication of International Organizations on the one hand and the conviction of the local society that these principles were beneficial and effective for both the administrations as well as for the citizens (Ittner & Larcker, 1998).

In post-conflict countries, International Organizations have initiated actions (e.g. by establishing standards, rules, procedures, etc.) guiding the formalization and standardization of behavioural models making it possible to standardize public sector actions (Glynn *et al.*, 2000) in order to achieve quality public service (in the context of efficiency, effectiveness and multidimensional performance) depending on the referents chosen. Indeed, the measurement of the performance of these public actions comes within the framework of their legitimations (the surest means of adhesion of citizens to public institutions), and subsequently, the legitimization of the new institutional model injected and the role of International Organizations. This new institutional logic can be seen as a new form of dependence where the newly created administrations are devoid of any kind of constitutive autonomy, protected freedom of action, etc.; in other words, the State is no longer in control of its activities, but this is according to a consensus between: (1) the State and the donor and (2) the donor and the population - without there being a direct contact between the population and the state. This dependence then manifests itself in multiple ways: legally (e.g. pacts and conventions), financially, and through the game of diversified control, intended to maintain projects (Ajakaiye & Ali, 2009). In this context we can find three different and complementary levels of analysis at the same time (Carpenter & Feroz, 2001; Boex *et al.*, 2010):

- **At the individual level:** actions are guided by norms, values or traditions that are sometimes unconscious (e.g. ideology, motivation, skills supposedly necessary, etc.).
- **At the level of organizations:** shared systems of belief and power relations (e.g. nature of political competition, professional standards, type of decentralization, etc.) will guide the behaviour of the concerned entities.
- **At the level of the branch or the sector:** pressure from regulatory bodies, pressure to conform from the public and professional standards will limit the behaviour of organizations.

Experts have seen that plural Institutional Logics, each with its own vocabulary, patterns, and frames of reference, can indeed exist in organizations while others have seen that this can cause the concerned entities to be disparate or even contradictory (Thornton et al., 2008); from which we return once again to the theoretical dilemma of conflicts of legitimation.

CONCLUSION

This study aimed to decrypt the project management work dynamic of non-governmental international Public Entrepreneurs that are initiating, implementing, and managing projects aspiring to rebuild the public sector in post-conflict countries. Rebuilding a public sector means reinventing the public administration model and service provision delivery process. Within the context of an unstable environment that is characterized by different socio-anthropological, ideoeconomic, and communal needs differences (depending on the targeted country) each entrepreneurial initiative has indeed many challenges to overcome and many project choices to review. Thus, within the many patterns in the relationships that were outlined (between the public entrepreneurs – state apparatus – and citizens) a delicate planning process must be achieved to selectively apply adequate project management tools and processes to achieve strategic goals and impact project outcomes (that might change depending on the evolution of the project and the reaction received from the targeted community). In other words, based on this dilemma, a public project manager should identify the forces that drive project activities towards the specified goals. This can be done through further focus on a parallel strategic harmonization with the organizational and communal behaviors.

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