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STAKEHOLDER THEORY IN URBAN MANAGEMENT: AN IN-DEPTH INVESTIGATION ON STAKEHOLDER TYPES, SALIENCE, COOPERATION, MANAGERIAL VALUES, AND URBAN QUALITY OF LIFE.

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TEORIA DOS STAKEHOLDERS NA GESTÃO URBANA: UM ESTUDO ABRANGENTE SOBRE OS TIPOS, A SALIÊNCIA, A COOPERAÇÃO, OS VALORES DOS GESTORES, E A QUALIDADE DE VIDA NAS CIDADES.

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Stakeholder Theory in Urban Management: An In-Depth Investigation on Stakeholder Types, Salience, Collaboration, Managerial Values, and Urban Quality Of Life

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DEDICATION

For all those whom I love!

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There are many people that I'm very grateful, which are: (1) our Creator (not a human); (2) my parents, Ana Lucia and Donizete Joaquim Beck (same name first and last name as me); (3) my fiancé, Caroline Moura; (4) my advisor and coadvisor, José Storopoli and Eran Vigoda-Gadot; (5) and many *friends, colleagues or acquaintances* that have helped me in some extent to be more motivated during this period as well as to become a better researcher, such as Júlio Cunha, Priscila Costa, Marcos Ferasso, Leonardo Vils, Andreza Portella, Diego Conti, Gustavo Mesch, Fernando Serra, Heidy Rodriguez, Aldo Valentim, Benny Kramer, Fabiana Mariutti, Magdalena Florek, Wilson Levy, Roberto Ruas, (6) some amazing people from Haifa (Israel) that have helped me in something, such as Muriel Berg, Haim, Ohad, the amazing cats "Flink" and "Pucalacha," and finally my friend Han Rodri from China (I met him at the University of Haifa, and he helped me to correct my abstract in Chinese); (7) also people who I don't know their names, who work in the Israeli and Brazilian Government, at the University of Haifa, or at Nove de Julho University; and (8) the uncountable editors and anonymous reviewers of the journals I have published my papers related or not-related to this great piece of study, mainly to the editors of *Cities*, *Ecological Economics*, *Sustainable Cities and Society*, *Journal of Cleaner Production*, *Brazilian Journal of Marketing*, *Studia Ecologiae et Bioethicae*, *Journal of Environmental Management & Sustainability*, *Humanidades & Inovação*, and *Organizações & Sustentabilidade*.

In short, I am finishing my Ph.D. studies happily and satisfied. I did not expect many things that I could do as I did. Much of my contributions came from my heart and with the awareness that we need to improve our world, our societies, and our cities. We need to improve our world. Even more, it can be successfully reached only if we work together! We need to recognize our weaknesses and become better people over time! We need to foster sustainability, sustainable development, ethics in our socioeconomic relations, and ethics in our environmental conc; we, we need to discuss ethics in capitalism and socialiand sm, we need to go beyond these socioeconomic constructed systems. The most important is to foster consensus in a way that we create value for all stak; weders, we need a stakeholder-based society. Finally, I hope that this doctoral dissertation can help at least at the city level to guide our cities to stakeholder-oriented urban management.

"Use your brain to imagine, to dream, the more the better, the greater is helpful, dream greater. (...) There are experts for things that did happen, but there are no experts for things that may happen; you should be the experts of things that may happen, by imagining the future, by learning about it, daring to do it, don't be afraid, don't hesitate, it's in your hands. (...) In the case of science you can win without anybody losing." – Shimon Peres.

"Context, skills, and silent communication are all necessary for the accomplishment of an improvisational act. Without the ability to communicate with each other effectively, actors could not come up with a shared goal, nor could they coordinate the steps necessary to achieve it" – Inbal Arieli

"We are all stakeholders of our global future" – Klaus Schwab.

"Think globally, act locally" – attributed to Patrick Guedes

ABSTRACT:

The purpose of this doctoral dissertation is to understand what is the relationship between urban performance and stakeholder salience in urban management. In order to achieve this purpose, this doctoral dissertation was divided into three studies. In the first study, I identified and mapped the intellectual structure and mainstream research on stakeholder theory in the context of urban management by performing bibliometrics using co-citation analysis, bibliographic coupling, and social network analyses of both data on the intellectual structure and mainstream research. I revealed how the intellectual structure has evolved from its two components - urban strategy and urban marketing - into three components of mainstream research - sustainable urban strategy, power of networks, and urban marketing. In the second study, I identified and discussed the construct of stakeholder proposed by Freeman in 1984 in the context of municipal urban management through a review of the mainstream research on stakeholder theory in urban management. There are two main approaches to analyzing urban stakeholders - the typological and the general one. On the one hand, the typological approach splits urban stakeholders into categories; there are twelve main types of urban stakeholders, which are in order of the number of occurrences in literature: (1) governments; (2) industry; (3) citizens; (4) civil society; (5) tourists; (6) academia; (7) union; (8) media; (9) investors; (10) financial institutions; (11) suppliers; and (12) supranational and international organizations. On the other hand, the general approach emphasizes the role of urban projects and partnerships by urban managers instead of separating stakeholders into different types. Finally, in the third study, I analyzed the salience (mediator variable) of four urban-stakeholder types (government, industry, citizens, and civil society) as perceived by urban managers, urban quality of life (dependent variable), and managerial values (independent variable), and stakeholder collaboration (moderator variable), in an integrative model in the urban context. For this, a research model was tested through Bayesian Correlation and Bayesian Regression of 85 responses from a survey collected in 24 cities from Brazil, the United States, and Israel. In this study, I did not identify any statistical relationship between stakeholder salience and urban quality of life, and managerial values did not moderate that relationship. Nonetheless, findings revealed a positive relationship between self-regarding values and stakeholder power and between other-regarding values and legitimacy. The originality of this study is to reveal that there is a possibility of self-regarding values (egoistic culture) and power as well as other-regarding values (altruistic/moralist culture) and legitimacy, two existing relationships disregarding the organizational type. However, further studies should be done to affirm this universality. Also, I proposed a comprehensive agenda for future studies in the three studies.

Keywords: Urban Management, Stakeholder Salience, Quality of Life, Urban Performance, Managerial Values.

