

**UNIVERSITY OF VAASA**  
**FACULTY OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

Sadio Jonas

**INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY AND (Good)  
GOVERNANCE:**

Implications for Organizational Structure, Public Participation, and Cultural Responsiveness. The Cases of Guyana, Kenya, Philippines, U.S.A and Estonia.

Master's Thesis in  
Public Administration

**VAASA 2009**

**TABLE OF CONTENTS**

	<b>page</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES</b>	3
<b>ABSTRACT</b>	5
<b>1. INTRODUCTION: FRAMING THE ISSUES</b>	<b>7</b>
1.1. Research Questions	10
1.2. Research Scope	11
1.3. Relevance	12
1.4. Limitations	14
1.5. Work Structure	15
1.6. Motivation	16
<b>2. MODERN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: CLASSIC IDEOLOGY, ORGANIZATIONAL ORTHODOXY, AND CHALLENGES TO THOSE</b>	<b>17</b>
2.1. Classic Ideation and The “Doctrine of Neutrality”	18
2.2. Extrapolating The Classic Ideation: Practical Implications	21
2. 3. Who Is Government?	23
2. 4. Governmental Action and Tools of Execution	23
2.5. Bureaucracy and Organizational Orthodoxy	25
2.6. Challenges To Classic Ideation, Bureaucracy, and Organizational Orthodoxy	28
<b>3. GOVERNANCE THEORY</b>	<b>32</b>
3.1. Defining Governance	32
3.2. Tenets of Governance Theory	33
3.2.1. Knowledge Management	35
3.2.2. Participation and The Public Sphere	38
3.2.3. Good Governance	42
3.3. e-Governance and m-Governance	45
3.4. Culture and Its Role In Governance	48
<b>4. METHODOLOGY AND FRAMEWORK OF ANALYSIS</b>	<b>53</b>

<b>5. PRESENTATION OF CASES AND ANALYSIS</b>	60
5.1. The United States of America	64
5.2. Republic of Kenya	67
5.3. The Co-operative Republic of Guyana	69
5.4. The Republic of Estonia (Eesti Vabariik)	72
5.5. Republic of the Philippines	75
5.6. Analysis	77
5.6.1. United States	81
5.6.2. Kenya	84
5.6.3. Guyana	85
5.6.4. Estonia	88
5.6.5. The Philippines	91
5.7. Summary of Findings on Changes in Organizational Structure	93
5.8. Summary of Findings on Cultural Relevance and Responsiveness	96
<b>6. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUDING REMARKS</b>	98
6.1. Emerging Perspectives on Governance	99
6.2. Concluding Remarks	103
<b>REFERENCES</b>	106
<b>APPENDICIES</b>	
Appendix 1. Kenyan E -Government Organization Chart	120
Appendix 2. U. S E-Government Organization Chart	121
Appendix 3. U.S Government Organization Chart	122
Appendix 4. Guyana Government Organization Chart (United Nations	123

**LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES**

Table 1. Topics In Published Public Administration Research.	13
Table 2. Service Limits Proposed By Classical Ideation.	22
Table 3. Matrix Of Findings From Analysis of ICT Strategy Documents.	81
Figure 1. UN Good Governance.	42



---

**UNIVERSITY OF VAASA****Faculty of Public Administration**

<b>Author:</b>	Sadio Jonas	
<b>Master's Thesis:</b>	Information Communication Technology and (Good) Governance: Implications for organizational structure, public participation, and cultural responsiveness.	
<b>Degree:</b>	Master of Administrative Sciences	
<b>Major Subject:</b>	Intercultural Studies in Communication and Administration	
<b>Year of Graduation:</b>	2009	<b>Number of pages:</b> 124

---

**ABSTRACT:**

In recent decades there has been a paradigm shift in Public Administrative thought from the classical ideas of government, to an approach which is seen as the future of governing termed Governance.

This study sought to investigate whether or how Information and Communication Technology (ICT) is being employed within Public Administrative systems in terms of providing culturally responsive service which furthers the aims of governance and its practical end Good Governance. To focus the inquiry, the following two research questions were posed.

Is Information and Communication Technology (ICT) being used as a tool in reshaping of public administrative systems in keeping with the structural and participatory demands of Governance/ Good Governance?

If ICT is being used toward the structural and participatory aims of Good Governance how are these changes responsive to, or reflective of, the environmental culture in which the administrative system operates?

The, national ICT strategy documents and resulting ICT initiatives of the U.S.A, the Philippines, Guyana, Estonia, and Kenya were examined through the prism of the Governance Theory for intended use of ICT in organizational structure, participation, Knowledge Management and cultural responsiveness.

Upon analysis of the material it was found that all five nations had intended to, and did use ICT to shape public sector organizational structure and to provide culturally responsive service. In so doing, these nations are furthering the aims of Good Governance as defined by Governance Theory.

---

**KEYWORDS:** Information Communication Technology, ICT, organizational structure, culture, governance, Knowledge Management, public sphere, participation, mobile technology, e-Governance, m-Governance, Public Administration



## 1. INTRODUCTION: FRAMING THE ISSUES

The academic science of Public Administration, synthesizes theory from across the scope of natural and social science in order to analyze, understand and generate new theories regarding phenomena.

In recent decades there has been a sea change or paradigm shift in Public Administrative thought from the classical ideas of government to what is seen as the future of governing termed governance (Peters 1996).

This shift to governance can be seen as reflective of larger shifts in the theoretical conceptions of among others; management, organizational behavior, political and sociological ideas of the public sphere, and the state's relationship to the citizen. Owing to this, construction of the new theory on governing (Governance) is an interdisciplinary enterprise which is ongoing. The ultimate practical end of the theory of governance is to produce in practice "good governance" which is

*"(...) epitomized by predictable, open and enlightened policy making; (...) a professional ethos; an executive arm of government accountable for its actions; and a strong civil society participating in public affairs; and all behaving under the rule of law."* (World Bank 1994.)

This work is a small part of that ongoing effort in the study of the future of governing. It is an exploratory one; meant to investigate some of the ways in which Information Communication Technology (ICT) / Mobile Technology is being used in public administrative systems as a tool in governance.

Information and Communication Technology broadly defined is all technology used to manage and disseminate information (Guislain, Ampah & Besançon 2005: 1). That includes storage, dissemination, interpretation among a host of other functions. More practically however, the term is used when referring to

technologies related to the internet and its use since the internet is conceptualized the premier information communication technology (Bekkers, van Duijvenboden & Thaens 2006: 4). Examples of ICT are; internet web sites, web pages, email, online databases, and attendant hardware and software necessary to support these.

Mobile technology is often seen as a subset of Information and Communication Technology and is made up of mobile phones, internet enabled mobile phones, PDA's, Wi Fi and wireless networks. It also includes the hardware and software necessary to support these. (Helal, Haskell, Carter, Brice, Wolek & Rusinkiewicz 1999: xi.)

The focus on Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and its subset Mobile Technology stems from the fact that these have been touted as the panacea for much of what ails the world. The economic divide between wealthy and un-wealthy nations could be narrowed, governmental and private sector organizations could be more cost efficient and productive, the knowledge gap between rich and poor citizens of the world could be reduced and so on. As part of the argument for the "healing" power of Internet Communication Technologies, attention has been focused on Governments adopting ICTs as a strategy to move towards a future of "better governing" or governance. (Bekkers et al. 2008: 3-4.)

As it specifically relates to Public Administration, ICTs are seen as the means to providing increased: access to government information, efficiency of government services and operation, quality and number of services offered, seamless-ness of government services across governmental agencies, achievement of targeted outcomes for policy objectives, civic interactions between government and citizens and vice versa. It is also seen as a means to contribute to governmental reform. (Bhatnagar 2002; Saxena 2005; World Bank 2008: iv; USAID dot-GOV 2009;.)

According to governance theory, commensurate with or as a part of a shift towards governance, a structural shift in the organization of government needs to occur. A movement away from a vertical bureaucratic structure towards a more horizontal networked structure has to take place in order for the benefits of governance to be had. (Peters 1996.)

The overarching reason for this is, bureaucracy began as a technique for organizing and executing public administrative duties since ancient times in human history. Later, it had come to be seen as the most sensible and successful method of organization for the modern industrial nation state. However as the world rapidly moves through the post industrial period and deeper into the technological age, the bureaucratic structural organization is proving less useful. Governments worldwide are looking for a way to change their organizational structure accordingly. (Peters 1996.)

Unfortunately, for public sector organizations the world over, this poses a particular challenge. The global public administrative system is notoriously bureaucratic. In some countries the public administrative system is synonymous with bureaucracy. For example in talking about their public sector, Filipinos usually refer to “the bureaucracy” in official and casual communication. (see Philippine Civil Service Commission 2009.)

Information and Communication Technology has been suggested as an answer to this question of making government structure less vertical and rigid and more horizontal and flexible in order to adapt to the new demands of the technological age. (Hanna 2008: 81–82.)

If it is possible that ICT can be used to make governmental structure more flexible, then conceivably government can also become more responsive. Perhaps the civic engagement between the government and its citizens and conversely, the citizen and its government can be conducted in a culturally relevant way.

These ideas of the use of Information and Communication/ Mobile Technology in Governance; its ramifications for organizational structure in public sector organizations, and possible cultural ramifications within the public sphere, are the subject of this study.

### 1.1. Research Questions

In order to come to a better understanding of the larger role of Internet Communications technology in governance, it became necessary to focus this inquiry into manageable research questions.

The two research questions under investigation in this work are :

*Is Information and Communication Technology/Mobile Technology (ICT) being used as a tool in reshaping of public administrative systems in keeping with the structural and participatory demands of Governance/Good Governance?*

*If ICT is being used toward the structural and participatory aims of good governance, how are these changes responsive to or reflective of the environmental culture in which the administrative system operates?*

In order to uncover answers to these questions; a study of Governance theory (its main tenets) will be undertaken. This Governance theory will then form the framework through which to examine the Information Communication Technology initiatives of the United States, The Philippines, Estonia, Kenya and Guyana.

The five countries which are the object of study span a wide spectrum of size in terms of geography, population, wealth per capita, administrative structure, available resources, spatial location on the globe, history, national culture, and measured readiness (as determined by the United Nations) to implement ICT.

Examining the public administrative systems of such diverse nations is a good way to glean some insight into whether the acclaimed potential of ICT is being fulfilled.

## 1.2. Research Scope

Although this work partially endeavors to examine issues relating to public participation and the public sphere, it is not meant to be a deep exploration of the politics of public participation. Issues of public participation will be examined only in relation to Public Administration. The public's involvement in decision making, communication with government, collaboration and partnership with governmental institutions are examples of topics within the scope of this work.

This work is also not meant to be a technical analysis of Information Communication Technology application within the studied Public Administration systems. No comment nor analysis will be made regarding detailed technological methods or strategies for ICT implementation. For example, kinds of hardware or software used and types of networks selected will not be discussed in detail.

This is not a direct comparative study between the five countries selected. Each country will be studied individually and compared to the structural model dictated by Governance theory.

This work is not one focused on public sector reform, but rather on Information Communication Technology as a tool which can be used in reform strategies.

Lastly, this work will not attempt to determine efficacy of ICT projects or initiatives undertaken by the nations under study. Initiatives will be examined and analyzed based on the intent or stated aims as communicated by the nations.

### 1.3. Relevance

During my course of study in Public Administration, I have observed an intriguing silence on the part of administrative scholars in regards to the public sector and culture. A cursory examination of the reader in administrative thought assigned as one of the foundational materials on which to build our studies finds that the book is fairly thorough. Articles covering topics such as the discipline of Public Administration, the political context of Public Administration, organizational theory, human resources management, budgetary processes, public management, public policy analysis and implementation, program evaluation, intergovernmental relations and public service ethics were present. This list of topics is representative of the breadth of inquiry in the discipline but absent was culture and its effects on Public Administration.

Since this was a cursory observation at the basic level, I kept the issue at the back of my mind pending more advanced studies. After completing a course in Public Administration at the Masters level I still noted a dearth of research on the matter.

I decided to do an official investigation and found that my hunch was correct. David E. McNabb (2002: 18) presents the findings of a study on Topics Published in Public Administration Research (see Table 1). After a written description of the methodology of the study he goes on to say that “an analysis of the Public Administration literature reveals that very little research has been conducted on topics relating to *culture*” [author’s emphasis].

This is not to say that there is no study on culture<sup>1</sup> however culture as a field of inquiry in administrative science has been under explored.

---

<sup>1</sup> scholarship on development administration, comparative administration, and organizational behavior sometimes address culture

That being the case; this work is relevant in that it attempts to drop a pebble into that void in administrative inquiry. It does so by examining how or if structural changes in public administrative organization (aided by ICT implementation) allow for culturally relevant interaction between the organization and its environment.

Table 1. Topics in Published Public Administration Research (McNabb 2002: 82).

Policy output	Manpower-modeling methods
Adaptation to scarcity	Productivity measures
Local attitudes and leader opinion	Effects of Federal Aid
Licensure effectiveness	Public participation
Policy outcomes	Cooperative management style
Organizational costs	Job managing effectiveness
Attitudes beliefs and values	Staff burnout
Cash-management strategy	School Effectiveness
Tax limitations	Risk-management practice
(Research ) Validity and reliability	Affirmative –action effectiveness

The study of the intersection between Information Communication Technology and governance is very relevant to the enterprise of Public Administration. In his written preface to the E-Government survey of 2008; the director of the U.N Division for Public Administration and Development Management placed Knowledge Management at the center of all governmental tasks. The underlying principle being that effective Knowledge Management leads to more efficiency, transparency and responsiveness. E-Government utilizing ICT is seen as the means to that end.

If the Division for Public Administration representing all 192 member states of the United Nations has placed ICT as a central tool in governance it suggests a compelling case for the relevance of any study which seeks to investigate those areas.

#### 1.4. Limitations

Every study has its limitations and this thesis is no exception. The first limitation is that of world view. Though educated in three countries, in terms of academia my world view is decidedly limited. Most of the course material used throughout my academic career were produced in Europe or the United States. Although extensive exposure to multicultural environments and courses of study in cultural anthropology and intercultural communication certainly play a role in mitigating this limitation; it must be considered that when framing, analyzing and discussing this issue my approach is bound by my American and Anglo-Saxon European mode of academic training.

However, in an order to further mitigate this deficiency, scholarship from around the globe was actively sought to increase the possibility of a diversity of perspectives. That however, was not without complications as the foundations of modern scholarship on Public Administration has its academic roots in “the West,” coloring the entire discipline with the world view of its originators (see chapter 2).

Finally, as with all studies which employ the qualitative approach, the sample size under study in the practical section are not random or representative. This opens to door to all criticisms leveled at and limitations embodied by the qualitative approach to research. Namely that the findings are only applicable to the cases in which they were found.

Though those criticisms are valid, I believe that even if the findings only apply to the cases which I study, the nature of the inquiry is such that the results of even a single case sheds light on the issue at hand.

The actions of the administrative system of any country affects millions of lives. A positive or negative finding of a shift in organizational structure or respon-

siveness to culture where ICT is employed in just one nation is therefore significant.

### 1.5. Work Structure

This thesis is organized into six chapters. An explanation of what can be expected in each chapter follows.

Chapter one consists of the introduction to the work and locates the issues under examination within the larger framework of administrative study. It also explicitly states the research questions, the researcher's motivation, as well as the scope, limitations, relevance and work structure of the study.

Chapter two lays out the background of modern administrative thought and some of the classic ideological foundations upon which it rests.

Chapter three is a theory and literature review which explicates Governance theory, and presents and defines other concepts central to the study.

Chapter four is an explanation of the methodology employed for the practical aspect of the study. There will be an explanation of how Governance theory as discussed in chapter 3 will be used as a framework for analyzing the cases presented in the practical section.

Chapter five is an explanation of the practical aspect of the work. The cases under study will be presented with all the relevant data and background information for each. Then an analysis of the cases, and a report of the findings will be presented. The findings will be treated with regards to the stated research questions and those in turn will be examined in light of larger issues.

Chapter six consists of a discussion of emerging perspectives on Governance and concluding remarks.

### 1.6. Motivation

Catalyzed by the seminal experience of immigrating from the country of my birth (Guyana) to the place where I was raised (The United States), I developed an interest in the peculiar ways in which people do things “somewhere else.” As I grew, I became what I later learned to be a perpetual student of Cultural Anthropology. I am drawn to looking at any human activity through the prism of culture.

For this graduate degree I chose the program in Intercultural Communication and Administration for its potential regarding merging Public Administration theory with Cultural theory and practice/ praxis.

When the time came for choosing the issue that I would like to examine for this thesis, I looked for an area of study which included the effects of culture on Public Administration. I was also interested in uses of emergent technologies in Public Administration. As it turns out, the area of Governance in Public Administration encompasses all of these issues.

## **2. MODERN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: CLASSIC IDEOLOGY, ORGANIZATIONAL ORTHODOXY, AND CHALLENGES TO THOSE**

Public Administration has been in existence throughout human history and is synonymous with government. Regardless of governmental structure; nation state (monarchy, oligarchy, democratic republic or dictatorship) or pre state (nomadic, clan etc) the mechanism for distribution of resources and collective decision making is Public Administration. Writings on the subject could be found from ancient China, Greece, and Rome. “It is possible to find most of the modern concepts of management and leadership stated by one or another of the writers of the classical, medieval, and premodern world” (Shafritz, Hyde & Parkes 2004: 1).

From as far back as 5200 years ago at the time of the Unified Upper and Lower Egypt under King Menes which was the first known nation state ( see Rice 1990: 134), Public Administration has been an important part of governing. Since the world now is divided into modern versions of those nation states; the terms “Public Administration”, “public sector” or “civil service” usually refers to the apparatus of Government responsible for executing the will of the state as defined by laws or decrees.

The academic discipline of Public Administration as it exists today though, finds its roots in the study of Cameralism at institutions like Halle University in the 1700s. Later, between 1850 and 1900 Lorenz Jacob Von Stein in Vienna and Woodrow Wilson in the United States began introducing the concept of Administration as a Science in its own right. (Stever 1988: 44; Jackson: 2005.)

The discipline of Public Administration took flight in the US following Wilson’s seminal article ‘The Study of Administration’ in 1887 (Khan 2008: 10-16.) Prior to that time, the US had been focused on deciding what kind of government it wanted. Since that decision had been made, Wilson turned his attention to in-

investigating ways to administer the chosen form of government. In ‘The Study of Administration’ he declared that

*“it is the object of administrative study to discover, first, what government can properly and successfully do, and secondly, how it can do these proper things with the utmost possible efficiency and the least possible cost either of money or energy.”* (Wilson 1887: 22.)

In this article he also laid out the idea that “administration is the most obvious part of government; it is the government in action; it is the executive, the operative, the most visible side of government itself” (Wilson 1887: 22) and argued that executive methods of administration should be studied and discovered scientifically and that administration should be absolutely separated from Politics.

