https://damaacademia.com/dasj April 2020 Pages: 26-36 Volume 5 | Issue 4

The Influences on Ghanaian Government Project Failure

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Abstract

This research is restricted to Ghanaian government projects and therefore there is the need to discuss government project failure. This will help the researcher to appreciate government project failure across the world and how this sits in this study. It is on record that developed economies all over the world have had major infrastructural development, which means massive projects have occurred at some point in time in their development history. In fact, "project-based work has become a critical component of global industrial activity" and as such projects are inevitable in development. The post-World War II period saw high levels of economic growth, mainly in the Western world. This growth, which has been variously named as post-World War II economic expansion, post-war economic boom, the long boom, Golden Age. The shift away from agricultural development strategy pre-World War II to science development through Research and Development (R&D) post-World War II up to date that has made the United States of America a global superpower was administered through various projects. Clear examples include government-funded research projects instituted in universities - for postgraduate students to conduct research to enhance economic and defense development, for example, the Manhattan Project, which was specifically aimed at nuclear weapons.

Keywords: Ghanaian Government Project Failure, Abandonment Projects, Project Failure, Project

1.0 INTRODUCTION

More recent growth witnessed in certain countries, especially in emerging economies, indicates that government or public projects are indispensable. The introduction of an eGovernment system to facilitate government transactions is a typical example of how important these projects can be – it helps government(s) to use technology, especially web-based applications, to enhance access to and efficiently deliver government information and services (Brown & Brudney, 2001;UN & ASP, 2002; Kumar & Best, 2006), to establish relationships between governments and its citizens, other governments, and businesses (Means & Schneider, 2000), to use ICT facilities such as the internet and the web, in the form of databases, networking, discussion support, multimedia, automation, tracking and tracing, and personal identification technologies (Jaeger, 2003; Luk, 2009), and to facilitate communication during the implementation of strategic national developments (Gichoya, 2005). Even the privatised and capitalist economic growth witnessed by many countries was initiated and regulated by various governments through projects (see Eichengreen, 1994).

This indicates that governments over the world play a key role in the delivery of public projects. One may be tempted to argue that no country will be able to develop without engaging in public projects. These projects are normally funded by the government in the form of tax-payers' money, multilateral companies (e.g. Toor & Ogunlana, 2010), NGOs, and public-private partnerships (e.g. Abednego & Ogunlana, 2006; Ruuskaa & Teigland, 2009), World Bank (Fabian & Amir, 2011). The focus is often geared towards enhancing the life of the general populace in the form of 'physical' or 'soft' benefits (Ahsan & Gunawan, 2010; Hermano et al., 2013). However, some of these projects have witnessed failure of some sort, and this failure is becoming more common and part and parcel of every government of late; ranging from the developed world to the developing world (e.g. Espiner, 2007; Kobie, 2009; Savolianen et al., 2012). In fact, in some projects, such as ID projects, failure has become a rule rather than an exception (Ika et al., 2012; Hermano et al., 2013). In the case of IT projects, even 'successful' projects run well over budget and behind schedule (Pinto, 2013).

One report shows that, even in a developed country like the UK, seven out of 10governments IT projects fail (Espiner, 2007). The chief information officer of the Department for Work and Pensions (DWP), Mr Harley, noted that only 30 per cent of government IT projects and programs are successful (Espiner, 2007). The abandoned UK ID card project is a typical indication of the extent to which projects have been failing in the government sector (Kobie, 2009). The Royal Academy of Engineering and British Computer

https://damaacademia.com/dasj April 2020 Pages: 26-36 Volume 5 | Issue 4

Society (2004) found that 84% of public sector projects ended up in some sort of failure. After three years of implementation of a benefit scheme that involved the Department of Social Security, the computer company ICL, and the British Post Office, it was abandoned at the cost of £300 million (The Economist, 2002). A New Zealand government study concluded that 59% of its projects had problems and 3%were considered to be total failures (SIMPL/NZIER, 2000). One-eighth of New Zealand's yearly budget, in the region of $N100M, was spent on the police's IS development project, which was abandoned in 1999. The question is why do these projects fail?

In this research, government projects, otherwise known as public projects, are defined as any projects that are undertaken or initiated by the government of a country, be it at the national level or local level. As pointed out in chapter one, there are numerous reported cases of the Ghanaian government's projects failing and, because this study is centred on this topic, the next sub-section discusses in detail the state of project failure in such projects. This will provide the platform by which to understand and appreciate the state of the problem being investigated.

