

# Institutional Work and Infrastructure Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs): The Roles of Religious Symbolic Work and Power in Implementing PPP Projects

## Abstract

**Purpose-** The public and project management disciplines increasingly adopt neo-institutional theory to analyze how institutional pressures affect the implementation of infrastructure public-private partnership (PPP) projects. In this paper, the micro-dynamics through which actors enact responses to institutional structuration in the expansion and transformation of an airport from a public entity into a PPP in Saudi Arabia is investigated.

**Design/methodology/approach-** A single case study design is well-suited to the exploratory and inductive nature of the research. This method offers an empirically rich and thick description of events, such as the dynamic processes, practices, and types of institutional work carried out by actors and organizations to deliver the project under investigation.

**Findings-** The case analysis shows that religious symbolic work as social integration triggered system integration work, which expanded the power capabilities of individual actors leading the project. Repair work then followed to alleviate the negative effects of disempowering the agency of actors negatively affected by the PPP model, and to streamline the project implementation process.

**Originality/value-** The paper contributes new insights regarding the roles of religious symbolic work, allied with social and system integration of power relations in implementing PPP projects, and suggests a theoretical shift from fields to individuals as enablers of new forms of project delivery that break with the institutional status quo.

## Introduction

An emerging trend in the public-private partnership (PPP) literature adopts neo-institutional theory to analyze PPP projects' implementation (Agyenim-Boateng *et al.*, 2017; Jooste & Scott, 2012a). While researchers have long emphasized the influence of institutional environment on performance of infrastructure projects (Clegg, 1989, 1990; Kadefors, 1995), this recent emphasis points out that projects do not operate as "lonely islands," but are "contextually-embedded open systems" that function within complex organizational and historical settings (Engwall, 2002, p. 790). The institutional approach thus encompasses the past experiences, values, and social norms that underpin project organizing (Hodgson & Cicmil, 2007; Kujala *et al.*, 2014; Soderlund, *et al.*, 2017). Morris and Geraldi (2011) have stated that a focus on the institutional level can "improve the performance of projects" because their technical and strategic features are "conditioned, constrained and supported" by their institutional *milieu* (p. 28). In this paper, PPPs are defined as "long-term contracts or arrangements" in which the private sector is "involved in the design, building, maintenance and/or operation of a public infrastructure," which it co-finances (Koppenjan, 2008, p. 1991). Furthermore, institutions are defined as "regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive elements that, together with associated activities and resources, provide stability and meaning to social life" (Scott, 2014, p. 56). They are the "shared rules, beliefs and practices...enacted and (re)produced by various actors" within various organizations (Tukiainen & Granqvist, 2016, p. 1835), mutually constituting their institutional universes.

A review of the PPP literature adopting neo-institutional theory reveals two central themes: 1) the impact of external isomorphic pressures on the choice of PPP for infrastructure delivery; and 2), the role of PPP-enabling organizational fields and structuration in facilitating PPP implementation. As such, by focusing on macro and meso levels of analysis, these bodies of literature have ignored "what happens inside the black box of megaprojects" (Söderlund *et al.*, 2017, p. 9), and this leaves unexplored the agentic and power dynamics through which the interplay between individual actors and their institutional structures occur (Lawrence, 2008). Overcoming this gap requires exploring the micro-dynamics and power relations through which actors affect their institutional environment (Clegg, 2010). However, research regarding how actors use power to shape organizational life and projects remains scant despite its centrality to understanding the interactions between the work of

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3 individual actors and the constraining forces of institutional  
4 structure (Clegg, 2010; Rye, 2015).  
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6 The paper neither overstates macro-institutional effects on  
7 projects nor overlooks the micro perspective. Instead, it attempts  
8 to strike a balance between them and argues that departing from  
9 the micro-level might enable us to capture actors' actions and  
10 reveal their strategies as they urge other actors to support their  
11 ideas (Lawrence et al., 2013). To achieve its objective, this paper  
12 adopts the approach of institutional work defined as "the purposive  
13 action of individuals and organizations aimed at creating,  
14 maintaining and disrupting institutions" (Lawrence & Suddaby,  
15 2006, p. 215). Because this framework allows a micro view of the  
16 activities and strategies of institutional actors and portrays  
17 them as "reflective, goal-oriented and capable" agents, it can  
18 potentially uncover the tactics actors use to acquire and use power  
19 to affect existing forms of project organizing (Lawrence et al.,  
20 2013, p. 1024). As such, the two central research questions of  
21 this study are: 1) *What types of institutional work do individual*  
22 *actors perform to gain power to initiate PPPs, and 2) how do the*  
23 *resultant modes of power drive the implementation process forward?*  
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28 We investigate these questions in the context of Saudi Arabia,  
29 which is a suitable empirical setting in which to answer this  
30 question because PPPs have not been the institutionalized or  
31 legitimate form of infrastructure delivery in the past. When the  
32 extension of Medina Airport was privately financed and then  
33 transformed from a public entity into a private one in 2012, PPPs  
34 entered the scene for the first time in a transportation project.  
35 Exploring how individual actors managed to implement such a  
36 divergent organizational change and navigate institutional  
37 structures to implement new forms of projects is the story we  
38 recount and analyze.  
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41 In doing so, we advance neo-institutional theory and project  
42 management in three significant ways. First, we expand the means  
43 through which institutional work affects institutionalized forms  
44 of project organizing. We propose that *religious symbolic work*, as  
45 a specific form of institutional work in which actors purposefully  
46 employ shared religious beliefs to influence the decision-making  
47 of powerful actors who can enable and empower the implementation  
48 of new forms of project organizing. Second, we broaden the analysis  
49 of organizational power in projects and show how power can be a  
50 positive force for change when triggered by religious symbolic  
51 work. Finally, we stress the importance of a theoretical shift  
52 from fields into micro activities of individuals, and we analyze  
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3 the interplay between agency and structure to produce analytical  
4 insight into the lives and actions of agents inside projects.  
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6 The paper is organized as follows. First, a literature review  
7 discusses recent uses of institutional theory to explain the  
8 implementation of PPP projects and illustrates the lacuna of a  
9 micro-perspective. The institutional work approach is presented  
10 together with the reasons why it can provide deeper insights into  
11 how actors can exploit existing symbolic and power dynamics to  
12 affect the existing institutional structure. The case design,  
13 data-gathering and analysis techniques follow before the  
14 presentation of research findings. Finally, the paper's  
15 theoretical contributions are discussed.  
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### 19 **The impact of institutional context on PPP projects**

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21 The following section reviews the evolving and disparate body of  
22 research that *explicitly* uses the label of "institutional theory"  
23 to analyze which factors affect the adoption and implementation of  
24 PPPs. This section argues that while the public and project  
25 management disciplines have employed several conceptual lenses  
26 such as isomorphism, organizational fields and structuration to  
27 explain why governments choose PPPs instead of traditional forms  
28 of project organizing, these lines of research have not  
29 incorporated the micro-level analysis that can reveal the  
30 institutional work of actors in affecting the choice and  
31 implementation of projects.  
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#### 35 ***Isomorphic pressures and adoption of PPP***

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37 When academic research often reports political controversies  
38 (Khadaroo, 2005; 2008; Flinders, 2005), technical complexities  
39 (Zhang, 2005) and higher risks and uncertainties muddling the  
40 implementation of infrastructure PPPs (Grimsey and Lewis, 2000;  
41 Stafford and Stapleton, 2017), not to mention their dubious claims  
42 of value for money and efficiency gains (Carpintero and Petersen,  
43 2015; Biygautane, 2017), why do governments continue to adopt PPPs?  
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46 Neo-institutionalism's "explanation of the similarity  
47 ('isomorphism') and stability of organizational arrangements"  
48 offers a useful framework to answer this question (Greenwood and  
49 Hinings, 1996, p. 1023). Countries' adoption of PPPs can be  
50 ascribed to the interplay among several isomorphic pressures  
51 operating either within or outside these countries' institutional  
52 contexts, forcing these countries to imitate existent practices  
53 within their institutional fields to acquire and sustain their  
54 legitimacy (Scott, 2008). For example, Khadaroo (2005) has  
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3 attributed the emergence of the UK's PFI standard-setting process  
4 to three factors: coercive pressures exercised by the UK's  
5 Treasury, normative pressures stemming from the accounting  
6 profession, and mimetic forces that saw public sector  
7 organizations plagiarizing each other's submissions to the  
8 Treasury. Similarly, Connolly *et al.*, (2009) have found that,  
9 despite the certainty of government actors in Ireland that PPPs  
10 would not offer higher value for money as propounded by PPP  
11 enthusiasts, "indications from the UK government that PPP was the  
12 only game in town" meant that it became "the only option" for  
13 delivering school infrastructure (p. 10). The same study revealed  
14 that, while Ireland's local government knew about the "negative  
15 aspects of PPPs in the UK," they still "persisted with the PPP  
16 model and sought legitimacy through its adoption" (p. 12).  
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21 A recent study by Sheppard and Beck (2016) has contended that,  
22 while Ireland's central government originally introduced the UK's  
23 PPP model as a voluntary option to modernize its public  
24 administration, it is now increasingly pushing the adoption of  
25 PPPs for infrastructure delivery. Ireland's public-sector  
26 organizations are now reported as reluctantly pursuing PPPs to  
27 maintain institutional legitimacy (Sheppard and Beck, 2016).  
28 Moreover, Jooste, Levitt, and Scott (2011) have found that mimetic  
29 pressures explain the diffusion of infrastructure PPPs from the UK  
30 into British Columbia (Canada), Victoria (Australia), and South  
31 Africa. Several actors from those countries traveled to the UK to  
32 learn from its PFI model or hired consultants with such experience  
33 in order to replicate the UK's example.  
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### 36 ***Organizational fields and structuration***

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39 As a result of cancellations of several contracts for high-profile  
40 PPP projects (Jooste and Scott, 2012a) as well as reports of their  
41 failure to deliver the promised value for money (Connolly *et al.*,  
42 2009), isomorphic pressures for adopting PPPs were insufficient to  
43 explain why governments adopt them or why PPPs ultimately fail in  
44 these cases. Many PPP scholars, therefore, have responded to this  
45 situation of apparent failure by adopting organizational fields as  
46 a unit of analysis to examine how certain organizations could  
47 support or hinder PPP programs. Organizational fields are "in the  
48 aggregate, constitute a recognized area of institutional life: key  
49 suppliers, resource and product consumers, regulatory agencies,  
50 and other organizations that produce similar services and  
51 products" (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983, p. 148). The field  
52 perspective enables a shift from "an organization-centric or  
53 dyadic to a more systemic level of analysis," which captures not  
54 only "organizations in environments but ... the organization of the  
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environment" (Scott, 2008, p. 434). Fields thus serve as an intermediate layer between the internal dynamics of PPPs and the broader social context. Jooste and Scott (2012b) have stated that the complexity of PPP projects requires developing an institutional field: they nominate the capacity of public sector organizations, increasing PPP's legitimacy, and balancing the interests of the public, private, and civic sectors as key issues in its establishment. Such requirements, they suggest, can be provided only through "PPP-enabling organizational fields," which include sponsoring departments, PPP units, transaction advisors, regulators, advocacy associations, and development agencies (Jooste and Scott, 2012b, p. 22).

Several comparative studies have, consequently, begun to examine the significance of PPP-enabling organizations. Mahalingam *et al.*, (2011) have suggested that the effectiveness of coordination agencies (PPP units) increases when they are involved in the entire project cycle, especially if they ensure the transfer of PPP-related expertise to government departments. Jooste and Scott (2012a), however, have argued that a stand-alone PPP unit is insufficient. Instead, when groups of public, private, and not-for-profit entities work together, they exert a stronger impact on PPPs' implementation. More recent studies confirm this claim while listing government strategies that effectively translated into increased adoption of PPPs in Ireland (Sheppard and Beck, 2016). Nonetheless, Verhoest *et al.*, (2015) question the full impact of PPP-enabling organizations on PPP projects and found that, while organizational support for PPP was necessary, it was insufficient to account for greater uptake of PPPs.

