



Project Management as an Enabler for Efficiency Gains in Private Healthcare: The Brazilian Case

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Abstract:

This article explores the impact of leadership and Project Management on the Brazilian Private Healthcare system. It highlights the importance of transformational leadership in engaging, motivating, empowering, delegating, and influencing people to work together and achieve organizational goals. The study uses literature review analysis to investigate the relationship between project leadership and project success, aiming to bridge gaps in the current epistemology and provide insights into the relationship between leadership and project management.

Keywords: *Project Management, Health Care, Private health, Brazil.*

Introduction

This work is part of the doctoral thesis (Pan, 2022). The management of healthcare initiatives is intricate (Aubry et al., 2014). It extends beyond planning and overseeing the building or renovation of existing locations. In sum, it entails reassessing the administration of medical treatment. The issues include service process rearrangement, information technology, human competency development, and change management (Richer et al., 2013). Organizational project management refers to a modern area of management that involves using flexible organizational structures to achieve strategic goals via projects, aiming to maximize value (Aubry et al., 2007). Previously confined to construction, engineering, and information technology, project-based employment is increasingly expanding to include a wide range of industries (Morris, 2013), including the healthcare sector (Dwyer et al., 2004). According

to Chiochio et al. (2010), healthcare professionals primarily focus on projects related to enhancing organizational processes, such as reengineering interprofessional collaboration services, promoting organizational innovation and management, and implementing patient-centered approaches. The study was framed by observations in the literature that project leadership is a crucial success factor in determining project outcomes. These observations were investigated using the Leadership Practices Instrument (LPI) by Kouzes and Posner (2007) and the internal and external components of project success factors by Pinto & Slevin (1988b) and Shenhar et al. (2007).

A final possibility to address the projected increase in health spending is to generate efficiency gains and reduce wasteful spending within the health sector. Getting “more value for money” could soften the emerging spending



pressures by making sure the proper intervention is carried out in the right setting, by using the most cost-effective and evidence-based input mix to treat diseases, and by limiting the diversion of financial resources in the health system that are not used for promotion of health, prevention of conditions and the treatment of patients. (OECD, 2017).

Methodology

In this study, we followed Saunders et al. (2009), using a literature review method by modifying our procedures and adopting inductive and interpretative reasoning that aligns with the current epistemology of the themes under investigation.

The Perspective of Leadership

The term "leader" originates from Old English, specifically from the word "leader," which means "one who leads" or "the first and most prominent individual." It is derived from the verb "lædan," which signifies "to guide" or "to conduct." Additionally, it derived from the Old Frisian leader, Dutch leader, Old High German letter, and German Leiter. The desire to comprehend the factors contributing to a leader's success is not recent. Throughout the ages, there has been an ongoing discourse on the distinguishing characteristics that set leaders apart from non-leaders, as well as leaders from followers. The idea of management leadership has an extensive and well-researched history of study and authoring. Nahavandi (2003), Yukl (1989), Boal and Hooijberg (2001), and Lewis (2002), along with other scholars, have extensively studied the development of leadership models.

These models have evolved from the trait period and behavioral models to contingency theory and, more recently, have focused on transformational and servant leaders. This study aimed not to develop or even condense the extensive and ever-changing literature on leadership. The body of research and suggested theories on leadership specifically related to

project management is much less comprehensive. According to Urli and Urli (2001), a survey conducted between 1987 and 1996 found that fewer than 0.5% of all published project management studies examined leadership. This is particularly astonishing considering the regularity with which project manager leadership traits are included in compilations of critical success factors (CSF) for project success. Pinney (2002) proposed that the little attention given to researching project leadership in this field may be attributed to the perception that project management is still mostly seen as a conventional management field that emphasizes procedures and techniques rather than being approached from a social sciences perspective. Although there has been a lack of attention in the literature, recent years have seen an increase in examining project leadership (Vieira et al., 2021; Kloppenborg & Opfer, 2002). Several notable studies have examined the effects of specific leader attributes and behaviors on success. These studies include the works of Berg and Karlson (2007), Prabhakar (2005), Sutherland and McGreal (2005), Thamhain (2004), and Wellman (2007). Organizations are undergoing significant transformations due to the perpetual need for innovation, fierce global rivalry, economic constraints, and shifting demographics. Consequently, several conventional leadership responsibilities and positions are undergoing significant changes. Figure 1 shows control versus results oriented leadership framework.