2.0 GHANAIAN GOVERNMENT PROJECT FAILURE

As stated in an in chapter one, projects failure rate in Ghanaian government projects is very high. One notable area of this failure is in the housing sector. Studies and statistics show that there are insufficient houses for Ghanaian citizens and as such most of these citizens 'sleep rough' in kiosks, tents, containers, shops, offices, etc. (homeless people) (Boamah, 2010). The houses that are available are mostly owned by private individuals and housing-estate companies, and they are unaffordable for ordinary Ghanaians (GSS, 2002; Boamah, 2010). Estimates show that Ghana's housing deficit is over 1m houses (HFC Bank, 2002; GSS, 2005b; Mahama & Antwi, 2006; Imani, 2009; Boamah, 2010). Due to the magnitude of the housing problem, various government regimes have attempted to address the problem. For instance, the NPP administration, which held office between 2000 and 2008, proposed 'affordable housing units' to solve the housing deficit problem in the country (Klutse, 2009). The main purpose of this project was to help those poor people living in a very deplorable settlement, make the capital city and other major cities attractive (Amponsah, 2010), and also to create employment, especially for women (Klutse, 2009). However, the project was abandoned soon after it started (Klutse, 2009).

In an attempt by the current government (NDC) to address this housing problem, a similar project was proposed and started but this time with a slight focus in terms of the target beneficiaries. Whilst the previous government had focused solely on the general populace, the new government focused on the security personnel. The project was estimated to cost US$10 billion (Imani, 2010). The target was to build 300,000 houses over five years, starting with 200,000; 30,000 of the initial 200,000 were to be built for security personnel in the country (Citifmonline, 2012). Formal approval was given on 23rd of July, 2010, and announced in parliament. The project was to form a partnership between Ghana and a South Korean company (STX Korea). The Korean company was supposed to provide the funding needed to carry out the project. However, the project had to be abandoned after parliament had approved it, lands had been given out to developers, and a sod had been cut by the president, Evans Atta Mills, on 27th January, 2011 (Daily Guide, 2012). On 11thApril, 2012, the Minister of Employment and Social Welfare, E.T. Mensah, announced that the government had to re-possess all 15 sites that had been handed over to STX Korea (Ghanaweb, 2012). A 2012 report from the Ghana News Agency (GNA) indicated that the government and its sector ministry (the Ministry of Water Resources, Works and Housing) were making efforts to reactivate the abandoned housing project (GNA, 2012); however, there is no report that shows this has actually happened.

In education, project failure is not different. Despite the improvements in education after the colonial era as a result of World Bank and IMF-supported projects (see World Bank, 2004 for example); the sector has witnessed project failure in educational reforms over the years. Many educational reform projects have attempted to solve the educational problems since the first Republic of Ghana in 1961 (Nyarko, 2011). These include: Kwapong 1974 and Dzobo 1972/1987 educational reforms. Despite the huge sums of money being spent on these projects, the sector continues to suffer from many setbacks. It has been rightly criticised by commentators and academia for not doing enough to solve the educational problem (Nyarko, 2011). Results from the 2011 Basic Education Certificate Examinations (BECE) showed that 50% of students had failed (Nyarko, 2011), implying that these reforms have not been able to solve the

https://damaacademia.com/dasj April 2020 Pages: 26-36 Volume 5 | Issue 4

problem they were intended to solve. It can therefore be argued that these projects are not achieving their targets, as Atkinson (1999) postulates in his square root project success/failure framework.

A more recent failed project is the abandonment of the four-year SHS education system project. In 2002, a committee of 29 members headed by the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Education – Winneba (UNEW), Professor Jophus Anamuah-Mensah, were mandated to review the education system (Ghanaweb, 2015). The report led to the four-year SHS project which was implemented in 2007.At this time, the Ghanaian government, under the administration of NPP, then commenced the educational reform project to change the Senior Secondary Schools to Senior High Schools, with the main change being the study duration time. The purpose was to extend the three-year duration to four years (Daily Graphic, 2008). In 2009, after one and half years of operation, it was formally announced that the project would be abandoned from the 2010/11 academic year.