Following Wilson’s work throughout the 20th century to now, a cannon of research and writings on Public Administration has emerged. It consists of scholarship mainly from the United States, with contributions from the United Kingdom and other parts of Europe, making academia on Public Administration a mainly “Western” (meaning Western Europe and North American) enterprise. (Johnson 1992: 82.)

### 2.1. Classic Ideation And The “Doctrine of Neutrality”

Public Administration as a Science has had trends in philosophy like any other academic discipline. There are some pillars of academic thought on which Public Administration rests. Some of these ideas have evolved but the effects of all these can still be felt throughout the study and practice. These principles were established over time and were formed in response to challenges facing Public Administration in its infancy. These principals still guide modes of thinking about public service and its resulting role in governing.

One of the doctrines in civil service that had the most lasting effects is the doctrine of neutrality. This is the idea that civil service should be professional, scientific and apolitical. “Civil servants should not have known political allegiances of their own and they should be able to serve any “master,” meaning any government of the day” (Peters 2001: 4). This doctrine got its shape from scholars in Europe (the Northcote Trevleyan report of 1853 in the U.K for example) and the U.S (Peters 2001: 4).

From the American perspective the doctrine of neutrality was first espoused by Woodrow Wilson in 1887 and later Frank Goodnow in 1900 as part of a strict divide between politics and administration. This idea was important for the fledgling nation because its citizens were all too familiar with the ills of authoritarian administration in the old world (Stever 1988: 40; Johnson 1992: 29). America needed a Public Administration suited to its values.

While Older Europe was in a more pensive and reflexive mode, where philosophy and art were treasured, America was rife with entrepreneurial spirit and frontierism. “Results, not reflection, were elevated and became the chief end of human action on the American continent” (Stever 1988: 50). Out of this necessity, sprang the specifically American world view exemplified by the Progressive Movement which was a movement geared towards populist reforms of many sections of American society. (Cook 1996: 69–70.)

The progressive attitude eventually made its way to academia which developed the philosophy of Pragmatism. The progressive era leaders wanted to reform all the major institutions in the country and they turned their attention to the business of how to practically administer the infant republic. It is within this milieu that first Wilson then Goodnow sought to tackle the impending reform of American Public Administration and establish administrative thought as a science.

Wilson sought to convince the nation that the Public Administration system could be used toward progressive and positive ends. The American public's negative impression of Public Administration thus far had come from the tyrannical way in which it was used in Prussia and under the monarchy in France. (Stever 1988: 40.)

Wilson (1887: 32) wrote

*“we can borrow the science of administration with safety and profit if only we read all fundamental differences of condition into its essential tenets. We have only to filter it through our constitutions; only to put it over a slow fire of criticism and distil away its foreign gases.”*

He took pains to call for this “science of administration.” He wanted more attention to be paid to the organization and methods of American government offices. He wanted to examine what government can successfully do, most efficiently.

Because the progressive movement had a strong populist inclination, the generators of progressive thought at the time were very skeptical of “big government” since it was seen as the enemy of the common individual. Wilson also had to reassure them that “professionalized Public Administration would not threaten individual liberties” (Stever 1988: 40) but would rather more effectively execute the duties of government. He spent a significant part of his treatise ‘The Study of Administration’ constructing this argument. He painted the picture of a Public Administration that was simply a neutral and technical profession. He said that “the field of Administration is a field of business. It is removed from the hurry and strife of politics” (Wilson 1887: 28).

Building on these ideas, Frank Goodnow (1900) another Progressive Movement thinker then took up the mantle, expanding and refining the argument in his work ‘Politics and Administration.’ He called for a subordination of administra-

tion to politics. In keeping with the thought that Public Administration should be in service of the people not an enemy of the people, he posited that administration should submit to the will of the people.

In the American context; since politicians are elected by the citizens to represent their voice, policies dictated by politicians in the legislative branch of the government are seen as “the will of the people/ state.” According to Goodnow, administration should function simply to execute the will of the state. In practice “it is the executing authority which shall be subordinate to the expressing authority” (Goodnow 1900: 37) meaning that the legislative branch of government should have oversight power over the administrative system to ensure the will of the people received precedence.

With these arguments regarding organization, efficiency and administration’s duty to “the people”, Wilson and Goodnow not only firmly established Public Administration as a Scientific course of study, but cemented what became the classic ideation for a technical, value neutral non-polity profession. (Stever 1988: 38–42; Cook 1996: 71–74.)

## 2.2. Extrapolating The Classic Ideation: Practical Implications

Extrapolating from these ideas illustrates the limits imposed on the profession and science of Public Administration fostered from such ideation.

Table 2. Service Limits Proposed by Classical Ideation (Stever 1988: 43).

	Acceptable areas for public administration	Non acceptable service areas for public administration
Culture	objects, tools	rules, values , symbols
Self	objects: consumed and used by the public; vital services only	beliefs, opinions, commitments
Institutions	implementation of public policy only	policy formation

As illustrated by Table 2, the classic ideation can be seen to have implications for Public Administration in three areas; namely, institutions, the self, and culture.

Regarding institutions, following classical ideology would mean that administration should play no role in the development and implementation of public policy. The civil service should be an adjunct to the existing governmental structures; existing only to execute the state's will. As a tool for execution; a bureaucratic system where persons are employed and promoted on merit should be used. (Stever 1988: 46.)

Regarding the self, classic ideation was to exclude Administration from matters of the self. More specifically, leaving religion and other traditional social institutions to administer matters of the self. This meant that practically, civil service was bound to only material support of the self to the exclusion of most social services. (Stever 1988: 44.)

Lastly, regarding culture, classic ideation "dictated that professionals in Public Administration should not become involved in determining cultural values or major legal principles of culture" (Stever 1988: 43). "The civil servant was the

implementer of cultural values not the molder” (Stever 1988: 44) since originating cultural change would be edging into the area of politics.

Now that some of the foundations of Administration theory have been discussed, attention can be turned to who or what actually constitutes government.

### 2. 3. Who Is Government?

In a nation, “the state” or “the government” is constituted of various actors in complex networks of organizations from the local to national level. As described by the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific UNESCAP, these organizations are essentially composed of elected officials, civil servants, private contractors and sometimes citizen volunteers. (UNESCAP 2009.)

Dependent on the level of government being examined, there could possibly be Non Governmental Organizations and cooperatives, research think tanks and academics, political parties, religious leaders and institutions, finance institutions, land developers and even organized crime. (Ibid.)

At the national level, in addition to the actors named above, lobbyists, international donors, international corporations and others may also play a role in the governing process. (Ibid.)

### 2. 4. Governmental Action and Tools of Execution

What does government actually do? Administration is the most visible part of government and though national governments around the world may conceptualize their level of responsibility to their publics differently, generally there

are some basic internationally agreed upon responsibilities of functioning governments. As laid out by William C. Johnson (1992: 7) there are seven essential public purposes. In summary governments undertake to:

- protect the lives, property and rights of their citizens. This may include creating and maintaining an effective national defense system, law enforcement, and mechanisms for public health for example.
- monitor and maintain the supply of critical resources like water, energy and food supplies.
- provide for citizens who are unable to provide for themselves such as the disabled, retirees, possibly foster care or orphanages.
- try to maintain and promote constant and stable economic growth. This may mean protection of internal markets, stimulus to trade, and transportation infrastructure.
- promote quality of life through education, parks and recreational facilities, and city maintenance etc.
- protect the natural environment to conserve water and soil resources manage pollution and control waste.
- promote scientific and technical advancement including information dissemination, protection of inventions and subsidies for scientific research.

Johnson (1992: 20) also posits that governments employ particular tools to implement programs towards fulfilling these public purposes:

- Direct remittances to individuals (unemployment benefits, retirement pensions, loans, home rental subsidies).
- Building and upkeep of infrastructures (schools, hospitals, prisons, airports, highways, streets, harbors).
- Provision of services (public transportation, mediation and resolution of conflicts, social services).
- Regulatory control of corporate and individual behaviors (controls on financial and market transactions, wage control, chemical control, crime control).
- Protecting the capacity to govern (tax administration and collection, policy and decision making, communication with the public, foreign relations and diplomacy).

Above was a discussion of what governments are meant to do and some tools commonly employed to those ends. However no discussion of government would be complete without a discussion of the organizational structure of government. Until recently all modern states were organized into bureaucracies.

## 2.5. Bureaucracy and Organizational Orthodoxy

Bureaucracy can be defined as a strategy of structural organization characterized by large size such that top managers sometimes do not have face to face relationships with their subordinates. It is specialized enough to require precise division of labor and consists of offices arranged in a chain of command from the top to the bottom.

Versions of this method of organization had been practiced throughout antiquity in Ancient Egyptian and Samarian societies for example. However, German sociologist Max Weber first penned modern thoughts on bureaucracy. Weber's principals of bureaucracy are as follows:

“There is the principle of fixed and official jurisdictional areas, which are generally ordered by rules, that is, by laws or administrative regulations” (Weber 1922: 50). These rules specify how the organization or agency will enforce decisions, what the responsibilities and duties of the personnel are, and how the law should be applied to each case. The rules also prevent capricious treatment of employees and clients of the organization.

“The principles of office hierarchy and of levels of graded authority mean a firmly ordered system of super and subordination in which there is a supervision of the lower offices by the higher ones” (Weber 1922: 50). There is also a system of appeal which protects the lower officials.

“The management of the modern office is based upon written documents “the files”, which are preserved in their original or drougt form” (Weber 1922: 50). This store of documents acts as the organization's memory. It guides future decisions and provides accountability to higher authorities.

“Office management, at least all specialized office management and such management is distinctly modern usually presupposes thorough and expert training” (Weber 1922: 50). All employees are appointed based on competence which is ensured by training, years of experience or determined by an exam.

In the American context, over time, Max Weber's concepts were expanded upon by industrial engineers and management scholars. Frederick Taylor (who was the proponent of “scientific management”), Luther Gulick (of POSDCORB<sup>2</sup>

---

<sup>2</sup> Gulick devised this acronym to conceptualize his organizational theory. POSDCORB stands for Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Directing, Co-coordinating, Reporting and Budgeting

fame) and Lyndall Urwick created some of the ideas that became so prevalent as to be considered a type of “organizational orthodoxy.” As described by Eddy (1983: 193–195) these principles of organization are as follows:

- Employees should be given tasks which were in accordance with the overarching organizational design.
- Each agency should be chaired by one executive rather than by a board of directors as was common at the time.
- There should be unity of command, meaning that each employee should only report to one immediate supervisor
- The leading executives should have advice and assistance from other staff members so that they can concentrate on important tasks and make the most informed decisions. These staffers may also act on behalf of the executive under supervision if necessary. The Executive Office of the president in the U.S is a classic example of this idea.
- There should be departments in an organization which should be divided into subunits according to either, the purpose the unit serves, the implementation process it uses, the clientele with which it deals, or geographic area covered.
- Duties should be delegated from the top echelons of the organization downward and the superiors should leave subordinates to their work and be concerned with the results of their efforts only.
- Each official or employee should have sufficient authority in order to carry out their duties.

- There should be sufficient “span of control” meaning that supervisors should have a reasonably manageable number of units or persons to oversee. The number most often thought of as reasonable was 6 (units or persons).

These principles of bureaucracy and organizational orthodoxy were seen as ideals for the proper running of organizations. They were based on the argument that there is a “best way” to do every task and these were blanket principles which, if followed, result in that best way. (Eddy 1983: 195.)

This combination of organizational principles spread to societies all throughout the industrial world as it was seen as

*“capable of attaining the highest degree of efficiency and it is in this sense formally the most rational known means of carrying out imperative control over human beings. It is superior to any other form in precision, in stability, in the stringency of its discipline, and in its reliability. It thus makes possible a particularly high degree of calculability of results for the heads of the organization and for those acting on relation to it.”* (Weber 1964: 337.)

## 2.6. Challenges To Classic Ideation, Bureaucracy, and Organizational Orthodoxy

As history reveals, classic ideation had significant roots in Administrative thought and policy practices within the profession. However, these ideas eventually could not hold in their ideal form in practice as the demands of Public Administration changed with time.

An administration system which plays absolutely no role in policy shaping would not survive. The evolution of “wicked” intractable problems of the modern society and the expansion of the public service, forced public service “ex-

perts” to play a role in shaping policy. The professional Policy Analyst, and the Special Advisor are two examples. Special Advisors are members of the public sector but they are political appointees charged with providing advice on policy decisions. (see Lindblom 1959: 177–187; Stone 1997: 571–575; Miller 2005: 37.)

The effects of increasing industrialization and urbanization in the American society created the need for a battery of social services. As a result, the classical stance of administration regarding the self had to change. “Traditional social institutions” were unable to perform their roles effectively under these circumstances and the civil service system had to fill that need. (Stever 1988: 46.)

Lastly Public Administration’s role with regards to culture has become complex. There can no longer be a laissez fair attitude on behalf of public administrators regarding culture. Public Administration systems and their relationship to the cultural environment is the subject of one part of the inquiry undertaken in this thesis. This issue will be discussed in further detail in section 3.4 on culture and its role in governance.

An examination of the challenges against bureaucracy and organizational orthodoxy reveals that significant changes in this area occurred. As the principles of organization became more and more entrenched, and the concepts put into practice, problems emerged which eventually lead to the established challenge. (Eddy 1983: 195–205.)

Herbert Simon (1946) for example detailed the ways in which the established principles of organization were at odds with each other when put into practice. Secondly, not sufficiently taken into account by Weber, Taylor, Gulick and their ilk was the human relations perspective.

The essential ramifications of their concepts of organizational orthodoxy taken to their logical end was that employees were just another resource on par with

inanimate resources like money, materials, buildings and machines. They were simply a means to an end. No regard was given to the social relationships in the workplace and their impact on productivity.

When social relationships are taken into account, it is possible to reject the Weberian tenet that only through formal structural design can full efficiency be gained. One of the seminal thinkers along this line was Mary Parker Follett. She was ahead of her time since she expressed in 1918, some of what came to be popularly understood as the “human resources perspective” decades later. (see Follett 1918; 1924.)

The single most cited experiment that posed an empirical challenge to organizational orthodoxy was the Hawthorne experiment. It was conducted at the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company with the aim of inducing the workers to be more productive. It was discovered that the workers had created informal organizations of their own will that both reflected and conditioned their behavior and motives. Examination of this phenomenon revealed that the things that influence productivity (besides formal organization) are the relationship between colleagues (group dynamic), and the fact that humans simultaneously seek to serve the organization’s goals and pursue goals of their own. Since the priority of these dual goals alternates, it is argued that sensitivity to what motivates people and sensitivity to interpersonal situations should be a strong part of organizational theory. (Maslow 1943; Johnson 1992: 85.)

From the human relations perspective more productivity is gained from the creation of: conditions which motivate employees to fulfill their own goals as well as the organizations goals, conditions where employees cooperate with their superiors rather than simply receive orders, and group dynamics which foster interpersonal relationships that enhance rather than discourage the enhancements made by employees. (see Bennis 1967: 238–249; Alvesson 2004: 121–133.)

These concepts posed a theoretical challenge which was matched in practice only by the forced expansion of the Public Administration system in the U.S during the great depression (Cook 1996: 98–99). Though the concepts of organizational orthodoxy still remained prevalent, it became evident during this time that there needed to be a combination of innovative methods established to effectively deal with the scope of problems the administrative system faced.

In the era after the Great Depression, the lessons learned and innovations developed in America regarding organizational behavior and structure were recorded, pondered upon and subsequently proliferated throughout the world.

These new ideas scattered across the academic landscape developed and gave birth to new fields of inquiry. One such field is the contemporary idea of governance. As with all other theoretical concepts in management, it is shared by both private and public sectors in ways modified to suit each. It utilizes some of the theories developed from administration and management, organizational behavior, political science, and sociology among others. Amongst all the tenets of Governance theory; ideas of mutual participation, collaboration and regard for human motivation can perhaps be traced back to lessons learned from the study of organizational behavior and the challenge to organizational orthodoxy mounted by those who factored humans back into the productivity equation.

### 3. GOVERNANCE THEORY

In this chapter governance is defined, push factors causing the shift towards governance are identified and governance theory is presented. e-Government, m-Government and Administration's relation to culture are also covered.

#### 3.1. Defining Governance

If governing can be considered as

*“the totality of interactions, in which public as well as private actors participate, aimed at solving societal problems or creating societal opportunities; attending to the institutions as contexts for these governing interactions; and establishing a normative foundation for all those activities”* (Kooiman 2003: 4.)

then, Governance may be conceptualized as “the totality of theoretical conceptions on governing” (Kooiman 2003: 4).

There are myriad definitions for governance, but the idea of governance as a theory of governing is very apt for its role in Public Administration as an academic discipline. Therefore this definition will be incorporated into this study.

The reader must be asked, however, to note that the term governance is used throughout official literature and in casual reference to mean **both** a theory on governing (Governance) and *the practice* of a particular kind of governing. This practice is so prevalent that I, the researcher, am also constrained to follow this practice. Therefore throughout this work the meanings may be used interchangeably at times but effort will be made to clarify instances when governance refers to the theory of governing.

### 3.2. Tenets Of Governance Theory

The central tenet of Governance theory is the academic treatment of the shift from government to governance. According to scholar Janet Newman (2005: 4)

*“Governance theory offers an account of the dispersal of power beyond and within the state, undermining the privileged place of representative democracy as the means of channeling citizen interests and legitimizing governmental actions.”*

Though it is explored from different angles, scholars agree on the existence of this shift. (see Peters 1996; Kooiman 2003: 5; Mayntz 2003, Gerd & Giuseppe 2006: 3.)

In other words governance is characterized by a “hollowing out” of the state, the emergence of multilevel governance, dispersal of power to multiple agencies and sectors and a change in the paternalistic relationship between the state and its citizens.

Governance from the public sector standpoint is an approach to decision making and appropriation of resources which encompasses this structural shift away from strictly bureaucratic, hierarchical, vertical, rigid organizations towards flatter, networked flexible organizations.

Central to these changes are concepts of Knowledge Management (KM), participation and the public sphere, and ultimately the practical aims of “Good Governance.” These three ideas will be treated in turn starting with section 3.2.1 following an explanation of the forces causing the shift.

The forces at work causing this large scale change to governance were manifold. Firstly, there were socio economic forces at play. There is a trend in most industrialized nations of an aging population coupled with a declining birthrate (Finland and Japan are two such examples). The economic conse-

quence of which is, more individuals dependent on the state for services but less tax revenue being collected to finance these expenditures. This phenomenon puts pressure on government to do more with less. (Peters 1996: 14.)

Secondly, governments increasingly faced pressure from their publics including the private sector to be more efficient and to reduce the cost of delivering existing service commitments by simply streamlining administration. Such changes had been thought to be successful in the private sector and there was a vociferous argument that some of these private sector methods should be imported to the Public Sector. (Ibid. 14.)