While the organizational fields' perspective sheds light on how organizations affect projects' implementation, this stream of research has been complemented by the work of PPP scholars who have recently adopted the structuration perspective to provide a bigger picture regarding how the socio-political features and blueprints of their institutional contexts are carried out in PPP-related fields (Scott and Levitt, 2017). Structuration theory states that social structures contain organized rules and resources that "are not brought into being by social actors, but continually recreated by them via the very means whereby they express themselves as actors (Agyenim-Boateng *et al.*, 2017). In and through their activities, agents reproduce the conditions that make these activities possible" (Giddens, 1984, p. 2). As cases in point, Jooste, Levitt and Scott (2011) have analyzed why although governments in Australia, Canada and South Africa all gained insights from the "the UK's Private Finance Initiative (PFI) as a first 'PPP-enabling field' and an exemplar for other countries,"

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3 their PPP-enabling fields ended up evolving differently (p. 12).  
4 By investigating the roles of several PPP-related organizations  
5 within the three countries, the activities of central  
6 institutional entrepreneurs in structuring their organizational  
7 fields, and the mechanisms actors adopted to create PPP-enabling  
8 mechanisms, the authors confirmed structuration theory's assertion  
9 that actors "bring about the formation of the field and change in  
10 it over time" (p. 22) in a manner that reflects prevailing  
11 political and social preferences.  
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14 Likewise, Mahalingam and Delhi (2012) have examined why PPP-  
15 enabling fields evolved differently in three similar Indian states  
16 that experienced the same coercive pressure from their central  
17 government to adopt PPPs. They concluded that, when the actors  
18 viewed PPPs as being aligned with their own interests, they  
19 formulated PPP-supporting organizational fields. In contrast,  
20 those that saw their interests threatened by the PPP model designed  
21 PPP-opposing organizational fields. The findings of this article  
22 direct attention toward the "agency of field actors" (p. 183) and  
23 reinforce the premise that organizational fields are subject to  
24 change or continuity based on the interests and capacities of field  
25 actors. Furthermore, Matos-Castaño *et al.*, (2014) traced the  
26 reasons why PPPs' requirements, such as capacity, trust, and  
27 legitimacy, were successfully diffused in the organizational field  
28 of the Netherlands but failed to materialize in India. They found  
29 that since PPPs fit the political and social expectations of  
30 policymakers in the Netherlands, those actors institutionalized  
31 the required mechanisms to support PPPs' implementation. The lack  
32 of such interest among policymakers in India was behind the absence  
33 of similar supporting mechanisms and led to a decline of PPPs.  
34 While these studies offer valuable insights regarding how  
35 organizational fields affect PPPs, they overlook the types of  
36 institutional work that occur at a more micro-level within these  
37 fields.  
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43 To summarize, the role of individual actors has not been  
44 incorporated into the PPP debate. In contrast, the extant  
45 literature's focus on isomorphic pressures, organizational fields  
46 and structuration limit the scope of the PPP debates to how the  
47 "activities and interactions of a set of organizations" determine  
48 PPP project implementation outcomes (van den Hurk and Verhoest,  
49 2015, p. 4).  
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## 52 **Institutional work and the micro-dynamics of individual** 53 **agency** 54 55 56 57 58 59 60

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3 In this section, we suggest that connecting existing PPP research  
4 -that currently adopts a meso level of analysis- with the  
5 institutional work perspective can potentially uncover the role of  
6 actors' work in PPP projects and provide the missing micro-level  
7 of analysis in PPP literature. Specifically, this section borrows  
8 recent insights from neo-institutional theory and power literature  
9 to reveal the strategies and symbolic work employed by individual  
10 actors to access and use power to change institutionalized  
11 practices.  
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### 14 ***Institutional and symbolic work***

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17 Institutional work is "the purposive action of individuals and  
18 organizations aimed at creating, maintaining and disrupting"  
19 institutional norms and rules that govern organizations (Lawrence  
20 and Suddaby, 2006, p. 215). It portrays individual actors as  
21 autonomous centers of action in institutional fields.  
22 Institutional work acknowledges that individual agency is neither  
23 the outcome of actors' institutional embeddedness, nor is it immune  
24 to its influence. Instead, individual actors are endowed with the  
25 capacity to reflect on their institutional surrounding, "develop  
26 conscious intentionality," and plan strategic actions and  
27 activities to "affect their social symbolic context" (Phillips and  
28 Lawrence, 2012, p. 223). Institutional work begins by exploring  
29 *why* (intentionality) and *how* (effort) actors purposefully engage  
30 in both the practices and processes of organizational or  
31 institutional change, regardless of whether or not they accomplish  
32 their goals. Starting from the *why* and *how* is important, since  
33 this can address structuration theory's silence concerning how  
34 actors' knowledge and awareness of their context develops, which  
35 micro-activities they adopt and how any resultant conflicts or  
36 tensions between individual agency and structural controlling  
37 mechanisms play out (Lawrence and Suddaby, 2006).  
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42 Numerous studies have examined the forms of work actors engage  
43 in to create, maintain or disrupt institutions or  
44 institutionalized forms of organizing (Lawrence and Suddaby,  
45 2006). This type of work requires the mobilization of material as  
46 well as cognitive resources and efforts to establish the legitimacy  
47 of the proposed change (Johnson, 1990), and convince actors for  
48 the need of abandoning an institutionalized practice that no longer  
49 fits organizational life (Maitlis, 2005). One of the effective  
50 strategies for changing institutionalized practices is sensegiving  
51 (Fiss and Zajac, 2006), defined as the "process of attempting to  
52 influence the sensemaking and meaning construction of others  
53 toward a preferred redefinition of organizational reality" (Gioia  
54 and Chittipeddi, 1991, p. 442). Sensemaking is particularly  
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3 essential when actors within an organization face surprising or  
4 confusing situations that emanate from an abrupt change of  
5 organizational direction or strategy (Gioia and Thomas, 1996).  
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8 Furthermore, work related to readjustment of organizational  
9 identity (Bailey and Raelin, 2015; Kraatz *et al.*, 2016) has been  
10 featured in organization studies literature as an important  
11 strategy to restructure the organizational culture of entities  
12 undergoing change and to fit the new realities of working with  
13 different logics (Ravasi, 2016). This work aims to "reduce the  
14 tensions internally between its organizational identity and the  
15 new practices associated with the new logic" (Gawer and Phillips,  
16 2013, p. 1057), requiring several activities and strategies,  
17 ranging from material and moral incentives to educating actors and  
18 building their capacity and readiness for change (Bailey and  
19 Raelin, 2015; Lawrence and Suddaby, 2006).  
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23 Institutional theorists, however, have noted that  
24 organizations are not merely technical systems governed by  
25 rational decision making, power dependencies, and actors'  
26 interactions, but most importantly, organizations carry "symbolic  
27 aspects." (Scott, 1987, p. 507; Dandridge *et al.*, 1980; Turner,  
28 1990). Organizational symbolism refers to the "discrete acts of  
29 persuasion or influence," which emanate from actors' shared belief  
30 systems and which are embedded within their social and cultural  
31 background (Hambrick and Lovelace, 2018, p. 111). Organizational  
32 actors activate these symbols "to reveal or make comprehensible  
33 the unconscious feelings, images, and values" that are shared among  
34 members of an organization (Dandridge *et al.*, 1980, p. 77), in  
35 order to "propel" certain actors to "engage in behaviors that align  
36 with the exhilaration they derive from the symbol itself" (Hambrick  
37 and Lovelace, 2018, p. 118; Strati, 1998).  
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41 The institutional work literature has recognized the  
42 significance of symbols in organizational life and begun to ascribe  
43 particular interest in "symbolic work that uses symbols, including  
44 signs, identities and language" to affect an institutional order  
45 (Hampel *et al.*, 2017, p. 570). The breadth of these symbols is  
46 limited, however, to the use of language and narrative rhetoric  
47 (Zilber, 2007), identity and practice work (Gawer and Phillips,  
48 2013; Jones and Massa, 2013), emotion work (Watson, 2008; Barberá-  
49 Tomás *et al.*, 2019), aesthetic work (Warhurst and Nickson, 2007),  
50 or more recently how social symbolic work affects institutions  
51 (Lawrence and Phillips, 2019). At its essence, symbolic work  
52 entails using "specific framing language that fits better with  
53 [actors'] divergent stakeholder preferences" (Fiss and Zajac,  
54 2006, p. 1173), and persuading actors to support a particular  
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3 organizational form over current ones. Yet, scant attention has  
4 been paid to the role of religion in affecting organizational  
5 actors' work in organization studies (Tracey et al., 2014).  
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8 Although the use of symbols has been thoroughly examined in  
9 organizational studies, analysis of how associating symbolic  
10 meanings with mega-infrastructure projects contributes to their  
11 successful delivery is very limited (Soderlund et al., 2017).  
12 Existing studies have primarily focused on how political symbols  
13 advance projects (Van Marrewijk, 2017). For example, Rego et al.,  
14 (2017) argue that the timing of constructing or completing three  
15 necessary historical megaprojects in Brazil was driven by the  
16 political and symbolic importance of events such as FIFA 2014,  
17 which played a critical role in finishing one of those projects on  
18 time. Similarly, van der Westhuizen (2017) provides a compelling  
19 analysis of how megaprojects as political symbols can be  
20 successfully implemented when they are closely associated with  
21 mythical discourses. The first high-speed train in South Africa  
22 gained the needed political support because the promoters of the  
23 project demonstrated the hosting the World Cup in South Africa  
24 depended upon the construction of that project to market for  
25 hosting the global sporting event. Similar to organizational  
26 studies' literature, projects' religious symbolic meaning, or how  
27 actors use religious symbols to affect projects' implementation,  
28 has not been addressed in project management literature either.  
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33 Actors' initiatives to carry out institutional work and  
34 introduce organizational practices that diverge from the status  
35 quo encounter resistance from both the invisible pressures of  
36 isomorphism embedded within an institutional field, and the  
37 individuals and organizations directly affected by any proposal  
38 for changing the status quo (Clegg and Kreiner, 2013). Hence, in  
39 order to fully understand how actors use symbolic work to change  
40 organizations, it is essential to integrate an analysis of power  
41 dynamics within organizations. The lens of power will help uncover  
42 how institutional work undermines controlling effects of  
43 structure, and through which types of work individual actors'  
44 agency overpowers the constraining pressures of structure (Rye,  
45 2015).  
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### 48 ***Institutional work and power***

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51 Institutional theory's overemphasis on isomorphism resulted in the  
52 "element of power ... [being] largely absent from engagement with  
53 DiMaggio and Powell's work" (Clegg, 2010, p. 5). As Lawrence (2008,  
54 p. 175) has argued, most of the subsequent research based on  
55 DiMaggio and Powell's seminal work examined how the choices of  
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3 actors or organizations were influenced by certain isomorphic  
4 forces within their institutional fields "left out an explicit  
5 consideration of power" that would describe how actors are obliged  
6 to do what they would not do otherwise (Lawrence, 2008).  
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9 The concept of power is complex and elastic, and its  
10 definitions vary depending on the field. In this research, the  
11 examination of power is narrowed down to its conceptualization  
12 within the organizational studies literature (Clegg, 1989;  
13 Lawrence *et al.*, 2001; Lawrence *et al.*, 2005), which defines power  
14 as "a relational effect, not property that can be held by someone  
15 or something" (Clegg and Kreiner, 2013, p. 270). Based on this  
16 definition, power is only explicit when it is exercised through  
17 relationships among actors and organizations (Clegg, 1989),  
18 manifested in the ways that "the behaviors, attitudes, or  
19 opportunities of an actor are affected by another actor, system,  
20 or technology" (Lawrence *et al.*, 2012, p.105).  
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24 In the organizational analysis, power is postulated as  
25 operating through two modes: "episodic" and "systemic" (Lawrence  
26 *et al.*, 2001; Lawrence and Robinson, 2007). Episodic power consists  
27 of the "relatively discrete, strategic acts of mobilization  
28 initiated by self-interested actors," and represents the most  
29 explicit expression of the agency of specific and recognizable  
30 individual or organizational actors (Lawrence *et al.*, 2001, p.  
31 629). Systemic power, meanwhile, operates "through the routine,  
32 ongoing practices of organizations" and is embedded in the cultural  
33 and "social systems that constitute organizations" (Lawrence and  
34 Robinson, 2007, p. 384). Hence, this mode of power is not  
35 attributed to specific individuals but is coded within overarching  
36 cultural and organizational systems.  
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40 To better articulate how these two modes of power function in  
41 a social context, Pitkin's (1972) concept of *power over* is used to  
42 describe systemic power, while we use *power to* in reference to  
43 episodic power, appreciating that power episodes do not  
44 necessarily have to be coercive or constraining, but could also be  
45 facilitative. *Power over* means power "over other people, [or]  
46 enforcement of one's intentions over those of others," while *power to*  
47 means "an ability to do or achieve something independent of  
48 others," including indirectly through routine and bureaucratic  
49 ways (Göhler, 2009, p. 28). As such, *power over* constantly  
50 restricts the choices of those subjected to it, "disempowers" their  
51 capacity, and limits their fields of action (Rye, 2015). The focus  
52 of *power to*, in contrast, is not on its effect on others subjected  
53 to it but on its "empowerment" of other actors to act more  
54 autonomously and to gain a comparative advantage over other actors  
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3 in the field. Sometimes this is achieved in order to overpower the  
4 agency of others; other times it may conjoin with others to expand  
5 collective agency. The delicate interconnectedness between power  
6 over and power to means that, in order to access power over, actors  
7 need the capacity to exercise power to; however, exercising power  
8 to do something is also dependent upon having access to power over  
9 resources and people (Clegg and Kreiner, 2013).