Another high-profile project worth discussing is the National Identification System (NIS) project. This was a project to issue ID cards for all nationals and foreign nationals residing in Ghana. It was set up in 2008 under the National Identification Authority (NIA). The ID card project has proven to be a failure as it has failed to fulfil its objective. First of all, the fundamental purpose of the card being used as a national ID card remained unfulfilled. A 2011 report indicated that issuing of the ID cards had stopped and the very few that had been issued were not accepted as proof of ID in banks (NIA, 2011). The most discouraging part of this was the fact that the Electoral Commission; which is a government institution, had registered and issued new voter ID cards for the December 2012 general election. This registration and issuing of new biometric voter ID cards for the December 2012 election was a clear indication of the failure of the National ID project (see Abissath, 2012). Thus, this national ID card was meant to serve also as a voter' ID card and therefore issuing of different voter ID card implies that, the project has failed.

Another notable project that has witnessed failure is the Ghana @50 projects. In 2007, Ghana celebrated its 50th Anniversary of Independence from colonial rule. To commemorate the occasion and to provide along-lasting legacy, the anniversary, among other objectives, earmarked various projects, which included the building of Jubilee Parks in all 10 regional capitals, construction of toilets in all local communities, and the building of 140 Golden Jubilee Kindergartens throughout the country (Daily Guide, 2011; Central Newspaper, 2012). However, reports indicate that most of these projects have either been abandoned or are not meeting the required standard and purpose of their usage. One clear example is the total abandonment of the Ghana @50 toilets (Daily Guide, 2011; Central Newspaper, 2012) and the Jubilee parks (Daily Guide, 2011). With regard to the toilet project, not even a single one of them is in use, and they have been left in the bushes and under the usage of squatters and 'area boys' (gangsters) (Daily Guide, 2011). The question is: what accounts for all these failures? The next section therefore discusses the various reasons that have been cited for project failure in the past. This will serve as a guide to the findings and recommendations of this study.

3.0 CAUSES OF PROJECT FAILURE

Causes of project failure has been one of the most discussed and talked about topic in recent years by the academia, practising managers, governments, and social commentators all over the world, and as a result there is a body of extant literature devoted to this discussion. A number of studies conducted by these writers indicate that there are a number of causes of project failure all over the world. For instance, Frimpong et al. (2003) and Long et al. (2004) identified 26 and 64 causes of project failure respectively.

Projects are unique due to the fundamental differences that exist across them, and no project is similar to another (Soderlund, 2004; Mir & Pinnington, 2014). Due to this, the causes are often unique to certain industries and the systems in the countries where they are carried out (Amid et al., 2012), geographical location (Ahsan & Gunawan, 2010), and socio-cultural settings (Mukabeta et al., 2008). However, research indicates that there are common causes that run through the project management literature. These include: expertise or knowledge (Ruuska & Teigland, 2009), funding (Fabian & Amir, 2011), planning (Pourrastam & Ismail, 2011), resources (Ruuska & Teigland, 2009), communication (Ochieg & Price, 2010), scope change (Kaliba et al., 2009), and socio-cultural factors (Maube et al., 2008). The next sub-section discusses these common causes in detail.

https://damaacademia.com/dasj April 2020 Pages: 26-36 Volume 5 | Issue 4

3.1 Communication

Studies over the years have proved that effective communication is vital in the project environment – it helps to avoid duplication of information, and also provides all the necessary parties involved in the project with relevant, timely information for effective and efficient delivery of the project (Souder et al., 1997; Ernst, 2002; Chan et al., 2004; Cooper et al., 2004; Thamhain, 2004; Close, 2006; Raymond & Bergeron, 2008; Weijermars, 2009; Wong et al., 2009; Wi & Jung, 2010). Therefore, failure to communicate effectively prior to and during project implementation is a recipe for disaster.

In the words of Ochieg and Price, internal and external communication is the invisible glue that holds dislocated multicultural project team together (Ochieg & Price, 2010). Therefore, if there is miscommunication, projects are bound to fail (Frese & Sauter, 2003). Frese and Sauter (2003) attribute project failure to four issues: lack of efficient internal communication links, lack of efficient external communication links, lack of responsive decision-making and lack of effective teamwork. The first two reasons are directly linked to communication and the last two are indirectly linked to communication. Thus, the first two involves internal and external communication among various stakeholders of a project whilst the latter two cannot take place without communication. Lack of responsive decision-making and lack of effective teamwork are indirectly associated with communication. There is normally lack of response to decisions if the management involved fails to communicate with their subordinates or superiors appropriately, whilst lack of teamwork normally occurs when team members fail to take part in decision-making or fail to communicate whatever goes on in the team or in the project. Communication is seen as a panacea to project success and lack of it is a recipe for disaster. Lack of good communication can easily turn a corporate strategy or an Information System (IS) project into a modern day Tower of Babel (Frese & Sauter, 2003). This implies that there will be a state of confusion among project team members and other key stakeholders associated with the project and, if this happens, the project is bound to fail.