There were also global economic forces (globalization) which came to bear. There was a desire on the part of industrialized states to be competitive in the global market. As a result there was reduction in tax costs, increased deregulation, reduction in economic protectionism and any perceived public sector inefficiencies. (Ibid. 14.)

According to Peters (ibid. 16) there was also an increase in “wicked” or intractable problems in governing facing the industrial state, “issues such as race, gender, participation and equality.” So called post materialist problems which could not be solved using the existing governmental mechanisms.

Lastly there has been “a decline of stable organizations as the focus for government interventions as well as for the source of inputs into governing” (ibid. 16). Meaning, there has been a reduction in the presence of large citizen interest blocks (such as unions for example) with which government could bargain or consult during policymaking. This forces an immediate change in how public participation in the governing process is conceptualized and achieved.

### 3.2.1. Knowledge Management

As mentioned earlier, alongside theories of participation and the public sphere and Good Governance, a major contribution to Governance theory is the body of work on Knowledge Management (KM). Before KM is discussed however; a definition of knowledge is necessary.

“Knowledge is a fluid mix of framed experience, values, contextual information, and expert insight that provides a framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information” (Baskerville & Dulipovici 2006: 84). In the case of organizations, “it often becomes embedded not only in documents or repositories but also in organizational routines, processes, practices and norms” (ibid. 84).

There are also several kinds of knowledge held by both individuals and collectives like organizations. Namely; information (know what), combinational skill (know-how), technical knowledge and innovation, and tacit knowledge. (Ibid. 84.)

Throughout the world, organizations have become decidedly more dependent on their ability to access and leverage these intellectual or knowledge based resources. A myriad tools, techniques, and concepts are being used as managerial devices towards this end. Effective Knowledge Management is seen as a necessity in meeting the challenges of the new “information age” or “knowledge society” (Styhre 2003; McNabb 2006: 4).

Guido Bertucci, director of the U.N’s division for Public Administration argues that there are benefits to be had for both the public sector firm which employs proper Knowledge Management and for the citizens which they serve. In the preface to the United Nations e-Government Survey compiled by the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs UNDESA he states that

*“ for citizens the benefits to be reaped from KM include better services, more choices, more personalization and greater accountability of how their money is spent. For the organization, KM provides the major benefit of improving the organization’s performance through increased efficiency and innovation.” (UNDESA 2008: iii.)*

There are roughly three theoretical concepts which drive Knowledge Management. The first two were developed out of the importance of valuing the “soft” assets of organizations for determining their economic value (information economics). These are intellectual capital theory and intellectual property theory.

Intellectual capital is defined as the difference between “the book value of a company and the amount of money someone is prepared to pay for it” (Baskerville et al. 2006: 86) due to soft assets like strength of a brand and customer loyalty which add value to a company.

Intellectual property refers to copyrights, trade secrets, patents and the like.

The last driving concept in Knowledge Management; core competence management, arose out of work done in the area of organizational strategy. (Baskerville et al. 2006: 86.)

Core competencies of organizations and individuals are a set of know-how or specialties that can be leveraged to the advantage (usually economic) of that individual or organization.

In summary Knowledge Management is the enterprise of harnessing and leveraging of all three of these: intellectual capital, intellectual property and core competencies; in any organization. Also included in this endeavor are all the supporting technologies used as tools to this end. This is why Information Communication Technologies are so central to Knowledge Management and by extension central to governance.

As can be expected, KM does have practical implications for organizational structure and human resource management.

In practice when the intellectual capital, core competence, and intellectual property are leveraged optimally in an organization the result is the creation of a Knowledge Intensive Firm (KIF). Proponents of Knowledge Management who apply the concept to the public sector envision that eventually the public sector agencies will be Knowledge Intensive Firms.

The definition of a Knowledge Intensive Firm is a difficult one to codify. There does exist however, some commonality between the myriad definitions available. It is agreed that a Knowledge Intensive Firm or KIF in some way specializes in offering knowledge and core competence as their primary product and are mostly engaged in knowledge work. Knowledge work can be defined as the use of judgment highly supported by theoretical and intellectual knowledge which can be relied on. Knowledge Intensive Firms employ substantial amounts of people who work on complex tasks that require a high degree of autonomy and personal judgment or discretion. (Alvesson: 2004.)

The Knowledge Intensive Firm can be considered as an evolution away from Weberian bureaucratic organization. In the post industrial information age in which we live, traditional bureaucratic organizations have proven to be less useful than they once were. Also the economies of the “developed world,” it is argued, have changed from natural resource based to intellectual asset based. In thinking about the needs of the current age, academics like Warren Bennis as early as 1967 in an article titled ‘Organizations of the Future’ prophetically described what has ultimately become the Knowledge Intensive Firm.

Characterized by flatter networks (as opposed to hierarchical) structure, responsiveness to rapid changes in the environment, temporal substructures, employee centric and highly educated workforce, Bennis’s description of the or-

ganization of the future does not differ much from that characterized by Mats Alvesson (2004) in his book ‘Knowledge Work and Knowledge-Intensive Firms.’

Though he separates Knowledge Intensive Firms (KIFs) into 2 categories (professional service firms and R&D firms), Alvesson (2004: 21) lists the following as characteristics common to all KIFs.

- Highly qualified, highly paid individuals doing symbolic work (meaning that the output is not the transfer of material tangible objects)
- Preference for autonomy over hierarchy
- Use of ad hoc sub-organizational forms (example: task oriented teams or cellular modules)
- Extensive communication for problem solving
- Idiosyncratic client services
- Information, power, and financial asymmetry
- Subjective or uncertain quality assessment

After Knowledge Management, the next central tenet of Governance theory to be discussed is participation. The combination of Knowledge Management and participation provide the prescription for structural organization found within Governance theory. Although they are treated separately, Knowledge Management and participation are highly interrelated and interdependent.

### 3.2.2. Participation and The Public Sphere

Much scholarship and theorizing have been done regarding the idea of public participation and the public sphere. Though they may be expressed in a number of ways, scholars in this field agree that more political, collective and democratic mechanisms should be employed to send messages to government and “governing should be about finding out what the public wants and finding

ways of delivering those services” (Peters 1996: 50). They also agree that traditional “bureaucracy is an impediment to good government and if nothing else changed there must be a new means for delivering public services” (Peters 1996: 50).

They argue that the lower echelons of hierarchical organizations are a wealth of untapped resources and talent. It is thought that since workers at the lower echelons of organizations are the closest to the production of goods or the point of service, that “they have the greatest insight and information about the programs. It is assumed further that if those ideas and talents were harnessed adequately, then government would perform better” (Peters 1996: 51).

The proponents of increased participation support it in terms of public sector employees having more say in their place of employment, clients of those public sector organizations (the general citizenry) having more say in public sector decision making, and public sector agencies having more autonomy and “say” in their area of specialty vis a vie the total administrative system.

The conceptions of a participatory state can be divided into four categories. These are participatory management, discursive democracy, street level bureaucracy, and communitarianism.

Participatory management mainly concerns members of a public organization charged with delivering a service. It is argued that the most effective mode of motivating employees within a public sector organization is to foster involvement and participation. It is further argued that employees need wide girth to exercise some initiative and should be allowed a greater measure of independent decisions. That way they would be willing to invest more time and energy in the organization. (This idea is part of the human relations perspective discussed in section 2.6.) According to the participatory management approach “the general prescription for making government function better, therefore, is

to foster greater individual and collective participation by segments of government organizations that commonly have been excluded from decision making” (Peters 1996: 51; see Malinga 2008.)

Going one step beyond participatory management, which focuses on the employees of public organizations, the proponents of discursive democracy argue that the public should be “asked to decide all manner of policy issues by a direct vote” (Peters 1996: 58). Proponents of this view find even representative democracy to be lacking. “These ideas have a much broader conception of popular participation and democracy than conventional representative democracy” (Peters 1996: 58).

Scholars who favor this view hold that a broader range of citizens should be involved in the “shaping of issues, formulation of responses and perhaps also in the implementation of programs” (Peters 1996: 58). A practical example of discursive democracy would be a referendum. In which members of the public vote directly in favor of or against a particular point of public policy. For example in the United States these are routinely attached to voting ballots during Presidential (general) and Congressional (mid-term) elections.

The discursive line of argument dovetails with the ideas of theorists on the public sphere like Jürgen Habermas. He developed the concepts of the “*ideal speech community*” and “*communicative rationality*” in order to describe the conditions under which participation would be considered most effective.

Ideally, in Habermas’s conception, there would be no hierarchy of individuals or of ideas, instead, an egalitarian open forum where all ideas are equally valued. He posits that in this sphere all ideas should be voiced in order to gauge the true range of opinion within the community. (see Habermas 1989; Peters 1996: 59.)

This discursive democratic approach may also promote transparency since a side effect of soliciting direct participation by vote is that the public has to have knowledge of the issue to be voted on.

Street-Level bureaucracy is the third approach to participation. This approach attempts to study and describe in more detail the powers that employees at the street level or public organizations possess. It addresses the ways in which “face to face contacts between public employees and the public help to define the relationship between the state and society” (Peters 1996: 56). Consequently it is thought that particularly this group of employees should be the target of empowerment (see Lipsky 1983).

Lastly, proponents of communitarianism reject the centrality of bureaucratic agencies in the delivery of public service and argue instead that one should look towards “means of ‘coproduction’ and personal involvement” (Peters 1996: 62) to improve the performance of government. Specifically, some scholars envision reviving volunteerism and every type of individual and collective initiative as alternatives to the bureaucratic method of provision of services (see Etzioni 1985; 1991a; 1991b; 2006).

Proponents of this approach favor the growth of civil society or “the third sector.” In their conception Non Governmental Organizations, Religious Institutions, Community organizations and the family for example would provide more caring and effective services.

All four approaches discussed participatory management, discursive democracy, street level bureaucracy, and communitarianism have implications for the structure of public organizations, management of public organizations, policy making and the public interest. In summary, the model of the participatory state holds that the public interest is best served by maximum involvement by

all stakeholders. This very notion is incorporated heavily in the conception of Good Governance.

### 3.2.3. Good Governance

The member states of the UN have agreed upon 8 facets that constitute “Good Governance” (see Figure 1). These are participation, the rule of law, transparency, responsiveness, consensus orientation, equity and inclusiveness, effectiveness and efficiency and accountability. (UNESCAP 2009; Agere 2000: 1–10.) By listing and defining Good Governance it theorizes the existence of bad governance and creates the possibility to have Good Governance as a measurable ideal to strive towards. Presumably with “best” governance being that which comes closest to fulfilling these 8 ideals, and bad governance being that which is farthest away.

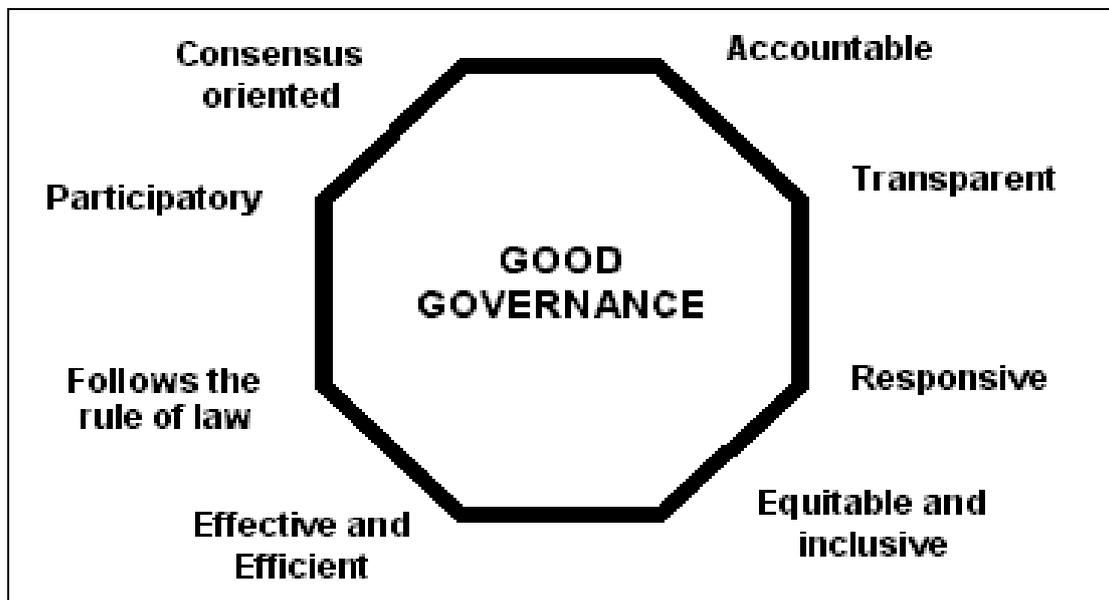


Figure 1. Good Governance (UNESCAP: 2009).

**Participation:** Participation by all stakeholders in the society is a salient factor in good governance. Both direct and indirect participation via legitimate inter-

mediate institutions; as is the case with a representative democracy for example, are possible.

Participation in this sense also demands that the participants are informed and organized. In order to facilitate an informed and organized participatory base, prerequisites are freedom of expression and association and an organized civil society. (UNESCAP 2009.)

**Rule of Law:** Some other prerequisites of Good Governance are just legal frameworks which are enforced without partiality. That in turn requires an independent judiciary and law enforcement systems free of corruption. (Ibid.)

Another component of Good Governance which exists under the umbrella of the rule of law is protection of human rights especially those of minorities (ibid).

**Transparency:** The idea of transparency as a component of Good Governance means that information on decisions and executions of the decisions made by government are freely available and fully comprehensible. Special emphasis is placed on the idea that those who are affected by such decisions should be able to access all information freely. An example of a move toward transparency would be the “Freedom of Information Act” in the United States. (Ibid.)

**Responsiveness:** Government institutions should be service oriented and execute all services and or processes in a timely manner (ibid).

**Consensus Oriented:** Consensus orientation means that government should try to build or gain consensus about what is best from among all stakeholders in Society, even though there are multiple actors with a plurality of interests. The government should also seek advice on how this consensus can be achieved.

Under the umbrella of consensus orientation is long range perspective on sustainable human development, strategies and plans for their execution. This can be achieved with comprehensive understanding of historical, cultural and social contexts of affected societies or communities. (UNESCAP 2009.)

**Equity and inclusiveness:** The well being of society hinges on the idea that members feel and are assured that they are included and have a stake in the mainstream of the society (ibid).

**Effectiveness and efficiency:** Good Governance strives to fulfill the mandate to best meet the needs of society with the limited resources available. This efficiency also extends to the use of natural resources in sustainable ways and to environmental protection. (Ibid.)

**Accountability:** Another critical component of good governance is that governmental, civil societal and private sector institutions should be accountable to those members of the public whom they serve as well as any institutional stakeholders. Organizations and institutions are accountable to those who will be affected by their decisions and actions. In order for accountability to be enforced, there needs to be transparency and the rule of law. (Ibid.)

Given these definitions; Good Governance can be conceived as both a part of Governance theory and a description of or prescription for the practical execution of theories of Governance.

Enconced within all the facets of Good Governance are ideas of Knowledge Management and participation. For example equity and inclusiveness, accountability, and consensus orientation all involve notions of participation. Meanwhile transparency, the rule of law, and responsiveness can be seen from the Knowledge Management perspective. However, these are simply conceptual

lines. Knowledge Management and participation concepts are highly synergized and mutually dependent when Good Governance occurs in practice.

Notions of Governance and Good Governance have also transferred to electronic means of governing as becomes evident in section 3.3.

### 3.3. e-Governance and m-Governance

From Max Weber's bureaucracy to the reforms of New Public Management, the discipline of Public Administration has been concerned with how Government can 'run better.' With the development of concepts like the "Citizens' Charter" in the UK and the National Performance Review of 1993 in the U.S; a more customer (citizen) service focus was also introduced (Pollitt & Bouckaert 2000: 556.)

By the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, internet use in developed countries was increasing at an unprecedented rate (Statcan 2009). The internet was being used for exchange of information. Businesses in the private sector realized that this was a cost effective method of communicating with their customers. It is no surprise then that eventually government agencies all around the "developed" world eventually started to use the internet to communicate with citizenry as well. This use of the internet to further the goals of government is termed electronic government or e-Government. (Al-Hakim 2007: 1; World Bank 2009b.)

E-Government's potential to bring citizen's closer to their government was unparalleled. Government had the ability to publish information regarding the availability of services at government offices such as hours of operation and contact information. Later, methods were developed for citizens to interact with Government by corresponding with officers of the Government directly via the internet. Lastly more sophisticated methods of e-Government evolved. Completing transactions like; paying taxes, applying for a passport, requesting and

requesting a birth certificate are examples of these. E-Government is also used for streamlining intra governmental management and operations, increasing governmental interoperability and creating more efficiency and reducing costs. (Information for Development Program 2002; Laitner 2003.)

More recently, scholars and government officials are again starting to re-conceptualize what government should be and do. In light of the new focus on governance, Governments are thinking of governance as “a broader concept describing forms of governing which are not necessarily in the hands of formal government” (Saxena 2005:499).

Owing to this, more partnerships between government and civil society have developed towards better governance. Following this shift towards governance, there is an emergent commensurate shift from simply e-Government towards e-Governance.

According to Riley (qtd. in Saxena 2005: 500), E-Governance is the

*“commitment to utilize appropriate technologies (...).to advance democratic expression, human dignity and autonomy, support economic development and encourage the fair and effective delivery of services.”*

Notions of what it means for government to be efficient have changed. Therefore a focus on e-Governance is seen as more beneficial for citizens because it focuses on outcomes for the citizens. “The bottom line so to speak is effective service of the citizen, not just outputs of government” (Saxena 2005: 500).

Unfortunately for countries deemed “Developing” and “Transitional” (meaning from low (\$905 or less) Gross National Income GNI per capita to upper middle income (\$3,596- \$11,115) by the World Bank), (World Bank 2009a) the benefits of e-Government/ Governance, potential or real have been only marginally available to them. Lacking infrastructure critical to the use of the internet which com-

prises a large percent of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs), lack of computer literacy (on the part of civil servants and the public), and prohibitive costs, are some of the barriers to effective use of E-Government or E-Governance in those countries. (Saxena 2005: 502; Rathgeber 2006.)

In light of these barriers to E-Government/ Governance faced by the developing world; it is argued that effective use of m-Governance can be employed towards Good Governance in “developing” and “transitional” countries.

m-Governance refers to harnessing mobile technology (mobile phones, internet enabled mobile phones, PDA’s, Wi Fi and wireless networks) for governance purposes. In other words,

*“the strategy and its implementation involving the utilization of all kinds of wireless and mobile technology, services, applications and devices for improving benefits to parties involved (...) including citizens, business units and all government units.”* (Kuschu & Kuschu 2003.)