Many behaviors have been identified in decades of research on leaders and managers (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2006). A difficult challenge for scholars has been to organize the many specific behaviors into a meaningful hierarchical taxonomy regarding the behavior's effects. A distinction between task-oriented and relationship-oriented behaviors was famous in early leadership literature (Blake and Mouton, 1982; Fleishman, 1953). Scholars have debated that change-oriented behavior was another meta-distinct category (Ekvall and Arvonen, 1991; Yukl et al., 2002). Each of the three types of leader behavior has a different primary purpose.

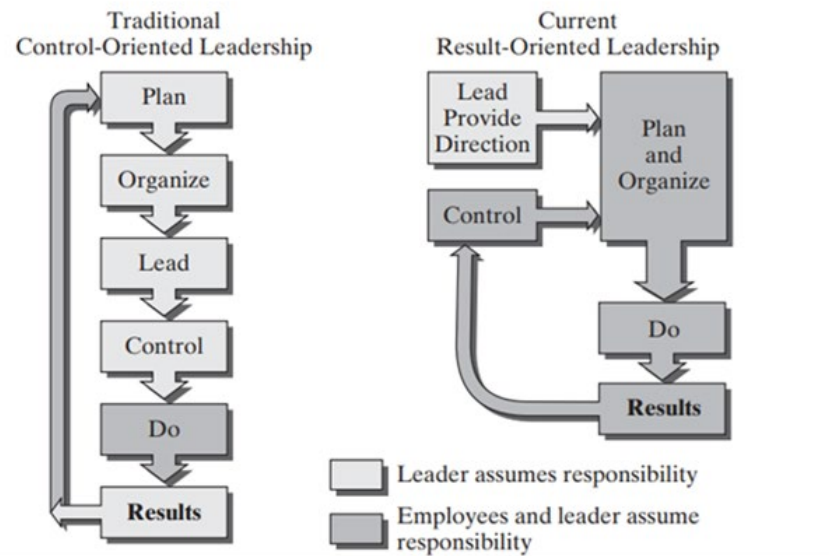


Figure 1. Control Versus Results-Oriented Leadership
 Source: Nahavandi, A. (2003).

Task-oriented behaviors are more helpful in improving efficiency, change-oriented behaviors are more practical in enhancing adaptation, and relationship-oriented behaviors are more helpful in strengthening human resources and relationships. All three general types of leadership behavior have implications for project management. Task-oriented behaviors include short-term planning and scheduling work activities, determining resources and personnel requirements, assigning tasks, clarifying objectives and priorities, emphasizing the importance of efficiency and reliability, directing and coordinating activities, monitoring operations, and dealing with daily tasks. Task-oriented behaviors improve productivity and reduce costs by eliminating unnecessary activities, duplication of effort, wasted resources, errors, and accidents. Extensive research using survey questionnaires, critical incidents, observation, and experiments shows that task-oriented behaviors can improve the performance of individual subordinates and small groups (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2006).

Relationship-oriented behaviors include showing support and favorable consideration, recognizing accomplishments and contributions,

coaching and mentoring, consulting people on decisions that will affect them, delegating and empowering subordinates, encouraging cooperation and teamwork, and building a network of information sources, inside and outside the organization. Research shows that leaders' relationship-oriented behaviors are linked to greater job satisfaction and lower turnover. (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2006). Relationship-oriented behaviors can reduce stress, build mutual trust and cooperation, increase collective identification with the team or organization, and facilitate the performance of individuals and groups (Bass, 1990; Zaccaro et al., 2001).

Change-oriented behaviors include monitoring the environment to identify threats and opportunities; interpreting events and explaining why a significant change is needed; articulating an inspiring vision; taking risks to promote change; building a coalition of supporters for a big difference; and determining how to implement a new initiative or significant change (Yukl, 2006). Studies on change-oriented aspects of transformational leadership, such as inspirational motivation (articulating the vision) and intellectual stimulation (encouraging innovative thinking), show that this type of

behavior can improve individual and team performance (Lowe et al., 1996).