During the implementation of project(s), there can be schedule, cost and performance alteration, hence, new data on the project, but this alteration mean nothing if the right communication is not carried out among the stakeholders who matter (Bourne, 2009). Bourne (2009) argues that the challenge faced by schedulers and controllers in a project team is communication and not control.

The findings of Ochieg and Price (2010) are a confirmation of Bourne's assertions – in that effective communication in a cross-cultural team in a multicultural project is the prelude to project success. The study, which interviewed 20 senior project managers in Kenya and the UK (10 in Kenya and 10 in the UK) about managing cross-cultural communication in a multicultural construction project team, shows that both Kenyan and UK participants agreed that effective communication on projects can be aided by early establishment of clear lines of responsibility and processes to resolve the project team members' disputes or issues. This early establishment of a clear line of responsibility can only happen through an appropriate communication channel and, if this does not happen at the right time, projects are bound to fail. The findings show that effective communication is the key to manage project expectations, misconceptions, and misgivings on multicultural projects teams. For example, good communication strategies are primary in establishing, cultivating and maintaining strong working relationships on heavy construction engineering projects (Ochieg & Price, 2010). This implies that, without communication, disputes and misconception cannot be resolved, thereby leaving these problems to escalate, and this eventually causes projects to fail.

One may question the study's generalisability due to the small sample size; however, the experience of the interviewees (each had at least 10 years of experience in the field being studied) makes the findings more reliable.

Lack of communication in some circumstances could lead to conflict in a project's management. This is manifested in the study of conflict among project partners by Ruuska and Teigland (2009). The study concluded that lack of communication leads to conflicts in projects and eventual project failure. In the study, it was found that almost all the other problems that lead to conflict in a project were rooted in a lack of communication. For instance, failure of the various partners of the project to communicate their goals to each other properly led to the management making a project plan without incorporating other members' goals into the plan. Secondly, the project had no charter because of this same problem. Thirdly,

https://damaacademia.com/dasj April 2020 Pages: 26-36 Volume 5 | Issue 4

the project manager failed to communicate clearly with various partners because he lacked broker skills. This shows that communication is a key issue if a project is to be successful

3.2 Planning

Planning is one of the key elements of every project and failure to plan clearly can cause a project to fail. This is one of the most common problems that bring about project failure. If project deliverable and how these would be achieved are not clearly outlined in the project planning phase, the project is likely to fail (Mochal, 2005; Pinto, 2013). In other words, projects that start without understanding the full content or the project baseline/constraints of what the project seeks to achieve are susceptible to failure. In fact, Pinto (2013) specifically traces the root cause of project failure to the poor initial planning phase of projects.

Research shows that ineffective planning accounts for most project failure. For instance, in construction projects in Nigeria, studies indicate that planning and scheduling account for delays (Odeyinka & Yusif, 1997). A similar study identified this same problem in the Iranian construction industry (Pourrastam & Ismail, 2011). With regard to large construction projects, the same reason was found to account for project delays (Assaf & AL-Hejji, 2006). A survey study into causes of delay in construction projects from contractors and consultants' point of view also indicates that improper planning accounts for delays (Odeh & Battaineh, 2002).

3.3 Socio- cultural factors

Research on cross-cultural management indicates that Western management concepts, models and practices are incompatible with other cultural and social settings (Blunt, 1980; Hofstede, 1983; Hogberg & Adamsson, 1983; Adler, 1983; Blunt & Jones 1997; Dia Mamadou, 1991; Lubatkin et al., 1999; Muriithi & Crawford, 2003). This indicates that management concepts do not have cross-cultural validity (Muriithi & Crawford, 2003) and as such adopting management practices that are not country-specific can contribute to project failure. The work of Hofstede (1983) on the mental programming of people from 53 geographical areas shows that cultural differences affect the approach needed for successful project management in these countries.

In relation to project management, this is not different. Studies on project failure in developing countries show that the fundamental reason often cited for project failure is culture (Heeks, 2002; Saad et al., 2002; Muriithi & Crawford, 2003; Alsakini et al., 2004; Maube et al., 2008; Amid et al., 2012). In other words, the political institutions, legality, identity, and economic policies of different countries could be the same, but there are informal values, attitudes and behaviours which are intrinsic in citizens that differ from one country to another and these informal characteristics are formed based on shared cultural values (Hofstede, 1983). Typical examples of such cultural values include relationships being more important than task, one's extended family offering protection in exchange for loyalty, learning being considered as a one-time process only, emphasis being on tradition, material success and progress are considered dominant values in society (Hofstede, 1991).

The importance of socio-cultural differences across national borders in the execution of projects cannot therefore be overlooked. For instance, studies have shown that political, sociological and psychological behaviours of citizens differ from country to country (Hofstede, 1983), and as such project management models and practices do not have cross-cultural validity (Muriithi & Crawford, 2003; Alsakini et al., 2004; Maube et al., 2008; Amid et al., 2012). These studies point out that the socio-cultural settings of a country influence project performance (Hogberg & Adamsson, 1983; Heeks, 2002; Saad et al., 2002; Muriithi & Crawford, 2003; Alsakini et al., 2004; Maube et al., 2008; Amid et al., 2012). Project failure in developing countries can be blamed on the context of the design and usage (design-actuality gap) (Heeks, 2002). That is, the design and usage are not compatible. This is revisited under causes of project failure in developing countries in sub-section 2.5.1 to throw more light on the subject matter.

3.4 Scope Change

This is one of the main areas that contribute to project failure. Most project research highlights that scope change is a major contributing factor for project failure (Kaliba et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2011). In most projects, requirements are either altered before the commencement of work or altered halfway

https://damaacademia.com/dasj April 2020 Pages: 26-36 Volume 5 | Issue 4

through the project's life cycle, but rarely are these changes effected by the completion date. This is more evident in IS project management (Ahonen & Savolianen, 2010).

From a more generic perspective, Zhang (2013, p.1) argues that "project changes have been conventionally treated as having heavy or negative impacts on project completion and, in theory, they should not happen if project activities have been perfectly planned and scheduled". In other words, changes in the scope of projects are bound to happen and if they happen, it has negative effects on the completion time – more especially in complex projects that involves multi-stage iterative process.

3.5 Resources

The term resource covers a very broad area and can be classified as tangible or intangible resources (Teigland & Lindqvist, 2007). These include but are not limited to financial, human, goodwill, reputation, expertise, and material resources (Teigland & Lindqvist, 2007). Studies show that many projects fail due to lack of or inadequate resources. This section discusses the most common resources often cited for failure.

Material Resources: These are the physical goods needed for the execution of a project and, without them, projects that require physical deliverables cannot be implemented. In most cases, there is lack of or inadequate physical resources. For example, in research into conflict in the Bygga Villa project, the study discovered that one major reason for conflict among project partners was the scarcity of resources, which contributed to the initial project failure (Ruuska & Teigland, 2009). The size of the partners (some partner were unable to provide resources due to their organisational size) and other projects competing for the same resources were the main issues. This lack of resources can create conflicts among various stakeholders associated with a project and this in turn leads to project failure (Ruuska & Teigland, 2009). This problem does not only include inadequate resources and personnel skills; buying the right material resources is also very important for a project's success (Krigsman, 2006). For instance, investigation into Airbus' A380 mega jet delay found that the former CEO, Christian Streiff, chose the wrong software, which was incompatible with the jet, and this resulted in failure (Krigsman, 2006).

Financial Resources: Financial difficulty is often cited as one of the main causes of project failure all over the world. Many projects have been abandoned in developing countries due to lack of or inadequate funding. The Chad-Cameroon pipeline project, which cost the World Bank US$4.2 billion, failed because the World Bank withdrew its financial backing (World Bank, 2006; Fabian & Amir, 2011). The project, which was one of the most expensive projects funded by the World Bank in Africa at the time, is a clear indication of how a project's success is dependent on sound financial backing. This same problem exists in the Malaysian construction industry (Sambasian & Soon, 2007). In Jordan, the problem is the same: financial difficulty faced by contractors is the most frequent and first cause of building construction project failure in the country (Sweis et al., 2008). Most experts believe that this is natural because contractors in Jordan are independent, small companies who underbid to win contracts, and they have limited access to credit facilities (Sweis et al., 2008). In construction projects in Nigeria, the situation is also the same. Studies of construction projects show that financial difficulty on the part of the client contributes to delays in delivering projects (Odeyinka & Yusif, 1997). In Iran, construction projects suffer from delays due to contractors' financial difficulties (Pourrastam & Ismail, 2011).