Statistics on mobile phone use especially in the developing countries and even “least developed” countries show that they are the fastest growing market. As of 2004 “globally, the number of mobile phones has surpassed the number of fixed/ wired phones. This is also the case in many individual nations, including 49 middle-income and 36 low-income countries.” (Lallana 2008.)

“Developing” and “transitional” countries have a wide range of availability of internet presence. For those in the low income to upper low income category (developing), m-Governance can be conceptualized as an entity onto itself or as a stepping stone to e-Governance. While those in the upper middle income (transitional) with a higher rate of internet penetration, can afford to use it as a complement to emerging e-Government presence. (Ghyasi & Kushchu 2004: 3–5.)

Mobile phone use and availability, covers all strata of the population eliminating the problem of lacking infrastructure. Also, unlike the internet, women and girls have equal access to cell phones as men (see Rathgeber: 2006). Also, the learning curve is lower since even persons classified as illiterate can use a cell phone or can quickly learn how to use one. Lastly this option is affordable for many governments in the “developing world.”

Also to be considered is the possibility of “leapfrogging” over computer based internet and going directly to mobile based internet. For example in the Congo, which is categorized as a least developed country, most citizens are using WAP through their phones. This means that for many individuals, their first encounter with the internet is via mobile phone rather than computer. (Ghyasi & Kushchu 2004: 4.)

Proponents of m-Governance argue that there are many benefits to using it. It can be a flexible tool that is tailored towards culture ensuring its relevance to the citizenry. It helps government reach citizens across the digital divide. It also reaches traditionally underrepresented citizenry like women and girls, people below the poverty line, and perhaps disabled individuals more effectively than e-Government which relies only on the internet would. Lastly it provides opportunities for entrepreneurship. (see Goldstuck 2004; Quadir 2006; The World Bank 2007; Lallana: 2008. )

### 3.4. Culture and Its Role In Governance

Now that the tenets of Governance theory have been discussed as well as the idea of e-Governance; the last theoretical concept germane to this thesis is the idea of culture, its effects on the public sector organizational behavior and governance.

Like many other concepts dealt with in this theoretical section of the study, the definition of culture is plural. Culture can be conceptualized as a combination of what people think (ideas, values, beliefs, knowledge, traditions, their perceptions of themselves and others); and what they do (the way they organize society, familial ties, their nation state and the way they adapt to their environment). (Keesing & Strathern 1998: 14–25.)

UNESCO (qtd. in Huovinen 2007), has offered a definition that is particularly useful

*“(... ) the set of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features of society or a social group, and it encompasses, in addition to art and literature, lifestyles, ways of living together, value systems, traditions and beliefs.”*

Culture has both internal and external ramifications for organizations. Organizational behavior is a description of the way individual people and people as a collective act in an organization. It is also how this collective action forms a unit which in turn “acts” in relation to its environment.

Culture can have an intangible quality to it since although some aspects of culture are very visible; like state institutions for example, other aspects like norms, beliefs, communication styles and values are not. They are only made visible temporarily through actions which reflect them.

The Iceberg Model of Culture illustrates the concept very well. The tip of the Iceberg represents the visible aspects of culture, while the area below the water’s surface represents the invisible ones (see Amorim 2001: 2).

It is this hidden, ephemeral and chimerical aspect of culture that has the most impact on organizational behavior as it influences organizational decision making, structure and interactions with the environment.

Goodenough (qtd. in Keesing & Strathern 1998: 16) says culture has effects on decision making in organizations because hidden forms of culture (norms, beliefs, values communication styles) provide the “standards for deciding what is, (...) for deciding what can be, (...) for deciding how one feels about it (...) for deciding what to do about it, and (...) for deciding how to go about doing it.”

In terms of structure, the internal culture of an organization can help to shape the structure. An example would be that of organizations which have a “knowledge culture.” These organizations value “learning and creativity, and these imply a commitment of employee time for internalizing, reflecting, and articulating knowledge” (Baskerville et al. 2006: 91). Therefore those organizations tend to be less rigid and hierarchical and more collaborative and network based. The belief is that by reducing strict bureaucratic structures and instead encouraging informal communication and spontaneity, the result would be increased creativity springing from experimentation and freedom of expression.

Extending the notion of culture and organizations to its environmental ramifications is the very nucleolus of one of the issues under examination in this thesis. The second of the two research questions surrounds the culturally relevant responsiveness of civil service. Recall that in chapter 2 the classic ideation of public service called for a value free civil service which expressly restricts the impact of the civil service on culture and vice versa.

Given the characteristics of culture discussed above and its impact on decision making and organizational structure, it becomes clear that organizations are inseparable from their environment since they are comprised of members of the society in which they exist. They both influence and are subject to the method of social organization, value systems, traditions and beliefs, norms and values of their society. Therefore, it was and is impossible to have a truly value neutral civil service in practice.

In fact the very notion of a value neutral civil service sprang out of particular cultural values held by those in the Progressive Movement in the U.S, and from other scholars in Europe at the time (see Stever 1988: 43-44). Those notions of the value free civil service were proliferated throughout the world via academia creating in turn a general culture or ethos within civil service institutions worldwide which were reticent to acknowledge and accept their role as cultural actors. Some scholars identify this phenomenon as a major flaw in public service which has contributed to problems of legitimacy faced by some civil service institutions.

In his work, James A. Stever (1988: 176) draws attention to this problem and calls for a commitment on the part of civil servants to “the beneficial impact that Public Administration can have on the development and maintenance of public culture.” By public culture he means “those shared rules, customs, commitments, consumable goods, durable objects, and facilities that make shared public life possible among a diverse citizenry.”

Stever (1988: 176) argues that although there are myriad forces affecting public culture, civil service plays a particularly superior role. He states that the reason for that is “it develops policies, enforces rules, delivers consumable goods and durable objects and provides facilities that significantly shape the public culture of the citizenry it serves.”

Stever (1988:176) posits that at the very point of service, the very act of delivering goods, public servants shape public culture regardless of whether or not they are conscious about it. In this belief, he joins his contemporaries Michael Lipsky and other proponents of the critical role of the civil service at the “street level.” (see Lipsky 1980: 414–422.)

Evidence that bears out their theory exists in the mostly successful efforts by civil servants working in the public health sector to change the cultural re-

sponse towards persons with HIV in the United States. The original cultural response to the HIV epidemic was one of shame, secrecy, and of shunning persons with the disease. Following massive public health campaigns, it can be said that now the cultural response to persons with HIV in the U.S is usually one of compassion and willingness to help “fight the disease.” The stigma attached to the disease has been significantly reduced.

Encompassed within the same example, there also exists an example of the ways in which members of the public influence and help shape public administrative policy. Prior to the massive campaign on the part of civil service regarding HIV, a small minority of the public consisting of persons with HIV and their relatives and supporters formed Non Governmental Organizations like ACT-UP and the Gay Men’s Health Crisis. These organizations lobbied and pressured the members of the public health institutions to act. (Powers, Voegelr, & McCarthy 1997: 10.)

This reflexive influential relationship between cultural environment and public service institutions is most beneficial when: citizens have unfettered access to their civil service institutions, and when civil service institutions have the flexibility and knowledge to respond in the most efficient, expedient and relevant way. Those notions are central to governance and it is in this very space that theoretically, Information and Communication Technology can be employed most usefully.

#### **4. METHODOLOGY AND FRAMEWORK OF ANALYSIS**

This thesis centers around two research questions:

*Is Information and Communication Technology/Mobile Technology (ICT) being used as a tool in reshaping of public administrative systems in keeping with the structural and participatory demands of Governance/Good Governance?*

*If ICT is being used toward the structural and participatory aims of good governance, how are these changes responsive to or reflective of the environmental culture in which the administrative system operates?*

In order to shed some light on these issues I have decided on an exploration of the subject through the prism of Governance theory for the theoretical approach and framework of analysis.

Secondly, for a practical dimension to the inquiry, I have selected the qualitative approach to research in which the object of study will be cases. These cases will consist of the e-Governance initiatives of five United Nations member states: The United States of America, Estonia, The Philippines, Kenya and Guyana.

I will identify each country's status with regards to the U.N standards for e-Government readiness, examine their stated goals for e-Government initiatives and finally examine some of each country's e-Government projects online.

Beginning with the qualitative method; then case study, and finally governance theory, a definition and explanation of each component of my methodology along with study materials follows.

*Qualitative Method*

Qualitative analysis is always defined in polar opposition to quantitative analysis and is characterized by small deliberately chosen sample size, and emphasis on exploratory theory/ hypothesis generation rather than testing of existing hypothesis.

As Johnson, Chambers, Raghuram and Tincknell (2004: 3) argue in their conception of research practice, the method selected for the study is dependent on the research questions asked and one must use approaches and methods suitable to the specific aims and questions posed.

When conceptualizing the research process, it is also important to select a method which allows space for the idea that research is by its nature a cultural activity located within the power relations of the academy and academia. It was also important to select a method which takes into account the agency of the researcher. (Johnson et al. 2004: 2.)

The quantitative or variable oriented method (with its proclivity to positivism and aims at creating law like theories) has long dominated the fields of natural and social science. However, perhaps because of the concerns mentioned above, there has been more movement towards the qualitative approach.

According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994: ix)

*“a quiet methodological revolution has been taking place in the social sciences. A blurring of disciplinary boundaries has occurred. The social sciences and humanities have drawn closer together in mutual focus on an interpretive, qualitative approach to research and theory.” “Where only statistics, experimental designs, and survey research once stood (...) scholars are experimenting with the boundaries of interpretation, linking research to social change.”*

Recall that in section 3.3.3 it was argued that the foundational ideas in Public Administration are a cultural construct. Therefore, on the macro level, this study can be seen as one aimed at producing knowledge about cultural processes and social change. On the micro level, one of the research questions concerns cultural responsiveness. Culture, with its intangible nature, is not easily given to quantification. That feature of culture renders the quantitative method unsuitable in this case.

More suitable, is one of the strategies most utilized in the qualitative approach to research. The case study.

### *Case Study*

The case in this approach is the object of study. Cases may be simple or complex; a person, a company, or a country for example. However, whatever the case is determined to be; it has to be specific and bounded. “Its behavior is patterned. Consistency and sequentialness are prominent. It is common to recognize that certain features are within the case and other features outside.” (Stake 1994: 236.)

Though there are many types of cases which fit such broad criteria, according to Stake (1994: 237), it is possible to conceptualize and categorize cases based on the interests or goals of the researcher. He posits that there are either intrinsic or instrumental interests in cases on the part of researchers. In the first instance, the researcher undertakes the study simply for the understanding of that particular case rather than because the case is representative or typical of other cases.

On the other hand, there is the instrumental case study in which “a particular case is examined to provide insight into an issue or refinement of theory” (ibid.

237). The case plays a “supportive role facilitating our understanding of something else” (Stake 1994: 237) and is selected for that reason.

When several such cases are studied jointly towards a common end; it can be termed a collective case study. The cases are chosen because “it is believed that understanding them will lead to better understanding and perhaps better theorizing about a still larger collection of cases”( ibid. 237).

My aim is to conduct a collective case study of five countries in order to seek an answer/ some answers to the stated research questions.

In selecting the cases, it was necessary to first establish several common boundaries for each case based on the question posed. To deal with the first research question: *Is Information and Communication Technology/Mobile Technology (ICT) being used as a tool in reshaping of public administrative systems in keeping with the structural and participatory demands of Governance/Good Governance?* it was necessary that:

- the countries subscribe to the same notion of good governance and see the tenets of good governance as ideals to which they should strive
- each country envisions Information Communication Technology (ICT) as a vehicle to realize those ideals of good governance
- each country have a particular stated interest in the participatory aspect of good governance (since there are many aspects to the ideals of good governance and participation is only one such aspect)
- sufficient material about the countries’ Public Administration initiatives in this regard is available

To respond to the question: *If ICT is being used toward the structural and participatory aims of good governance how are these changes responsive to or reflective of the environmental culture in which the administrative system operates?* it was necessary that:

- the country has at least one example of an Information Communication Technology project available
- a description of how the project is intended to work is available

All five cases fit these criteria and each case will be presented in turn in chapter 5.

### *Theory as Framework Of Analysis*

Governance theory is an umbrella theory that is an amalgam of theories derived from interdisciplinary approaches to the study of governing. Governance is inclusive of theories from the academic disciplines of administrative sciences, sociology, anthropology, political science, cultural studies, gender studies and psychology to name a few. Theories that apply to governance span the conceptual areas of management, the public sphere, Knowledge Management, organizational structure and behavior, public sector ethics and more. Due to the sheer breadth of possibilities from which to apply governance theory to any study, it was necessary to focus the scope on a few of these sub theories. These I have used as a framework of analysis through which to examine the cases.

The aspects of Governance theory used will be:

- Knowledge Management with particular focus on the structural changes in organizations (from vertical to horizontal or network necessary to facilitate effective Knowledge Management.)
- The eight tenets of “good governance” namely; participation, the rule of law, transparency, responsiveness, consensus orientation, equity and inclusiveness, effectiveness and efficiency and accountability
- Ideas of participation and the public sphere

These aspects of Governance theory were chosen because of their relevance to the questions at hand. The Knowledge Management aspect of Governance theory clearly delineates the structural changes one can expect in an organization when it is implemented towards more effective or efficient output (Tobin & Franze 2005: 3–4.) That being the case one should be able to compare the civil service structure in each case to the expected horizontal or networked structure dictated by the Knowledge Management theory in order to discern whether any structural shift has indeed occurred.

The idea of “Good Governance” is an aspect of Governance theory that is also explicit. Since it exists as an ideal toward which institutions (in this instance countries) strive as a means to providing better services to all constituents, any actions and initiatives incorporating any of the eight ideals can be said to be a movement towards “Good Governance.” Therefore, one may look for stated intent and subsequent actions towards “Good Governance” on the part of the countries that constitute these cases.

Concepts around public participation and the public sphere can be used to examine participation and responsiveness to environmental culture.

### *Primary Materials*

The materials used throughout this thesis to offer relevant background information, explain theories and support arguments are books, articles, periodicals, journals, internet web sites and multimedia. However I have listed my most primary sources for the practical section below.

- The UN E-Government Survey Document of 2008: used to establish the level of e- Government readiness for each nation.
- The latest available Information and Communication Technology strategy documents for the U.S.A, Guyana, The Philippines, Kenya and Esto-

nia: used to establish the stated goals of each nation's e-Government initiative.

- The United Nations Public Administration Programme UNPAP Administrative Profile for each country: used to understand the structure of the administrative systems in order to determine structural shift.
- E-Government projects conducted by each country under study: to determine issues of participation and cultural impact in practice.

## **5. PRESENTATION OF CASES AND ANALYSIS**

In this chapter each case will be presented. The method of presentation will be in the form of a profile of Guyana, Kenya, The United States, The Philippines and Estonia. Profiles will consist of identifying information for each country, a very brief synopsis of administrative structure, information about assessed ICT readiness, and a summary of key points the ICT strategy document.

Following presentation of all the cases, beginning in section 5.6, a presentation and analysis of findings gleaned from the ICT strategy documents and e-Governance projects will be made.

As mentioned in chapter four in the notes on methodology, the three main documents used in this practical aspect of the study are: The UN Administration Country Profile, UN E-Government Survey 2008, and the Information Communication and Technology strategy documents of each country.

The UN Public Administration Country Profile database provides information on the Public Administration of countries worldwide. Each profile includes general country information, legal structure, state and civil society, civil service, ethics in civil service, e-Government as well as links to relevant information.

The “UN E-Government Survey of 2008: From E-Government to Connected Governance” is an extensive document and corresponding database published by the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) Division of Public Administration and Development Management (DPADM). The survey assesses the e-Government readiness of each of the 192 UN Member States. The survey was a worldwide collaborative effort supervised by the chief of the Knowledge Management Branch of DPADM. The rigorous methodology for the survey was developed in 2003 and refined again in 2007 to assess web

readiness from a “citizen user” perspective. According to UNDESA (2008) the stated objectives of the survey are to provide a:

- *“Comparative assessment of the Member States’ ability to transform their governments by using information and communication technologies to deliver on-line services and products to their citizens.*
- *Benchmarking tool to monitor the advancement of governments in implementing e-Government services.”*

The findings of the survey are displayed in numerical form in several indices. The numerical data that indicates overall readiness is the UN e-Government Readiness Score. The countries are assigned scores on a scale from 0.000 to 1.000. The e-Government Readiness Index is a composite index made up of the Web Measure Index, the Telecommunication Infrastructure Index and the Human Capital Index. The Web Measure Index measures the level of sophistication of the nation’s online presence on a continuum from “emerging” to “connected.” The Telecommunication Infrastructure Index is comprised of the number of internet users, number of personal computers, number of main telephone lines, number of cellular phones and availability of broad banding per hundred persons in the nation. Lastly the Human Capital Index is a composite of the adult literacy rate and the gross enrollment ratio for primary to tertiary education of each nation.

Information Communication Technology strategy documents are produced by nations to outline their strategy for leveraging ICT to provide services to citizens electronically and for creating efficiency in their intra governmental processes.

They typically state the importance of ICT, make the case for reasons that the country should make the most of e-Government/ Governance, and state their national goals for the use of ICT by their Government. They also typically outline the precise strategy, recommendations for its implementation, and the detail the prerequisites and resources necessary for execution.

There are several levels at which e-Government may be implemented and the strategy document is usually geared towards a particular level. (see UNDESA 2008; E-Government Task Force 2002.)

**Level 1 Emerging:** The nation's online presence is largely based on a web page or site with links to ministries or departments. The information is static and there is little to no interaction with citizens. (UNDESA 2008.)

**Level 2 Enhanced:** The nation provides some information on public policy, and on other aspects of governance. They also provide access to archived documents such as reports, laws, the constitution, regulations, forms etc. They also offer some measure of interaction with citizens. (Ibid.)

**Level 3 Interactive:** The nation offers partially online services such as downloadable tax forms and passport applications. There is the emergence of an online portal with services geared towards convenience of citizens. The use of mobile technology to communicate with citizens is also considered interactive. (Ibid.)

**Level 4 Transactional:** The nation offers fully online services like tax filing and payments, birth certificate applications, passport and license renewals. The services are offered on a 24/7 basis. There are online portals and multiple opportunities for e-Participation in government including but not limited to voting on the web or by mobile applications. (Ibid.)

**Level 5 Connected:** Governments develop an integrated back office infrastructure whereby ministries and departments are seamless, interconnected and interoperable offering citizens "one stop" services. All stakeholders (government, citizens, the third sector, and businesses) are also connected and even more opportunities for participation is offered (chat rooms, online discussion forums to speak directly with policymakers). (Ibid.)

Besides the levels of service, the strategy documents usually include implicit or explicit reference to a few kinds of electronic services that can be enhanced by ICT. They sometimes lay out specific plans directed to each type of service:

- Services from the government to its citizens (G2C)
- Services from the government to businesses (G2B)
- Inter agency services within governments (G2G)
- Intra agency efficiency and effectiveness (IEE). (E-Government Task Force 2002:10, 13; Information for Development Program 2002.)