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12 How are these modes and circuits of power used and how do  
13 they affect actors and organizations? Lawrence *et al.*, (2001) have  
14 argued that when actors use episodic power and approach their  
15 targets as subjects with the capacity to choose whether to do  
16 something (Clegg, 1989), they use *influence* to persuade them of  
17 the benefits of a certain action. Influence is carried out through  
18 informal networks and relies on persuasive accounts and  
19 negotiations that are particularly important to justify why a new  
20 trajectory or organizational model is essential, making this form  
21 of power particularly useful during the starting phases of new  
22 initiatives (Lawrence, 2008). However, when organizational actors  
23 are treated as objects (incapable of choice), *force* is applied  
24 coercively through formal organizational hierarchies to leave them  
25 no choice but to do something that they would not otherwise do,  
26 either because it does not serve either a personal or  
27 organizational sense of their interests (Lawrence and Robinson,  
28 2007). The two are often entangled, of course, one is the bearer  
29 of the other.  
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34 Although systemic power may be empirically invisible,  
35 manifest through tacit pressures on actors and organizations, it  
36 differentially affects actors when they are considered as either  
37 subjects or objects. When actors are treated as subjects, social  
38 power is exercised as *discipline*, which "shapes the identities of  
39 targets and...leads them to act in specific ways," and subsequently  
40 and indirectly affects the choices that those actors make (Lawrence  
41 and Robinson, 2007, p. 389). However, when actors are treated as  
42 objects, systemic power is manifested as a mode of *domination* that  
43 indirectly restricts choices through informal representations of  
44 systemic power in the guise of culturally taken-for-granted  
45 practices, as well as more formal representations, such as the  
46 controlling effects of bureaucratic systems in which the actors  
47 operate (Lawrence, 2008).  
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51 Furthermore, while earlier theorizations of power considered  
52 power relations as having a one-dimensional coercive perspective  
53 whereby one actor determines the choices available for another  
54 actor (Dahl, 1975; Lukes, 2005), Clegg (1989) argues that power  
55 relations are multi-dimensional and operate through three  
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3 different and interconnected "circuits of power." The first  
4 circuit of power is episodic, and it represents the agency or  
5 micro-dynamics of action which individual actors adopt to either  
6 constrain a certain action or to enable it, which results in  
7 resistance or support of affected actors (Major *et al.*, 2018). The  
8 second circuit of power is dispositional which enables actors to  
9 reinterpret the rules within an organizational field, and it is  
10 exercised within a system of social integration whereby actors  
11 within a social system use shared meanings to justify and achieve  
12 their objectives (Clegg, 1989; Major *et al.*, 2018). The third  
13 circuit of power is facilitative and is exercised through system  
14 integration which entails reshaping or changing the routines and  
15 rules within an organizational setting to fit actors' interests  
16 and objectives.  
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20 While these forms of power are well-documented in the  
21 organizational analysis literature, what is unclear is the type of  
22 institutional work that triggers systemic power and in turn,  
23 legitimizes new forms of project organizing and how actors build  
24 upon this emerging power to implement projects. This paper  
25 investigates the role of episodic power to "initiate change by  
26 advocating key ideas and persuading actors to experiment with new  
27 behaviours" (Lawrence *et al.*, 2011, p. 109), while also examining  
28 how social and systemic power is exercised over existing regulatory  
29 and bureaucratic structures to empower and enable individual  
30 actors to carry out their work.  
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## 34 **Methodology**

### 35 **Research Context**

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38 Saudi Arabia is a context in which public procurement has been the  
39 only institutionalized method of infrastructure service delivery  
40 over the past 70 years (Biygautane, 2017). The existing legal and  
41 regulatory frameworks have been incompatible with the requirements  
42 of complex PPP contracts. The Government Tenders and Procurement  
43 Law (GTPL) that governs tendering of infrastructure projects did  
44 not allow private finance for public infrastructure, or possess  
45 the flexibility required for designing PPP contracts (Ashurst,  
46 2013). Furthermore, the normative pressures for global diffusion  
47 of PPP projects do not exist in Saudi Arabia. High government  
48 revenues from oil exports have meant that financial constraints  
49 driving Western governments to private finance did not exist in  
50 Saudi Arabia, nor were the promises of higher efficiency and value  
51 for money important either, as the overall bureaucratic system in  
52 the country did not prioritize efficiency or innovation in service  
53 delivery (Ali, 2010). The bureaucracy was rather an accommodation  
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3 for local talents that might not flourish in more exposed and less  
4 sheltered environments.  
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6 Particular patterns of institutionalization have flourished  
7 in infrastructure projects in this context. The construction  
8 sector in Saudi Arabia is tightly dominated and controlled by  
9 powerful business families with extensive networks of patronage,  
10 positioning them as the government's preferred bidders for large  
11 contracts (House, 2013). Foreign investors and bidders are  
12 disadvantaged when competing for government contracts and  
13 corruption is endemic in the construction industry (Al-Riyadh,  
14 2013; Ali, 2010). As such, the lack of effective mechanisms for  
15 monitoring the accountability and transparency of the construction  
16 sector result in many cases of exploitation of public finances,  
17 extensive delays, and incomplete projects (Al-Riyadh, 2009).  
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### 21 ***The case of Medina Airport***

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23 Medina Airport represents a case of divergent organizational  
24 change for two reasons. First, the airport had operated under the  
25 government's umbrella since 1972 (IFC, 2012), and the choice of a  
26 build-transfer-operate (BTO) contract to expand and operate the  
27 airport meant disconnecting from the public sector template and  
28 abruptly introducing the untested market ethos. It was a shift  
29 that would affect not only the technical operations of the airport  
30 but also its identity and organizational culture by forcing a  
31 drastic change in how employees and management of the airport had  
32 worked for decades. Second, extending the airport through the BTO  
33 contract meant the involvement of private finance, which would  
34 require new legal and administrative requirements that the Saudi  
35 bureaucracy was unprepared to provide.  
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39 The successful execution of this mega-infrastructure project  
40 in such an institutional environment promises to uncover several  
41 empirical and theoretical insights about how power affects  
42 projects. It meant that the actors leading the project's  
43 implementation had to manage resistance from private actors that  
44 dominated the construction sector, public organizations that did  
45 not understand or believe in the need for PPP at the airport.  
46 Importantly, it would explain how the resistance of the airport  
47 staff was managed when they were forced to become private sector  
48 employees rather than bureaucrats accommodated in an organization  
49 indifferent to commercial pressures.  
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### 53 ***Research design and data collection***

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3 A single case study design is well-suited to the exploratory and  
4 inductive nature of the research (Yin, 2014). This method offers  
5 an empirically rich and thick description of events, such as the  
6 dynamic processes, practices, and types of institutional work  
7 carried out by actors and organizations to deliver the project  
8 under investigation (Lawrence *et al.*, 2009), which would otherwise  
9 be difficult to observe through quantitative methods. It captures  
10 complex processes over time, enables researchers to identify key  
11 actors and investigate how events develop, allowing for an  
12 immediate reframing of questions as unexpected information emerges  
13 through interviews (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007).  
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17 The data collection techniques used to answer our research  
18 questions were commensurate with the chosen case study design. The  
19 research relied on face-to-face, semi-structured interviews  
20 ranging from 40 to 90 minutes in length conducted with key  
21 interviewees who were directly involved in the project  
22 implementation process. We conducted purposive sampling (Lincoln  
23 and Guba, 1985), aiming to cover a diverse type of actors occupying  
24 different roles as first contact interviewees. Therefore, we  
25 explored Saudi news articles and published government and private  
26 sector reports to identify the names of actors who played a central  
27 role in the project. We then relied on our social networks to gain  
28 access to these interviewees, and a snowball technique was adopted  
29 later on by asking our initial interviewees to recommend further  
30 actors who leveraged influence in project implementation (Lincoln  
31 and Guba, 1985).  
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35 In total, twenty-one face-to-face interviews were conducted  
36 by the first author in the Saudi Arabian cities of Jeddah, Medina  
37 and Riyadh. To ensure that many voices were included, to minimize  
38 retrospective bias problems and to confirm the reliability of the  
39 data (Yin, 2014), individuals from across different levels of the  
40 hierarchy and various sectors were interviewed. Among the  
41 interviewees were five senior government officials, including a  
42 previous chairman of GACA and the GACA PPP Team leader who played  
43 the role of a project champion. We also interviewed three senior  
44 representatives from the private sector including actors from  
45 Medina Airport. The interviewing sample also included six senior  
46 legal and financial consultants who were instrumental in designing  
47 the BTO contract shared important insights about the process of  
48 gaining high-level approvals to sign the project contract. Three  
49 engineers who worked in the airport before and after its  
50 transformation to PPP were interviewed to provide insights about  
51 how employees reacted to change in the management of the airport.  
52 Additionally, a senior representative of Saudi Airlines provided  
53 insights regarding the impact of the airport transformation on the  
54 management of airlines. Finally, two senior representatives of an  
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3 international organization in Riyadh who were involved in the  
4 process of initiating and implementing the PPP project shared  
5 important information about the governance mechanisms that  
6 supported the project. The interviews were recorded (except in  
7 three cases where extensive notes were taken) and transcribed  
8 verbatim.  
9

10 The interviews were conducted between March 2016 and August  
11 2017, with three supplementary interviews carried out in Riyadh in  
12 August 2019. The semi-structured approach that was adopted during  
13 the interviews allowed flexibility in asking interviewees the same  
14 set of questions, but also asking further elaboration and follow  
15 up questions when new themes or insights emerged during the  
16 interviews. Generally, our interview questions focused on three  
17 themes: 1) reasons why PPP model was used for this project; 2)  
18 which actors and organizations enabled the project implementation;  
19 and 3) the reactions of employees and management of the airport  
20 and how that affected the process of transforming the airport from  
21 a public to a private entity. These themes were developed based on  
22 our prior familiarity with the research context and its  
23 unsuitability with the PPP model, and hence our focus was to  
24 understand which actors played a central role in its  
25 implementation.  
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29 The second source of data was archival data which was  
30 important to triangulate the interview findings with more  
31 objective analyses of the factors supporting the project (Lofland  
32 and Lofland, 1995). Government and consultancy reports, speeches  
33 by the Saudi Monarch -discourses of some importance in an  
34 autocracy- as well as newspaper articles, were also used. While  
35 the total of 41 documents covered mostly the political, legal and  
36 regulatory factors affecting the project, broader academic  
37 resources were also drawn upon, which covered the normative and  
38 cultural-cognitive aspects of Saudi Arabia. Furthermore, we have  
39 read and analyzed a YouTube video where Medina Airport employees  
40 protested against forcing them to transfer to the private sector  
41 and implored the King of Saudi to help them maintain their  
42 government jobs, were analyzed (YouTube, 2015), as well as Arabic  
43 blogs where these employees shared either their fear or enthusiasm  
44 about the transformation of the airport into a private entity.  
45 These blogs were crucial given our inability to access a larger  
46 number of airport employees despite our attempts to do so.  
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### 50 **Data analysis**