Human Resources: The research into the conflict in the Bygga Villa project discovered that one major reason for conflict among project partners was the scarcity of resources, which contributed to the initial project failure (Ruuska & Teigland, 2009). The size of the partners (some partner were unable to provide resources due their organisational size), other projects competing for the same human resources, and lack of academia (human resources) were the underlying factors for the scarcity of resources. For the latter reason, the project had to wait for certain researchers to defend their theses before work could continue. In some situations, contractors on some projects have to hire foreign nationals before the projects can be completed, and this comes with pros and cons. A clear example is the case of Malaysia. A study to find causes of construction project failure in Malaysia shows that inadequate workers and lack of skilled workers account for why construction projects were failing (Sambasian & Soon, 2007). A significant number of construction workers had to be hired from Indonesia to contribute to Malaysia's construction projects. The lack of skilled workers and the inadequacy of the ones available in the country meant that contractors had to rely on foreign workers and, although foreign workers have their

https://damaacademia.com/dasj April 2020 Pages: 26-36 Volume 5 | Issue 4

advantages, the problems that may be created due to different cultures and work ethics cannot be underestimated, as Hofstede (1983), Lubatkin et al. (1999), and Muriithi and Crawford (2003) have emphasised.

The need for the right people for the right job is very crucial in project management and as such the need for right people with appropriate skills to correctly execute projects is very crucial (Mochal, 2005; Lever, 2008). Research on project failure points out that the failure of many projects can be partly attributable to lack of skills. For example, a study conducted by Ruuska and Teigland (2009) into the Bygga Villa project indicates that the project leader lacked broker skills and this was causing conflicts among project partners, which thereby caused the project to fail. In order for the project to be successful, management had to replace the project manager with a more appropriate one. This is further echoed in the work of Hwang and Ng (2013, p.272), which argues that "a competent project manager is vital to project success". Thus, in order to manage projects professionally and successfully, the project manager has to possess the required knowledge and skills (Hwang & Ng, 2013). Statistically, according to Frank (2002) as cited by Hwang and Ng (2013), project managers have a 34-47% direct influence on project success, and therefore failure to recruit, train and nurture the right project manager for a project's management is a recipe for disaster.

Perkins (2006) attributes the root cause of project failure to 'Knowledge': either project managers do not have the requisite knowledge, or they do have it but fail to apply it appropriately. This theory employs 'The Project Failure Cause-Effect Diagram' to give further explanation. According to this theory, there are a number of issues that may cause projects/programmes to fail, but all these causes can be traced to a root or fundamental cause, and that is knowledge. In other words, if a project fails because of any particular reason, that reason can also boil down to the fact that project managers or senior management might not have the right skills or technical know- how to execute such a project, or they do have the right knowledge but have failed to use it appropriately. For instance, if a project has failed because of failure to manage risks during project implementation, this failure can be due to either the project manager not having the right skills or experience to deal with risk management, or s/he did have the skills but failed to apply the knowledge s/he has of risk management appropriately.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Firstly, if a project manager has all the knowledge necessary to undertake the project and knows how to apply this knowledge but the resources available to undertake the project are insufficient, will the project be successful? Reports on project failure due to lack of resources abound, more especially in developing countries or less developed countries where various sectors of the economy compete for the same scarce resources for development. For instance, financial difficulty has been cited as the main reason for delays in construction projects in Jordan (Sweis et al., 2008). The recent financial crisis that has seen the UK government and many European Union (EU) countries adopt austerity measures such as cuts to police budgets is a clear example of how knowledge alone cannot determine project success (see Metro, 2012, p.5).

Secondly, if a project manager has all the knowledge necessary to undertake the project and knows how to apply this knowledge and all the resources have been provided, and in the middle of the project there is some new government legislation or an external force such as a natural disaster (e.g. flooding, tsunami, hurricane), will the existing knowledge be enough to make the project successful? In other words, if any external forces such as Political, Economic, Socio-Cultural and Technological (PEST/PESTLIED) (Mulenburg, 2007) hit the project, would the knowledge be enough to protect the project from failure? Natural calamities such as floods and tsunamis have been partly blamed for causes of delays in International Development (ID) projects in some Asian countries such as China, India, Bangladesh, and Thailand in recent years (Ahsan & Gunawan, 2010). These examples indicate that associating the root cause of project failure only to knowledge is flawed. Although knowledge and skills are not panaceas for project success or failure it can be said that, without them, all the other resources used in the implementation of a project will not be enough to make the project a success.

Therefore, all the other resources need to be present before a project can be successful. It can be argued that, without resources, there cannot be a project, in that project activities do not operate in a vacuum. Lack of or inadequate resources can cause projects to fail. If the resources needed for the project

are not up to the required quantity or quality, irrespective of the skills of the management team, the project is bound to fail.

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