The ICT strategy document also typically addresses or involves the actors in any e-Government system. It addresses the politicians who make laws or policies. It addresses public administrators who design the program for implementing the laws or policies. It also addresses programmers who create the processes for realizing the laws or policies from the technological angle. Importantly, it addresses the eventual users of the system who are the citizens.

Now that the three main sources of data for the study have been discussed in detail, the cases can be presented.

## 5.1. The United States of America

### **General Information:**

Size:	9,161,923 sq km
Location:	North America
Population:	303,824,640 (July 2008 est.)
World Bank Income Classification:	High Income
GDP:	\$14.58 trillion
GDP per capita:	\$48,000 (2008 est.)
Date of Independence:	July 4 <sup>th</sup> 1776

**Government Type:** The US has a constitution-based federal republic with a strong democratic tradition. It is made up of a constitution which is the central instrument of government. There is also an executive branch with a vice president, cabinet, and president (who is head of government). There is a bicameral congress consisting of the Senate with 100 seats and the House of Representatives with 435 seats. There is the judicial branch with a supreme court of 9 justices who are appointed by the senate and serve for life.

In addition to the three branches of government at the federal level there are also state and local governments for counties, cities and municipalities, towns and villages. (CIA 2009; UNPAP 2009a.)

**Legal System:** The U.S has a federal court system based on English common law and each state has its own legal system usually based on English common law (CIA 2009.)

**e-Profile Information:**

Internet Users:	223 million (2008) (CIA 2009.)
Mobile Phone Users:	255million (2007) (CIA 2009.)
e-Readiness Index Score 2008:	0.864
e-Readiness Rank:	4 <sup>th</sup> of 183
National Web Site:	www.usa.gov
ICT Strategy Document and Date:	E-Government Strategy: Simplified Delivery of Services to Citizens Febru- ary 27 <sup>th</sup> 2002

Summary of the main points of the U.S.A's 'E-Government Strategy' document:

“The initiatives are targeted at improving the quality of services to citizens, business, governments and government employees as well as the effectiveness and efficiency of the federal government” (E-Government Task Force 2002: 1). The e-Government strategy was integral to a five-part Management Agenda commissioned by the president for making government more focused on citizens and results. (Ibid. 1.)

A review of the Federal Government lines of business revealed “significant federal performance problems that could be addressed by E-Government and E-Business concepts” (ibid. 2) and that “redundant and overlapping agency activities have been major impediments to creating a citizen centered electronic government” (ibid. 2). The strategic vision is that E-Government should be “citizen centered not bureaucracy centered, results oriented and market based actively promoting innovation” (ibid. 1).

They put in place 24 initiatives divided into G2C, G2B, G2G, and IEE.

The Government to Citizen (G2C) initiatives were meant to fulfill the goal of

one-stop, online access to benefits, and services. They will also employ modern relationship management tools and ideas to improve quality and efficiency of service delivery. (US E- Government Strategy 2002: 13.)

The Government to Business (G2B) initiatives are meant to adopt processes that alleviate the burden on businesses by dramatically reducing redundant data collection. The aim is to provide one-stop streamlined support for, and enabling of, digital communication with businesses. (US E- Government Strategy 2002: 13.)

The Government to Government (G2G) initiatives were meant to enable sharing and integration of federal, state and local data to facilitate better leverage of investments in IT systems (e.g. geographical information). They were also meant to provide better integration of key government operations, like disaster response. The G2G initiatives were also to improve grant management capabilities, as required by the Federal Financial Assistance Improvement Act (P.L 106-107). These initiatives would also support “vertical” (i.e., intergovernmental) integration requirements for Homeland Security. (US E- Government Strategy 2002: 13.)

The Internal Efficiency and Effectiveness (IEE) initiatives leverage commercial best practices to key government operations, particularly supply chain management, human capital management, financial management and document workflow. (US E- Government Strategy 2002: 13.)

**Projects selected for analysis:**

- ‘Report to congress on the Benefits of the President’s e-Government Initiatives’
- ‘FY 2008 Report to Congress on implementation of E-Government Act of 2002’

- [Recovery.gov](http://Recovery.gov)
- [USASpending.gov](http://USASpending.gov)
- [USA.gov/ GobiernoUSA.gov](http://USA.gov/GobiernoUSA.gov)
- <http://www.youtube.com/user/whitehouse>

## 5.2. Republic of Kenya

### General Information

Size:	582,650 sq km
Location:	Eastern Africa
Population:	37,953,840 (July 2008 est.)
World Bank Income Classification:	Low Income
GDP:	\$66.48 billion (2008 est. )
GDP per capita:	\$1,800 (2008 est.)
Date of Independence:	12 December 1963

**Government Type:** Kenya is a Republic with an Executive branch consisting of a cabinet, the vice president and the president who is the head of government. There is a legislative branch which is the unicameral National Assembly of 224 seats; and a judicial branch with the Court of Appeal which has one chief justice. (CIA 2009; UNPAP 2009b.)

**Legal System:** The legal system is comprised of Kenyan statutory law, Kenyan and English common law, tribal law, and Islamic law.

**e-Profile Information:**

Internet Users:	3 million (2008) (CIA 2009.)
Mobile Phone Users:	11.44 million (2007) (CIA 2009.)
e-Readiness Index Score 2008:	0.347
e-Readiness Rank:	122 <sup>nd</sup> of 183
National Web Site:	<a href="http://www.statehouskenya.go.ke">www.statehouskenya.go.ke</a>
ICT Strategy Document and Date:	E-Government Strategy: The Strategic Framework, Administrative Structure, Training Requirements and Standardization Framework. March 2004.

Summary of the main points of the Kenyan ‘e-Government Strategy’ document:

The

*“e-Government Strategy outlines the objectives and processes for the modernization of Government, a means towards: enhancement of transparency, accountability and good governance; making the government more result oriented, efficient and citizen centered; and enabling citizens and business to access Government services and information as efficiently and effectively as possible through the use of internet and other channels of communication.”* (Republic of Kenya 2004: 2.)

The Kenyan ICT strategy also articulates in thorough and lengthy detail objectives, proposed projects and implementation requirements regarding G2G, G2B and G2C communications. These are extremely brief summaries of intentions in those regards:

G2G: Cogent and compatible information processing and management policies and business processes. Appropriate skills, knowledge and attitudes necessary for operation and sustainability of communication within government agencies. (Republic of Kenya 2004: 3.)

G2C: The chosen approach was to launch basic publishing services, followed by

interactivity and finally transactional capabilities (Republic of Kenya 2004: 3). Communication with citizens could range from paying utility bills to providing information about governmental obligations (ibid. 10) or even to sourcing of opinion polls on matters being dealt with in parliament and e-Voting. (ibid. 12.)

G2B: The strategy document stressed that communications with business entails Government both providing services to and receiving services from the corporate world (Republic of Kenya 2004: 8). “Communication with Business implementation covers portal and information services, business administration, procurement and financial services, and collaborative services” (ibid. 8).

**Projects selected for analysis:**

- TEAMS cable project
- Tandaa project
- E-PashaDigital Villages & Bashiri Centers

5.3. The Co-operative Republic of Guyana

**General Information**

Size:	214,970 sq km
Location:	Northern South America
Population:	770,794 (July 2008 est.)
World Bank Income Classification:	Lower Middle Income
GDP:	\$3.082 billion (2008 est. )
GDP per capita:	\$4,000 (2008 est.)
Date of Independence:	26 May 1966

Government Type: Guyana is a republic and its government is made up of 3 branches. There is the executive branch with the president as chief of state, the prime minister as head of government and a cabinet of ministers appointed by the president. There is a legislative branch made up of a unicameral National Assembly of 65 seats; and a judicial branch with the Supreme Court of Judicature consisting of the High Court and the Court of Appeal (CIA 2009; UNPAP 2009c.)

Legal System: The Guyanese legal system is based on English common law.

**e-Profile Information:**

Internet Users:	190,000 (2007) (CIA 2009.)
Mobile Phones:	281,400 (2005) (CIA 2009.)
e-Readiness Index Score 2008:	0.438
e-Readiness Rank:	97 of 183
National Web Site:	<a href="http://www.op.gov.gy">www.op.gov.gy</a>
ICT Strategy Document and Date:	ICT4D Guyana National Strategy Final Draft April 2006

Summary of the main points of the ICT document:

“The strategy is grounded in the vision of all Guyanese having the opportunity to fully participate in the information and knowledge society in order to accelerate national development and prosperity” (National ICT Workshop 2006: 4)

The specific objectives are:

- Promoting the development of ICT businesses and services to increase job opportunities and generally improve the economic and social well being of Guyanese (National ICT Workshop 2006: 5).

- Improving the delivery of, and access by all citizens to, Government and other public services. This includes information on government activities and opportunities, public health, education and social development service (National ICT Workshop 2006: 5).
- Supporting economic diversification by improving the competitiveness of existing industries and facilitating the sustainable development of new enterprises (ibid. 5).
- Increasing Guyana's international competitiveness in the delivery of goods and services to the global market place (ibid. 5).
- Developing relevant, strategic, and focused network infrastructure to enable access to information and knowledge (ibid. 5).
- Supporting programs and initiatives which foster social cohesion. (ibid 5).
- Ensuring access to reliable ICT at lowest sustainable cost so that all Guyanese have the opportunity to participate in the information and knowledge society (ibid. 5).
- Creating a new generation of citizens who can use ICTs to leapfrog Guyana's development (ibid. 5).
- Developing and implementing the necessary policies, laws and regulations that support the sustainable development of the ICT sector (ibid. 5).
- Modernizing Guyana's Public Administration, industry, Commerce and communications sectors (ibid. 5).
- Supporting initiatives to encourage innovation and creation in the ICT sector (ibid. 5).

### **Projects selected for analysis**

- The Guyana Development Gateway (GyDG)
- DevNet
- Redspider

#### 5.4. The Republic of Estonia (Eesti Vabariik)

##### **General Information**

Size:	45,226 sq km
Location:	Eastern Europe
Population:	1,307,605 (July 2008 est.)
World Bank Income Classification	Upper Middle Income
GDP:	\$28.6 billion (2008 est. )
GDP per capita:	\$21,900 (2008 est.)
Date of Independence:	20 August 1991

Government Type: Estonia is a parliamentary republic made up of three branches. An executive branch made up of the president, a cabinet and a prime minister as head of government. There is a legislative branch made up of the unicameral Parliament of 101 seats. There is also a judicial branch with a supreme court headed by a chairman who is appointed for life. (CIA 2009; UN-PAP 2009d.)

Legal System: Estonia's system is based on a civil law.

##### **e-Profile Information:**

Internet Users:	780,000 (2007) (CIA 2009.)
Mobile Phones:	1.982 million (2007) (CIA 2009.)
e-Readiness Index Score 2008:	0.760
e-Readiness Rank:	13 of 183
National Web Site:	<a href="http://www.riik.ee">www.riik.ee</a>
ICT Strategy Document and Date:	Estonian Information Society Strategy 2013 Created in 2006

Summary of the main points of the ICT document:

The strategy represents the lengthy methodical character of information society development in Estonia. The document states that Estonia has reached a level, where the initiatives are not single projects, services and technologies that need to be focused on but rather more general and long term goals. (Ministry of Economic Affairs and Communications 2006: 2.)

It goes on to say that

*“it is only natural and reasonable to use information technology for a more rationalized organization of living. Preconditions for this have, to a large extent, already been developed. The more citizens, enterprise and the Public Administration get established in the information society, the more important it becomes, how to employ new possibilities in a manner that would benefit us all.”* (Ministry of Economic Affairs and Communications 2006: 2)

In other words the Estonian ICT document is focused on “shaping a better future in Estonia from the standpoint of the information society” (Ministry of Economic Affairs and Communications 2006: 2.)

According to the Ministry of Economic Affairs and Communications (2006: 5), the principles to be followed in the development of the information society in Estonia are the following:

- Development of the information society in Estonia is a strategic choice with the public sector leading the way in pursuing its principles.
- The information society is to be developed in a coordinated manner with co-operation between the public, private and third sector.
- The public sector is to be a smart customer, ensuring that in public procurements as much freedom as possible is left for innovative solutions.
- The information society is to be created for all Estonian residents, while particular attention is paid to integration of social groups with special

needs, to regional development, and to the strengthening of local self-initiative.

- The conservation of the Estonian language and culture is to be ensured.
- The interests of both the creators and the users of intellectual property are to be taken into account.
- The development of the information society should not undermine people's sense of security. The protection of basic rights, personal data and identity should be ensured, and mitigation of non-acceptable risks in information systems must be guaranteed.
- Activities aimed at the development of the information society should be linked to the R&D efforts in Estonia.
- The information society and the opportunities it brings will be considered in the elaboration of all sectoral policies.
- Trends occurring in the EU and elsewhere in the world will be taken into consideration and as an active partner, Estonia will share its experience and learn from others.
- The public sector will employ the already existing technological solutions so as to avoid duplication of IT solutions.
- The public sector will restructure its business processes so as to ensure a one-off collection of data from citizens, entrepreneurs and public bodies.
- The public sector will use open standards therefore giving equal treatment to different hardware and software platforms and ensuring interoperability of information systems.
- Data collection and the development of ICT-solutions will proceed from the principles of re-usability.

## Projects Selected for Analysis

- KülaTee 3 “Village Road 3”
- Traceability of the use of one’s data
- Mobi Solutions

### 5.5. Republic of the Philippines

#### General Information

Size:	300,000 sq km
Location:	Southeast Asia
Population:	96,061,680 (July 2008 est)
World Bank Income Classification:	Lower Middle Income
GDP:	\$327.2 billion (2008 est )
GDP per capita:	\$3,400 (2008 est)
Date of Independence:	12 June 1889 from Spain; 4 July 1946 from U.S

**Government Type:** The Philippines is a republic made up of 3 branches of government. There is an executive branch, with the president as the head of government and a cabinet. There is a legislative branch which is a bicameral congress consisting of the Senado 24 seats and House of Representatives 240 seats. There is a judicial branch with a supreme court of 15 justices, the Court of Appeals, and Sandigan–bayan for cases of corrupt government officials. (CIA 2009; UNPAP 2009e.)

**Legal System:** Based on Spanish and Anglo–American law.

**e-Profile Information:**

Internet Users:	5.3 million (2007) (CIA 2009.)
Mobile Phones:	51.795 million (2007) (CIA 2009.)
e-Readiness Index Score 2008:	0.500
e-Readiness Rank:	66 of 183
National Web Site:	www.gov.ph
ICT Strategy Document and Date:	Philippine Strategic ICT Roadmap (2006-2010). Created in 2006

Summary of the main points of the ICT document:

In her foreword to the ICT Roadmap, the president of the Philippines Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo stated

*“my administration recognizes the value of ICT not only in our everyday life, but more so in uplifting the socio-economic conditions in our country. The Philippine ICT roadmap becomes more significant in this regard because it sets strategic directions and policies to guide government, private sector, civil society, academe and the other stakeholders in their respective functions and responsibilities.”* (qtd. in CICT 2006: 1.)

The Commission on Information and Communication Technology (CICT) (2006:2) goes on to say the ICT initiatives would continue to allow the

*“Philippines to be an effective and progressive participant in the Global economy (...) it would be possible to continue producing globally competitive knowledge workers, creating an ICT enabled labor force, improving the ability of government to use technology, and strengthening the capabilities of our enterprises. These would ensure the continued generation of high value jobs.”*

“Government's primary role in ICT development is to provide an enabling policy, legal and regulatory environment that levels the playing field and allows the private sector to lead.” (CICT 2006: 4.)

In the Philippines ICT is envisioned as a tool for human and sustainable development. The CICT states that development of an Information Society requires a multi-stakeholder approach. They also hold that the Philippine Information Society requires the availability, accessibility and development of digital content that is relevant and meaningful to Filipinos. And that a secure online environment is a critical component of the Philippine Information Society. (CICT 2006: 4.)

The document is also unequivocal about the fact that the employment of ICT requires the creation and/ or strengthening of government's institutional arrangements for the facilitation of ICT development, and ICT for development in the country. (CICT 2006: 4.)

### **Projects selected for analysis**

- TextDTI
- TextCSC
- UPOU m-Learning

### 5.6. Analysis

As is evident from their profiles, the five countries The United States, Kenya, Guyana, Estonia and the Philippines are vastly disparate in land and population size with Estonia being the smallest land size while Guyana is more sparsely populated. The U.S enjoys the greatest land mass as well as population size. Also in terms of spatial location the countries also represent every hemisphere and continent on the globe with the exception of Australia.

The countries also represent a large range of income; Kenya with a GDP of \$1,800 per person per year is categorized as low income by the World Bank. Guyana, the Philippines and Estonia span the mid range from low middle income to upper middle income while the U.S is high income with a GDP of \$48,000 per person per year. As of now this range of income also affects how much money is allotted to e-Government/ Governance. However, that is a trend that is set to change by 2011. It is projected that by then lower income countries will allot more of their GDP to ICT than will high income countries (Gartner Inc. 2008).

The countries' legal systems share more commonalities than their incomes. The U.S, Guyana and Kenya having been colonies of Britain, have their legal basis in English common law with some modifications. The Philippines and Estonia's legal basis emerged from a different history.

All five countries are Republics with three branches of government but the similarities end there. The legislative arm of Guyana and Estonia are parliamentary, while the U.S and Philippines have a bicameral congressional system and Kenya has a unicameral national assembly.

In relation to e-Readiness and presence, the countries are in various stages of development. Guyana and Kenya can be considered in the Level 2 or Enhanced phase of internet presence as discussed earlier in this chapter. The Philippines is in the Level 3 Interactive phase, Estonia is in Level 4 Transactional and the U.S is in Level 5 Connected. The e-Readiness index score and rank, when compared to other countries, also reflect a similar pattern. Kenya is ranked the lowest at 122<sup>nd</sup> while Guyana is 97<sup>th</sup> the Philippines is 66<sup>th</sup> Estonia is 13<sup>th</sup> and the U.S.A. is 4<sup>th</sup>. While Kenya seems to have more interactivity on the web it falls behind Guyana in human capital and infrastructure causing a lower e-Readiness Index score.

Regardless of their differences in readiness and resources available, the countries speak with one voice when messaging the reasons why they ascribe such importance to Information Communication Technology. They all cite (in their ICT strategies and other official communications about the subject) the potential benefits of ICT for making government functions more efficient, more transparent, and more accountable therefore serving citizens better. They also all conceptualize the world as entering a new information age in which the management of knowledge is critical for survival.

Each country does however have different goals driving their ICT strategies, different ideas for implementing the ICT strategy and different focus areas. Below is an analysis of each country's ICT strategy and selected ICT projects which emerged resulting from or in support of the strategy.