The current epistemology on the subject converges that the determinants of creativity and innovation provide additional evidence for the relevance of change-oriented leadership (Mumford et al., 2002; Reiter-Palmon and Illies, 2004; Shalley and Gilson, 2004). Leaders can also leverage innovative adaptation by encouraging and facilitating collective learning, the diffusion of knowledge, and applying new ideas in the organization (James, 2002; Senge, 1990; Vera and Crossan, 2004).

Transformational Leadership

A transformational leader is a person who encourages and inspires (transforms) followers to achieve extraordinary results (Robbins and Coulter, 2007). The leader shows concern for individual follower development needs; they change followers' awareness of problems, helping them look at old problems in a new way; and they can arouse, excite and inspire followers to spread the word extra effort to achieve group goals. Transformational leadership theory is all about leadership that creates positive change in the followers whereby they take care of each other's interests and act in the group's interests (Warrilow, 2012). James Macgregor Burns introduced the concept of transformational leadership in 1978 in his descriptive research on political leaders. Still, its use has spread in organizational psychology and management with further modifications by B.M Bass and J.B Avalio (Jung & Sosik, 2002).

Through various mechanisms, transformational leadership increases followers' motivation, morale, and performance. This includes connecting the follower's sense of identity and self to the project and the collective identity of the organization; being a role model for followers that inspires them and makes them interested; challenging followers to take ownership of their work and understand the strengths and weaknesses of followers so that the leader can align followers with tasks that improve their acting.

Warrilow (2012) identified four components of transformational leadership style:

- i. Charisma or idealized influence: the degree to which the leader behaves in admirable ways, displays convictions, and takes stands that cause followers to identify with the leader who has a clear set of values and acts as a role model for the followers.
- ii. Inspirational motivation: the degree to which the leader articulates a vision that is appealing to and inspires the followers with optimism about future goals and offers meaning for the current tasks at hand.
- iii. Intellectual stimulation: the degree to which the leader challenges assumptions, stimulates, and encourages creativity in the followers - by providing a framework for followers to see how they connect [to the leader, the organization, each other, and the goal] they can creatively overcome any obstacles in the way of the mission.
- iv. Personal and individual attention: the degree to which each follower needs and acts as a mentor or coach and respects and appreciates the individual's fulfillment to the team. This fulfills and enhances each team member's need for self-fulfillment and self-worth and inspires followers to achieve further growth.

Yukl (1999) identified seven significant weaknesses of Transformational leadership, first is the ambiguity underlying its influences and processes. The theory fails to explain the interacting variables between transformational leadership and positive work outcomes. The idea would be more robust if the essential influence processes were identified more clearly and used to explain how each type of behavior affects every mediating variable and outcome. Secondly is the overemphasis of the theory on leadership processes at the dyadic level. The primary interest is to explain a leader's direct influence over individual followers, not the leader's influence on group or organizational processes. Examples of suitable group-level methods include: (i) how well the work is organized to utilize personnel and resources; (ii) how well inter-related group activities are coordinated; (iii)

the amount of member agreement about objectives and priorities; (iv) mutual trust and cooperation among members; (v) the extent of member identification with the group; (vi) member confidence in the capacity of the group to attain its objectives; (vii) the procurement and efficient use of resources; and (viii) external coordination with other parts of the organization and outsiders. How leaders influence these group processes is not explained very well by the transformational leadership theories. Organizational processes also receive insufficient attention in most theories of transformational leadership. Leadership is viewed as a critical determinant of organizational effectiveness. Still, the causal effects of leader behavior on the administrative processes that ultimately determine energy are seldom described in detail in most studies on the transformational leadership (Yukl, 1999). Transformational leadership theories would benefit from a more detailed description of the leader's influence on the group and organizational processes.

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership relies more on "trades" between the leader and follower by which followers are compensated for meeting specific goals or performance criteria (Trottier, Van Wart, and Wang, 2008). The transactional leader will first validate the relationship between performance and reward and then exchange it for an appropriate response that encourages subordinates to improve performance (Scott, 2003).

Transactional leadership in organizations plays an exchange role between managers and subordinates (Jung, 2001)

The transactional leadership style is understood to exchange rewards and targets between employees and management (Howell and Avolio, 1993).

Bass and Avolio (1990) explained that Transactional leaders motivate subordinates through contingent rewards, corrective actions, and rule enforcement.

Bass et al. (1994) explained that transactional leadership depends on contingent reinforcement, either positive contingent reward or the more negative active or passive forms of management-by-exception. Transactional leaders motivate followers through exchange, for example, accomplishing work in exchange for rewards or preferences (Yang, 2007). Kahai et al. (1997) found that group efficacy was higher under transactional leadership. According to Burns (1978), the transactional leader tends to focus on task completion and employee compliance, and these leaders rely entirely heavily on organizational rewards and punishments to influence employee performance.

Burns distinguished between transactional leaders and transformational by explaining that: transactional leaders are leaders who exchange tangible rewards for the work and loyalty of followers. Transformational leaders engage with followers, focus on higher-order intrinsic needs, and raise consciousness about the significance of specific outcomes and new ways to achieve those outcomes (Burns, 1978).

Figure 2 compares the two styles of leadership.

The perspective Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)

The literature indicates a diverse use of various theories, frameworks, and survey instruments to investigate project management leadership (Jiang et al., 2001; Lewis, 2003; Mulenberg, 2000; Sunindijo et al., 2007; J. R. Turner & Muller, 2005; Wellman, 2007).

The literature on project leadership models is important because previous studies have established that leadership is essential for project outcomes. However, the relationship between specific leadership behaviors and their influence on project outcomes is poorly understood. In addition, no comprehensive model of these behaviors has been developed for the healthcare system. Using a Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) instrument, this study builds on previous research, exploring specific leadership behaviors by investigating the relationship between project manager behaviors and project success.

| Transactional | Transformational |
|---|--|
| Leadership is responsive | Leadership is proactive |
| Works within the organization culture | Works to change the organisational culture by implementing new ideas |
| Employees achieve objectives through rewards and punishments set by leader | Employees achieve objectives through higher ideals and moral values |
| Motivates followers by appealing to their own self interest | vs Motivates followers by encouraging them to put group interests first |
| Management-by-exception: maintain the status quo; stress correct actions to improve performance | Individualised consideration: Each behaviour is directed to each individual to express consideration and support |
| | Intellectual stimulation: Promote creative and innovative ideas to solve problems |

Figure 2. Transformational vs. Transactional Leadership Theories: Evidence in Literature (2013).

Source: adapted from Burns, 1978; Bass, 1994

The instrument used for the research was the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) survey instrument developed by Posner and Kouzes (1988). LPI was formulated through a triangulation of qualitative and quantitative research methods. Kouzes and Posner used in-depth interviews and case studies of “personal-best leadership experiences” to generate the model's conceptual framework. The model organizes its observations of leader practices into five categories of leadership behaviors: (i) Modeling the Way; (ii) Inspiring a Shared Vision; (iii) Challenging the Process; (iv) Enabling Others to Act (EOA); (v) Encouraging the Heart (Posner and Kouzes, 1988):

(i) Modeling the Way (MOW)

Leaders must first be clear about guiding principles. They establish regulations regarding how stakeholders should be treated and how goals should be pursued, creating standards of excellence and being an example for others to follow.

(ii) Inspiring a Shared Vision (ISV)

Leaders passionately believe that they can make a difference in their environment; they envision the future, creating an ideal and unique image of

what the organization can become. They bring your visions to life and make people see exciting possibilities beyond the horizon. They have an active listening to the aspirations of others so that, by incorporating them, people can see themselves in a shared dream about the future.

(iii) Challenging the Process (CHP)

Leaders aspire to improve the status quo by looking for opportunities to grow and innovate. They experiment, take risks and see setbacks as learning opportunities for themselves and their team.

(iv) Enabling Others to Act (EOA)

Leaders foster collaboration, build trust, and develop teams. They actively involve the team and understand that mutual respect sustains extraordinary efforts; they strive to create an atmosphere of trust and human dignity. Leadership empowers others, making each person feel capable and powerful.

(v) Encouraging the Heart (EHT)

Leaders make people feel like winners, keeping hope and determination alive, appreciating, and valuing the team's contributions, and creating a sense of community by celebrating victories.

They set high expectations and standards, hold people accountable, and ensure that rewards and performance are linked.

The LPI was created by developing a set of statements describing essential leadership actions and behaviors derived by recording specific one-sentence descriptions of behavior demonstrated in the personal-best leadership cases consistent with The Five Practices. Statements were selected, modified, or discarded following lengthy discussions and iterative feedback sessions with respondents and subject matter experts and through empirical analyses of the behaviorally-based statements. Each statement is evaluated on a ten-point Likert scale. A higher value represents a more frequent use of leadership behavior. The anchors for the ranking include: (1) Seldom do what is described in the statement; (2) Rarely; (3) Seldom; (4) Once in a while; (5) Occasionally; (6) Sometimes; (7) Fairly Often; (8) Usually; (9) Very Frequently; and (10) Almost always do what is described in the statement (Posner, 2016).

Kouzes and Posner (1988) created a survey instrument that translates the observed leadership best practices into specific behavioral statements through iterative psychometric processes. The device has been administered to over 350,000 managers and non-managers across various organizations and industries (Posner & Kouzes, 1988).

Despite the extensive use of LPI in research and confirmation of its practical use in various environments, some studies have described its limitations and risks.

Another study of the LPI reliability (Zagorsek, Stough, & Jaklic, 2006) found that LPI appeared to be most precise and reliable for low to midlevel leadership competencies and less reliable for high-quality leaders. The researchers recommended that LPI be used more for training and development purposes than selection and assessment based on their work.

For current epistemology on the subject, LPI is a valid and reliable instrument to investigate leadership behaviors in various management areas, including project management. Finally,

this study used LPI and project success data from a project environment to answer the first research question. In the next section, the literature review on the perspective of Project Management Success is presented.

The Perspective of Project Management Success (PMS)

The topic of Project Management Success (PMS) has attracted scholars' attention over the past decades (De Wit, 1988; Shenhar and Dvir, 2001; Turner, 2009; Cooke-Davies, 2002; Zwikael and Smyrk, 2012; Serra and Kunc, 2015; ul Musawir, 2017).

Project Management Success is a hot topic in project management (Shenhar & Dvir, 2007a). However, the current epistemology on the subject indicates multiple ways to evaluate Project Management Success: a measure of project outcomes must, in addition to the traditional parameters (internal metrics) of time, scope, and cost, also include the stakeholder perspective (external metrics) as a critical element of defining the success of a project (Baccarini, 1999).

This study used internal and external metrics of project success. (Freeman & Beale, 1992). Leadership has been identified as a critical determinant of project success through studies that have observed that managing stakeholder expectations and influences (Baccarini, 1999; Hancock, 2004) and providing early and effective project leadership (Hancock, 2004; Jiang et al., 2001; Mulenberg, 2000; Pinto & Slevin, 1988a; Shenhar, 2004; J. R. Turner & Muller, 2005) appear to be significant predictors of success.

Furthermore, Sanvido et al. (1992) emphasize the difficulty of measuring such success since its definition can vary according to the various stakeholders' expectations.

Elattar (2009) suggests a series of success criteria categorized according to the perspectives of different stakeholders: the owner, the developer, and the contractor.

Toor & Ogunlana (2009) also analyzed the views of different stakeholders based on responses to a survey questionnaire applied to clients, project management consultants, construction supervision consultants, design consultants, and contractors. Except for the client, who showed appreciation primarily for the efficient use of resources, meeting the deadline was defined as the primary criterion for success by the other categories of professionals consulted.

Lim & Mohamed (1999) consider that project success must be seen from different perspectives (client, developer, contractor, user, etc.), in a micro view (time, cost, quality, performance, and safety) and macro (satisfaction, utility, and operation).

To define project success, it is essential to distinguish between the following terms: project management success and project success. According to De Wit (1988), the success of project management is measured through the evaluation of criteria that involve traditional measures such as cost, time, and quality. Regarding project success, both Barclay (2008) and De Wit (1988) mention the importance of considering the stakeholders' objectives and reinforcing all stakeholders' goals in the project life cycle at all levels of the management hierarchy. Success can also be defined by the product or result of the project and the satisfaction of stakeholders (Cooke-Davies, 2002).

Other terms frequently mentioned in the literature and whose definition is often confused are success criteria and success factors. Success criteria are measures by which the success or failure of a project is judged. Success factors are the inputs to the management system that directly or indirectly to the project's success (De Wit, 1988).

Many authors, such as Navarre & Schaan (1990), Belassi & Tukel (1996), and Hatush & Skitmore (1997), link project success to cost, time, and quality performance measures, later called the "iron triangle" by Atkinson. (1999). Despite being widely cited in the literature, these criteria are considered by many authors as insufficient to measure the success of projects.

Pinto & Slevin (1988) and De Wit (1988) criticize the simplistic approach of measuring success in projects by the triple constraint, arguing that the most appropriate way to obtain such a measure is through the project objectives. De Wit (1988) also presents other success criteria, such as customer satisfaction, functionality, contractor satisfaction, the project manager's and his team's satisfaction, and budget and deadline performance.

Siegelaub (2010), referring to the PRINCE2® methodology (Office of Government Commerce, 2005), presents the so-called "sextuple constraint," composed of the already foreseen cost, term, quality, and scope, with the addition of benefit and risk constraints. The benefits dimension represents the value that the project is expected to deliver to the organization, expressed with measurable and achievable objectives. The author highlights the interrelationship between these dimensions since changes in a given measurement affect the others.

In turn, Pocock et al. (1996) propose considering judicial criteria, such as the absence of legal proceedings.

Atkinson (1999) proposes a division to understand the different criteria for measuring the success of projects, separated into the following categories: iron triangle, information systems, benefits for the organization, and benefits for stakeholders.

Shenhar & Dvir (2007) try to group success metrics into categories. Most organizations' projects are part of their strategic management and must be evaluated based on their contribution to their result. In this way, the authors suggest that the success of the projects be approached multidimensionally, reflecting the strategic intention of the company and its business objectives. Based on this assumption, the authors suggest assessing the project's success in the short and long term based on five categories: efficiency, customer impact, impact on the team, business and direct hit, and preparation for the future.

Shenhar & Dvir (2007) reinforce that the suggested structure is not applying to a wide range of projects. Projects must be carefully analyzed, and attention must be paid to the need to, when necessary, include new perspectives, that is, a contingency approach to defining the relevant success criteria for the organization and its projects.

Project Management Success (PMS), framed and developed by Zwikael and Smyrk (2012) and Serra and Kunc (2015) and tested by ul Musawir (2017), which a critical objective function in the process of generating benefits and value for firms and is set as the dependable variable in this study. “The project of success can be made by a range of stakeholders over different time scales, against different levels of project results, which includes: the project’s outputs at the end of the project; the project’s outcomes in the months following project completion; and the project’s impact in the years following completion” (Turner, 2009). In this study, “Project Success” incorporates the conceptual framework proposed by De Wit (De wit, 1988), Turner (Turner, 2009), and other researchers (Shenhar and Dvir, 2001; Cooke-Davies, 2002; McLeod, 2012). Herein “Project Success” follows the basis of Zwikael and Smyrk (Zwikael and Smyrk, 2012) and Serra and Kunc (Serra and Kunc, 2015) studies and is modeled and assessed as the dependent variable as proposed by Musawir (Musawir et al., 2017).

Its efficiency can assess PMS in the short term and its effectiveness in the medium and the long term (Jugdev et al., 2001; Müller and Jugdev, 2012). The value of the project is associated with the degree it complies with cost, time, and scope requirements, to the level it satisfies customer needs and expectations, to the alignment with the parent organization’s strategy, and, in the end, to the return on investment (Thomas and Mullaly, 2008), the desired result of a project.

Benefits justify the project undertaking and are the project’s desired result (Bradley, 2010). Project management has shifted from product creation to value creation (Winter et al., 2006).

The benefit of a project is the desired result of the project ‘flow of value’, which includes the project products (outputs), the changes due to its uses (outcomes), and the firm’s desired end-effects (benefits) that justified the project to occur (Zwikael and Smirk, 2012). This perspective, which has influenced the basis for practical and applied knowledge, has led to the conceptualization of the project ‘flow of value’—as a result of this, referred to as the variable PMSucc, which is represented by the performance of the project manager (including his project team as a whole), in the delivery of the outputs and in the compliance with the project plan that was approved and defined in the business case that justified the project, as described in Figure 3.

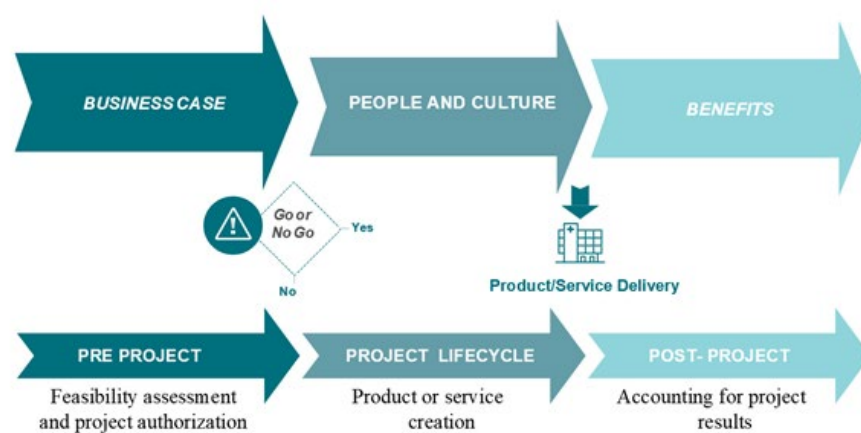


Figure 3. Project Lifecycle
Source: Adapted from PRINCE2®

Implications and Discussion

Healthcare administration is the use of expertise in managing the intricacies of health organizations, which includes overseeing networks, public health sectors, hospitals, labs, clinics, and other healthcare institutions and services. The concept encompasses three extensive and intricate aspects: (i) the physical areas where different professionals provide direct care, (ii) the different healthcare institutions, and (iii) the need for the establishment and functioning of health service networks to ensure universal, comprehensive, fair, high-quality, and efficient healthcare for the population's health requirements (Cecílio, 2009). A complex environment, including many varied, interdependent actors, characterizes the healthcare system. The interconnectedness among numerous agents yields novel outcomes, significantly when the agents and factors influencing the system change over time. The process of initiating a network of numerous, varied, and interconnected individuals who work together to provide healthcare results in a significant level of intricacy (Begun & Thygeson, 2015). Murray and Frenk (1999) define a healthcare system as a collection of resources (both human and material) and stakeholders (including patients, institutions, and organizations) that are involved in the financing, regulation, and delivery of health services. In this context, health actions refer to any activities to improve or maintain health. The elements of a health system may also be categorized as leadership, governance, information systems, funding, human resources, vital medical items, and service delivery. Healthcare systems are interconnected with various intricate systems and various devices. Consequently, they can be understood as a collection of interconnected elements, including (i) inputs such as human resources, technology, financing, and equipment, (ii) structures like hospitals, clinics, and long-term care units, (iii) processes involving operations and services provided by healthcare providers to patients in all settings, and (iv) products encompassing outcomes,

quality, access, and costs (Busse & Wismar, 2002).

Such findings have several implications for research in various fields, including (i) negotiations with governmental agents (Araujo, C.; Dias, M., 2022; Correa, Teles, Dias, M., 2022; Dias & Navarro, 2018); (ii) business mediation (Dias, M., 2018); (iii) retail business negotiations (Dias, M. et al., 2015; Dias, M. et al., 2015, 2014, 2012); (iv) industrial negotiations (Dias, M., Navarro and Valle, 2013, Dias, M., et al., 2014; Dias, M., et al., 2013; Dias, M., & Davila, 2018); (v) debt collection negotiations (Dias, M., 2019, 2019b; Dias, M. and Lopes, 2019); (vi) interbank negotiations (Dias, M.; Pereira, L; Vieira, P., 2022), for instance.

Limitations and Future Research

Examine supplementary variables that might impact the achievement of a project. Additional internal elements might include the project's scope and other indicators exclusive to the project. Furthermore, it is possible to create external assessments that may effectively quantify the perceived advantages experienced by various project stakeholders, such as team members, project managers, project sponsors, senior management, and the client. Future studies should focus on breaking down the leadership construct into particular leader positions or stakeholder viewpoints. This will help better understand and model the dynamics of the project's leadership-success connection.

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