RESUMO:

O objetivo desta tese de doutorado é entender qual é a relação entre desempenho urbano e saliência de stakeholders na gestão urbana. Para atingir este objetivo, esta tese é dividida em três estudos. No primeiro estudo, eu identifiquei e mapeei a estrutura intelectual e a pesquisa dominante sobre a teoria dos stakeholders no contexto da gestão urbana por uma análise bibliométrica com análise de co-citação, pareamento bibliográfico, e análise de redes sociais dos dados da estrutura intelectual e da pesquisa dominante. Eu revelei como a estrutura intelectual evoluiu dos seus dois componentes - estratégia urbana e marketing urbano - para três componentes da pesquisa dominante - estratégia urbana sustentável, poder das redes, e marketing urbano. No segundo estudo, identifiquei e discuti o construto de stakeholder proposto por Freeman em 1984 no contexto da gestão urbana municipal por meio de uma revisão da pesquisa dominante sobre a teoria dos stakeholders na gestão urbana. Existem duas abordagens principais para analisar stakeholders urbanos - a tipológica e a geral. Por um lado, a abordagem tipológica divide stakeholders urbanos em categorias, existem doze tipos principais de stakeholders urbanos, que em ordem da quantidade de ocorrências na literatura, são: (1) governos; (2) indústria; (3) cidadãos; (4) sociedade civil; (5) turistas; (6) academia; (7) trabalhadores e sindicatos; (8) mídia; (9) investidores; (10) instituições financeiras; (11) fornecedores; e (12) organizações supranacionais e internacionais. Por outro lado, a abordagem geral enfatiza o papel dos projetos e parcerias urbanas pelos gestores urbanos ao invés de separar stakeholders em tipos diferentes. Finalmente, no terceiro estudo, analisei a saliência (variável mediadora) de quatro tipos de atores urbanos (governo, indústria, cidadãos e sociedade civil) conforme percebido pelos gestores urbanos, qualidade de vida urbana (variável dependente) e valores gerenciais (variável independente) e colaboração dos stakeholders (variável moderadora), em um modelo integrador no contexto urbano. Para isso, foi testado um modelo de pesquisa por Correlação Bayesiana e Regressão Bayesiana de 85 respostas de uma pesquisa coletada em 24 cidades do Brasil, Estados Unidos e Israel. Neste estudo, não identifiquei nenhuma relação estatística entre a importância dos stakeholders e a qualidade de vida urbana, e os valores gerenciais não moderaram essa relação. No entanto, os resultados revelaram uma relação positiva entre os valores auto-relacionados e o poder das partes interessadas e entre os valores relativos aos outros e a legitimidade. A originalidade deste estudo é revelar que existe a possibilidade de valores auto-relacionados (cultura egoísta) e de poder, bem como valores auto-relacionados (cultura altruísta/moralista) e legitimidade, duas relações existentes independentemente do tipo organizacional. No entanto, mais estudos devem ser feitos para afirmar essa universalidade. Além disso, propus uma agenda abrangente para estudos futuros nos três estudos.

Palavras-chave: Gestão Urbana, Saliência dos Stakeholders, Qualidade de Vida, Desempenho Urbano, Valores Gerenciais.

摘要：

本博士论文的目的是了解城市绩效与城市管理中的利益相关者导向之间的关系。为了达到这一目的，本博士论文分为三个研究。

在第一项研究中，我通过对知识结构和主流数据的共引分析、书目耦合和社会网络分析进行文献计量，确定并绘制了城市管理背景下利益相关者理论的知识结构和主流研究。我揭示了知识结构如何从其两个组成部分—城市战略和城市营销—演变为主流研究的三个组成部分—可持续城市战略、网络的力量和城市营销。

在第二个研究中，我通过对城市管理中利益相关者理论的主流研究的回顾，识别和讨论了弗里曼在 1984 年提出的市政城市管理背景下的利益相关者结构。 分析城市利益相关者的方法主要有两种—类型学方法和一般方法。 一方面，类型学方法将城市利益相关者分为几类，城市利益相关者主要有十二种类型，按照文献中出现的次数排序：（一）政府； （二）工业； （三）公民； （四）公民社会；（五）旅游者；（六）学术界； （七）工会； （八）媒体； （九）投资者；（十）金融机构； （十一）供应商；（十二）超国家和国际组织。 另一方面，一般方法强调城市项目和城市管理者的伙伴关系的作用，而不是将利益相关者分为不同类型。

最后，在第三项研究中，我分析了城市管理者、城市生活质量（因变量）和管理价值观所感知的四种城市利益相关者类型（政府、行业、公民和公民社会）的显着性（中介变量） （自变量）和利益相关者协作（调节变量），在城市背景下的综合模型中。 为此，研究模型通过贝叶斯相关和贝叶斯回归测试了来自巴西、美国和以色列的二十四个城市的调查中收集到的八十五份回复。 在这项研究中，我没有发现利益相关者的显着性和城市生活质量之间有任何统计关系，管理价值观也没有调节这种关系。 尽管如此，研究结果揭示了利己价值观与利益相关者权力之间以及利他价值观与合法性之间的正相关关系。 本研究的独创性在于揭示了利己价值观（利己文化）和权力以及利他价值观（利他/道德文化）和合法性的可能性，这两种存在的关系无视组织类型。 然而，应该做进一步的研究来确认这种普遍性。 此外，我还为这三项研究提出了未来研究的综合议程。

关键词：城市管理、利益相关者显着性、生活质量、城市绩效、管理价值观。

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List of Abbreviations and Initials:

INITIALS	Description of the Initial:
BC	Betweenness Centrality
BC1	Sustainable Urban Strategy Component of Mainstream Research
BC2	Power of Networks Component of Mainstream Research
BC3	Urban Marketing Component of Mainstream Research
CC	Closeness Centrality
CC1	Urban Strategy Component of the Intellectual Structure
CC2	Urban Marketing Component of the Intellectual Structure
CD	Centralization Degree
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
DC	Degree Centrality
FA	Factor Analysis
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
IBGE	Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística
IOCOG	International Olympic Committee on Olympic Games
IQR	Interquartile Range
JCR	Journal Citation Reports
NDC	Normalized Degree Centrality
PA	Parallel Analysis
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
Q1	First Quartile
Q2	Second Quartile
Q3	Third Quartile
Q4	Fourth Quartile
SJR	Scimago Journal Ranking
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

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1. INTRODUCTION CHAPTER

Since the first industrial revolution, more people have been moving from rural areas to cities; this phenomenon is widely known as **urbanization**. In this scenario, urban management has gained social relevance in creating value for urban stakeholders and fostering urban performance (e.g., socioeconomic and demographic issues).