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53 Data analysis was conducted through four stages following a  
54 deductive and inductive approach congruent with common practice in  
55 qualitative studies (Yin, 2014). The first step in our analysis  
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3 was to sift through the data and read interview transcripts  
4 alongside secondary sources to develop a comprehensive  
5 understanding of how key events, activities, and project  
6 milestones evolved chronologically and led to the airport's  
7 transformation. We organized this information to guide our  
8 analysis, and then sifted through our interview data to identify  
9 and code motivations (intentionality) of actors who triggered and  
10 pursued the PPP idea and their reasons for its advocacy. At this  
11 stage, NVivo 11 was used to conduct systematic analysis and assess  
12 the empirical prevalence of emerging analytical themes.  
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16 Second, open coding was applied to the interview data (Van  
17 Maanen, 1979) to identify the types of institutional work to gain  
18 the power to expand and operate the airport on a PPP basis.  
19 Specifically, we sought for instances and arguments used by  
20 individual and organizational actors who were promoting the PPP  
21 model and how they justified its need and relevance for the airport  
22 project. We sought guidance from institutional work as well as  
23 power literature to identify the types and modes of power and their  
24 relational impact on actors. Initially, we found that  
25 institutional work representing instances of episodic power  
26 carried out by the chairman of GACA and head of the IFC office to  
27 influence and persuade political actors of the importance of the  
28 PPP model for the airport. Their arguments were coded into first-  
29 order themes (Gioia *et al.*, 2013), and we identified "considerable  
30 delays face expanding the airport through EPC"; "arguing that  
31 facilitating pilgrims' journeys to visit the two Islamic holy  
32 mosques of Mecca and Medina is duty of Saudi Arabia towards  
33 Muslims" and "using PPP to increase the airport's capacity meant  
34 more landing slots for airlines and higher numbers of pilgrims."  
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39 Third, we performed axial coding (Strauss and Corbin, 1998),  
40 with the team going back and forth between theory and data to  
41 collapse first-order concepts into broader second-order  
42 theoretical categories and themes. Our purpose was to transcend  
43 the descriptive statements from our data and establish more  
44 consolidated themes. For example, consistent themes emerged such  
45 as "project's religious significance", "political actors with  
46 religious obligation" and "religious tourism".  
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50 Fourth, and final stage of analysis was to look for aggregate  
51 theoretical dimensions, guided by our readings of literature about  
52 symbolism and power. We used the label *religious symbolism work as*  
53 *social integration* to categorize the episodic power represented by  
54 efforts and justifications used by actors to influence and activate  
55 political interest in the project. Such religious symbolic work  
56 was the bedrock to their commitment that the PPP model was the  
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3 only practical solution to deliver the project successfully, and  
4 emphasized the religious symbolism that the project signified as  
5 enabling Muslims to access the holy mosques of Medina and Macca.  
6 This form of symbolism has not been revealed in existing project  
7 management nor institutional theory.  
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10 The same analytical method was used to search for instances  
11 of systemic power and its manifestations. However, it was important  
12 first to understand the bases of such power and how it was accessed  
13 or activated by the two actors initiating the project, as well as  
14 the arguments they used for each individual/organization to which  
15 they reached out. The research then sought out how systemic power  
16 led to the empowerment of the PPP project, and how this altered  
17 the institutionalized and routinized ways in which the Saudi  
18 bureaucracy administered infrastructure projects. It was found  
19 that systemic power had two functions. First, a Royal Order acted  
20 as the dispositional form of power (Clegg, 1989) that established  
21 the political legitimacy and urgency of delivering the project on  
22 a PPP basis. A Royal Order is an exceptionally strong mandate of  
23 social integration in Saudi society, governed as it is by an  
24 absolutist monarchy. Second, ministerial power freed the PPP  
25 project from regulatory and bureaucratic controls that might  
26 otherwise have blocked its implementation, while the "professional  
27 disciplinary power" of the PPP Team Leader streamlined and  
28 supported the system integration of the entire implementation  
29 process (Table 1). We labeled this type of institutional work  
30 "system integration work" which represented the systemic form of  
31 power.  
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36 After identifying the types of work to access power, we then  
37 moved to how the resultant forms and modes of power were used to  
38 force the implementation of the PPP project. It was clear to us  
39 that the empowerment of the PPP project meant the immediate  
40 "disempowerment" of the agency of several individual and  
41 organizational actors. We found that this type of power stripped  
42 the project from out of the hands of local private actors, altering  
43 how the bureaucratic system administered projects, with a  
44 considerable impact on how individual actors worked at the airport.  
45 We labeled this type of work as "work to disempower the agency of  
46 resisting actors".  
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50 We then focused our analysis on identifying the coercive  
51 consequences of systemic power for these actors and the type of  
52 work conducted by GACA and the winning consortium to alleviate the  
53 effects of forcing the PPP project on the institutional structure.  
54 We identified *repair work* as the form of institutional work that  
55 comprised several activities such as sensegiving (Gioia and  
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Chittipeddi, 1991), capacity building, identity work (Bailey and Raelin, 2015; Gawer and Phillips, 2013) and persuasion, which we derived from the broader literature of institutional work and emerging themes from our data. This information is synthesized in Table 2.

Finally, we developed a comprehensive data structure (Figure 1) to theorize the relationships between themes and aggregate dimensions, and most importantly to develop a process model (Figure 2) that demonstrates the recursive relationships between the types of institutional work and different forms of power, and how they affect project implementation processes.

---- Figure 1 about here----

## Findings

We begin by demonstrating why GACA (a typical Saudi government entity) decided to break away from the institutionalized form of project delivery and tout PPP as an effective method for expanding and operating its airport (intentionality for institutional work), rather than using the highly institutionalized and traditional public procurement model. Then, we present the institutional work (effort) that they conducted to acquire power, and how that power was used to drive the implementation process forward.

### *Prologue: Trigger and obstacles*

*Familiarity with market-like practices.* The empirical findings revealed that, although GACA was a government instrumentality embedded in Saudi bureaucratic inertia, its top leadership endeavored to instill market-like practices internally. GACA's newly appointed leadership had extensive experience working in the business sector, and aimed to apply this experience within GACA by improving the quality of its airports, enhancing customer services and satisfaction, eventually to corporatize and privatize airport assets. As a former chairman of GACA stated, "Saudi is a very difficult place to do business, but I used to say that, at GACA, we could do much better than other government entities." Such objectives, which would seldom be considered seriously in other Saudi government departments, guided GACA to greater engagement with the private sector in delivering services through competitive bids. A senior official at IFC said, "I think GACA was one of the leaders among the government entities in Saudi in terms of outsourcing its activities and working with the private sector and that was owing to its strategy to bring the private sector to the aviation sector." One private-sector consultant stated that GACA

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3 had developed the internal capacity to “design and develop projects  
4 that were output-based with specific deliverables, rules, KPIs,  
5 and requirements, and asked the private sector to bid on that  
6 basis.”  
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9 GACA’s active engagement, trust, and learning from the  
10 private sector has grown through several small-scale projects. The  
11 first experiment in collaborating with the private sector was in  
12 December 2006, when GACA awarded a 20-year BTO concession contract  
13 worth \$249 million for the modernization and operation of Hajj  
14 Terminal in Jeddah to a consortium led by the Saudi conglomerate  
15 Bin Laden Group (IFC, 2013; Fenton, 2010). One senior IFC official  
16 asserted, “we had so many difficulties and there was no system and  
17 no understanding of PPPs, but it worked out. It was not the best  
18 example, but it was the first experience.” A BOT contract for the  
19 same airport was awarded to a private consortium to develop its  
20 water desalination plant (IFC, 2010). In those projects, GACA  
21 “conducted testing of the local private sector’s capacity to  
22 deliver such a project in the market,” as explained by the PPP  
23 Team Leader at GACA, and this made it realize its strengths and  
24 limitations. It was also a valuable learning experience through  
25 which IFC and GACA collaborated and studied the challenges and  
26 opportunities of Saudi’s institutional setting. The former  
27 chairman of GACA put it this way:  
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31 “In these two projects, we learned a lot about what the other side  
32 wanted and how the private sector performed. There were so many  
33 lessons we learned from the contractual setup and we went through  
34 many challenges that we managed to overcome and learn from.”  
35

36  
37 *Technical need and lack of local expertise.* The facilities of  
38 the Medina Airport had not been refurbished or expanded since its  
39 opening in 1972 (Ballantyne, 2011). When the King announced its  
40 transformation into an international airport in 2006 (Al-Riyadh,  
41 2006) the airport “was in desperate need of an overhaul to cope  
42 with increasing arrivals,” which exceeded 3.5 million in 2009 (a  
43 50% increase from the previous year), “making it the largest  
44 increase across all the Kingdom’s airports” (Fenton, 2010, p. 2).  
45 The airport is a major port of entry for the faithful making the  
46 Hajj. The airport management and operation could not cope with  
47 passenger growth, which averaged 21% annually at the time and  
48 predicted to reach 14 million by 2035 (Ballantyne, 2011). Although  
49 the airport operated year-round, as explained by a private sector  
50 interviewee, it experienced “the largest number of passengers for  
51 two months each year during the pilgrimage season, and the airport  
52 struggled to manage that process efficiently.” Due to constrained  
53 capacity, considerable international traffic had to be turned  
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3 away, with increasing requests from airlines to obtain landing  
4 permits being declined. Furthermore, lack of efficiency and good  
5 governance within the airport's old management led to nepotism and  
6 treating airlines differently as a representative of a major  
7 airline stated:  
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10 "...we used to suffer from nepotism, disrespect of the principle  
11 customer, preference of some companies over other ones. They were  
12 so slow, and they did not provide good services and we complained  
13 all the time to airport management, but in vain."  
14

15 Previous efforts to expand the airport using an EPC contract  
16 and local private actors had been unsuccessful. The Prince of  
17 Medina presented a proposal to the Council of Ministers in early  
18 2000s to refurbish and modernize the airport (Ouadou, 2000), but,  
19 according to one public employee, this progressed sluggishly due  
20 to "the need for a contractor and operator with a proven record of  
21 managing and operating complex airport projects...and getting the  
22 budget for the project approved by several government entities."  
23 In light of GACA's experience with the private sector, such high  
24 sophistication in airport construction and management was nowhere  
25 to be found in the Saudi private sector, and this required looking  
26 for alternative solutions internationally.  
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29 The comfort of GACA's leadership in working with the private  
30 sector, the dire technical need to expand Medina Airport encouraged  
31 the IFC head in Saudi Arabia to propose to GACA's chairman the  
32 idea of using PPP for the airport. The head of IFC thus explained  
33 to the GACA team the idea behind PPP and shared successful cases  
34 of international airports that were constructed and being operated  
35 under the PPP scheme in Jordan, Turkey, India, and Europe. Such  
36 isomorphic and mimetic pressures from international and regional  
37 experiences of PPPs provided a strong ground for suggesting and  
38 promoting PPPs in Saudi, particularly this promising business case  
39 of Medina Airport.  
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42 The proposal was welcomed, and the GACA and IFC teams then  
43 engaged in sensemaking exercises to analyze the requirements for  
44 translating the PPP idea into actual practice. Several meetings  
45 were held between the teams to discuss the technical aspects of  
46 the project and form a group of advisors and experts who would  
47 examine the prospect of operating Medina Airport through a private  
48 company. Part of the sensemaking effort involved commissioning to  
49 the IFC the drafting of a comprehensive feasibility study, which  
50 analyzed the practicality of expanding and operating the airport  
51 on a PPP basis. The IFC's study showed hypothetical scenarios of  
52 the airport's performance under both the public and private  
53 sectors. The sophistication of managerial and operational methods  
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3 promised under the private sector's construction and operation of  
4 the airport further encouraged GACA to pursue the PPP route. One  
5 PPP project specialist commented, saying, "We were very excited  
6 about the PPP idea when we saw the new technical and managerial  
7 methods and techniques that our airport had not possessed before."  
8 The results of the due diligence strategic report were equally  
9 promising. The airport was a bankable project due to the rising  
10 international traffic and growing demand from international  
11 airlines to land. The PPP Team Leader indicated that: "due  
12 diligence took us four to five months, and this was the part where  
13 we analyzed the financial, legal, and technical aspects of the PPP  
14 project, and we found that it was viable and visible."  
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### 17 ***Religious symbolic work as social integration***

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20 The rigidity of the Saudi bureaucratic systems and lack of  
21 regulatory systems to support PPPs convinced the IFC head and GACA  
22 chairman that acquiring political power and support were the only  
23 means through which project implementation would be feasible.  
24 Those two actors then exercised a mode of episodic power that  
25 influenced and convinced the top political leadership, on an  
26 *exceptional basis*, to allow the use of a PPP model that promised  
27 better outcomes for the airport than the public procurement method.  
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31 *Arguing that the project's religious significance required an*  
32 *immediate solution.* A large number of high-profile projects had in  
33 the past been excessively delayed or unfinished in Saudi Arabia,  
34 with several past PPP proposals for subway systems and trains never  
35 materializing (Shaw-Smith, 2011). However, the airport project had  
36 a unique religious status for actors who were approached to support  
37 it. As one senior legal consultant stated, "Medina Airport isn't  
38 for air transport, it's for *Hajj* infrastructure." The key message  
39 repeatedly emphasized by the IFC head and GACA chairman when  
40 resorting to their social and political networks to form a  
41 coalition of actors to advocate the project was the *religious*  
42 *significance* of the project. The airport, as a gateway to the city  
43 of Medina, necessitated immediate action to increase its capacity  
44 and enable larger numbers of Muslims to perform their pilgrimage.  
45 The IFC head took the initiative early on and approached the Prince  
46 of Medina to explain the benefits and opportunities of delivering  
47 the project through PPP as well the positive impact of religious  
48 tourism on the economy of Medina. The Prince accepted the idea,  
49 although no airport in Saudi had ever been financed, constructed,  
50 or operated by the private sector, but the religious uniqueness of  
51 this airport made it a religious obligation to expedite its  
52 expansion. An interviewee from the private sector stated that:  
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3 "Madinah Airport represents a different business environment and  
4 passenger profile because it is a religious airport. It is not like  
5 Riyadh airport, it is not always commercial or operational, and  
6 its clients are primarily pilgrims and mainly during pilgrimage  
7 seasons."  
8