The ICT strategy documents were analyzed for any stated intent about the use of ICT regarding KM, good governance, structural change, participation and collaboration and culture. The intent could be explicit or implicit.

The following are examples of expression of *explicit* intent excerpted from the five ICT documents. The statements address structural change, good governance, participation and collaboration, Knowledge Management, and culture.

Structural Change: "eliminating layers of government management," "significant change from traditional bureaucratic approaches" (E-Government Task Force 2002: 2).

Good Governance: "as a means towards accountability, transparency and good governance" (CICT 2006).

KM: "to facilitate effective Knowledge Management" (National ICT Workshop 2006: 6).

Participation and collaboration: “encourage partnerships among community networks (public, private and citizens in the diaspora)” (National ICT Workshop 2006: 6).

Culture: “foster and respect cultural diversity” (ibid. 11).

“digitization and digital preservation of cultural heritage” (Ministry of Economic Affairs and Communications 2006: 15).

Examples of expression of *implicit* intent found in the ICT strategy documents about structural change, good governance, participation and collaboration, Knowledge Management, and culture are:

Structural Change: “the public sector reorganizes its business processes to ensure a one off collection of data from citizens, entrepreneurs and public bodies” (Ministry of Economic Affairs and Communications 2006: 5).

“the establishment of an ICT authority which will be a largely autonomous body (...) which will be guided by the advice of the ICT advisory panel comprising of representatives from the public and private sectors” (National ICT Workshop 2006: 41).

Good Governance: “role for IT in public sector management (improving efficiency, transparency) and accountability among others” (CICT 2006).

KM: “facilitate and enforce inter-agency cooperation, messaging and collaboration” (Republic of Kenya 2004: 4).

Participation and collaboration: “ICT used as an instrument for strengthened connectivity and development to foster greater prosperity and social transformation between and among CARICOM member states and the rest of the world” (National ICT Workshop 2006:11).

Culture: “encourage the development and dissemination of local content” (National ICT Workshop 2006: 6).

In Table 3 below are the findings from the analysis of the ICT strategy documents for each country in tabulated form. “I” is implicit intent and “E” is explicit intent. This is followed by an explanation of the information in the table by column.

Table 3. Matrix of findings from analysis of ICT strategy Documents.

	<b>U.S.A</b>	<b>Philippines</b>	<b>Guyana</b>	<b>Kenya</b>	<b>Estonia</b>
<b>Knowledge Management</b>	E	E	E	E	E
<b>Participation/ Collaboration</b>	E	E	E	E	E
<b>Good Governance</b>	I	E	E	E	E
<b>Structural Change</b>	E	E	E	E	I
<b>Culture</b>	I	E	E	I	E

#### 5.6.1. United States

The ICT strategy document ‘e-Government Strategy’ explicitly states intentions to use Information and Communication Technology for Knowledge Management purposes. They intend to develop the core competencies of the agencies by creating technology standards which make sharing information across agencies fluid. The desired result is to provide citizens one stop access to information and services.

The ICT document is also explicit about its intent to foster participation and collaboration between citizens and government, between government entities, and intra agency. There was also an explicit intent to alter government structure to facilitate the aims of e-Government via ICT. As a result, a separate e-Government structure was conceived and put into place (see Appendix 2).

Lastly there were implicit intentions aimed at the ideals of Good Governance and culture stated throughout the document. Though it also referred to general American culture, most culture related intentions in the ICT document were geared towards intra governmental culture. The E-Government Task Force which was charged with the task of creating the strategy found that there needed to be a change in emphasis to citizen centeredness in use of technology rather than agency centeredness.

In order for this to be fully realized, government agencies would have to collaborate in unprecedented ways to use technology to produce value for citizens. Consequently, a change in government culture was required in order to change the way technology was being used and reciprocally, the use of technology was also seen as a push factor in changing organizational culture.

Projects emerging from or maintained in support of the stated goals of the ICT strategy document were analyzed for signs of responsiveness to culture. It was determined that there is indeed responsiveness to culture, both public administrative organizational culture, and general American culture.

The “Report to congress on the Benefits of the President’s e-Government Initiatives” and the “FY 2008 Report to Congress on implementation of E-Government Act of 2002” are annual reports to the legislative branch of government. They chronicle the progress of e-Government implementation and benefits of initiatives undertaken. They serve to underscore the importance of and priority given to the ICT strategy and therefore set the tone throughout

federal administrative organizational culture regarding e-Government initiatives.

The [whitehouse.gov](http://whitehouse.gov) and [usa.gov](http://usa.gov)/ [goberino.gov](http://goberino.gov) portals cater to culture in that they are citizen focused. They offer services by theme rather than simply by governmental department/ agency. That format of presenting information entails collaboration across government agencies indicating the results of a culture of citizen centeredness and KM in the use of technology.

Americans living abroad for example can find information specifically relevant to their status. Information is presented from over twelve government agencies spanning from the top echelons of the federal government through to the local government in under a minute. Prior to the implementation of the National ICT strategy no such collaboration and management of information occurred.

The Whitehouse YouTube page [www.youtube.com/user/whitehouse](http://www.youtube.com/user/whitehouse), [www.recovery.gov](http://www.recovery.gov), and [www.usaspending.gov](http://www.usaspending.gov) are responsive to culture in that they address a crisis of legitimacy facing Public Administration in the wake of the hurricane Katrina scandal (Morris: 2008), and growing evidence of fiscal and regulatory irresponsibility. The Obama Administration attempts to use technology to restore legitimacy to government and create a culture of trust in government through transparency, public participation (specifically discursive democracy as discussed in section 3.2.2), and accountability. Publishing the details of federal and state government spending on interactive websites ([recovery.gov](http://recovery.gov) and [usaspending.gov](http://usaspending.gov) sites), and having online town hall meetings (YouTube page) where the public can ask questions and offer their views about policy decisions, are some of the ways ICT is being used to that end.

### 5.6.2. Kenya

The Kenyan Cabinet Office of the President charged with articulating their ‘E-Government Strategy’ was explicit in the document dealing with the use of ICT for Knowledge Management, participation and collaboration, Good Governance and structural change while aims regarding culture were implicit.

A separate organizational structure was put into place in order to facilitate the aims of e-Government (see Appendix 1).

Although culture is not mentioned explicitly in the ICT strategy document, projects emerging as a result of the strategy were very culturally oriented.

The TEAMS fiber optic cable project: Broadband service is seen as key piece of ICT critical to building an effective infrastructure to support other forms of ICT on which e-Government is based. TEAMS is a government led joint public-private partnership to bring affordable broadband service to Kenyans. If this project were left to purely market forces the costs would have been exorbitant. This initiative demonstrates citizen centeredness and cultural responsiveness in designing ICT solutions specific to Kenyan needs.

e-Pasha Digital Villages project: In this project, the Kenyan government provided financial and technical support to technological entrepreneurs who wish to open e-Centers which bring the internet and other ICT services to rural areas. The use of the Ki Swahili word “pasha” meaning “information,” as well as the concept of the e-Center as “an information village,” shows a responsiveness on the part of the public service to mould the technology being used to fit into existing cultural world views.

Tandaa project: Mentioned in ICT strategy document, is the need for local Kenyan content in cyberspace. The government is enthusiastically working to

bring that vision to fruition and has committed resources to that end. The Tandoa project is one of those efforts and its mission is twofold:

- “1. To create and sustain awareness and excitement in Kenyans (including entrepreneurs, academics, venture capitalists, financiers as well as public servants) on the opportunities of local content development.*
- 2. To create a conducive sustainable environment to support local content development in Kenya.” (Kags 2009.)*

Among the many methods being employed to fulfill this mission, the Kenyan government has set up Bashiri “bring news” Centers throughout the country. These function like e-Pasha Villages but they are fully owned by the government. They introduce people to accessing public service information and transactions online, and are equipped with digital cameras, faxes, printers etcetera and encourage users to create local content using the available equipment.

The initiative to develop local content is part of Knowledge Management. It is a means of developing Kenya’s core competence and intellectual capital. Recall from section 3.2.1 that core competence is a set of specialties which can be leveraged to economic advantage. Kenya’s government is interested in developing local content which can be marketed in the competitive global market place.

However, it is also culturally responsive and participatory in that it incorporates the citizenry in a collaborative effort which in turn ensures that ICT will be employed in ways relevant to Kenyans.

### 5.6.3. Guyana

Analysis of Guyana’s ‘ICT4D Guyana National Strategy’ reveals that, Knowledge Management, participation, good governance, and cultural impact were explicitly stated purposes to which ICT would be used. The document also ex-

plicitly stated that appropriate organizational configurations would be created in order to fulfill the aims of the ICT strategy and to execute the strategy itself. Structural changes were indeed made in practice. The Guyanese President, Bharrat Jagdeo, is personally directing the development and implementation of the e-Government strategy. He also appointed an information liaison to work on coordinating the effort. There was also quite a bit of partnership and collaboration on conceptualizing the strategy. Representatives from most public sector ministries, major private sector companies, small ICT entrepreneurs and members of academia were assembled in a “National ICT Workshop” to devise the strategy.

Of all the cases examined, Guyana’s strategy document was the most adamant about human development and local culture being significant values to which ICT must be employed. Public private partnership was envisioned as the best way to achieve that goal. Projects developed out of or in support of the ICT strategy are reflective of that.

Redspider: Redspider is a local web hosting service and a member of the “National ICT Workshop.” This company is partnering with the Guyanese government to create and host some websites of institutions of national heritage pro bono. One such site is that of the St. George’s Cathedral [www.stgeorges.org.gy](http://www.stgeorges.org.gy).

This initiative is culturally responsive in that it demonstrates follow through on intentions to use ICT to preserve cultural heritage and foster social cohesion.

The Guyana Development Gateway (GyDG) [www.guyanagateway.org.gy](http://www.guyanagateway.org.gy) is a portal for information exchange and knowledge sharing about best practices related to Guyana's development. The GyDG is a virtual gathering place and a source of high-quality information on development. It focuses on themes related to social cohesion, health, education and the promotion of economic activity through agriculture, tourism and small business development. The GyDG is

administered by DevNet (see below), via a partnership created between different stakeholders in Government and civil society.

GyDG is culturally responsive that it opens the public sphere to participation from a wider spectrum of Guyanese. According to theorists of discursive participation, this should lead to decision making which takes into account a wider swath of views. If this is the case, then more Guyanese would have a voice in the nation's development increasing the likelihood of culturally relevant decision making.

DevNet: [www.devnet.org](http://www.devnet.org) is a Guyana-based not-for-profit Non Governmental Organization working on ICT4D (which means using ICT to further national development goals). Its board of directors includes membership from Government agencies, the private sector, and other NGOs.

Like Red Spider, DevNet also hosts websites of national heritage, NGOs, local interest groups and clubs etc. at a government subsidized rate. DevNet also designs and runs training courses in the use of ICT.

DevNet's mission is to:

- Provide efficient and cost effective access to the Internet for marginalized groups, build high-quality solutions for the collation, dissemination, and exchange of information and knowledge between all sectors of Guyanese society. (DevNet 2009.)
- Design and implement innovative projects that bring new approaches to the use of ICTs for development. (ibid.)

This project also demonstrates responsiveness to culture by preserving areas of national heritage. It also leverages knowledge from actors across a wide range of the society ensuring that activities undertaken fit the needs of multiple layers

of society.

#### 5.6.4. Estonia

“The Estonian Information Society Strategy 2013” announced explicit intentions on behalf of the government regarding the use of ICT for Knowledge Management, participation and collaboration, Good Governance and cultural responsiveness. References toward structural change in public sector organization were implicit.

However, the implicit mention of structure is probably due to the fact that the organizational structure of the Estonian Civil Service was already conducive to the successful implementation ICT technology in support of governance.

The Estonian country, as we know it now, only became independent from the Soviet Union in the early 1990s whereupon the civil service underwent a massive reform. This reform started in 1991 and was orchestrated in part; by members of the academia (experts at the University of Tartu), an Administrative Reform Expert Committee, and a multi agency Administrative Reform Committee of Ministers. The reform included a proposal for structural reorganization which was put forth in 1999. Eventually the civil service reform period ended in 2005, the year before the Estonian ICT strategy document was published. (see Külli 2006.)

The reform was a widely collaborative effort and it was conceived at a time where ideas of governance as the future of the modern state were flourishing. At the same time Estonia had already envisioned becoming an “Information Society” and was moving in that direction rapidly.

‘The Estonian Information Society Strategy 2013’ which is used in this analysis is the second ICT strategy published by the Estonian government. The first was

'Estonian ICT Policy: Towards a more Service – Centered and Citizen Friendly State. Principles of the Estonian Information Policy 2004-2006.' Structural issues were articulated and focused on in that one. In that document, the fact that the existing structure was already decentralized and prepared for horizontal coordination intra and extra governmentally was mentioned (see Antonen 2004: 2.)

This then gives credence to the idea that Estonia's reformed civil service system was built with the KM and participatory aspects of Governance theory in mind. Additional structural changes would have been minimal, making explicit mention of them in the newest ICT strategy document unnecessary.

Cultural impact was a stated aim of the most recent strategy document which was analyzed and ICT initiatives emerging from that document were responsive to culture.

Village Road 3 (KülaTee 3): Village Road 3 is aimed at providing broadband internet to sparsely populated areas where it is unprofitable for the private sector to operate. It serves as a follow-up to similar programs Village Road 1 (aimed at connecting local government agencies) and Village Road 2 (aimed at connecting public libraries). (Ministry of Economic Affairs and Communications 2006: 7.)

As Estonia is actively building an Information Society, there is scarcely a more culturally relevant initiative than making sure that all Estonians in every part of the country have access to information. The Village road 3 project does just that.

Traceability of the use of one's data: The wide acceptance and availability of ICT by the average citizen in Estonia as well as the constant availability of information and data has placed it well on the way to becoming the Information Society envisioned. However, these same successes have made it a target of cyber terrorism (Finch 2009).

Concerns over the privacy and security of digitized information are an important byproduct of a technological culture. The administrative system has responded to this concern in a number of ways only one of which is to ensure transparency when dealing with personal data collected by the state. Currently, some areas of the public service have made it possible for citizens to log onto a portal in order to trace when their data was accessed and by whom. The citizen can then contact the agency responsible should they find reason to object.

This initiative is culturally responsive in using ICT to address to a concern which springs out of Estonia's specific cultural milieu. Though cyber attacks can happen anywhere, its effects in Estonia are more far reaching since more of routine activities are done using mobile and regular Information Communication Technology.

Furthermore, the initiative satisfies the aims of accountability and transparency which are facets of Good Governance.

MobiSolutions: As part of their ICT strategy, the Estonian government has committed resources to the development of a private Information Technology sector with which it often forms partnerships to develop and or implement innovative ICT initiatives.

One such company in the private sector is Mobisolutions. It has developed a series of mobile solutions for the private sector and for m-Governance in the public sector.

Solutions in their m-Governance portfolio include what they term m-Democracy. It offers mobile voting, access to government portals and databases and participation in policy decision making and more. It also offers m-Administration solutions for government officials using mobile devices in the field, provision of emergency information, communication in education, pay-

ment of public service fees and taxes, digital identification of citizens to name a few. (MobiSolutions 2009.)

If Estonia is to be an Information Society, it certainly is culturally responsive on the part of the government to establish such partnerships. At the same time, these initiatives build Estonia's core competence and creates intellectual property and capital as discussed in section 3.2.1.

#### 5.6.5. The Philippines

The Philippine government made explicit claims about using Information and Communication Technology for Knowledge Management, participation and collaboration, Good Governance cultural and structural changes.

The Philippines is branding itself as a society who's main asset is its intellectual capital. Its core competence is its society of knowledge workers. That being the case, leveraging knowledge for the purpose of national development was a key point of the Philippine ICT strategy.

Another key aspect was expansion of the public sphere by employing mobile technology for direct participation by citizenry.

Structural changes were also addressed by the document. A separate Commission on Information and Communications technology was formed to conceive of the strategy in collaboration with members of the private sector. A Department of Information and Communication Technology was created within the executive branch of government to implement, administer and coordinate the effort.

The National Telecommunications Commission was also taken out of the bureaucracy and made an autonomous entity charged with regulating the coun-

try's IT sector.

Regarding culture, the Philippine government has found a way to create a dynamic and responsive public service through innovative use of Short Messaging Service (SMS) on mobile devices. The use of SMS is also referred to as "texting" or "text messaging."

Filipinos proudly declare that the Philippines is the "texting capital of the world (...) Filipinos have also found interesting uses for the Sort Messaging Service (SMS) feature of their mobile phones in their social, economic and political lives" (Lallana 2006).

Filipinos even use text messaging for religious purposes. TEXTMARY is a service run by a catholic foundation in the Philippines which collects prayer requests for intercession between Filipinos and God. This is the reason why similar initiatives from the Public Service are so welcome and successful. (Ibid.)

TEXTCSC and TEXTDTI are examples of such initiatives. Text CSC is one of several projects meant to engage citizens in the elimination of corruption and the improvement of "street level services" in the civil service. Citizens are asked to send a message directly to the Ombudsman of the Civil Service Commission if any impropriety is witnessed.

TEXTDTI combats price gouging at wet markets in and around the metro Manila area by providing the prevailing prices of basic goods to citizens. In so doing, this and the TEXTCSC initiatives satisfy the accountability, responsiveness and rule of law aims of Good Governance.

University of the Philippines Open University (UPOU) is the distance learning section of the state owned University of the Philippines. It has a strong tradition of using the latest technology to fulfill its mandate of educating all Filipinos.

From operating a school over the airwaves to using video conferencing UPOU has been a pioneer in distance learning. It is no surprise then that they have developed an m-Learning program in partnership with one of their leading telecommunications companies where students can take UPOU classes and exams via the SMS feature on mobile phones. (Bandalaria 2005; UPOU 2009.)

This initiative furthers the national development aims of creating a society of knowledge workers using a medium that is culturally relevant.

### 5.7. Summary of Findings on Changes in Organizational Structure

From the collection of cases studied it is evident that all five nations found it necessary to adjust their public service organizational structure in some way (regardless of whether it was stated explicitly or implicitly) in order to make full use of Information and Communication Technology as a contributor to Good Governance. Below is a more detailed look at the structural changes discussed in the documents analyzed.

The organization charts in Appendices 3 and 4 are of the American and Guyanese governments respectively. They represent the structural style of traditional bureaucracy. In the American case, the organization chart only reveals the very top echelons of the bureaucracy as it is virtually impossible to capture all the levels in one pictogram. Pictured in Appendix 3 for example, at the lowest level is the Department of Veterans Affairs. An inspection of the levels of organization below that reveals at least seven more levels (see United States Department of Veterans Affairs 2009).

According to Governance theory, these traditional bureaucracies are unsuited for the modern information age. The central tenets of Governance are Knowledge Management, participation, and the practical aspect, good governance.