Stakeholder Theory has its origins in Business studies (Freeman et al., 2010), has been largely studied in Public Administration (Bryson, 2004; Fowler & Biekart, 2017), has had an increasing growth of academic and practitioner interest in **Urban Management** (Kavaratzis, 2004; Ibrahim et al., 2017; Soltani et al., 2015; Le Feuvre et al., 2016; among others), and is an umbrella theory to be used in many different fields due to its multidisciplinary nature (Gamble & Kelly, 1996; Harrison et al., 2015). Stakeholders have been widely known as those "who can affect or are affected by the achievement of an organization's purpose" (Freeman, 1984, p. 49). Therefore, considering the interests of stakeholders to create value in the long term has been an important aspect of enhancing organizational performance (Agle et al., 1999).

While firms have been the units of analysis in Business in terms of stakeholder management, **municipalities have been the leading organizations as units of analysis in Urban Management** (e.g., Kaur & Lodhia, 2014; Chmutina et al., 2014; Li et al., 2016; Eshuis et al., 2018; Lai & Ooi, 2015). In this way, **the phenomenon of stakeholder networks in urban management has become even more relevant in a globalized and urbanized world** (Schwab & Vanham, 2021) because they have been affected by municipal urban management and have affected the achievement of municipal objectives.

Also, stakeholder-orientation has transpassed the frontiers of organizations into the shape of a whole economic system designed as - **Stakeholder Capitalism** - by Schwab and Vanham in 2021. Differently from shareholder capitalism and state capitalism, no one stakeholder is more potent than another and has its interests taken into account in socioeconomic systems. The bottom line here is that going from a global to a local perspective is the key to the stakeholder model's success because most changes are done **at the local level** (Schwab & Vanham, 2021). In other words, **municipalities, regions, and even nations are critical in developing a stakeholder-orientation**

perspective in the current globalized world. Therefore, cities, states, regions, and nations should consider strategizing their organizations to be stakeholder-oriented.

Thus, urban managers have faced the **challenge** of managing urban policies and systems to satisfy and meet the needs of urban stakeholders (Freeman et al., 2010; Ibrahim et al., 2017; Schwab & Vanham, 2021). The literature in business has widely shown that **stakeholder salience has been theoretically (and empirically in some studies) related to organizational performance** (Agle et al., 1999; Berman et al., 1999; Patel, Manley, Hair, Ferrell, & Pieper, 2016; among others). In the context of urban management, Beck and Storopoli (2021a) suggested that further studies should analyze the relationship between stakeholder salience and urban management performance. As stakeholder orientation is related to urban performance and urban quality of life, it is also supposed to argue that stakeholder salience would also be related to urban performance (Beck & Storopoli, 2021a; Beck, 2023a; Beck, 2023b).

Although the literature has shown the importance of stakeholder-orientation in urban management (Beck & Storopoli, 2021a), there is an empirical gap on how stakeholder salience would be related to the performance of urban management. Furthermore, one way of assessing the performance of urban management is through indicators of urban quality of life (Beck, 2023a; Beck, 2023b). Therefore, **the purpose of this doctoral dissertation is to understand what is the relationship between stakeholder salience and urban quality of life**. In order to achieve the research purpose, it was necessary to make and perform **three studies**. The next subsection presents the research question, the research aim, and the research objectives. Each research objective was accomplished in one study of this doctoral dissertation.

1.1. RESEARCH QUESTION, AIM, OBJECTIVES, AND STATEMENT.

Research Question: “What is the relationship between stakeholder salience and urban quality of life in urban management?”

Research Aim: To understand what is the relationship between quality of life and stakeholder salience in urban management.

Research Statement: The relationship between quality of life (representing the performance of urban management) and stakeholder salience in urban management is theoretically positive since when managers consider stakeholder types as salient, they are prone to satisfy them. However, there is the possibility that the relationship between stakeholder salience and urban quality of life be not significant as occurred in the study of Agle et al. (1999) in the context of business administration, revealing that there is a paradox between this theoretical hypothesis strongly based on the managerial literature and the empirical results not supporting this view.

Research Objectives:

- To Identify and map the intellectual structure and mainstream research on Stakeholder Theory in the context of urban management;
- To identify and discuss the construct of stakeholder in municipal urban management;
- To analyze stakeholder salience, stakeholder cooperation, urban quality of life, and managerial values in an integrative model for the urban management context.

1.2. ALTERNATIVE STRUCTURE

Instead of adopting the traditional structure, this doctoral dissertation was designed considering the **alternative structure** suggested by Costa, Ramos, and Pedron (2019): While the traditional structure of theses has only one study, the alternative structure has multiple studies. These studies have an introduction, a theoretical or conceptual framework, a method, a results and discussion section, and a conclusion. Furthermore, instead of a reference list for each chapter, the readers will find a general reference list at the end of this doctoral dissertation.

In the alternative structure, multiple studies support researchers in achieving the research aim. There is a study for each research objective, explaining why the studies in alternative structures are interconnected. Costa et al. (2019) also suggested adding a methodological matrix to the introduction to quickly introduce an overview of what readers will find within the thesis. Moreover, at the end of the thesis, a contribution matrix should be added to the conclusion to organize and synthesize the findings of all of the

studies and then conclude with the main contributions. Thus, Figure 1.1 shows the Methodological Matrix of this study, synthesizing the information in this introduction.

RESEARCH QUESTION: "What is the relationship between stakeholder salience and urban quality of life in urban management?"				
RESEARCH AIM: "To understand what is the relationship between quality of life and stakeholder-orientation in urban management"				
REASON OF DISTINCTIVENESS		REASON OF INTERDEPENDENCE		PUBLICATION STATUS
TITLE	RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	ANALYSES	DATA	
Study I: "The Intellectual Structure and Mainstream Research on Stakeholder Theory in the Context of Urban Management"	To Identify and map the intellectual structure and mainstream research on stakeholder theory in the context of urban management	Bibliometrics and Social Network Analysis	Bibliographic data collected from *Scopus* database	Presented at and Published in the Annals of "*XLIV EnANPAD*" in 2020[1] An improved version was published in "*Cities*" in 2021[2]
Study II : "Identifying the Urban Stakeholders"	To identify and discuss the construct of stakeholder in municipal urban management	Systematic Literature Review	Bibliographic data collected from *Scopus* database	Presented at and Published in the Annals of IX SINGEP Conference in 2021[3] An improved version was accepted for presentation at and publication in the Annals of EURA 2023
Study III: "Exploring Quality of Life, Managerial Values, Stakeholder Salience and Cooperation in Urban Governance"	To analyze the salience of urban stakeholders, urban quality of life, and managerial values in an integrative model of stakeholder-orientation in urban management	Scale Adaptation Bayesian Correlation and Regression Analyses	A convenience sample comprising 85 responses of a survey collected in 24 cities from Brazil, United States, and Israel	Not submitted yet at the time of the Ph.D. Viva.