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10 The proposal to expand the airport had been with the Council  
11 of Ministers since the early 2000s, but its budget decision had  
12 yet to be completed, let alone the lengthy process of searching  
13 for qualified companies to deliver it.<sup>1</sup> As a member of the Saudi  
14 royal family with considerable political and administrative power  
15 and direct access to the King, the Prince's involvement from this  
16 early stage was critical. He endorsed the project and informally  
17 reached out to other ministers and high-level bureaucrats to  
18 advocate it as well. The chairman of GACA easily gained the support  
19 of the Minister of Defense for the project, since his organization  
20 operated under the umbrella of the Ministry, and he was able to  
21 raise the topic at Ministerial meetings. The motivation behind  
22 these actors' readiness to support the project stemmed essentially  
23 from its religious symbolism. A government sector interviewee  
24 stated that:  
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28 "Location of this airport in Madinah makes it very special. It is  
29 a place where all Muslims want to go to. All Muslims wish to  
30 visit Madinah before anywhere else and this airport is their gate  
31 to it, and by extending it we will allow more Muslims to perform  
32 their religious rituals."  
33

34 *Reaching out to political actors with a religious obligation*  
35 *to cater to pilgrims to the two holy mosques.* As a part of their  
36 effort to build consensus and support for the project, the chairman  
37 of GACA and other ministers brought the proposal to expand the  
38 airport on a PPP basis to meetings of the Council of Ministers and  
39 Supreme Economic Council, which are headed by the King. They all  
40 emphasized the duty of Saudi Arabia to facilitate Muslims'  
41 pilgrimage, and one government official confirmed this fact by  
42 stating that: "Muslims save for years and years to come to Umrah  
43 or Hajj and being unable to host them because of the capacity of  
44 the airport is our responsibility." Individuals promoting the  
45 airport expansion on PPP also cited the due diligence report's  
46 findings that showed how expanding the airport and operating it on  
47 a PPP basis would increase the number of pilgrims from 3 million  
48 yearly in 2008, to 8 million immediately after its commercial  
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55 <sup>1</sup> In fact, it took 11 years for the project to be started. In October 2011, a consortium entered into a contract with the GACA to build and  
56 operate the Prince Muhammad Bin Abdulaziz International Airport in Al Madinah Al- Munawarah under a 25-year concession. In  
57 2018 it had 8,144,790 passengers pass through and 60,665 aircraft movements (source: TAV Traffic Results)  
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3 operation, to 18 million by 2035, and up to 40 million in the third  
4 phase of expansion in 2050 (Sabq, 2015).  
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7 The connection between the religious duty of the King to  
8 Muslims and Medina Airport is apparent in his speech in 2006, which  
9 announced that, "...given the importance of Medina to the Islamic  
10 world and to the entire world, I announce the transformation of  
11 Medina Airport into an international airport" (Al-Riyadh, 2006).  
12 As such, the religious factor was crucial in approaching the King  
13 to support the delivery of the airport through non-traditional  
14 means. Many interviewees stated that the connection between the  
15 religiosity of the airport and the political support given to it  
16 created a firm bedrock for embracing the PPP model, and as a legal  
17 consultant stated: Hajj is fundamental to political legitimacy of  
18 the Kingdom, fundamental for its responsibility." Another  
19 government official also stated that  
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22  
23 "...increasing number of pilgrims is a very politically sensitive  
24 matter, it is part of delivering the Kingdom's obligation to the  
25 Muslim Community and it is the responsibility of the Custodian of  
26 the holy mosques, that's what we do as Saudis and that is who we  
27 are"  
28

29  
30 *Demonstrating that religious tourism supports job creation*  
31 *and economic growth.* The head of IFC presented the PPP idea to the  
32 Minister of Finance and articulated its financial rewards, such as  
33 reducing the costs of expanding and operating the airport and  
34 expenses of employees, albeit with considerable financial  
35 guarantees to be borne by the ministry. The function of the airport  
36 as the gateway of the Hajj to the sacred sites of Islam meant that  
37 a flow of income was guaranteed, with the sharp increase in  
38 pilgrims each year being testament to that. The Minister of Finance  
39 supported the project and became an essential member of the  
40 coalition of actors who endorsed it, emphasizing its importance at  
41 the Council of Ministers and Supreme Economic Council meetings.  
42 The economic benefits of the project were highlighted, including  
43 drastically increased income flow through better management of  
44 landing slots and revenues. The increased volume of passengers  
45 that would be visiting the Medina and Mecca mosques would mean a  
46 massive increase in the city's economic activities and job creation  
47 in the tourism-related industries that formed the backbone of those  
48 activities. A private sector interviewee stated that "religious  
49 tourism is the reason that it worked in Saudi, and now the  
50 government is trying to increase the number of pilgrims, so there  
51 will be an extensive need for bigger airport infrastructure in the  
52 future." A study evaluating the impact of expanding Medina Airport  
53 also showed that the city could potentially host one million  
54 visitors per month, with its revenues counting as the second-  
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3 highest source of income for Saudi Arabia after oil revenues  
4 (Ouadou, 2000). This is supported by a management consultant's  
5 statement that:

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8 "...if political leadership of this country is committed to their  
9 religious duty to host Muslims, how can they increase people if  
10 they do not have enough landing slots for airplanes to take all  
11 these pilgrims. We needed the standing of government for such mega  
12 projects to feed the religious need of the country."  
13

#### 14 **System integration work**

15

16 The GACA chairman and IFC head exercised episodic power to try and  
17 influence the thinking of key political actors and have them permit  
18 a foreign private company to operate the airport. This was  
19 something that had never been done before in Saudi Arabia. The  
20 outcome of gaining approval was the empowerment of the PPP project  
21 through several forms of power through episodic modes of power as  
22 well as social and system integration as illustrated in Table 1.  
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25 *Exempting the PPP project from regulatory controls through*  
26 *ministerial decrees.* One key factor that facilitated access to  
27 the highest echelons of politics was the support of the Minister  
28 of Defense. The systemic power of the Ministry of Defense was  
29 manifest in its position as the most potent Ministry in Saudi  
30 Arabia, with the Minister always one of the closest members of the  
31 royal family elected by the King (Kamrava, 2018), a crucial element  
32 of social integration. Since civil airports were, at that time,  
33 under the Ministry, other government entities could not dispute or  
34 otherwise oppose the Minister's support for the airport. The  
35 Minister also supported the project by writing letters to any  
36 government entities that required additional documents, the lack  
37 of which could risk complicating the implementation process. The  
38 personal touch of the Minister smoothed the path for the airport.  
39 Similarly, the Ministry of Finance's support was a critical factor  
40 in the project's success because it assured system integration by  
41 issuing financial guarantees in excess of US \$1.5 billion and also  
42 assuming liability in the event that the national airline might  
43 default on any of its payments, ensuring the project's bankability  
44 and making it attractive to the private sector.  
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49 ----- Table 1 about here-----  
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51 The Council of Ministers and the Supreme Economic Council  
52 were two powerful entities that represented the tight nexus of  
53 social and system integration in the Kingdom. The concentration of  
54 episodic power capabilities vested there empowered the actors  
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3 implementing the project. These councils comprised all of Saudi  
4 Arabia's Ministers and are chaired by the King. They are the  
5 obligatory passage point for decision-making. They issued decrees  
6 requiring all government entities to collaborate with GAC.  
7 Besides, they issued all the necessary documents to finance the  
8 project through a private consortium. Finally, they transferred  
9 the airport to the private operator when construction was  
10 completed. As one senior bank representative explained, the  
11 decrees ordering implementation of the project was "an exceptional  
12 case because it was a non-government contract". As such, it by-  
13 passed all the routinized ways of writing construction contracts  
14 and delivering infrastructure projects. Such non-compliance with  
15 customary Saudi bureaucracy would have been impossible without the  
16 support of the system and social integration condensed in these  
17 important obligatory passage points.  
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21 The empowering of the project through two ministerial  
22 councils resulted in the creation of a high-level Steering  
23 Committee chaired by the chairman of GACA and composed of eminent  
24 figures in the political and business sectors. Again, there was a  
25 fusion of system and social integration legitimating the Steering  
26 Committee because of the prestigious figures which it contained.  
27 The committee was created and empowered exclusively to make *any*  
28 *and all* decisions critical to the project's implementation. The  
29 committee held weekly meetings where project-related documents  
30 were signed, and letters of support provided to eliminate any  
31 bureaucratic or regulatory bottlenecks. The work of the committee  
32 was also backed up by the Prince of Medina, who issued orders to  
33 facilitate any project-related administrative procedures at the  
34 Medina governorate. He also ordered all relevant entities to  
35 expedite the issuance of licenses or permits related to water,  
36 electricity, and other services supplied by the Medina  
37 municipality. Royal writ is the highest form of legitimacy any  
38 project could achieve. The Royal imprimatur assured the smooth  
39 passage of the project through the byzantine bureaucracies of the  
40 state.  
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45 *Establishing the urgency and political legitimacy of the*  
46 *project through a Royal Order.* The ultimate representation of  
47 social integration and dispositional power, in this case, was the  
48 issuance of a Royal Order. The Royal Order epitomized the political  
49 support enjoyed by the project as a high-level national priority  
50 that needed to be delivered urgently and legitimized the PPP form  
51 for its delivery. With a Royal Order, none would dare to be seen  
52 to impede the project. Although not directed to a specific  
53 organization or individual, the powers embedded in the Royal Order  
54 were implicit. Should there be cases of resistance against the  
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3 project, the issuance of the order would achieve consent. The  
4 drastic changes necessarily affecting all usual ways of operating  
5 national airports and developing infrastructure that the project  
6 entailed would not be resisted. Any necessary change in the  
7 behavior of individuals and organizations affected by the project  
8 came from the highest source of legitimacy in the land and  
9 irrespective of how members of organizations might think about  
10 what acting in accord with the order entailed, no individual actor  
11 could be blamed for the actions they took. They were enacting the  
12 Sovereign's will. One senior government official explained that,  
13 "when a Royal Order is issued, nobody has the choice to resist or  
14 challenge it." The power of the Royal Order removed any regulatory  
15 or bureaucratic barriers even before they arose, a fact emphasized  
16 by all interviewees. A representative of an international  
17 organization stated that when dealing with the government  
18 bureaucracy,  
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22 "The project did not face any critical obstructions because it had  
23 received a Royal Order early on... so we had the top-level kind of  
24 green light, and all government entities were aware that the  
25 project was a priority and had to go ahead."  
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28 *Empowering the project champion to streamline the PPP*  
29 *project implementation process.* Several interviewees stated that  
30 their preparatory institutional work was focused on creating  
31 coherent internal organizational dynamics to streamline operations  
32 and decentralize decision-making. An IFC representative described  
33 the PPP Team Leader, who was also leading the internal PPP unit in  
34 charge of the project's administrative duties, as "the oil in the  
35 gears making sure that things were happening and pushing government  
36 stakeholders to get things done."  
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39 The practical implications of the political and royal support  
40 for the project were visibly manifested in the empowerment of the  
41 Team Leader, who acquired the power to make all critical decisions  
42 and navigate all government agencies to gain the necessary  
43 approvals. He stated that, "PPP projects need one individual who  
44 has the power and guts to implement all projects and make good  
45 decisions." With the Royal Order as a backstop, this was not too  
46 difficult to achieve. Although most Saudi bureaucratic  
47 organizations are characterized by rigid hierarchical processes,  
48 GACA's chairman transferred a considerable capacity for making  
49 autonomous decisions to the PPP Team Leader and delegated many  
50 responsibilities to other senior members of the team to accelerate  
51 the decision-making process. These were innovations that severely  
52 challenged the business as usual of Saudi bureaucracy; without the  
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3 social integrational elements of the project, the project would  
4 have likely failed.  
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### 6 ***Work to disempower agency of resisting actors***

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9 The political empowerment of the PPP project, by enacting systemic  
10 power over the institutionalized form of project delivery,  
11 destabilized the status quo. It entailed a new project financing  
12 model, rigid project governance mechanisms that had hitherto not  
13 existed in the construction domain, a new procurement method as  
14 well as a drastic shift in status for government employees within  
15 the airport who were suddenly obliged be subordinate to a private  
16 employer. The effects of enforcing the PPP method on individual  
17 and organizational actors are summarized in Table 2 below, which  
18 also illustrates the repair work necessary to alleviate those  
19 effects.  
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22  
23 *Opening the local market to foreign competitors as a*  
24 *disadvantage to local companies.* The monopoly of a few powerful  
25 Saudi business families over the construction industry had in the  
26 past institutionalized aa regime in which they were able to  
27 exercise dominance in the delivery of large infrastructure  
28 government contracts (House, 2013; Ali, 2010). The introduction  
29 of a PPP model with private financing and strict due diligence  
30 mechanisms exercised by international banks and investors meant  
31 that the processes of project procurement would be drastically  
32 different. Given the sophisticated technical requirements of  
33 airport expansion and the high complexity of its operation and  
34 management of the tremendous number of pilgrims visiting Medina,  
35 it was evident that local private actors would be immediately  
36 disqualified and lose ground to more advanced international  
37 companies. They could not rely on the traditional channels of  
38 patronage to deliver the contracts, and an interviewee  
39 representing an international organization stated:  
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42  
43 "In Medina, several local merchant families tried to push us so  
44 hard to give them project contract, and many of them were very  
45 powerful, but we managed it, and everyone understood that the  
46 qualified consortium would win. This is one of the biggest  
47 challenges we faced with PPPs. I see it the biggest hindrance."  
48

49  
50 *Forcing the bureaucracy to administer the PPP leading to*  
51 *frustration and lack of capacity.* The royal and administrative  
52 decrees to expand the airport and operate it through the private  
53 sector challenged standardized bureaucratic and administrative  
54 procedures. The most difficult challenge was shifting the  
55 bureaucratic mentality of delivering government projects through  
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3 the traditional EPC method. The bureaucrats in control could  
4 dictate contracts and set specific deliverables. The consortia  
5 led by a private operator, flipped this assumption and set new  
6 rules of the game. There were no policies, procedures, templates,  
7 laws, regulations, or guidelines that government departments and  
8 line ministries could rely on to respond to the requirements of  
9 GACA and its teams' formalization of the documentation for the BTO  
10 agreement, while the political backing that the project enjoyed  
11 meant that these government entities could not reject the project  
12 or challenge its implementation. GACA had social and system  
13 integration wrapped up and under these conditions seemed able to  
14 configure all the circuits of power accordingly. It had, in terms  
15 of direction from above and managing upwards, achieved both system  
16 and social integration. Managing down was another matter.  
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20 ----- Table 2 about here-----  
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23 *Operating the project via a private entity causing fear,*  
24 *confusion, and resistance among employees.* While it can be said  
25 that the institutional context of Saudi Arabia was the major  
26 problematic issue prior to signing the PPP contract, one senior  
27 government official explained that, after signing, it was the  
28 airport's management and staff who became the "biggest challenge  
29 the project faced, since they refused to transfer to a private  
30 operator." The transfer of the airport into the hands of a private  
31 operator had a dramatic impact on the management and employees of  
32 the airport. It meant a shift from being a public employer to one  
33 that was private. There was no evidence in the data to suggest  
34 that the employees and staff of the airport were a part of the  
35 change process from the outset, or that they had been consulted or  
36 properly prepared for it prior to the contract signing. The change  
37 caused not only temporary loss of status but also a permanent shift  
38 in their organizational identity and radical alteration of how  
39 they performed their daily tasks. Different and increased  
40 expectations of performance prevailed, and new uncertainties  
41 arose.  
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45  
46 Employees felt that terminating their contracts and  
47 employment as public sector workers threatened their job security.  
48 Although public sector jobs paid much less, what was crucial for  
49 the airport's management and the staff was lifelong job security,  
50 longer holidays and familiarity with the relaxed government  
51 system. Their posts were, in effect, sinecures. In contrast,  
52 private-sector jobs were more demanding and performance-based, and  
53 renewal of contracts every three years was predicated on meeting  
54 specific KPIs and competitive criteria. Furthermore, drastic  
55 changes would also be implemented in the form of rigid requirements  
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3 concerning attendance and promotion, with new technical equipment  
4 being introduced to operate the airport. All of these changes  
5 required considerable skills that many employees did not have,  
6 which some of them were not prepared to invest time and effort to  
7 learn. The need for the changes was also unclear to many airport  
8 employees who demanded that they remain under the umbrella of GACA  
9 as government employees while working for the operator. Almost all  
10 interviewees stressed that the refusal of the airport's employees  
11 to transfer to the private operator was the "biggest challenge"  
12 the project faced, one that took considerable time. The PPP Team  
13 Leader stated that:  
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16  
17 "...main challenges we faced after signing the agreement were with  
18 employees because they were used to working with the public sector  
19 and they felt secure, and protected, and no one could fire them  
20 regardless of performance. But with the private sector they must  
21 be on time, and attendance and performance are evaluated all the  
22 time."  
23

24 Employees complained that the implementation of the project  
25 took two years, while they were given only one week to decide which  
26 option they would choose (Al-Sharq, 2012b). They did not find the  
27 private sector offers attractive and refused those options, and  
28 expressed their resistance by writing letters expressing their  
29 contempt of joining the private operator to the King and human  
30 rights organizations and asking to keep their government contracts  
31 and benefits (Al-Sharq, 2012a). Employees also lodged a legal case  
32 against GACA at the administrative tribunal complaining about the  
33 illegality of forcing them to transfer and terminate their  
34 government contracts, but after five months, the employees lost  
35 their legal case (World of Money, 2012). They were consequently  
36 forced to choose among four options: 1) transfer to the operator  
37 under a new contract and be subject to private employment law; 2)  
38 be seconded to the airport for three years and then begin a new  
39 contract with the private operator; 3) look for a new job and  
40 transfer to any other airport in the Kingdom or 4), seek a new job  
41 with other government entities (Al-Sharq, 2012b). In absolutism,  
42 bureaucracy in Saudi Arabia is really perceived as patrimonial and  
43 employees' resistance, based on dispositions enculturated in the  
44 past pattern of indulgence that their sinecures had enjoyed,  
45 stalled the project and caused delays in the commercial operation  
46 of the airport. Nonetheless, employees were given four options  
47 that did not alleviate their fears of abrupt organizational change  
48 taking place at the airport.  
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### 53 **Repair work**

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3 Disempowerment of public, private, and administrative actors  
4 required *repair work* to alleviate the negative effects caused by  
5 the abrupt pressures of system integration work on them. In spite  
6 of their resistance, employees' choices were restricted, and they  
7 were obliged to transfer to the private operator. There were  
8 pecuniary advantages, but the expectations of the implicit effort  
9 bargain were radically different.  
10

11  
12 *Establishing good project governance and transparency*  
13 *mechanisms.* The involvement of IFC in the project offered a robust  
14 project-governance mechanism. Existing anti-corruption  
15 arrangements and institutions had yet to win the trust of  
16 international investors well-versed in Saudi corrupt and  
17 patrimonial practices (Ali, 2010). According to one senior  
18 representative of an international organization, during the  
19 tendering process for the airport project, some local construction  
20 giants attempted "to push the envelope very hard because they  
21 wanted the project badly," but were unsuccessful. The envelopes  
22 being pushed were unlikely to have been purely metaphorical.  
23  
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25  
26 With the backing of its social and system integration GACA  
27 was enabled to empower IFC, build strong project governance  
28 principles, increase the project tendering process's transparency  
29 and ensure that only a bidder that met all of the technical  
30 requirements and that had an attractive financial proposal would  
31 win the project contract. GACA outflanked local construction  
32 companies accustomed to exercising power to win projects one way  
33 or another, not always in transparent, ethical or scrupulous ways  
34 (House, 2013). The capacity to select a competent entity led to  
35 the choice of a private sector actor with extensive experience in  
36 constructing and operating airports.  
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39  
40 *Maintaining dialogue, sensegiving, and developing a*  
41 *partnership.* GACA's team worked to engage in effective  
42 communication and dialogue with private partners. At this stage,  
43 the number of actors increased significantly. The project's field  
44 included GACA's team, the IFC's team, representatives of local and  
45 international banks, insurance companies, prequalified bidders,  
46 plus a complex arrangement of technical, legal and financial  
47 consultants. A sense of partnership and dialogue was critical, as  
48 was transparency in presenting all data related to the financial,  
49 legal and technical components of the project. Hiring experienced  
50 international consultants overcame the lack of local expertise in  
51 administering PPP contracts. Something identified as a critical  
52 success factor by several interviewees. The role of the consultants  
53 was essential not only due to the absence of customary legal,  
54 financial and technical mechanisms for such projects but also  
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3 because they translated international best practices in designing  
4 PPP contracts for airports into Saudi Arabia. International  
5 investors were comfortable with international arrangements that  
6 were customized to fit the local culture and environment.  
7

8  
9 The legal consultants drafted standard contracts that were  
10 used in airports internationally and put into place a general  
11 framework to guide the BTO agreement, which served as the primary  
12 governing mechanism for the partnership. The contract would be the  
13 critical foundation of the partnership for 25 years, so it needed  
14 to be comprehensive and to satisfy both parties. A clear BTO  
15 contract was designed by the consultants in conformance with  
16 international standards and included clauses for issues such as  
17 international arbitration, which Saudi Arabia did not have the  
18 institutional capacity to arrange. The private sector was  
19 permitted the flexibility to design the operational and managerial  
20 procedures and models with few restrictions to allow it to create  
21 innovative and efficient solutions. The involvement of a private  
22 partner that financed, constructed, managed, and operated a public  
23 entity as politically sensitive as an airport was not only  
24 unprecedented and contradictory to all existing laws and  
25 regulations but also risked loss of government control over that  
26 particular asset. Furthermore, the entire institutional ecosystem  
27 in Saudi Arabia was unaccustomed to having the private sector  
28 dictate rules of engagement. Typically, the public sector, the  
29 traditional purchaser of services, would set the rules and  
30 expectations to be met by the service providers.  
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35 The former chairman of GACA stated that their key strategy  
36 was "to keep all of the ministries and government entities that  
37 were influential in the project informed of everything that [they]  
38 did." GACA did not base its strength on just on the official  
39 decrees that empowered it but also founded it on proper  
40 communications with all government stakeholders, explain to them  
41 the importance and utility of the project. More importantly, they  
42 showed that the exceptions granted to deliver the project would  
43 not affect the overall institutional arrangements of the country.  
44 Such sensegiving mechanism demonstrated the importance and  
45 uniqueness of the project to all public entities. The method proved  
46 fruitful. The decentralization of decision-making allowed the  
47 "project champion" to directly meet with government officials,  
48 sign necessary documents and enforce decisions. The project  
49 champion also filled in cracks in the bureaucratic system and  
50 ensured that things were moving smoothly for the project by making  
51 direct visits to government entities. He did not rely merely on  
52 correspondence, which would have slowed down the speed of the  
53 project but worked socially. The private partners played an  
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3 instrumental role in this process as well. Although GACA's team  
4 was on the front lines during negotiations with government  
5 entities, the private consortium was also equally flexible and  
6 supportive when they faced deadlocks.  
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9 *Readjusting organizational identity, persuasion, capacity*  
10 *building, and laying off redundant employees.* The airport  
11 employees and staff did not have any other choice but to transfer  
12 to the private operator despite their resistance and  
13 dissatisfaction. They were subject to an unassailable episodic  
14 power. Despite the coercion mobilizing the employees' transfer,  
15 the actual process of implementing the change was more benign. The  
16 former head of GACA's PPP unit said that they "did not engage in  
17 conflict with the employees" but instead motivated them to accept  
18 the change in the operation of the airport by a private actor by  
19 emphasizing its benefits, particularly stressing that it would  
20 enable more Muslims to perform pilgrimages. A government employee  
21 stated that "we kept telling employees that their work and support  
22 for the project would be rewarded in the hereafter as they would  
23 be supporting Muslims to perform their religious obligation, and  
24 a lot of them resonated with this idea." To corroborate this point,  
25 during a regular visit to the Medina Airport during the pilgrimage  
26 season, the Prince of Medina was cited as saying to immigration  
27 officers: "you are gaining considerable reward from God by serving  
28 pilgrims in a good manner" (News24, 2018). The religious symbolism  
29 was not only persuasive and accorded with the vocabularies of  
30 motive of pious Muslims but also offered the comfort that they  
31 were working not just for the airport but for the praise of Allah.  
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36 A special committee was formed to listen and respond to  
37 employees' concerns, compensating those that wished to leave the  
38 organization and preparing those that had decided to stay for their  
39 new roles. The key factor ending the employees' resistance and  
40 facilitating their transfer to the private operator was that they  
41 would only transfer on a secondment basis for three years as  
42 government employees. During this period, they would either adjust  
43 to the new work environment or have ample time to find new jobs at  
44 other government entities. Workers would remain government  
45 employees with all of the accompanying benefits and job security,  
46 but at the end of the three years period they would need to decide  
47 whether to sign a new contract as private employees or resign. In  
48 addition to boosting morale, monetary incentives were also  
49 offered. Employee salaries were increased by 20%, housing  
50 allowances, health insurance and other benefits that had not  
51 existed within the old system were offered. Education and training  
52 of employees in the new organizational structures and practices  
53 were essential for their integration into the changing  
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3 organizational identity and culture. One private-sector  
4 interviewee noted that "a total of 630 training days were offered  
5 both on-site in Medina and in Istanbul" where TAV, the consortia,  
6 had its headquarters. These training programs, aimed at both the  
7 technical and psychological readiness of employees, were aimed  
8 effectively to enhance preparation for the new roles and  
9 responsibilities.  
10

11  
12 After initiating a program for building employees' skills and  
13 motivation to accept change, the institutional work of GACA and  
14 its partners shifted toward the progressive introduction of new  
15 structures and systems that would prepare the airport for a new  
16 managerial style. Key structural changes included the introduction  
17 of both mechanical tools and human resource management techniques.  
18 The establishment of new operational and organizational structures  
19 meant the birth of a new airport with new international standards  
20 and notably higher performance. The change was drastic, affecting  
21 everything about the way the airport had been run under the old  
22 administration, ranging from the quality of ground and passenger  
23 services to the equipment adopted to maintain and service aircraft.  
24 The introduction of these new techniques was gradual, with on-site  
25 training being offered to ensure that the same employees could  
26 operate new systems.  
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31 New human resource practices were introduced, as well as  
32 strict KPIs that employees needed to achieve. To guarantee the  
33 efficiency of the workforce, private-sector's business acumen and  
34 dynamism were injected into the airport's management style  
35 resulting in a novel break from the past. New practices were  
36 introduced regarding attendance, promotion and contract renewal,  
37 which were now determined by performance and output. These  
38 mechanisms enforced the private sector practices of conforming to  
39 rigid achievement criteria and reaching specific outcomes and  
40 targets.  
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44 Nonetheless, not all employees were prepared to embrace  
45 change nor invest the effort to support the Muslim community's  
46 pursuit of pilgrimage. Only 53% of employees transferred to the  
47 private company operating the airport when the 3 years secondment  
48 ended in 2015 (Sabaq, 2015). The remaining employees either  
49 transferred to other airports or took another government job or  
50 remained under the umbrella of GACA and worked for another  
51 government entity (Sabaq, 2015). Furthermore, the private operator  
52 of the airport laid off 200 employees in May 2017, and provided a  
53 few of them the chance of renewing their contracts provided that  
54 they agreed on lower salaries and benefits (Al-Madinah, 2017). The  
55 government did not intervene in the dismissal of the employees as  
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3 the BTO agreement specified that the private sector could recruit  
4 and maintain only well-performing individuals, and only on this  
5 basis could the private operator maintain a positive return on  
6 investment in the long run by hiring more efficient employees.  
7

## 8 9 **Discussion and conclusions**

10  
11 The two central research questions guiding this study aimed to  
12 examine the types of institutional work that individual actors  
13 performed to gain the power to initiate new forms of project  
14 delivery and how the resultant modes of power were employed to  
15 relax the controlling mechanisms of past institutional structures.  
16 By connecting the PPP literature with recent developments in neo-  
17 institutional theory, this research makes the following three  
18 contributions.  
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21 The first contribution is that it broadens the scope of the  
22 *means* through which individual actors aim to "achieve particular  
23 institutional objectives" (Hampel *et al.*, 2017, p. 570). It is  
24 evident from the list of 15 types of institutional work developed  
25 by Phillips and Lawrence (2012) that scant attention has been paid  
26 to how religious beliefs shape or fuel the institutional work  
27 carried out to change organizations or institutions (See also  
28 Tracey *et al.*, 2014). Such lack of attention to the role of  
29 religion in shaping institutions is surprising, as religion plays  
30 a key role in institutional ordering at the societal level in the  
31 majority of societies, particularly those that adhere to Islamic  
32 doctrines. In an absolutist and Wahabi state such as Saudi Arabia,  
33 there is no greater political support than the duty to Allah and  
34 to the Sovereign. The paper extends the institutional work debate  
35 by proposing *religious symbolic work*, which denotes how actors  
36 purposefully employ shared religious beliefs to influence the  
37 decision-making of powerful actors who can enable and empower the  
38 implementation of new forms of project organizing.  
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43 As the case analysis reveals, the fundamental mechanism that  
44 the actors proposing the PPP model used to instigate interest in  
45 the project was by emphasizing its *religiosity*. The work to  
46 convince high-ranking officials to support the project was  
47 welcomed because there was a socially and culturally embedded  
48 common understanding among all actors that they were supporting a  
49 *religious cause*, rather than a standard construction project. In  
50 order to gain access to political power and overcome the structural  
51 barriers blocking the PPP model, actors touting the PPP model  
52 devised strategies by which they associated their work with several  
53 religious symbols. Unlike several infrastructure projects in the  
54 country which were initially proposed as PPPs but never received  
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3 the necessary high-level political backing, emphasizing the  
4 project's religious significance made it an exception and  
5 convinced all political actors involved in the decision-making  
6 that the PPP was the right method. Bathed in the ethos of this  
7 religious motive for social integration, the project was approved  
8 in the ministerial council meetings and then received a Royal Order  
9 which portrayed the project as a national high-priority.  
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12 The interplay and tight connection of social and system  
13 integration through the symbolic capital of religious and  
14 royal/political interconnectedness are not documented in  
15 organizational studies in the western context. The demarcation  
16 between church and state and the boundaries between politics and  
17 administration are, in most cases, well-established in these  
18 countries. The Muslim world is different, a difference that has a  
19 significant effect on managing and organization, as this study  
20 demonstrates, even when the forms of organization that are being  
21 implemented have developed in a western context, as did PPP. In  
22 the absence of clearly defined institutional fields of church,  
23 state, business and civil society, it is necessary to broaden the  
24 conceptualization of the power of systemic integration. It is  
25 important to shift theorization of power from organizations into  
26 broader environments in which heads of state and political actors  
27 play significant roles, and all are underpinned as manifestations  
28 of power by religious beliefs that make social integration cohere  
29 quite overtly, as the case in Saudi Arabia.  
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34 In a similar vein, this paper offers new insights into project  
35 management research. The findings of this paper advance such  
36 research by revealing that religious symbolic work can be a  
37 powerful mechanism to drive megaprojects. The appealing factors in  
38 the project were not just its economic value and potential to  
39 create new jobs and expand the tourism industry of the city but  
40 also its role as an *enabler* that would allow millions of extra  
41 pilgrims to fulfill their religious obligations each year. The  
42 political elite's intimate involvement in the project reflects the  
43 intricate links between religious beliefs and how they affect the  
44 cognitive realities of political actors, encouraging them to  
45 support project forms that did not fit existing institutional  
46 structures. The political actors supporting this project, such as  
47 the King, fulfilled not only their obligation to facilitate the  
48 journey of Muslims to the holy mosques, but also sponsored  
49 spiritual gratification and enjoyment.  
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53 Second, by analyzing how circuits of power facilitated the  
54 PPP project implementation process, the research expands the  
55 discussion regarding the bases and the inter-dependence among  
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3 several forms of power in organizational theory and project  
4 management. The discussion of power in organizational studies is  
5 predominantly concerned with how actors use power to shape the  
6 formulation of strategy. It is limited to how management exercises  
7 the power to implement new strategic objectives (McCabe, 2009),  
8 how power circulates through discourse to shape the creation of  
9 new strategies (Hardy and Thomas, 2014), and the roles of episodic  
10 and systemic powers in radical organizational change (Lawrence *et*  
11 *al.*, 2012). The power dynamics presented in this literature usually  
12 involve actors' private organizations embedded within market  
13 logics, revealing tactics used by actors in the upper levels of  
14 hierarchies to exercise episodic power and change certain aspects  
15 of the organizations.  
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19 However, despite the crucial role of power relations in  
20 megaprojects, Clegg and Kreiner (2013) have noted that power  
21 remains a rare subject in project management research. When power  
22 is discussed in this field, it is often depicted as a "dirty word"  
23 (Clegg *et al.*, 2017, p. 7), or a negative force that obstructs  
24 projects. This paper is situated among the few studies that discuss  
25 how power dynamics shape projects and demonstrate innovative ways  
26 in which power can be a positive force that drives the project  
27 implementation process forward. The findings are similar to those  
28 of Walker and Newcome (2000), who found that several individual  
29 actors built on their organizational power to successfully drive  
30 the development of the Hong Kong University of Science and  
31 Technology. They emphasized the power of external and internal  
32 coalitions such as the Jockey Club and the Planning Committee that  
33 collectively exercised organizational power to in order to push  
34 the project forward while the role of the government was passive.  
35 Similarly, Liu *et al.*, (2003) have argued that power in projects  
36 is represented in both interpersonal and organizational structural  
37 forms, and this is in line with our findings as well.  
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42 We developed a process model that depicts how the episodic  
43 and systemic forms of power operated in a manner illustrating the  
44 effects of each mode of power. As demonstrated in Figure 2, the  
45 religiosity of Medina and airport project was emphasized to build  
46 and develop actors' sources of power. Because these actors were  
47 attempting to convince elite political actors to legitimize the  
48 PPP model, their exercise of episodic power sought successfully to  
49 activate political interest and support for the PPP, manifested in  
50 two forms. The first was the empowerment of the PPP project through  
51 several ministerial decrees and a Royal Order that forced the  
52 implementation of the project, regardless of its severe  
53 repercussions on several organizational and individual actors,  
54 including private actors, the bureaucracy and the airport  
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3 employees. It was not a process that had institutional legitimacy  
4 in the Saudi context, but religiosity seemed to overpower any other  
5 social considerations.  
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8 ---- Figure 2 about here----  
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10 By extending the empirical context to an absolutist state in  
11 which political power is top-down, this study addressed the call  
12 for research to demonstrate how power shapes organizational change  
13 (Lawrence *et al.*, 2001; Lawrence, 2008). The use of social  
14 integration was critical in this case, since none of the actors  
15 affected would have voluntarily accepted the private sector logic,  
16 nor supported the institutional work required to implement the  
17 project in a non-traditional manner. The force of the religious  
18 ethic behind social integration disempowered resistant agency  
19 associated with the project, restricted their options, obliging  
20 acceptance of a new organizational reality that people were  
21 unaccustomed to. The project had unlimited authority and  
22 capacities bestowed on it by the congruence of social and system  
23 integration, despite being radical and creative destruction of  
24 conventional ways of doing things in the Saudi bureaucracy, the  
25 destruction that led to the necessity for repair work. Systemic  
26 power is typically seen as embedded within social, cultural,  
27 bureaucratic and technological forms (Clegg, 1989; Lawrence *et*  
28 *al.*, 2001). In this research, systemic power is premised not only  
29 on the system integration, but also the social integration  
30 encompassing the symbolic interconnectedness of religious with  
31 royal, political and administrative bases. In this empirical  
32 context, the motivation to achieve religious gratification by  
33 supporting Muslims in their pilgrimage is due to the impact of  
34 religion as a power for social integration that is invisible in  
35 its causal workings but deeply affects decision-making processes.  
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41 Third and finally, by extending Lawrence and Suddaby's (2006)  
42 typology of institutional work to a PPP project located in an  
43 adverse institutional environment, this article made an analytical  
44 shift from the macro and meso levels to the micro-level. Doing so  
45 allowed the research to capture the invisible efforts of individual  
46 actors which are currently overlooked in the PPP and project  
47 management disciplines, as well as how a stable equilibrium between  
48 agency and structure was achieved. While previous research has  
49 adopted a top-down approach and shown that PPP-enabling  
50 organizational fields are critical drivers of PPP implementation  
51 (Jooste and Scott, 2012b; Verhoest *et al.*, 2015; van den Hurk and  
52 Verhoest, 2015; Mahalingam and Delhi, 2012; Matos-Castaño *et al.*,  
53 2014), this research adopted a bottom-up approach that uncovered  
54 institutional workers' strategic use of power to create a  
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triumphant story of drastic organizational change. Undermining the forces of structure required the “knowledgeable, creative and practical work” of actors who disrupted the operational model of public organization by acquiring and utilizing several forms of power (Lawrence and Suddaby, 2006, p. 219). In the present case study, we showed that the actors leading this change effort understood the influence of political and religious powers and how to mobilize the social integrational power of religious symbolism to force a change that was radical for its context.

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## Tables and Figures

Figure 1: Data structure

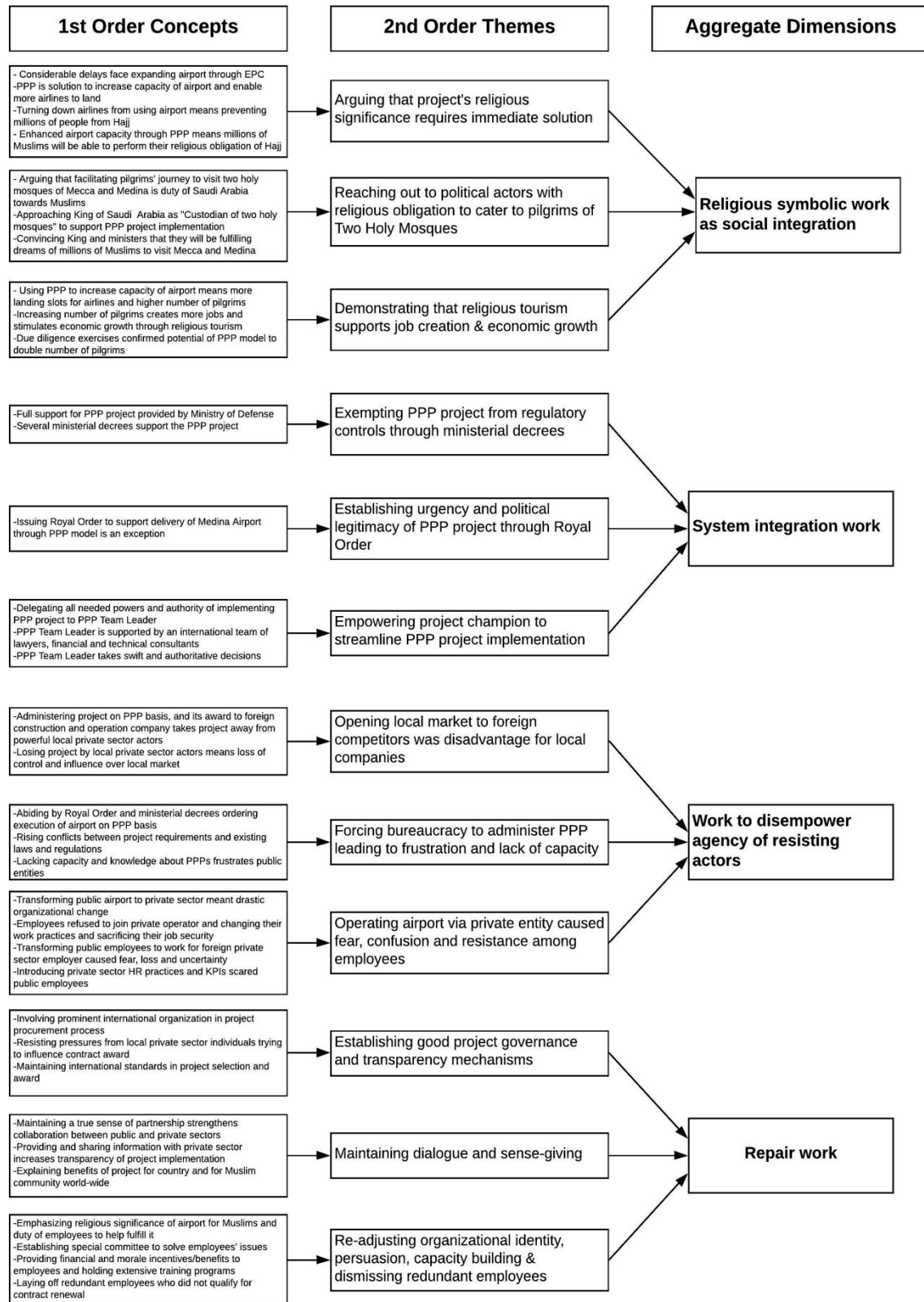


Table 1: Forms of power and their impact on implementation of PPP project.

Forms of power	Modes in which power operated	Effects of power on routinized ways of project delivery
<b>King's order</b>	System and social integration	-Provided political legitimacy and urgency of delivering project through PPP. -Enforced responsiveness and adherence of all concerned actors and organizations in project implementation.
<b>Decree from Supreme Economic Council</b>	System integration	Exempted PPP project from regulatory controls of GPTL and allowed use of BTO agreement instead.
<b>Decree from Council of Ministers</b>	System integration	Removed bureaucratic and administrative barriers blocking PPP project by issuing decree that required all concerned entities to issue exceptions to normalized ways of working.
<b>Financial guarantees from Ministry of Finance</b>	System integration	Made project bankable and increased trust of lenders and investors in project.
<b>Support from Ministry of Defense</b>	System integration /episodic	Represented royal influence and power of Minister of Defense and provided letters of support whenever needed.
<b>Administrative Ruler of Medina</b>	System integration/ episodic	Issued orders to facilitate administrative work required for project implementation.
<b>Executive powers of Steering Committee</b>	System integration/ episodic	-Oversaw day-to-day requirements of project by holding weekly meetings and fully supporting work of project champion. -Removed regulatory and bureaucratic obstacles facing project by issuing exceptions to them.
<b>GACA's president</b>	Episodic	-Streamlined internal decision-making processes. -Endorsed private sector's requests to government entities.
<b>Professional power of project champion</b>	Episodic	-Decentralized bureaucratic pressures, with power to act autonomously meaning effective and instant decision-making processes. -Led entire project implementation process.

Table 2: Effects of system integration and repair work on individual and organizational actors

	Impact of system integration on actors and organizations	New PPP project requirements which changed routine ways of operating	Repair work to alleviate impact of system integration and implement project
<b>Local private sector actors</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Local private construction companies lost project to international firm.</li> <li>-Local private actors' capacity to influence project award decision was eliminated.</li> <li>-Operation of project was handed over to international firm.</li> <li>-It was stipulated that project would be awarded only to actors with technical capacity to administer projects' requirements.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Sophisticated expertise in constructing and operating complex airport projects.</li> <li>- High levels of efficiency in operating airport over 25-year period.</li> <li>- High levels of transparency in bidding for project.</li> </ul>	<p><b>Establishing good project governance mechanisms:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Involving IFC during all stages of tendering, bidding, and awarding project, which provided strong governance and transparency-related mechanisms.</li> <li>-Selecting only private actors with proven capacity to expand and operate airport efficiently.</li> </ul>
<b>Bureaucratic and administrative actors</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-All government departments were unfamiliar with concept of PPP.</li> <li>-New form of project organizing required different contractual and administrative measures that Saudi bureaucracy did not have capacity to administer.</li> <li>-Government departments could not make decisions that were not aligned with existing legal and regulatory frameworks.</li> <li>-Handing airport to private operator that would decide "rules of the game" led to frustration among government entities.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Familiarity with PPP concept and implementation process.</li> <li>-Capacity to administer legal and regulatory requirements for drafting PPP contract.</li> <li>-Handover of project to private sector.</li> <li>-Understanding of requirements of successful partnership with private sector.</li> </ul>	<p><b>Sensegiving:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Explaining importance of project for Muslims all over the world, and for local economy.</li> <li>-Explaining that only this project would be implemented as PPP, and no changes were required for entire project implementation process.</li> <li>-Making public sector entities part of project implementation process.</li> </ul> <p><b>Capacity building:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Helping government entities to administer PPP contracts with assistance of international consultants.</li> </ul>
<b>Employees and management at airport</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Transforming airport from public entity into private operator meant government employees had to resign as government employees and transfer as private employees.</li> <li>-Drastic changes in administration and operation of airport caused fear, confusion, loss, and resistance among employees who refused to join new operator.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Change of organizational identity and culture from public to private.</li> <li>-Signing of new contract and abidance by new rules and regulations working for private sector company.</li> <li>-Saudi employees having to work under project company owned by foreign businesses and 'bosses'</li> <li>-New sets of technical and administrative skills and higher</li> </ul>	<p><b>Identity work:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Adjusting government employees' organizational identity from public to private.</li> </ul> <p><b>Sensegiving:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Explaining to employees benefits of change for individual employees' careers and country.</li> <li>-Explaining importance of PPP model for increasing number of Muslims performing pilgrimages and for economy.</li> </ul> <p><b>Persuasion:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Increasing salaries and introducing new benefits for employees agreeing to shift to private employer.</li> </ul>

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expectations of performance, discipline, and attendance.  
 -Loss of job security and working under three-year renewable contracts.  
 -Longer working hours and fewer holidays.  
 -Salary increases and promotions following strict measures that upset all employees.

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-Reminding employees of religious gratification resulting from serving pilgrims going to holy mosques of Mecca and Medina.  
**Capacity building:**  
 -Providing training to employees on new organizational practices and equipment.  
**Dismissing redundant employees:**  
 -Laying off unproductive employees

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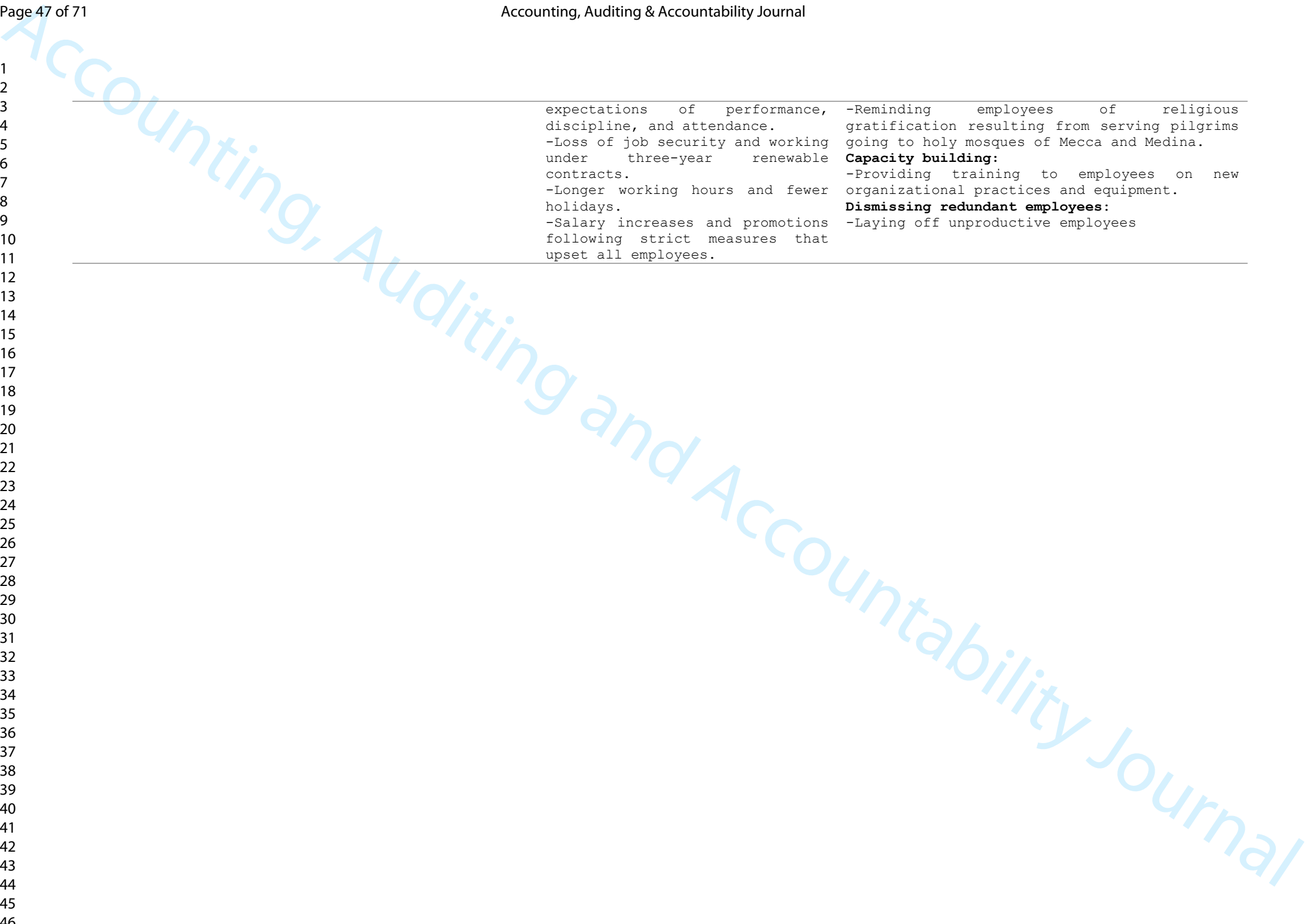


Figure 2: Process model displaying institutional work and power dynamics involved in PPP project implementation