These three tenets are inextricably linked. In order to optimally leverage intellectual capital, core competence, and intellectual property, there must be maximum participation from all stakeholders.

The original principals of organizational orthodoxy created rigid micromanagement of members, lack of time to reflect and create, and impenetrable organizational levels within traditional bureaucracies. This structural design limits optimal participation and collaboration by stakeholders and as a corollary, inhibits the leveraging of all forms of knowledge.

As mentioned in chapter 3, without Knowledge Management and participation, it is not possible to achieve all the 8 facets of Good Governance. Therefore Good Governance mandates a particular structural organization that is almost bureaucracy's polar opposite.

However, changing bureaucracy is difficult as ideas of organizational orthodoxy are entrenched in the civil service worldwide. Therefore the governments of these five countries were faced with a dilemma. On the one hand they have the existing bureaucratic structure, but on the other hand they are eager to move towards ideas of governance and towards Good Governance in practice. They believe a change in organizational structure is critical to achieving that outcome. Upon examination of these five cases it is revealed that four of these governments have developed a working solution.

Although four out of five nations announced some organizational changes in the ICT strategy document, Kenya and the USA for example envisioned a separate governmental structure for managing e-Government (see Appendices 1 and 2).

They have created separate flatter, more collaborative organizations for e-Government but these entities still "plug in" to the existing bureaucracy (com-

pare Appendices 1 and 3). Members of diverse areas of the bureaucracy are put into this new organizational structure as a means of collapsing levels of hierarchy and creating effective networks.

This hybrid organization is characterized by:

- The creation of a separate organizational structure (e-Government structure) superimposed over or existing alongside the bureaucracy
- members of the bureaucracy playing dual roles (their position in the bureau and their position in the e-Government structure)
- flatter more collaborative/ network structure sometimes utilizing both members of the bureau, and private sector stakeholders.
- responsibilities and projects which span the range of bureaucratic agencies, also requiring extra bureaucratic resources forcing collaboration between, and leveraging knowledge from, all stakeholders

Guyana and the Philippines have not created a separate E-Government structure but have created semi autonomous entities at the executive levels of government in charge of ICT implementation. These also share some of the same characteristics of the hybrid organizations created by the U.S and Kenya in that they exist outside of but plug into the existing bureaucracy in order to leverage knowledge and foster participation and collaboration.

In examining the countries' ICT documents, it also became evident that there was a reflexive force shaping organizational structure. Simultaneously in some cases, ICT was being used to shape organizational structure and organizational structure was changed to accommodate ICT.

Good examples are in the Guyanese and Philippine cases where the power, prestige, and urgency of the presidency was used to collapse existing levels of

bureaucracy and barriers between the public and private sectors to create a multilevel, cross agency multi stakeholder collaboration.

Following that, ICT initiatives were undertaken which were meant to foster more collaboration and participation across government agencies and to leverage knowledge for the benefit of the citizenry.

As discussed in section 5.6.4, Estonia had an organizational structure conducive to Knowledge Management and participation so they made implicit reference to structural organization in their ICT document. But ICT is being used to maintain the collaborative structure of their government. They have employed standardized technology and client relationship management tools across the public sector to foster collaboration across agencies and offer one stop services to the citizenry.

#### 5.8. Summary of Findings on Cultural Relevance and Responsiveness

As was the case with organizational structure, all the nations expressed intentions regarding culture. All five nations also discussed, either explicitly or implicitly, both organizational culture within the civil service and general societal culture.

Administrative organizational culture, when addressed in the ICT strategy documents examined, was usually discussed in terms of three aspects of change management:

- Changing the entire civil service organizational culture to provide more facility with the use of ICT (or fostering existing ICT friendliness) with the aims of improving efficiency and better citizen service.

- Changing the entire civil service organizational culture to make it more citizen centered rather than agency centered, and as a byproduct creating or using ICT initiatives which reflect those goals.
- Changing individual organizational cultures within civil service agencies so that inter agency collaboration between civil service organizations is more possible. Especially now that the ICT technology exists to facilitate those collaborations.

Societal culture, in the ICT strategy documents was discussed in terms of:

- using ICT to protect, promote and preserve local heritage and cultural diversity
- using ICT to assist marginalized groups within the culture/ society
- using ICT to engender a culture of civic pride, or a culture of collective societal development, collective identity or nationalism
- using ICT to foster social cohesion
- using ICT to serve different groups of citizenry in ways that are meaningful for them

As discussed in each case, examination of some of each country's ICT initiatives reveal that the five governments have followed through on their intentions regarding using ICT in the service of cultural responsiveness.

## **6. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUDING REMARKS**

The primary focus of this work has been an investigation of the ways in which specific technology is being used in service of (Good) Governance.

Using the collective case study methodology and Governance theory as the framework of analysis, The Information Communication Technology Strategy Documents of five countries were examined. The documents were studied for intentions regarding the use Information and Communication Technology in changing organizational structure and fostering collaboration and participation. Projects emerging from, or in support of each country's strategy was also examined for cultural responsiveness.

A review of governance theory was done for explication purposes. In the narrative of governance theory, governance is conceptualized as the future of governing. It is characterized by participation and collaboration among stakeholders operating in horizontal networked organizational structures which promote Knowledge Management. These engender the practice of Good Governance with its emphasis on transparency, accountability and the rule of law. The goal of which is improved services for citizenry. However as is the case with all theory, Governance theory represents a simplification of very complex phenomena.

Examining aspects of governance in practice during the process of this research prompted an interrogation of "the governance narrative" (see Rhodes 2000). Issues observed in practice required a complication of governance theory. It seems that several scholars of governance have also encountered these issues, posed questions, and drawn insights which are similar to mine. This body of scholarship offers some emerging perspectives on governance.

## 6.1. Emerging Perspectives on Governance

The first issue encountered is the idea that governance is so “new,” and that the shift to governance is purely unidirectional. Ideas of leveraging knowledge, transparency, participation, and accountability are hardly new but are being packaged in a new way. Kooiman (2005: 5) states and Peters agrees that “governance as a concept is not new, but currently it is being treated more systematically, and this might be expected to continue” In earlier analyses the state was the central actor in governing but in newer ones, state-society relations are the focus. (Peters 2000.)

Johansson and Hvinden talk about how so called new ideas of governance may, draw upon, re-conceptualize, or may even be “a return to ideals or principles set in earlier stages in history” (Kooiman 2005: 13) ideas which may have been marginalized at that earlier time due to competing ideologies.

In addition to the “newness” of governance, another aspect of the governance narrative that bears interrogation is the very idea of knowledge and Knowledge Management. As part of Governance theory there is a focus on kinds of knowledge (information, combinational skill, technical knowledge and innovation, and tacit knowledge). Those kinds of knowledge are bundled into Knowledge Management theory (as discussed in section 3.2.1) as part of a discourse about how that knowledge can be leveraged for: better outcomes for citizens through informed decision making, and knowledge sharing for increased efficiency among stakeholders.

Less focus is placed on the process of knowledge creation. Governance theory particularly emphasizes Knowledge Management in terms of informed decision making. Knowledge though, does not occur acontextually, and for the actors in the vision of informed policy making “there are always pre-visions, pre-images, shaping the perception of new governing information” (Kooiman 2005: 30).

There must be consideration given to the idea that “governing images are created, sustained or changed by dialogical communication between governing actors with the broader context of governing culture or cultural spheres” (ibid. 30).

In other words, there should be awareness that knowledge must be seen as contextual and that that milieu acts as a sieve within the minds of all actors in governance. This sieve affects the actors’ treatment of normative and empirical data, thus creating ramifications for decision making in governance.

In governance theory’s use of concepts of participation and the public sphere, participation is seen as automatically positive and an important aspect of “Good Governance.” An extreme oversimplification of the argument for increased participation and collaboration can be conceptualized as follows: more participation from citizenry leads to plurality of views which leads to a broader base of information from which consensus decision making (which is best for all involved) can be reached. However, the governance model emphasizes the lessening of authoritarian rule of the nation state in favor of participative rule; but fails to pay enough attention to the ways in which participation is affected by imbalances of power.

The nation state or sometimes even supra national entities like the E.U, IMF, WTO for example set the parameters within which participation occurs. Newman (2005: 8) states that “the governance literature both ignores the continuing role of national governments in exercising coercive forms of power and undermines the significance of the role of the state in (...) setting the rules of the game.” The state does this by its control of resources, formal cooptation, and other technologies of power.

An example of this idea was borne out during the research on Kenya. In response to the idea that Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) were being

invited to be participants and collaborators with government in building human capacity for ICT; representatives of some NGOs balked. The reason is that under the system of one-the one party rule (since abolished), NGO's represented the only opposition to government and functioned as a watchdog for governmental activities. The relation between government and NGOs had been one of mistrust and suspicion (UNPAP 2009b). In its push to fulfill goals of partnership and collaborative governance while promoting the use of ICT by the citizenry, the Kenyan state is reshaping the role of NGOs from one of "opposition and watchdog;" to one of "actors in governing."

A role that not all NGOs are convinced is a positive one since some organizations derive their legitimacy from not being actors in government (a concept embedded in their very nomenclature). Their choices in the matter however, are constrained by the imbalance of power between them and the state.

Another factor that can't be ignored is that of the effect of Supra National entities in governance. Just as the state sets the rules of the game for participants within the state through the control of resources; supra national organizations often set the rules for states. (see O'Brien, Goetz, Scholte & Williams 2000.)

Offe (2000: 11) offers the example of Eastern European States like Estonia where he mentions that although national governments hold democratic legitimacy, there has been a transfer of authority that accompanied the implementation of the Common Market system which reduced their power to secure the interests of their national populations. Further examples of constraints of supra national government are structural adjustment programs implemented by global actors such as the IMF and "World Bank promoting a particular ideologically driven view of how social policy should position itself in relation to the market." (Lendvai 2005: 62.)

In considering these ideas of power imbalance, another lapse in governance theory presents itself. Not enough attention is paid to particular histories and plurality of viewpoints in the conceptualization of change. Newman (2005: 9) argues that point when she says “the governance narrative is derived from a Western European (...) account of change. It is by no means the only way of describing the ‘remaking’ of governing institutions, including the institutions of the nation state.”

These ideas of the imbalance of power and the importance of history converged when examining all the countries except the United States. The Philippines, Guyana and Kenya had colonial pasts while Estonia was recently under Soviet Rule. In the post colonial and post communist time periods, these countries were all seen as “developing.” They were economically dependent and had to enter into relationships with supra national organizations. These organizations like the WTO and IMF held control over distribution of the financial and other recourses and enforced ideological requirements as conditions for loans.

This begs the question: Is their enthusiastic approach to the aims of governance a product of such relationships? ICT4D (Information and Communication Technology for Development) for example is conceptualized as a means for “developing countries” to reach the UN’s Millennium Development Goals. Is the idea of Governance and ICT4D simply another trend emerging from a “western world view” dictating yet another set of administrative “best practices?” In past instances of this issue, organizational orthodoxy and later neo-liberal market policies were propagated by supra national organizations which had the power to force the implementation of these ideas. In many instances adoption of these ideologies and practices proved not to be in the best interest of “developing” countries as those policies and ways of organization emerged from a world view that was outside of their reality. (Dwivedi 1994: 3-24; Black 2001.)

These few critiques leveled at the theory of Governance represent only the tip of the iceberg, however, though these critiques exist, governance theory, when viewed through a critical eye, still represents an interesting and compelling model through which to conceptualize the exercise of governing. “There is great scope for a governance paradigm to arise, to be championed, lauded and debated as a subject of inter-scholarly rivalry, inevitable to be replaced by a newer rival theory” (Kooiman 2005: 5).

## 6.2. Concluding Remarks

In the introduction of this work, I stated that I was motivated by the prospect of investigating issues at the nexus of culture and Public Administration. In order to fulfill that curiosity, I chose to investigate whether or how Information Communication Technology is being utilized within Public Administration systems in terms of providing culturally responsive service which furthers the aims of Good Governance.

In so doing I found that in the five nations investigated; The Philippines, The United States of America, Guyana, Kenya and Estonia, ICT was being employed towards the aims of Good Governance. Governments also changed their organizational structure to a hybrid between vertical bureaucratic organization and a more horizontal networked one to facilitate its optimal use.

Moreover, the governments not only conceptualized ICT as a tool to achieve culturally responsive service in policy; they actively executed initiatives in practice that were culturally relevant. Administrators use ICT to *respond* to culture; (the Philippine SMS initiatives are an excellent example) and also to *shape* culture (the Estonian Information Society initiatives and the Obama administration’s transparency and accountability initiatives are an examples of that).

As discussed in chapter 4, the collective case study method was used in this work because the object is to examine a group of cases in order to shed light on the larger issues of interest to the researcher. The results may not be transferable and the sample size too small to make general theories but the fact that five very diverse countries in the world use Information Communication Technology to be culturally responsive is promising.

It is indeed ironic that the idea of the “value neutral” or culturally neutral profession of Public Administration emerged out of such a culturally specific moment in American history. Perhaps the use of ICT towards culturally responsive service will represent a quiet revolution in Public Administration worldwide one country at a time.

Now that government is once again such a global enterprise (Johnson 1992: 27), it will require a countervailing force of culturally responsive approaches to keep in touch with the needs of the local. As evidenced by these five countries, Information Communication Technology can be an effective tool in that regard.

Finally, although ICT is a compelling tool, it is still a tool, subject to the ways in which it is implemented. Governments ought not fall prey to the temptation of technocentricity. The U.S learned that lesson when it invested hundreds of millions of dollars in technology and ICT initiatives only to find that they were ineffective. This investment was done without any coordinated effort and before the articulation of a solid ICT strategy.

The research into what went wrong was included in their ICT strategy document. They found that though the technology was available, the effectiveness was measured with agency centeredness in mind. There was a focus on simply automating processes done by each agency using technology. The U.S ICT strategy document attempted to remedy that mode of thinking.

Scholars of e-Governance like Saxena (2005) caution that a citizen centric position must exist at the root of all e-Governance initiatives in order for them to be more than merely efficient but rather effective. It is the quality of Government that should be the mark not the quantity.

Finally, I hope that this work has added a small contribution to the discourse surrounding governance, the use of emerging technologies and cultural responsiveness in Public Administration.

Specifically, I hope to see more work on the ways in which particular societies conceive of what it means to have Good Governance. For example the countries studied subscribed to the same general notions of Good Governance but the approaches taken to the employment of ICT and the focus in their strategies were different. There is room for further research on how culturally specific understandings shape the conception and implementation of ICT policy and initiatives

On a larger scale in the future, I would like to see if indigenous global-local theories of governing arise. If myriad conceptions of inaction/ action, participation/ purposeful abstinence, transparency/ protective secrecy, layered rules of law and measurement/ tacit knowledge are allowed the same space in examining the processes of social change that is Public Administration.

*“We are still in a period of creative disorder concerning governance, optimistic that: governance theory has tremendous potential in opening up alternative ways of looking at political institutions, domestic – global linkages, transnational co-operation, and different forms of public private exchange.” (Kooiman 2005: 5.)*

## REFERENCES

### Books and Articles

Agere, Sam (2000). *Promoting Good Governance: Principles, Practices and Perspectives*. London: Commonwealth Secretariat.

Al-Hakim, Latif (2007). *Global E-Government: Theory, Applications and Benchmarking*. Hershey P.A: Idea Group Inc.

Amorim, Luis (2001). *Intercultural Learning: A Few Awareness Tips for US and European Fellows and Host Community Foundations*. Washington D.C: European Foundation Centre. Available 6.5.2009: <http://www.efc.be/ftp/public/cpi/TCFF%20Intercultural%20Learning.pdf>.

Antonen, Meelis (2004). *Estonian ICT Policy: Towards a More Service-Centered and Citizen Friendly State. Principles of the Estonian Information Policy 2004-2006*. Available 6.4.2009: [http://www.riso.ee/en/files/Principles%20of%20the%20Estonian%20Information%20Policy%202004%E2%80%932006\\_0.pdf](http://www.riso.ee/en/files/Principles%20of%20the%20Estonian%20Information%20Policy%202004%E2%80%932006_0.pdf).

Bandalaria, Melinda D.P. (2005). *Education For All through The Mobile Phone: The University of the Philippines Open University Experience*. Jakarta, Indonesia: AAOU Annual Conference. Available 6.5.2009: <http://asiapacific-odl2.oum.edu.my/C48/F301.pdf>.

Baskerville, Richard & Alina Dulipovici (2006). *Theoretical Foundations of Knowledge Management. Knowledge Management Research and Practice*. 4: 83–105.

Batnagar, Subesh (2002). *Egovernment: Lessons from Implementation in Developing Countries*. *Regional Development Dialogue UNCRD*. 24: Autumn

2002 Issue. Available 6.5.2009: <http://www.iimahd.ernet.in/~subhash/pdfs/RDDAutumn2002.pdf>.

Bekkers, Victor, Hein van Duivenboden & Marcel Thaens (2006). *Information and Communication Technology and Public Innovation*. Netherlands: IOS Press.

Bennis, Warren (1967). *Organizations of the Future*. In: *Classics of Public Administration*, 238–249. Eds. Jay M. Shafritz, Albert C. Hyde & Sandra J. Parkes. New York: Thompson Wadsworth.

Bouckaert, Geert & Christopher Pollitt (2000). *Public Management Reform A Comparative Analysis*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Central Intelligence Agency (2009). *The World Fact Book*. Available 6.5.2009: <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/country-listing.html>.

CICT (2006). *Philippine Strategic ICT Roadmap*. Available 6.5.2009: <http://lastmileinitiativeph/stratplan/messageGMA.htm>.

Cook, Brian J. (1996). *Bureaucracy and Self-Government: Reconsidering The Role of Public Administration in American Politics*. Baltimore: JHU Press.

Denzin, Norman K. & Yvonna S. Lincoln (1994). *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks CA.: Sage.

DevNet (2009). *About DevNet*. Available 6.5.2009: <http://www.devnet.org.gy/?q=node/2>.

- Dwivedi, O.P. (1999). Development Administration: An Overview. In: Bureaucracy and the Alternatives in World Perspective, 3–34. Ed. Keith M. Henderson. London: Palgrave.
- Eddy, William B. (1983). Handbook Of Organization Management. London: CRC Press.
- Etzioni, Amitai (1985). I and We: The Case for the Open Community. Available 6.5.2009: <http://amitaietzioni.org/documents/A176.pdf>.
- Etzioni, Amitai (1991a). The Good Polity: Can We Design it?. Available 6.5.2009: <http://amitaietzioni.org/A207.pdf.pdf>.
- Etzioni, Amitai (1991b). Contemporary Liberals, Communitarians, and Individual Choices. Available 6.5.2009: <http://amitaietzioni.org/documents/A216.pdf>.
- Etzioni, Amitai (2006). Wilson Carey McWilliam's Conservative Communitarianism. Available 6.5.2009: <http://amitaietzioni.org/documents/A367.pdf>.
- E-Government Task Force (2002). E-Government Strategy: Simplified Delivery of Services to Citizens. Available 6.5.2009: [http://www.usa.gov/Topics/Includes/Reference/egov\\_strategy.pdf](http://www.usa.gov/Topics/Includes/Reference/egov_strategy.pdf).
- Finch, Simon (2009). Cyber-Terrorism is Real Ask Estonia. Available 6.5.2009: <http://www.telegraph.co.uk/comment/personal-view/3640255/Cyber-terrorism-is-real---ask-Estonia.html>.
- Follett, Mary Parker (1918). The New State: Group Organization and the Solution for Popular Government. London etc.: Longmans, Green and Co.

Follett, Mary Parker (1924). *Creative Experience*. New York: Longmans, Green and Co.

Gartner Inc. (2008). *Emerging Nations Will Make ICT Industry 'Borderless' by 2015*. Engham, UK: Gartner Newsroom. Available: 6.5. 2009: <http://www.gartner.com/it/page.jsp?id=669710>.

Gerd, Halama & Roccasalva Giuseppe (2006). 'From Government To Governance E-Government as an Intermediate Step?'. Available 6.5.2009: <http://www.infra.kth.se/courses/1H1171/papers/HalamaRoccasalva.pdf>.

Ghyasi, Farshid A. & Ibrahim Kushchu (2004). *m-Government: Cases of Developing Countries*. Available 6.5.2009: [http://www.mgovernment.org/resurces/mgovlab\\_afgik.pdf](http://www.mgovernment.org/resurces/mgovlab_afgik.pdf).

Goldstuck, Arthur (2004). *Government Unplugged: Mobile and Wireless technologies in the public service*. South Africa : Center for Public Service Innovation. Available 6.5.2009: [http://egovernment.developmentgateway.org/uploads/media/e-government/Mobile\\_Technologies.pdf](http://egovernment.developmentgateway.org/uploads/media/e-government/Mobile_Technologies.pdf).

Goodknow, Frank (1900). *Politics and Administration*. In: *Classics of Public Administration*, 35–37. Eds. Jay M. Shafritz, Albert C. Hyde & Sandra J. Parkes. New York: Thompson Wadsworth.

Guislain, Pierre, Mavis A. Ampah, Laurent Besançon, Cécile Niang & Alexandre Sérot (2006). *Connecting Sub Saharan Africa: A World Bank Group Strategy for information and Communication Technology Sector Development*. Washington D.C.: The World Bank.

- Habermas, Jürgen (1989). *The Structural Transformation of the Public Sphere: an inquiry into a Category of Bourgeois Society*. Cambridge M.A: Polity Press.
- Hanna, Nagy K. (2008). *Transforming Government and Empowering Communities: The Shri Lankan Experience with e-Development*. Washington D.C: The World Bank.
- Helal, Abdelsalam, Bert Haskell, Jeffrey Carter, Richard Brice, Darrell Woelk & Marek Ruisinkiewicz (1999). *Anytime, Anywhere Computing*. New York: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Information For Development Program (2002). *e-Government Handbook for Developing Countries*. Washington D.C: The World Bank. Available 6.5. 2009: <http://www.infodev.org/en/Publication.16.html>.
- Jackson, Michael (2005). *The Eighteenth Century Antecedents of Bureaucracy, the Cameralists*. *Management History: Absorbing The Past to Understand The Present*. 43:10, 1293-1303.
- Johnson, Richard, Deborah Chambers, Parvati Raghuram & Estella Tincknell (2004). *The Practice of Cultural Studies*. London: Sage.
- Johnson, William C. (1992). *Public Administration: Policy, Politics, and Practice*. Ohio: Dushkin Publishing Group, Inc.
- Keesing, Roger & Andrew J. Strathern. (1998). *Cultural Anthropology: A Contemporary Perspective*. Belmont CA: Thompson Wadsworth.
- Khan, Haroon A. (2008). *Introduction to Public Administration*. Lanham MD.: University Press Of America.

- Kuschu, I. & H. Kuschu (2003). "From E-Government to M-Government: Facing the Inevitable." Available 6.5.2009: [www.mgovlab.org](http://www.mgovlab.org).
- Küllli, Viks (2006). Public Service Development Chronology 1991-2006. Tallinn Estonia: Avalikteenistus. Available 6.5.2006: [http://www.avalikteenistus.ee/public/Development\\_of\\_public\\_service\\_1991\\_2006.pdf](http://www.avalikteenistus.ee/public/Development_of_public_service_1991_2006.pdf).
- Kags, Al (2009). Kenya ICT Board: Spurring Content Generation for Kenyans By Kenyans. Available 6.5.2009: <http://www.tandaa.co.ke/>.
- Laitner, C. (2003). eGovernment in Europe: The State of Affairs. Maastricht: European Institute of Public Administration.
- Lallana, Emmanuel C. (2006). SMS and Democratic Governance In The Philippines. Available 6.5.2009: <http://www.apdip.net/projects/e-government/capblg/casestudies/Philippines-Lallana.pdf>.
- Lallana, Emmanuel C. (2008). mGovernment: Mobile/ Wireless Applications in Government. Available 6.5.2009: <http://www.egov4dev.org/mgovernment/>.
- Lendvai, Noémi (2005). Remaking European Governance: Transition, Accession and Integration. In: Remaking Governance: Peoples, Politics and the Public Sphere, 59–80. Ed. Janet Newman. Bristol: The Policy Press.
- Lindblom, Charles E. (2004, original 1959). The Science of Muddling Through. In: Classics of Public Administration, 177–187. Eds. Jay M. Shafritz, Albert C. Hyde & Sandra J. Parkes. New York: Thompson Wadsworth.
- Lipsky, Michael (2004, original 1980). Street-Level Bureaucracy: The Critical Role of Street Level Bureaucrats. In: Classics of Public Administration,

414–422. Eds. Jay M. Shafritz, Albert C. Hyde & Sandra J. Parkes. New York: Thompson Wadsworth.

Lipsky, Michael (1983). *Street-Level Bureaucracy: Dilemmas Of The Individual In Public Services*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Malinga, Peter (2008). *Public Sector Middle Managers: The Critical Link to Driving Public Sector Reforms*. In: *Governance Reform Under Real World Conditions: Citizens, Stakeholders, and Voice*, 181–193. Eds. Sina Odugbemi, Thomas L. Jacobson. Washington D.C: The World Bank

Maslow, A.H (2004, original 1943). *A Theory of Human Motivation*. In: *Classics of Public Administration*, 123–129. Eds. Jay M. Shafritz, Albert C. Hyde & Sandra J. Parkes. New York: Thompson Wadsworth.

Mayntz, Renate (2003). *From government to Governance: Political steering in modern societies*. Available 6.5.2009: [http://www.ioew.de/governance/english/veranstaltungen/Summer\\_Academies/SuA2Mayntz.pdf](http://www.ioew.de/governance/english/veranstaltungen/Summer_Academies/SuA2Mayntz.pdf).

McNabb, David E. (2002). *Research methods in Public Administration and Nonprofit Management: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. New York: M.E Sharpe Inc.

McNabb, David E. (2006). *Knowledge Management and the Public Sector*. New York: M.E Sharpe Inc.

Miller, Karen (2005). *Public Sector Reform: Governance in South Africa*. London: Ashgate Publishing Ltd.

Ministry of Economic Affairs and Communications (2006). *Estonian Information Society Strategy 2013*. Available 6.5.2009: <http://www.r>

iso.ee/ en/ system/ files/ Estonian%20Information%20Society%20Strategy%202013.pdf.

MobiSolutions (2009). m-Administration. Available 6.5.2009: [www.mobisolutions.com/en](http://www.mobisolutions.com/en).

Morris, John C. (2008). From Disaster to Lessons Learned: What Went Wrong in the Response to Hurricane Katrina?. *Quest Summer 2008*. 1: 1. Available 6.5:2009: <http://www.odu.edu/ao/instdv/quest/DisasterLessons.html>.

National ICT Workshop (2006). ICT4D: Guyana National Strategy Final Draft. Available 6.5.2009: [http://www.ict4d.gov.gy/ictstrategy/ICT4D\\_Strategy\\_FinalDraft.pdf](http://www.ict4d.gov.gy/ictstrategy/ICT4D_Strategy_FinalDraft.pdf).

Newman, Janet (2005). Introduction. In: *Remaking Governance: Peoples, Politics and The Public Sphere*, 1-15. Ed. Janet Newman. Bristol: The Policy Press.

O'Brien, Robert, Anne Marie Goetz, Jan Aart Scholte & Marc Williams (2000). *Contesting Global Governance: Multi Economic Institutions and Global Social Movements*. Cambridge UK.: Cambridge University Press. Available 6.5.2009: <http://assets.cambridge.org/97805217/73157/sample/9780521773157wsc00.pdf>.

Offe, C. (2000). The Democratic Welfare State. A European Regime Under The Strain of European Integration. *Political Science Series*. 68, 10-20.

Peters, Guy B. (1996). *The Future Of Governing*. Kansas: University Press of Kansas.

- Peters, Guy B. (2000). Governance and Comparative Politics. In: Debating Governance, 36-53, Ed. J. Pierre. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Philippine Civil Service Commission (2009). Mamamayan Muna, Hindi Mamaya Na Program: A Client Feedback Mechanism. Available 6.5.2009: <http://www.csc.gov.ph/cscweb/MMOUweb.html>.
- Powers, Roger S., William B. Voegelé, Christopher Kruegler & Ronald M. McCarthy (1997). Protest, Power, and Change: An Encyclopedia of Nonviolent Action from ACT-UP to Women's Suffrage. London: Taylor & Francis.
- Rathgeber, Eva M. (2006). Engendering E-Government in Developing Countries. <http://www.egovmonitor.com/node/5866>.
- Republic of Kenya (2004). E- Government Strategy: The Strategic Framework, Administrative Structure, Training Requirements and Standardization Framework. Nairobi: Cabinet Office, Office of the President.
- Rhodes, R.A.W. (2000). Conclusion: Transforming British Government- The Governance Narrative. In: Transforming British Government, Volume 1: Changing Institutions, 254-66. Ed. R.A.W Rhodes. Basingtoke: Macmillan.
- Rice, Michael (1990). Egypt's Making: The Origins of Ancient Egypt, 5000-2000 BC. London: Taylor & Francis.
- Saxena, K.B.C (2005). Towards Excellence In e-Governance. International Journal of Public Sector Management. 18: 6, 498-513.

- Shafritz, Jay M., Albert C. Hyde & Sandra J Parkes (2004). Introduction. In: *Classics of Public Administration*, 1–20. Eds. Jay M. Shafritz, Albert C. Hyde & Sandra J. Parkes. New York: Thompson Wadsworth.
- Simon, Herbert (2004, original 1946). Proverbs of Administration. In: *Classics of Public Administration*, 136–149. Eds. Jay M. Shafritz, Albert C. Hyde & Sandra J. Parkes. New York: Thompson Wadsworth.
- Stake, Robert E. (1994). Case Study. In: *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, 236–247, Eds. Norman K. Denzin & Yvonna S. Lincoln. Thousand Oaks CA.: Sage.
- StatCan (2009). Household Internet Use. Available 6.5.2009: <http://www.statcan.ca/Daily/English/010726/d010726a.htm>.
- Steever, James A. (1988). *The End of Public Administration: Problems of the Profession in the Post-Progressive Era*. New York: Transnational Publishers Inc.
- Stone, Deborah (2004 original 1997). Policy Paradox: The Art of Political Decision Making. In: *Classics of Public Administration*, 571–575. Eds. Jay M. Shafritz, Albert C. Hyde & Sandra J. Parkes. New York: Thompson Wadsworth.
- Styhre, Alexander (2003). *Understanding Knowledge Management*. Sweden: Copenhagen Business School Press.
- TEAMS (2009). Teams Fiber Optic Cable Project. Available 6.5.2009: <http://www.information.go.ke/home/index.php/News/Latest/Fibre-optic-cable-to-significantly-improve-Kenya%E2%80%99sconnectivity.html>.

- Tobin, Peter K.J & Michael H. Franz. (2005). Organizational Structure and Knowledge Management: A Case Study. Pretoria, South Africa: Gordon Institute of Business Science. Available 6.5.2009: [https://www.up.ac.za/dspace/bitstream/2263/4472/1/Tobin\\_Organisational\(2005\).pdf](https://www.up.ac.za/dspace/bitstream/2263/4472/1/Tobin_Organisational(2005).pdf).
- UNDESA (2008). UN E-Government Survey of 2008: From E-Government to Connected Governance. Available 6.5.2009: <http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/UN/UNPAN028607.pdf>.
- UNESCAP (2009). What is Good Governance?. Available 6.5.2009: <http://www.unescap.org/pdd/prs/ProjectActivities/Ongoing/gg/governance.pdf>.
- United Nations Public Administration Network (2009). Structure of the Government of Guyana. Available 6.5.2009: <http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/un/unpan015183.pdf>.
- UNPAP (2009a) United States Public Administration Country Profile. Available 6.5.2009: <http://www.upan.prg/DPADM/ProductsServices/ThematicPortals/PublicAdministrationCountryProfiles/tabid/677/Default.aspx>.
- UNPAP (2009b). Republic of Kenya Public Administration Country Profile. Available 6.5.2009: <http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/un/unpan023269.pdf>.
- UNPAP (2009c). The Co-Operative Republic of Guyana. United States Public Administration Country Profile. Available 6.5.2009: <http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/un/unpan023199.pdf>.

UNPAP (2009d). Republic of Estonia Public Administration Country Profile. Available 6.5.2009: <http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/un/unpan023241.pdf>.

UNPAP (2009e). Republic of the Philippines Public Administration Country Profile. Available 6.5.2009:<http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/un/unpan023241.pdf>.

UPOU (2009). M-Learning. Available 6.5.2009: <http://www.upou.org/programs/mlearn.html>.

USAID dot-GOV (2009). Best Practices in ICT Policy: Enabling E-Government for Developing Countries. Available 6.5.2009: <http://www.dot-com-alliance.org>.

United States Department of Veterans Affairs (2009). Available 6.5.2009: <http://www.va.gov/ofcadmin/docs/vaorgchart.pdf>.

Weber, Max (2004, original 1922). Theory of Social and Economic Organization. In: Classics of Public Administration, 50–55. Eds. Jay M. Shafritz, Albert C. Hyde & Sandra J. Parkes. New York: Thompson Wadsworth.

Wilson, Woodrow (2004, original 1887). The Study of Administration. In: Classics of Public Administration, 22–34. Eds. Jay M. Shafritz, Albert C. Hyde & Sandra J. Parks. New York: Thompson Wadsworth.

World Bank (1994). Governance: The World Bank's Experience. Washington D.C: The World Bank. Available 6.5.2009: [http://publications.worldbank.org/ecommerce/catalog/product?context+drilldown&item\\_id=196707](http://publications.worldbank.org/ecommerce/catalog/product?context+drilldown&item_id=196707).

World Bank (2008). Little Data Book on Information and Communication Technology 2008. Washington D.C: The World Bank.

World Bank (2009a). Country Classifications. Available 6.5.2009: [http:// web.worldbank.org/ WBSITE/ EXTERNAL/ DATASTATISTICS0, contentMDK:20420458~menuPK:64133156~pagePK:64133150~piPK:64133175~theSitePK:239419,00.html](http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/DATASTATISTICS/0,contentMDK:20420458~menuPK:64133156~pagePK:64133150~piPK:64133175~theSitePK:239419,00.html).

World Bank (2009b). e-Government. Available 6.5.2009: [http:// go.worldbank.org/ M1JHE0Z280](http://go.worldbank.org/M1JHE0Z280).

**Other Sources**

Black, Stephanie (2001). Life and Debt. Available 6.5.2009: <http://www.lifeanddebt.org>.

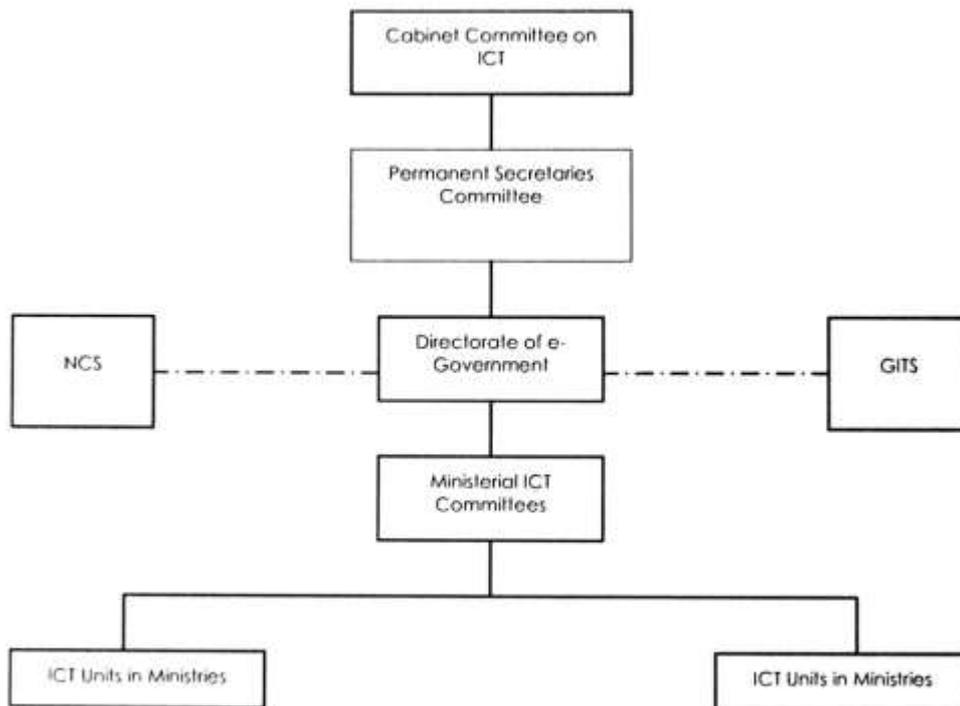
Quadir, Iqbal (2006). TED Talks: The power of the Mobile Phone to End Poverty. Available 6.5.2009: [http://www.ted.com/index.php/talks/iqbal\\_quadir\\_says\\_mobiles\\_fight\\_poverty.html](http://www.ted.com/index.php/talks/iqbal_quadir_says_mobiles_fight_poverty.html).

World Bank (2007). Village Phone Nigeria. Available 6.5.2009: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=crHS9YEx4lg>.

## APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Kenyan E-Government Organization Chart  
(Republic of Kenya 2004: 15).

### Organogram



**Legend:**

NCS = National Communications Secretariat  
GITS = Government Information Technology Services  
ICT = Information and Communications Technology

Appendix 2. U. S E-Government Organization Chart  
 (E-Government Task Force 2002: 19).