Figure 1.1. Methodological Matrix.

Note:

[1]Conference paper of Beck and Storopoli (2020, October). [2]Article of Beck and Storopoli (2021a) published in Cities. [3]Conference paper of Beck and Storopoli (2021b, October).

2. STUDY ONE: THE INTELLECTUAL STRUCTURE AND MAINSTREAM RESEARCH ON STAKEHOLDER THEORY IN THE CONTEXT OF URBAN MANAGEMENT

This chapter presents the first study of this doctoral dissertation, identifying and mapping the intellectual structure and mainstream research on stakeholder theory in the context of urban management.

2.1. INTRODUCTION:

Since the first industrial revolution, cities have occupied even more space early occupied by rural areas around the world; this phenomenon is understood as urbanization. Hence, simultaneously, local, municipal, and urban management has become an emergent and valuable topic for society. Thus, strategic management research applied to urban management and a better understanding of the urban stakeholders could improve the relationship among urban stakeholders, that is, the phenomenon of stakeholder networks in urban management.

Stakeholder theory has the stakeholder construct as its core concept, which is defined as those "who can affect or are affected by the achievement of an organization's purpose," and its understanding is important to managers on how they could generate value for those third parties in the medium or long-run (Freeman, 1984, p. 49). Other important constructs are those on how managers prioritize stakeholders' claims have largely been studied, that is, the construct of salience and its attributes of power, legitimacy, and urgency (Mitchell et al., 1997); on the stakeholder approaches, i.e., normative, instrumental and descriptive (Donald & Preston, 1995); and on how to manage organizations for stakeholders, that is, the construct of the value creation (Bridoux & Stoelhorst, 2014; Clarkson, 1995; Harrison et al., 2010; Tantalo & Priem, 2014).

Previous studies have analyzed stakeholders in businesses and firms (Freeman et al., 2010), but stakeholders can also be analyzed by multiple fields of study, such as urban management (Harrison et al., 2015). Although there are some efforts to apply stakeholder theory to urban management (Kavaratzis, 2004; Ibrahim et al., 2017; Soltani et al., 2015; among others), an in-depth investigation is still needed. In order to fill this literature gap, my purpose here in study I is to map and synthesize the literature on stakeholder theory in the context of urban management.

I performed a bibliometric study (Linnenluecke & Marrone, 2020), utilizing principal component analysis (Zupic & Čater, 2014) on both co-citation and bibliographic coupling data. I identified two principal components in intellectual structure - urban strategy and urban marketing. As for the mainstream research, I identified three components: (1) sustainable urban strategy, (2) power of networks, and (3) urban marketing.

I discussed the importance of understanding the urban context and the urban stakeholders for policy-makers to formulate a sustainable urban strategy, efficient urban marketing, and urban branding and to improve the relationship of the urban networks (for instance, the partnership-based approach of Le Feuvre et al., 2016). These issues matter for sustainable urban development, in which the urban strategies are based on social responsibility, ethics, and value creation. Furthermore, the urban strategy considers urban development for stakeholders, such that environmental performance and environmental management have been based on ethics, and collaborative and participative governance are essential elements to identify, categorize, understand, and create value for stakeholders in meeting their expectations. As for urban marketing, building an attractive urban image and effective urban branding is its cornerstone, in which urban managers look for recognition and legitimacy through efficient communication with urban stakeholders and sustain an excellent urban image for them.

I also employed social network analyses (Wasserman & Faust, 1994; Newman, 2018) of the co-citation and bibliographic coupling data: (1) regarding the co-citation network, the urban strategy has the most significant publications, connectivity, and transitivity than urban marketing; (2) although Freeman (1984) is the document with the highest prestige in the co-citation network, Freeman (1984) also competes with other documents (Byrd, 2007; Mitchell et al., 1997; Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Clarkson, 1995) that are turning points in the network due to its lousy location; (3) The bibliographic coupling network is still maturing due to not enough development time, having most documents with the same degree of prestige with high-density transitivity levels; (4) four out of five betweenness centrality outliers in the bibliographic coupling network are from the urban marketing, suggesting that urban marketing is a significant trend. Ultimately, I provide research implications and theoretical and managerial contributions, then expose the study limitations and suggestions for future studies.

2.2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

This subsection is divided into two parts: The first presents the stakeholder theory and its primary constructs, and the second introduces an overview of how the literature has dealt with stakeholder theory in urban management.

2.2.1. STAKEHOLDER THEORY

The Stakeholder Theory began with the differentiation between shareholder and stakeholder constructs. Furthermore, stakeholder theory concerns issues of trading, value creation, ethics of capitalism, social responsibility, and the managerial mindset. On the one hand, the Agency Theory (as opposed to Stakeholder Theory) is based on the interest of only one party (i.e., the shareholder). Its cornerstone is the owners' business interest and separates ethics and businesses. On the other hand, the Stakeholder Theory is based on any person (i.e., third party) that is affected or affects the firm's actions and policies, whose there is a dependent relationship among them, ethics and businesses integrated, and then the value is generated on medium and long-term orientation (Bonnafous-Boucher & Rendtorff, 2016; Freeman, 1984; Freeman et al., 2010).

The stakeholders' attributes that make them salient in negotiation (de facto or even perceived) are power, legitimacy, and urgency. These attributes matter for managers to classify and prioritize some stakeholders taking into account their context and then making better decisions on resource allocation and time spending (Mitchell et al., 1997).

According to Mitchell et al. (1997), power is an attribute which one uses "coercive," "utilitarian," or "normative" means to force or establish his or her will. Legitimacy is a shared, broad social and organizational perception of what is desirable and appropriate. When one has power and legitimacy, thus, has authority. Finally, urgency is dynamic in any context of stakeholder identification and is the "immediate attention" claimed by someone, that is, claiming something based on time, ownership, sentiment, expectation, and exposure.

However, salience occurs when these three attributes are accumulated and have been positively related among them, and is the "degree to which managers give priority to competing stakeholders' claims" (Mitchell et al., 1997, p. 869). Furthermore, these

salience attributes emphasize the normative approach of stakeholder theory (Agle et al., 1999).

One who does not have power, legitimacy, and urgency is not a stakeholder. Nevertheless, who has at least one of these attributes is a stakeholder. Thus, a dormant Stakeholder has only power, a Demanding Stakeholder has only urgency, and a Discretionary Stakeholder has only legitimacy. If one has only power and legitimacy, this one is considered a Dominant Stakeholder. In the case of having only power and urgency, this one is a Dangerous Stakeholder. In the case of one without power and having urgency and legitimacy, is a Dependent Stakeholder. Furthermore, if one has these three qualities is a Definitive Stakeholder (Mitchell et al., 1997).

Figure 2.1 shows an illustration of the relationships among some constructs of stakeholder theory, whose are the attributes of salience (power, legitimacy, and urgency) which set the kind and characteristics of stakeholders (Mitchell et al., 1997) within the normative approach of the stakeholder theory (Agle et al., 1999) and, also, the Figure 2.1 illustrates the concentric relation of stakeholder approaches which normative approach is inside of instrumental approach. This last one is inside the descriptive approach (Donald & Preston, 1995).

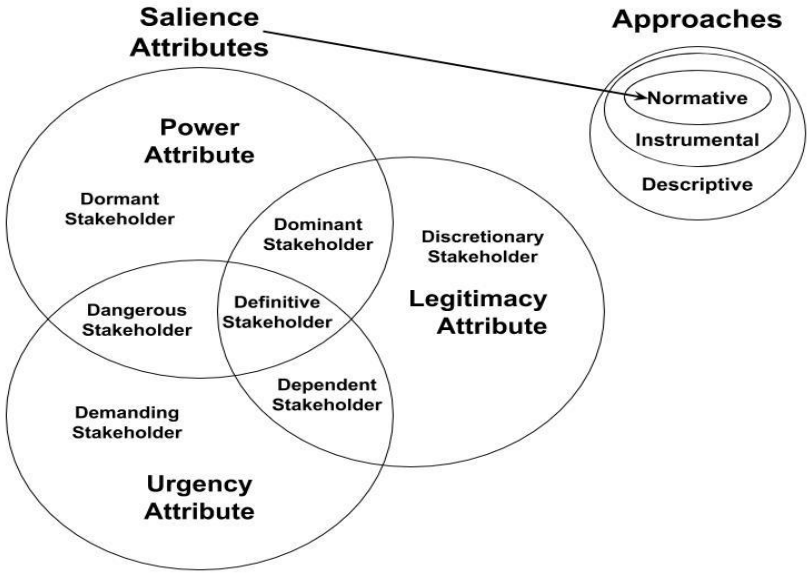

Figure 2.1. Stakeholder Theory: Approaches and Salience Attributes.
Note. Adapted from "Stakeholder Typology: One, Two, or Three Attributes Present" by Mitchell, R. K., Angle, B. R., and Wood, D. J., 1997, *Academy of Management Review*, *24*(4), p. 874, and also adapted from "Three Aspects of Stakeholder Theory", by Donaldson, T., and Preston, L. E., 1995, *Academy of Management Review*, *20*(1), p. 74.

There are three approaches of the Stakeholder Theory, which are descriptive, instrumental and normative: the first one, also known as empirical approach, contains the both following approach inside its dimension, deals with the organizational environment and explains how the exogenous forces interact with and the own limited organizational control, thus, it helps to understand and manage inter, intra and extra organizational levels; the instrumental approach is a strategic corporation vision which reconciles multiple interests of third parties to satisfy a wide range of stakeholders' expectations, that is, managing the own stakeholders and its unit of analysis is resource acquisition from stakeholders; and the normative approach considers ethics as a strategy of organizations' search for legitimacy actions and behaviors, which consider the stakeholders expectations, then, the core assumption is that stakeholders can become organizational shareholders, in other words, this approach focuses primarily on managing for stakeholders and its unit of analysis is the stakeholder legitimacy and rights in order to receive attention from the organization (Donaldson & Preston, 1995).

As previously explained, organizations should emphasize the value creation for their stakeholders, that is, an orientation on managing for stakeholders. So far, the literature has demonstrated that value creation is essential to create a sustainable competitive advantage and better relationships between stakeholders and the organization (Freeman et al., 2010). For instance, if managers wish to create value oriented to stakeholders, they should mind that trust and perception help strengthen their ties with stakeholders and meet the stakeholders' expectations (Bridoux & Stoelhorst, 2014; Clarkson, 1995; Harrison et al., 2010; among others). In addition, Tantalo and Priem (2014) highlighted the importance of stakeholder synergy on value creation because it could potentially result in more types of value for stakeholders without diminishing other values delivered to other stakeholders. Then, the organization could achieve a better condition of sustainable competitive advantage.

Even further, Harrison et al. (2015) shed light on how stakeholder theory can be applied to many different areas of science and arts. Public management is one of them. In this way, converging the multi and interdisciplinary approach proposed by Harrison et al. (2015), this study takes the urban context as a unit of analysis and its management, exploring this theme, providing implications, and suggesting new avenues to the stakeholder theory to the urban context.

The stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984) applied to the urban context can contribute to urban management by improving the relationship between the network of urban stakeholders and urban governance; while supporting the municipality in achieving its goals. In other words, public managers will make better strategic decisions by considering urban stakeholders (Bryson, 2004; Fainstein, 2000).

2.2.2. STAKEHOLDER THEORY IN CITIES AND URBAN MANAGEMENT

In cities, stakeholder theory has received attention from a few scholars. As a result, the literature on this topic is incipient. Nonetheless, it is not inexistent. For example, there are emerging studies on urban marketing and urban branding (Castilhos, 2019; Eshuis et al., 2018; Kavaratzis, 2004; Stylidis et al., 2015; among others) and urban tourism (Byrd, 2007; D'Angella & Go, 2009; Kavaratzis, 2004; among others). Also, in urban management, waste management has mainly been the central studied theme, in which a wide range of stakeholders and their interests should be considered, such as industries, experts, and civil society (Soltani et al., 2015; among others).

Considering a broader spectrum of the municipality as a whole, Ibrahim et al. (2017) have recently proposed a model of stakeholders' engagement in Smart Sustainable Cities, and Fainstein (2000) examined the communicative model of the planning theory on the role of the urban planners in the face to urban stakeholders.

The engagement model proposed by Ibrahim et al. (2017) has eight stages: (1) identifying stakeholders; (2) prioritizing them; (3) sharing information with them; (4) mapping them; (5) creating partnerships with appropriate stakeholders; (6) managing them; (7) Considering stakeholders involvement and evaluation; (8) and then, monitoring and evaluating whole this process. The government should assume stakeholders' expectations, the impact level, and the degree of importance of some activity for the urban stakeholders (Ibrahim et al., 2000). Although this model was proposed in the context of Smart Sustainable Cities, there does no impede adapting it to be fitted in the urban management of all sorts of cities.

From a philosophical perspective, Fainstein (2000) summarized the communicative model of the planning theory, in which urban planners are responsible for democratizing urban management to prompt consensus without the domination of an elitist group and as an intermediary between government and society.

Meanwhile, although there is literature on urban stakeholders, the stakeholder theory must be more deeply studied. The strategic constructs of stakeholder theory have yet to be analyzed profoundly enough to produce knowledge beyond their theoretical boundaries. So, this study will fill this gap, mapping the intellectual structure and the mainstream research and suggesting new research directions.

2.3. METHOD AND RESEARCH DESIGN

In order to perform a bibliometric, I considered the standard bibliometric workflow composed of five stages recommended by Zupic and Čater (2014). Those stages are - study design, data collection, data analysis, data visualization, and interpretation. Furthermore, I considered bibliometrics a systematic literature review tool (Linnenluecke & Marrone, 2020) to move away from narrative reviews and towards a replicable and scientific approach. Regarding the design stage, the research question is “What are the intellectual structure and mainstream research of stakeholder theory in the urban context?” The first part of the question is answered through a co-citation analysis, and the second one is through bibliographic coupling.

The co-citation analysis and bibliographic coupling are supposed to provide scholars' relationship and referencing behavior to show co-citation and coupling and then the similarity degree of publications. Both terms are better defined as "co-citation is a similarity relationship between two cited publications" and "bibliographic coupling is a measure of association between two citing publications"; that is, the first one is "the frequency with which two documents are cited together," and the last one is "when two documents have at least one reference in common" (Vogel & Güttel, 2013, p. 428). In short, co-citation analysis will provide an analysis of publication impact and a better understanding of the roots and the past of the Stakeholder Theory, and bibliographic coupling will show publication activity, implications, and trends of that theory.

The primary tool to analyze co-citation and bibliographic coupling data is Principal Component Analysis (PCA). Since co-citation and bibliographic coupling data are represented as a co-occurrence square and symmetric matrix with many rows/columns, I applied dimension reduction techniques to understand those matrices' underlying structure. PCA is the recommended tool in this context (Zupic & Čater, 2014)

since I understand that the underlying structure can be assessed without error measurement.

Factor Analysis (FA) would also result in dimension reduction but, contrary to PCA, has the assumption of the presence of measurement error. From the perspective of this study, the entries of the co-citation and bibliographic coupling matrices (citations and sample articles) cause the underlying structure (implied when using PCA) and are not a consequence of the underlying structure (implied when using FA). As a data reduction technique, PCA is associated with indexes, and FA is associated with scales and social constructs. Specifically, PCA enables us to find the principal components that synthesize and represent all variables an orthogonal linear transformation gives.

To decide how many components to extract, I performed a Parallel Analysis (PA) that compared the original matrix eigenvalues to another randomly simulated one with the exact dimensions (Horn, 1965). I have chosen to simulate 10,000 matrices and used all the original eigenvalues that were higher than the 5% quantile of the simulated eigenvalues as a cutoff to select the number of components to extract, assuring that the criteria for the number of components to retain are not arbitrary (Hayton et al., 2004). Thus, the number of components was decided by what components explain more variance (eigenvalue) than those generated randomly.

In order to gather the sample, I conducted a document search on the Scopus database with the following search expression: “TITLE-ABS-KEY ("Stakeholder$") AND TITLE-ABS-KEY ("city" OR "cities" OR "municip*" OR "urban") AND DOCTYPE (ar OR re) AND PUBYEAR < 2020 AND PUBYEAR > 2009 AND REFPUBYEAR = 1984 AND REFTITLE("Stakeholder") AND REFAUTH("Freeman")”. The data-collection stage made on the Scopus database was restricted only to articles (ar) or reviews (re). I searched for the following tags on titles, abstracts, and keywords: Any one-character-wild-card ($) variation of stakeholder in order to acknowledge the possibility of stakeholders, and also all the different tags to capture the urban context (city, cities, urban, and all declinations from the radical “municip”). To ensure the sample was accurate regarding stakeholder theory, I emphasized selecting only articles and reviews that cited Freeman (1984), the main seminal work on stakeholder theory). Finally, I restricted the sample to articles or reviews published between 2010 and 2019. The final sample consists of 140 articles and reviews.

Several articles and reviews from the sample need to be cited more consistently. So, in order to have a reliable co-citation analysis, I cleaned and normalized all citations. Thus, I ensured that, for example, “FREEMAN, R (1984)” is the reference to “FREEMAN, R. E. (1984)”. Also, since the main foci are the theoretical approaches and intellectual structures, I removed all methodological references from the sample. References such as Yin (case study), Patton (case study), Eisenhardt (case study), and Hair (statistics) were removed and accounted for a total of 17 methodological references.

In order to perform co-citation analysis, I applied Lotka’s law which states that 5% of the citations of a specific scientific field represent more than 80% of its intellectual base. The sample has 6,516 citations, so 5% of the total citations is 326 citations. Therefore, I selected the top-cited documents with more than four citations each because this threshold reaches 270 cumulated citations, the closest to 326, considering a replicable manner to perform this data, thus leaving the co-citation to be performed with the top 30 most cited documents. Next, I performed a PA to find how many components should be retained, demonstrating that 2 is the ideal number of components, and then I executed a PCA of the co-citation matrix using varimax rotation and setting the number of components to extract to 2.

Regarding the bibliographic coupling, I subset the sample to have a range of 50 to 60 articles. I selected only articles with five or more common citations to meet these expectations. I have finally arrived at 54 articles. Like the co-citation, the bibliographic coupling was performed by executing a PCA using varimax rotation, and the PA showed the ideal number of components to 3.

The co-citation and bibliographic coupling matrices can be used as adjacency matrices and represented as a social network (Wasserman & Faust, 1994; Newman, 2018), enabling us to use social network analysis metrics, such as size, centralization degree, density, and transitivity to the co-citation and bibliographic coupling data. Also, I can analyze individual nodes of those networks in terms of centrality, e.g., degree centrality, betweenness centrality, and closeness centrality.

I analyzed each of these properties through exploratory data analysis; in other words, I discussed the main characteristics of their distributions, outliers, means, modes, medians, and quartiles. Also, I used the classical interquartile range (IQR) proposed by Tukey (1977), which resulted from the value of the upper quartile subtracted from the value of the lower quartile (Q3 - Q1 = IQR), the upper whisker resulted from the value of

upper quartile added to the multiplication of 1.5 with the IQR (Q3 + 1.5 x IQR), and the lower whisker is resulted from, the lower quartile subtracted to the multiplication of 1.5 with the IQR (Q1 - 1.5 x IQR).

Finally, all the analyses were done in *R* version 4.0 (R Core Team, 2020) using the *bibliometrix* package for bibliometric analyses (Aria & Cuccurullo, 2017), and the *igraph* package and the *Gephi* software for social network analyses and visualization (Csardi & Nepusz, 2006; Bastian er al., 2009).

2.4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF BIBLIOMETRICS

This subsection is divided into five parts. The first presents the results and discussion of co-citation analysis and intellectual structure. The second one is about the mainstream research stemming from the bibliographic coupling. The third part presents an overview of how the intellectual structure has evolved into mainstream research. The fourth part introduces social network analysis in intellectual structure and mainstream research. Finally, the fifth part discusses the findings with the literature on the constructs of value creation and stakeholders' salience.

2.4.1. CO-CITATION ANALYSIS: INTELLECTUAL STRUCTURE OF STAKEHOLDER THEORY AND URBAN CONTEXT

The two identified components of the intellectual structure using PCA within co-citation analysis were - Urban Strategy (CC1) and Urban Marketing (CC2) - and the elements of each component were detailed in Table 2.1. I chose the term "Urban Strategy" for the first component of the co-citation analysis because most of the literature identified in CC1 is related to seminal publications of stakeholder theory in strategic management studies. The choice of the designation of the second principal component with the term "Urban Marketing" is due to the predominance of literature on urban marketing-related studies, e.g., urban branding. All of them have in common three shared elements, which are related to environmental issues, collaborative governance, and mainly that related to stakeholder theory. These three elements showed some degree of cross-loading and little difference between their loadings for each component. For those presenting considerable differences, I excluded them from the component that presented the lowest loading.

Table 2.1. The Two Principal Components of the Intellectual Structure of Studies on Stakeholder Theory and Urban Context.

COMPONENT	REFERENCES AND LOADINGS
CC1 "URBAN STRATEGY"	Reed et al., 2009 **(.884)**; Carroll & Buchholtz, 1996 **(.882)**; Clarkson, 1995 **(.879)**; Rowley, 1997 **(.870)**; Timur & Getz, 2008 **(.860)**; Savage et al., 1991 **(.858)**; Carroll, 1999 **(.852)**; Friedman & Miles, 2006 **(.845)**; Jones, 1995 **(.841)**; Delmas & Toffel, 2004 **(.839)**; Donaldson & Preston, 1995 **(.780)**; Freeman et al., 2010 **(.748)**; Arnstein, 1969 **(.744)**; Bryson, 2004 **(.728)**; Freeman & Evan, 1990 **(.692)**; Mitchell et al., 1997 **(.688)**; Ansell & Gash, 2008 **(.648)**; Carroll, 1991 **(.642)**; Bryson et al., 2011 **(.640)**; Eden & Ackermann, 1998 **(.627)**; Freeman, 1984 **(.617)**; Aas et al., 2005 **(.581)**; Banville et al., 1998 **(.554)**; Stathopoulos et al., 2011 **(.469)**; Byrd, 2007 **(.452)**.
CC2 "URBAN MARKETING"	Kotler et al., 1993 **(.813)**; Merrilees et al., 2012 **(.804)**; Aas et al., 2005 **(.746)**; Byrd, 2007 **(.743)**; Kavaratzis, 2004 **(.708)**; Ansell & Gash, 2008 **(.707)**; Lucarelli & Berg, 2011 **(.615)**; Freeman & Evan, 1990 **(.598)**; Mitchell et al., 1997 **(.594)**; Stathopoulos et al., 2011 **(.588)**; Servaes, 1996 **(.584)**; Freeman et al., 2010 **(.509)**; Donaldson & Preston, 1995 **(.503)**; Arnstein, 1969 **(.492)**; Banville et al., 1998 **(.458)**; Carroll, 1991 **(.404)**; Freeman, 1984 **(-0.632)**.

Note. Adapted from "Cities through the lens of Stakeholder Theory" by D. F. Beck and J. E. Storopoli, 2021, *Cities, 118*, n. 103377, p. 4. Copyright 2021 by Elsevier.

Stakeholder Theory is the most important key of this study on urban context and its stakeholders. As such, as expected due to the search expression, this theory is a shared element within the two main components of this co-citation analysis. Although both CC1 and CC2 components share literature based on stakeholders among themselves, CC1 and CC2 differ on the literature in which their theory is grounded, while CC1 has higher loadings to the traditional and seminal publications on Stakeholder Theory, which explores constructs related to corporate social responsibility, a network perspective and ethics in order to promote an urban development oriented to the stakeholder (Carroll & Buchholtz, 1996; Carroll, 1999; Clarkson, 1995; Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Freeman et al., 2010; Reed et al., 2009; Rowley, 1997, Savage et al., 1991; among others), CC2 carries higher loadings to references which relate city branding and stakeholders exploring themes as heritage management, tourism development, and governance branding-oriented with stakeholder engagement (Aas et al., 2005; Ansell & Gash, 2008; Byrd, 2007; Kotler et al., 1993; Merrilee et al., 2012; Kavaratzis, 2004, among others).

Furthermore, Freeman (1984) had a negative loading within CC2 (-0.632) and positive within CC1 (.617), which also contributes to the assumption that CC1 is primarily oriented to urban stakeholders based on stakeholder theory than CC2; even more, CC2 does not give the same treatment to stakeholder as CC1: on the one hand, a stakeholder is the end of CC1 and the purpose of the city government is to create value

for stakeholders within an ethic perspective; on the other hand, this one is a mean for CC2 in which stakeholders play a critical role in building urban marketing and branding. Therefore, CC1 is more oriented to stakeholders, that is, on managing cities and their urban development for stakeholders, and CC2 is oriented to city branding, in which stakeholder engagement is a valuable instrument to achieve a better urban brand.

Environmental management and environmental performance care about natural resources management and sustainability issues. Although they appear in both CC1 and CC2 components, these environmental issues have different meanings for each component. However, both have taken into account how these issues affect stakeholders. On the one hand, CC1 emphasizes the role of these environmental issues in satisfying urban stakeholders through responding to institutional and societal pressures, that is - understanding how and why stakeholders are engaged matters - and then, urban managers could identify and categorize their stakeholders, and hence better satisfy them (Delmas & Toffel, 2004; Reed et al., 2009; Timur & Getz, 2008); on the other hand, CC2 exploits environmental issues not only to satisfy urban stakeholders but essentially to improve urban-branding, that is - stakeholders' perceptions matter - and managers could make the image of the city more recognized and accepted among their stakeholders, as considering the stakeholders' perception on the development of urban policies and urban tourism (Byrd, 2007).

Collaborative & participative governance is another core and shared element between both CC1 and CC2 components, which enhances a constructive relationship among corporations and their stakeholders, and then this kind of engagement enables organizations to accomplish their goals. On the one hand, the perspective of this issue within CC1 is that collaboration and engagement of stakeholders are essential, non-substitutable, and required characteristics that public and business administration should consider within cities, as literature reveals: the citizen engagement could determine and characterize public policies towards achieving societal interests, and the type of engagement influences the efficiency of citizen participation (Arnstein, 1969); the corporate system may fail without stakeholder participation (Clarkson, 1995); the importance of inter-relationships among, government, communities, and industries (Timur & Getz, 2008); and participation as a measure to identify and categorize stakeholders (Reed et al., 2009; Savage et al., 1991). On the other hand, CC2 emphasizes

the role of communication and marketing issues in order to create desirable, reliable, and trustful urban branding, after all the literature highlighted that:

- Collaboration and consensus among stakeholders strengthen trust, commitment, and a shared understanding (Ansell & Gash, 2008);
- Citizen engagement is associated with more sustainable policies, e.g., in tourism (Byrd, 2007); and
- Participation depends upon participatory communication within an organization or society (Servaes, 1996).

Therefore, while CC1 emphasizes stakeholders' collaboration and participation as a cornerstone of governance, CC2 focuses on how these could gain and sustain a good and attractive urban image.

Urban Strategy Component (CC1) is the most representative component of the intellectual structure of research on Stakeholder Theory within the urban context and represents not only responsible management which meets the expectation of urban stakeholders as previously discussed, but also meets social-political aspects of the urban system and deeps the discussion on how decisions are made taking into account those aspects (Banville et al., 1998), and then, creating public value for stakeholders (Bryson, 2004). In short, the main idea of CC1 is that urban management should meet its stakeholders' expectations and create public value through collaborative and engaged governance, which also is legitimized by environmental protection and consideration of socio-political aspects of the city.

Urban Marketing Component (CC2) emphasizes the role of marketing in developing place-branding in order to attract more investments, industries, tourists, and all sorts of potential stakeholders and then satisfy them. Thus, cities could be adaptive and productive in resolving their problems, that is, developing their ability to overcome crises or gain a more sustained competitive advantage compared to others (Kotler et al., 1993). As previously explained, CC2 not only aims to satisfy its stakeholders but also explores how to create and maintain a good and attractive urban image constructed through a consensus in order to exploit it.

Moreover, the literature which composes the intellectual structure of CC2 highlighted some considerations in which managers should take into account: first, there are multiple meanings of city branding, that is, the interpretation of city brand interpretation differs among multiple stakeholders, as well as their interests (Merrilees et

al., 2012); the cultural heritage of the city matters to the city-branding, so the interests and collaboration of urban stakeholders is relevant to formulate better policies on it (Aas et al., 2005); sustainable tourism play a critical role on urban image as well as the engagement of its stakeholders (Byrd, 2007); stakeholders' perceptions matter to city marketing implementation and a participatory communication is required in this process (Kavaratzis, 2004; Servaes, 1996); a literature review on city branding identified its three mainstream research in which branding is analyzed as production, or as appropriation and consumption, and as a positive/negative factor for urban economics, social and/or cultural issues (Lucarelli & Berg, 2011); and also, an efficient and sustainable urban infrastructure matter, e.g. sustainable and innovative policies on urban freight (Stathopoulos et al., 2011).

Therefore, the main idea of CC2 is that urban stakeholders are not only mere means to urban marketing but also interested in and benefit from the urban branding built and exploited. After all, if the urban management and its stakeholders desire to trust, reliable, and thriving urban marketing and branding, they should consider deploying democratic policies, efficient infrastructure, a more accessible environment for business, ethics-related issues, stakeholders' perceptions, and mediating their interests.

2.4.2. BIBLIOGRAPHIC COUPLING: THE MAINSTREAM STUDIES ON STAKEHOLDER THEORY AND URBAN CONTEXT

After identifying the intellectual structure of the literature on stakeholder theory in the urban context through the co-citation analysis, I performed a bibliographic coupling to obtain mainstream research. In this way, I found three principal components of the mainstream research on stakeholder theory and urban context: sustainable urban strategy, power of networks, and urban marketing. First, the term "sustainable urban strategy" was chosen because it has not only literature on strategic management applied to urban management but also has sustainability as a key core for urban development. The second principal component of the bibliographic coupling was designated as the "power of networks" due to the predominance of studies highlighting the interaction between the urban stakeholders, e.g., sociorelational capital, actor-network theory, and network studies. At least, I termed the third component urban marketing because the literature has continued evolving in urban marketing-related studies. Table 2.2 shows the references and their loadings for each one.

Table 2.2. The Three Principal Components of the Mainstream Research on Stakeholder Theory within the Urban Context.

COMPONENT	REFERENCES AND LOADINGS
BC1 "SUSTAINABLE URBAN STRATEGY"	Phang & Tan, 2016 **(.851)**; