International Journal of Development and Sustainability
ISSN: 2186-8662 – www.isdsnet.com/ijds
Volume 6 Number 9 (2017): Pages 1106-1120
ISDS Article ID: IJDS17082301

A structured stakeholder identification tool for urban development projects in Egypt: The case of Ard Al-Liwa Crossing, Giza, Egypt

Heba Assem Elfouly *

Department of Urban Design, Faculty of Urban and Regional Planning, Cairo University, Cairo, Egypt

Abstract

A key factor for the success of the urban development projects is the ability to identify and classify relevant stakeholders. Stakeholder analysis, in this respect, is particularly essential, with its three main steps: stakeholder identification, stakeholder mapping, and stakeholder strategies to generate interest and capacity building. However, reviewing stakeholder literature, it has been found that there is relatively little guidance on how stakeholder identification can be practically applied. The mainstream of literature discusses various tools to classify and analyze pre-defined stakeholders, but how to systematically select the stakeholder representatives is still unanswered. This study aims to develop a structured tool for the stakeholder identification designed for urban development projects at the local level. Accordingly, an identification tool was designed and tested in the "Ard Al-Liwa crossing development initiative" in Egypt. Being a field research, data (for testing the tool) was gathered using multiple methods: direct observation to the execution of the tool, informal interviews with the involved stakeholders, combined with documentation analysis of meeting minutes conducted during the project planning phase. Finally, the tool was modified in order to be adequate to the Egyptian context. Results show that identifying relevant stakeholders should be based on a field work rather than being a desk task. Moreover, building trust and measures for engaging different stakeholder groups are prerequisites for the success of the stakeholder identification.

Keywords: Stakeholder Analysis; Stakeholder Identification; Participation; Participatory Planning; Urban Development Project

Cite this article as: Elfouly, H.A. (2017), "A Structured Stakeholder Identification Tool for Urban Development Projects in Egypt: The Case of "Ard Al-Liwa Crossing", Giza, Egypt", *International Journal of Development and Sustainability*, Vol. 6 No. 9, pp. 1106-1120.

* Corresponding author. *E-mail address:* heba.elfouly@gmail.com

1. Introduction

Participation has been widely embraced in the urban development projects (Cleaver, 1999; Reed et al., 2009), where it has been defined as "*the process through which people with an interest (stakeholders) influence and share control over development initiatives and the decisions and resources that affect them*" (ADB, 2001, p.2). Being perceived as a joint interactive decision-making process (Nour, 2011; Scheffran, 2005), participation of relevant stakeholders has shown to enhance project quality, community ownership (Samah and Aref, 2011; Yee, 2010), project sustainability (ADB, 2001; Bradley, 2004; IFAD, 2001; Taylor, 2006), and ultimately the project success (Rădulescu et al., 2016).; which is, in this case, evolved from the local knowledge and priorities (IFAD, 2001) and, hence, meets stakeholders' needs and expectations (Innes and Booher, 2005).

Consequently, a key element and a vital first step, in any participatory development project, is the ability to identify relevant stakeholders: their needs, interests, relative power, and potential impact on project outcomes (Achterkamp and Vos, 2008; Taylor, 2006). Stakeholder analysis, in this respect, is particularly essential (ADB, 2001; IFAD, 2001), with its three main steps: stakeholder identification, stakeholder mapping, and stakeholder strategies to generate interest and capacity building (Reed et al., 2009; UN-Habitat, 2001).

Focusing on inclusiveness and the rights approach, it has been noted that all stakeholders should be involved; with their differences in aims and capabilities (Mansuri and Vijayendra, 2013; Rowe and Frewer, 2000; UN-Habitat, 2001). Contextually, stakeholder analysis is employed, most notably, to identify and empower marginal groups; especially the poor or those lacking the access to formal-recognized networks and, perhaps then, could influence the decision-making process (Didibhuku Thwala, 2009). Although stakeholder analysis does not necessarily generate the needed platform for stakeholder participation (Bradley, 2004), it can be used as a tool to facilitate the negotiation and social interaction, as well as to manage conflicts between stakeholders (Innes and Booher, 2005; Reed et al., 2009; Scheffran, 2005).

Despite the vitality of the "stakeholder analysis" in any participatory planning, stakeholders are often identified and selected on an ad hoc basis; which may lead to the control of process via well-connected powerful representatives, and the exclusion of the marginal groups; a problem that is frequent in urban development projects (Achterkamp and Vos, 2008; Reed et al., 2009). This may jeopardize the viability and sustainability of the project expected impacts; as studies have shown that if relevant stakeholders were not well defined and, hence engaged from the early planning stages, the result would be misguided strategies, inappropriate action plans which would be poorly (if at all) implemented and, in sometimes, could have negative impacts on the local community (Bryson, 2004; Didibhuku Thwala, 2009; IFAD, 2001; UN-Habitat, 2001).

Reviewing the stakeholder literature within management discourse (Achterkamp and Vos, 2008; Bryson, 2004; Chigona et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2011), and urban development discourse (ADB, 2001; Bradley, 2004; IFAD, 2001; Rowe and Frewer, 2000; Taylor, 2006; UN-Habitat, 2001; Zimmermann and Maennling, 2007), it has been found that there is relatively little guidance on how stakeholder identification can be practically applied. The mainstream of literature discusses various tools to classify and analyze pre-defined stakeholders, but how to *systematically* select the stakeholder representatives is still unanswered. For that,

this study aims to develop a structured tool for the stakeholder identification designed for urban development projects at the local level.

The study, therefore, is organized as follows: Section 1 provides a literature review on the concept of stakeholder analysis, with the focus on stakeholder identification. Section 2 discusses the Stakeholder participation within the Egyptian context. Section 3 outlines the methodology used in this study. Section 4 contains the results of the study, which are then analyzed and evaluated in section 5, to finally propose a structured stakeholder identification tool.

2. Background

stakeholder analysis has been developed in parallel with the development of participatory approaches (Reed et al., 2009); in which the term "target groups" has been replaced by "stakeholders", where the proposed interventions have been evolved, planned, and implemented by all relevant stakeholders (Zimmermann and Maennling, 2007).

2.1. Who or what are stakeholders?

Originating from management literature, stakeholders were firstly defined by Freeman (1984), in his landmark study, as “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives”(Freeman, 1984 cited in Gomes, 2004) . In its first definition, a distinction was made between shareholders (those who own the organization), and stakeholders (those who can affect or are affected by business activities) (Welp, de la Vega-Leinert, Stoll-Kleemann, and Jaeger, 2006). Since then, the stakeholder concept has been widely adopted in the management field, and many classification models have been evolved; referring to stakeholders as: "active/ passive" stakeholders, potential for collaboration/ threatening stakeholders, and primary/ secondary stakeholders (Achterkamp and Vos, 2008; Reed et al., 2009). Furthermore, recognizing the complexity and uncertainty of the decision-making environment, it has been clear that multiple diverse stakeholders should be involved (Reed et al., 2009). Broadly, potential stakeholders could be governmental or non-governmental, targeting individual or group interests, acting in different scales: local, national or global (Scheffran, 2005).

Correspondingly, stakeholders, within the development literature, are defined as "people/communities who may - directly or indirectly, positively or negatively – affect or be affected by the outcomes of development projects" (ADB, 2001). Contextually, Taylor (2006) has argued that stakeholders should encompass five main groups: first, experts, who provide the technical support. Second, grass-roots/ community-based organizations CBOs, and non-governmental organizations NGOs. Third, target group/ beneficiaries, who are directly affected by the project. Fourth, local politicians and any influential figures, who can influence the whole process. Fifth, the community at large, who are indirectly affected by the project and, hence, should have the rights to share in the decision-making process. Additionally, Zimmermann and

Maennling (2007) and El-Shahat and El Khateeb (2013) have noted, besides the abovementioned groups, two more groups: national and local governments, and the private sector organizations.

Moreover, stakeholder groups have been perceived according to their salience. Thus, those who are directly (positively or negatively) affected by the project (such as the beneficiaries, grass-roots organizations) are referred to as "primary stakeholders", while those who are indirectly or temporarily affected (such as the experts, government, NGOs, community at large, and the private sector organizations) are referred to as "secondary stakeholders". Besides, those who can significantly influence the project (even if already recognized as primary or secondary stakeholders) must be seen as "key stakeholders", and those who control implementation instruments and, hence, can block the project are considered "veto players" [Figure 1] (ADB, 2001; Zimmermann and Maennling, 2007).

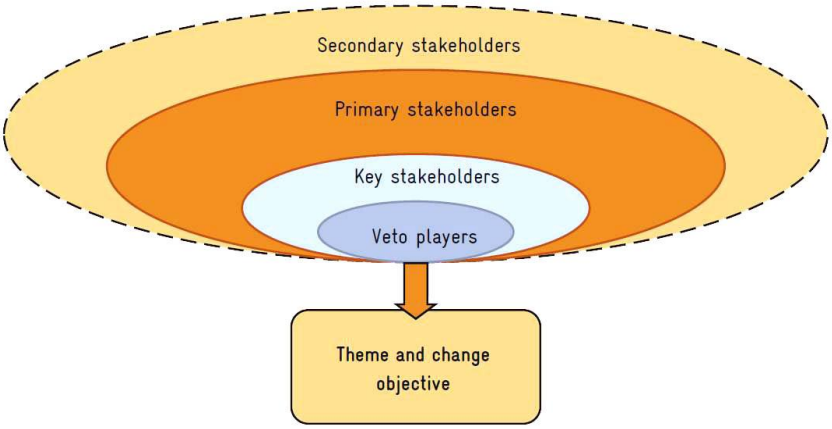

Figure 1. Stakeholder Typology (Source: Zimmermann and Maennling, 2007)

2.2. Stakeholder analysis

Stakeholder analysis is a methodology for identifying and analyzing relevant stakeholders in a project and planning for their participation. It ensures that no significant stakeholder is missed, and enhances their potential contribution throughout the project cycle. Therefore, it is the starting point of any participatory process (ADB, 2001). Deciding who should be involved, how and when is a key strategic decision which should evolve from such analysis (Bryson, 2004). For that, stakeholder analysis generally encompasses three main steps [Figure 2]: stakeholder identification, stakeholder mapping, and stakeholder strategies to generate interest and capacity building (Reed et al., 2009; UN-Habitat, 2001).

- Step (1) Stakeholder Identification: The first step of stakeholder analysis which aims to identify relevant stakeholders by filing each potential group with actual representatives (Achterkamp and Vos, 2008).
- Step (2) Stakeholder Mapping: Once relevant stakeholders are identified, the next step is to provide a clear and comprehensive picture of stakeholder interests, importance, and influence.

Several tools could be used for this purpose such as power versus interest grid, stakeholder influence diagram, and participation planning matrix (Bryson, 2004). Formulating such mapping helps to identify areas where capacity building and strategies to generate interests are necessary for effective stakeholder participation. It also highlights possible "gaps" in the array of stakeholders.

- Step (3) Stakeholder Strategies: this final step is to develop strategies for mobilizing and sustaining effective stakeholder participation. Such strategies should be tailored to the different groups of stakeholders as analyzed and classified above.

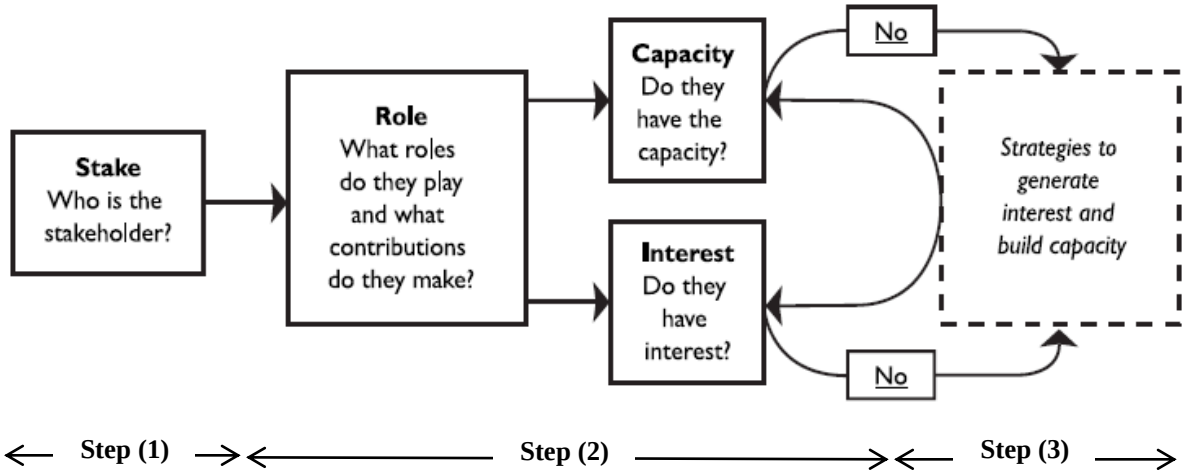

Figure 2. Stakeholder Analysis Diagram (Source: Author after UN-Habitat, 2001)

2.3. Stakeholder Identification method

The mainstream of the stakeholder analysis literature has assumed that stakeholders are noticeable and self-construed and, hence, has focused on mapping the pre-identified stakeholders to comprehend their interests and relationships. Contextually, a comprehensive list of potential stakeholders is prepared, based on the typical classification of stakeholder groups (government, local community, CBOs, private sectors ...) (Achterkamp and Vos, 2008; Rădulescu et al., 2016; UN-Habitat, 2001); the most appropriate representatives (individuals or parties) are sorted to fit within each stakeholder group (Achterkamp and Vos, 2008). Stakeholder literature argued that stakeholder identification could be normally done through brainstorming; either by using experts' viewpoint (Reed et al., 2009), or by using resource persons' viewpoint; who are usually familiar with the development issue (Chigona et al., 2009; Zimmermann and Maennling, 2007), or even by using self-selection method as a respond to public announcements (Chevalier and Buckles, 2008

cited in Reed et al., 2009). Yet, biased selection or even missing some stakeholders could be the result of such methods. Besides, in practice, not all relevant stakeholders are known and well-distinguished to others; which highlight the shortage of the abovementioned methods.

Moreover, identifying stakeholders could be seen as an iterative process (Rădulescu et al., 2016); where the initial start could focus on key or lead stakeholders, and as the analysis continues, all relevant stakeholders should be identified and involved (Bryson, 2004; UN-Habitat, 2001). However, the issue of stakeholder inclusiveness, in practice, is easier said than done. For that, the boundaries of the development project should be well-defined; so as not to risk omitting some stakeholders accidentally (Clarkson,1995 cited in Reed et al., 2009), especially the vulnerable and marginal groups (UN-Habitat, 2001). On the other hand, including all stakeholders is hardly a feasible choice; a line must be drawn at a certain point according to definite criteria (geographic, demographic …) set by the planning team (Clarke and Clegg, 1998 cited in Reed et al., 2009).

3. Stakeholder participation in the Egyptian context

Participation has been brought to Egypt by the international organizations and has become a catchphrase for support and funding from those organizations. However, participation is still informative and temporary without a real shifting in the planning paradigm (Elfouly, 2012; Shehayeb and Abdelhalim, 2012); urban development projects, which are presented as *participatory*, are usually dominated by top-down planning approach, with the minimal degree of sharing in the decision-making process. Moreover, there are no common or even shared norms adopted by the different groups of stakeholders (Elfouly, 2012). In this context, participation is interpreted in an extremely different way by each potential group (Nour, 2011; El-Shahat and El Khateeb, 2013; Shehayeb and Abdelhalim, 2012):

- Central government and political parties use participation as a political nominal to gain public support.
- Local government perceives participation as an impediment, and prefers to keep other stakeholders (especially the local community) away from the decision-making process; especially the local community.
- The private sector interprets participation as a way to achieve a positive social image, under the notion of corporate social duty.
- NGOs and CBOs, according to their affiliation and scale, try to promote and participate in urban development projects. However, they are usually of narrow scope and limited effect, and not yet qualified to take the lead in development.
- Beneficiaries of the local community are not acknowledged by the institutional and legal system. The formal channel, for them to be heard, is the elected Local Popular Council[1] (LPC). However,

[1] The LPC is the council which has the legislated right to participate in project planning, and to approve plans, budgets, and question local administrations about their actions and performance.

instead of being a true representative of the interests and needs of the local community, LPC is usually concerned with their personal benefits and political ambitions.

This was generally the case, for the past thirty years, representing the mainstream of the former political regime. However, after the 25th of January revolution, a radical change occurred, and hope arose concerning the revival of citizenship rights, and the paradigm shift towards a more democratic regime, where an effective participatory development would be adopted; embracing all stakeholders with their different interests and needs.

4. Materials and methods

4.1. Study area: Ard Al-Liwa crossing

A typical informal neighborhood, Ard Al-Liwa is located in Giza governate on the agricultural land, adjacent to an upper middle-class district, Al-Mohandesin, from which is separated by a regional railway to Upper Egypt and Al-Zomor irrigation canal [Figure 3] (GOPP, 2009). According to GOPP (2012), Ard Al-Liwa is a high densed neighborhood, with a population reaching 300,000 inhabitants on 470 acres. Like other informal areas, it suffers from deficient infrastructure, and inadequate social services, as well as poor connection to the city (Zakaria, 2013).

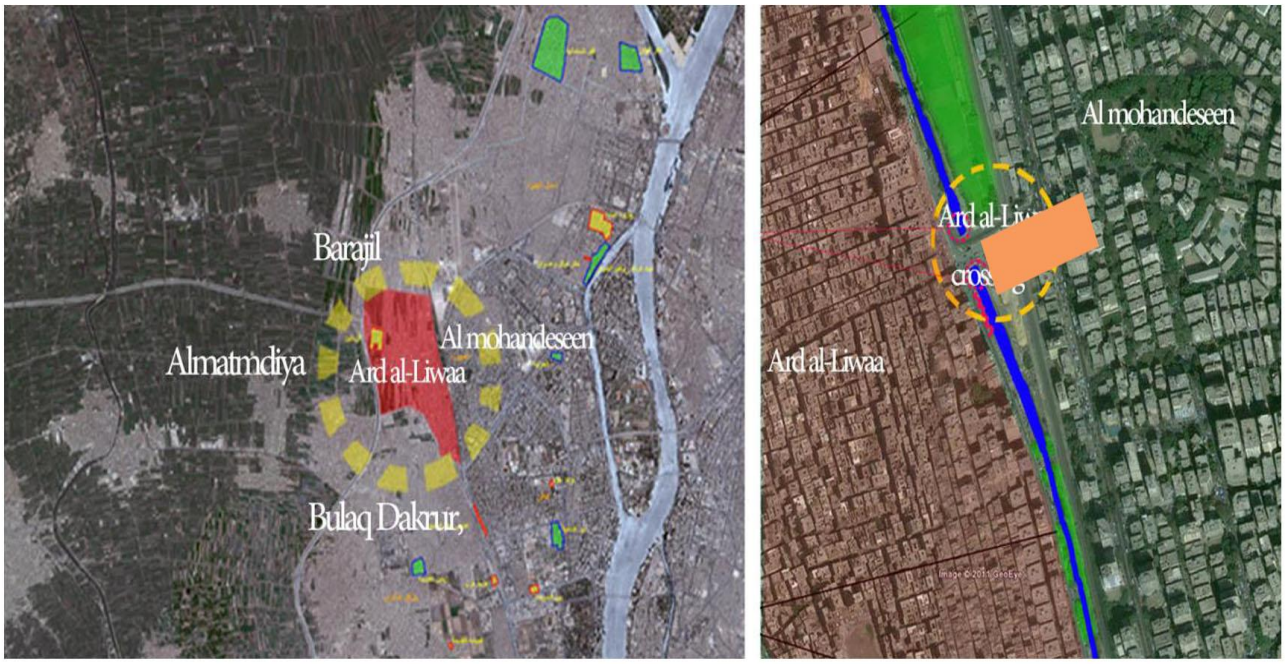

Figure 3. The location of Ard Al-Liwa Crossing Initiative (Source: Author)

The "at-grade level" railway crossing is considered a central area, and one of the three main accesses to the area, connecting Ard Al-Liwa with Al-Mohandesin. It suffers from multifaceted chronic issues: a dangerous traffic congestion (vehicles and pedestrians crossing to the other side), informal transportation hubs for tuk-tuk[2]and microbuses, street vendors, and piles of garbage dumps all over the place [Figure 4].

Figure 4. Main Issues in the Ard Al-Liwa Crossing Area (Source: Author)

[2] A three-wheeled rickshaw widely used as a taxi in poor neighborhoods.

Trying to resolve the crossing issues, the Syndicate of Giza Engineers (SoGE) took an initiative, as a civil society, to lead a participatory development project. The initiative evolved as a result of the *first forum for community participation*, carried out between SoGE and the Governorate of Giza on the 15th of September 2012, to develop fast interventions tackling the main problems facing the Governorate: Traffic, garbage, informal areas. Representing the three main issues, the "Ard Al-Liwa crossing" was the ideal candidate to be adopted as a pilot project for a community-driven initiative. Being generated after the revolution, empowering local community, especially the poor marginal inhabitants, and adopting real participation in the decision-making process were the main core of the initiative.

4.2. Methods

The aim of this study is to propose a structured stakeholder identification tool for urban development projects at the local level. Accordingly, the study comprised two main phases: the first phase is to develop an identification tool through analyzing the stakeholder literature (mentioned before) as the main resource (Blaike, 2000). The second phase is to test the tool in the field by using it in the identification of the stakeholders of the "Ard Al-Liwa crossing development initiative". As the researcher was one of the planning team; the study was flavored with an inside perspective. Being a field research, data was gathered using multiple methods: direct observation to the execution of the identification tool, informal interviews with the involved stakeholders, combined with documentation analysis of meeting minutes conducted during the project planning phase (Neuman, 2014). Finally, data was analyzed in an iterative process using qualitative tools. Extracting the obstacles and prerequisites evolved during the identification process, the proposed tool has been modified to be more fitting to the Egyptian context.

5. Results

After "Ard Al-Liwa Crossing" was being selected as a pilot project, SoGE approached some experts from the Faculty of Urban and Regional Planning, Cairo University, to take the role of the technical support of the initiative and, hence, to lead the negotiations with the local community. As a first step, the project team was requested to develop an action plan for the initiative within which a stakeholder identification tool was proposed. The main vision of the initiative was to build the capacity of the local community to be able to enhance its local settings, through local development initiatives, without the need of the central government, therefore, the latter was not invited to be part of the stakeholder groups, and was perceived, at this point, as an enabler more than a provider. For that, the identification tool was designed to focus on identifying the potential local stakeholders, with their diverse groups, as follows:

Step (1): brainstorming focus group with "resource" key persons to elaborate the first list of potential stakeholders.

Step (2): Field work to identify potential stakeholders, with the distinguish between direct and indirect ones:

- Identifying primary/direct stakeholders:

a. Define the main groups of the beneficiaries from a field visit (which were represented here by street vendors, tuk-tuk drivers, and microbus drivers).
b. Ask each group to select their representatives (by using face-to-face interview method), with the focus on the marginal sectors within each group.

- Identifying secondary/indirect stakeholders:
  a. Distribute a questionnaire on the community, through the whole district, requesting them to select their representatives in the initiative committee (whether individuals or organizations).
  b. Scan any community organization (whether formal or informal) working in the development issue (as a result of the previously mentioned brainstorming with some key persons, and then snowballing method), and ask them to suggest a list of potential stakeholders.

Step (3): Analyze and filter the lists of potential stakeholders evolved from different methods, and prepare a draft of the most repeated names.

Step (4): Invite the potential stakeholders for a meeting, and ask them to add any missed names.

Once this tool was approved by the SoGE (the initiator), the project team started to execute the proposed identification tool by testing it in the field. A preliminary meeting was held with some key persons in the office of the SoGE to address the initiative vision and ask them to suggest the potential stakeholders (individuals or organizations) from their point of view. As a result, the earliest list was endorsed. Then, the project team divided the neighborhood of Ard Al-Liwa into 7 areas, according to their socio-demographic characteristics. Using convenience sampling method (Neuman, 2014), and by the help of students of the Faculty of Urban and Regional Planning, questionnaires were distributed to the community, asking the respondents to select their representatives (individuals or organizations) who would be members of the initiative committee. Consequently, another primary list of the potential stakeholders was prepared. Then the team project contacted the most recommended community organizations, whether formal or informal (from the questionnaire results and the suggestions of the key persons), and asked each one of them to suggest a list of the potential stakeholders from their viewpoint.

At this point, the project team had 3 versions of the potential stakeholders' list: according to key persons, community questionnaires, and community organizations suggestions. Those lists were analyzed and filtered and, finally, the most repeated names (individuals or groups) were selected to the first draft list of the *indirect* potential stakeholders. In parallel to this process, face-to-face interviews were held with the main groups of beneficiaries (street vendors, tuk-tuk, and microbus drivers) asking them to suggest their representatives. In this context, two issues arose: first, the tuk-tuk and microbus drivers refused to participate in the initiative, and claimed that they did not have representatives who could be the link between them and the committee. Second, the marginal groups of the street vendors were very passive towards their participation in the committee and referred to the key vendors to be their representatives.

Eventually, a primary list of the *direct* potential stakeholders was developed from *mainly* the key street vendors, and with the absence of any representatives of the tuk-tuk/ microbus drivers.

Finally, potential (direct and indirect) stakeholders represented in the draft list were contacted and invited to a meeting in the office of Giza municipality, and with the presence of experts, SoGE, and Giza governorate representatives. The aim of this meeting was to officially announce the start of the Ard Al-Liwa crossing initiative and finalize the list of stakeholders, by asking the attendants if there any missing stakeholder they would prefer to be added to the committee. At the end of the meeting, a final list was developed.

6. Discussion and conclusion

This study highlights the importance of the stakeholder identification as a key factor for the success of the urban participatory planning. It contributes to enhancing the stakeholder analysis; by proposing a structured tool for the stakeholder identification at the local level. As a first step, in order to avoid bias selection of stakeholders, an in-field based identification tool was developed in which data triangulation was tackled. This was achieved by requesting a primary list of potential stakeholders using three different methods: brainstorming in a focus group with key persons, in-site questionnaires, and face-to-face interviews.

Despite the efforts directed to identify all relevant stakeholders, who could affect or be affected by the initiative, some groups refused to participate (such as the tuk-tuk and microbus drivers), and others showed a passive attitude towards the whole process (such as the marginal groups of the street vendors). This could be interpreted by the lack of trust between the local community, especially the poor and marginal groups, and the government. This was a rooted preconception shaped due to the former political regime occurred before the revolution; as the investment-based approach, instead of a people-based approach, was mostly adopted when dealing with informal areas; in which the land value (not people) was the main concern and, hence, the demolition was usually the official policy. Consequently, poor and marginal groups were convinced that government was against their existence. Additionally, the corruption and/or ineffectiveness of the LPC system have negatively affected the perceptions of local communities towards participation; as they usually (when participating in such initiatives) pursued their self-benefits instead of the public needs. All these factors made the local community perceive any participatory initiative as a manipulation process with *hidden agendas*; which would usually lead to undesirable impacts on them.

However, the proposed tool was designed with the assumption that those well-known norms were automatically changed after the revolution, and that all the Egyptian society, with its differences, was pursuing the change towards an active partnership, with the government, within a democratic participatory process. In practice, this assumption has been proven to be false, and that the rooted mistrust culture still exists. Accordingly, it has been found that "building trust" is a prerequisite step, and unlike literature, strategies to generate interest should be prior to the stakeholder identification phase, in order to guarantee the willingness to cooperate, and suggest stakeholder representatives and, hence, the ability to approach all relevant stakeholders.

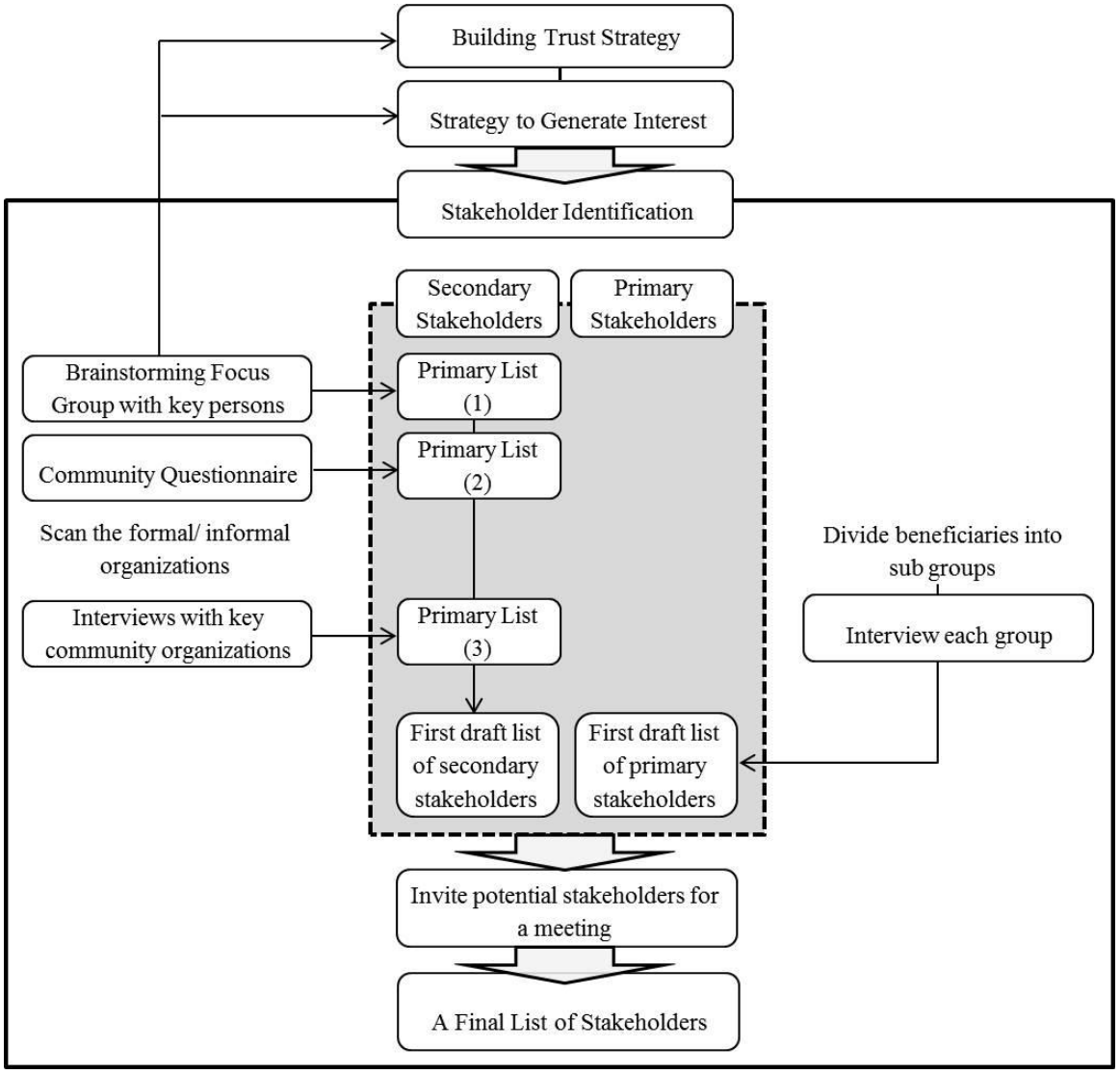

Figure 5. The Stakeholder Identification Tool (Source: Author)

Moreover, although a real participatory planning process was adopted, and a participatory action plan was developed, however, the initiative failed to proceed towards the implementation phase. This could be interpreted by the absence of two main factors: first, the absence of a financial framework; as the project team assumed that a real participation, combined with a proposal at a minimum cost, could elaborate public willingness to pay. However, in practice, stakeholder representatives were not willing to participate in funding the project. For that, unless the centralized funding mechanisms are shifted to more decentralized ones, investor parties (such as private sectors) should be engaged as a key indirect stakeholder group. Second, the absence of the central government institutions through the whole process; which was due to the assumption that a community-driven initiative at the local level does not need the involvement of the central government, which should be, in this case, an enabler not a provider. However, instead of being an enabler,

the central government was a *disabler*; especially the Ministry of Internal Affairs, which prohibited the permissions needed to execute the proposed plan. For that, it has been noted that Ministries, which have the authority to block the process, should be involved, and considered as a veto player. It has been found that, even in the community-driven initiatives, the representation of the central government as one of the main stakeholder groups is crucial for the success of the initiative.

To conclude, some impediments arose during testing the identification tool in the field: the rooted mistrust between the local community and the government, the negative perception of participation resulted from previous experiences and the dominating role of the central government in the planning process; even for local initiatives, in the Egyptian context. Accordingly, the proposed stakeholder identification tool has been modified to overcome these impediments [Figure 5]. The suggested adjustments should be considered as prerequisites for the success of the participatory planning in general, and the stakeholder identification in specific:

- The development of a "building trust" strategy as well as "strategies to generate interest", as a first step, should be included prior to the identification phase.
- Funding alternatives should be available before the planning phase or else investor parties (such as the private sector) should be included in the stakeholders.
- The inclusion of central government institutions (especially those entitled to produce permissions related to the implementation phase) is a must and, in this case, should be considered as a veto player.

References

Achterkamp, M.C. and Vos, J.F.J. (2008), "Investigating the use of the stakeholder notion in project management literature, a meta-analysis", *International Journal of Project Management*, Vol. 26 No. 2008, pp. 749–757.

ADB (2001), *Handbook on Stakeholder Consultation and Participation in African Development Bank Operations*, Asian Development Bank.

Blaike, N. (2000), *Designing Social Research*, Blackwell Publishers Inc., Malden.

Bradley, D. (2004), *Participatory Approaches: A facilitator's guide*, Voluntary Services Overseas (VSO), London.

Bryson, J.M. (2004), "Stakeholder Identification and Analysis Techniques", *Public Management Review*, Vol. 6 No. 1, pp. 21–53.

Chigona, W., Roode, D., Nazeer, N. and Pinnock, B. (2009), "Investigating the impact of Stakeholder Management on the implemention of a Public Access Project : Case of Smart Cape", in *Prato CIRN Community Informatics Conference,* 2009, pp. 1–16.

Didibhuku Thwala, W. (2009), "Experiences and Challenges of Community Participation in Urban Renewal Projects: The Case of Johannesburg, South Africa", *Journal of Construction in Developing Countries*, Vol. 14 No. 2, pp. 37–54.

Elfouly, H. (2012), *Handling Slums within the Framework of a Comprehensive Development Approach*, Faculty of Urban and Regional Planning, Cairo University.

El-Shahat, M.M.F. and El Khateeb, S.M. (2013), "Empowering people in Egyptian informal areas by planning : towards an intelligent model of participatory planning", *Planum, The Journal of Urbanism*, Vol. 1 No. 26, pp. 1–19.

Gomes, R. (2004), "Who are the Relevant Stakeholders to the Local Government Context? Empirical Evidence on Environmental Influences in the Decision-Making Process of English Local Authorities", *Brazilian Administration Review*, Vol. 1No. 1, pp. 34–52.

GOPP (2009), *The General Strategic Plan for the Municipal Unit of Ard Al-Liwa, Kirdasa Township*, Cairo, Egypt.

GOPP (2012), *Detailed Planning for Ard Al-Liwa: Study of Existing Conditions*, Cairo, Egypt.

IFAD (2001), *Participatory Approaches for an Impact-Oriented Project Cycle: strenghtening the impact orientation of IFAD's project cycle*, International Fund for Agricultural Development, Rome, Italy.

Innes, J. and Booher, D. (2005), "Reframing Public Participation: Strategies for the 21st century", *Planning Theory & Practice*, Vol. 5 No. 4, pp. 419–439.

Neuman, W.L. (2014), "Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches. Relevance of social research (Vol. 8)", available at: https://doi.org/10.2307/3211488.

Nour, A.M. (2011), "Challenges and Advantages of Community Participation as an Approach for Sustainable Urban Development in Egypt", *Journal of Sustainable Development*, Vol. 4 No. 1, pp. 79–91.

Rădulescu, C.M., Ştefan, O., Rădulescu, G.M.T., Rădulescu, A.T.G.M. and Rădulescu, M.V.G.M. (2016), "Management of stakeholders in urban regeneration projects. Case study: Baia-Mare, Transylvania", *Sustainability (Switzerland)*, Vol. 8 No. 3, pp. 1–22.

Reed, M.S., Graves, A., Dandy, N., Posthumus, H., Hubacek, K., Morris, J. and Stringer, L.C. (2009), "Who's in and why? A typology of stakeholder analysis methods for natural resource management", *Journal of Environmental Management*, Vol. 90 No. 2009, pp. 1933–1949.

Samah, A. and Aref, F. (2011), "The Theoretical and Conceptual Framework and Application of Community Empowerment and Participation in Processes of Community Development in Malaysia", *Journal of American Science*, Vol. 7 No. 2, pp. 186–195.

Scheffran, J. (2005), "Tools for Stakeholder Assessment and Interaction", in Stoll-Kleemann, S. and Welp, M. (Eds.), *Stakeholder Dialogues in Natural Resource Management and Integrated Assessments: Theory and Practice*, Cambridge University Press, UK, pp. 153–185.

Shehayeb, D. and Abdelhalim, K. (2012), "Issues of Participation in Egypt", *Journal of Architectural and Planning Research*, Vol. 29 No. 1, pp. 45–64.

Taylor, J. (2006), "The Role of Citizens in the Planning Process", in *World Urban Forum III , Public Engagement: The Inclusive Approach, Habitat Professionals Forum Networking Session*, Vancouver.

UN-Habitat. (2001), *Tools to support participatory urban decision making*, UN-Habitat, Nairobi, Kenya.

Welp, M., de la Vega-Leinert, A., Stoll-Kleemann, S. and Jaeger, C.C. (2006), "Science-based stakeholder dialogues: Theories and tools", *Global Environmental Change*, Vol. 16 No. 2006, pp. 170–181.

Zakaria, E. (2013), *Paradigms of Development in Cairo Mobilization Patterns of Civil Society Organisations*, Ain Shams University, Egypt, University of Stuttgart, Germany.

Zimmermann, A. and Maennling, C. (2007), *Multi-stakeholder management. Tools for Stakeholder Analysis: 10 building blocks for designing participatory systems of cooperation*, *GTZ*, Eschborn, Germany.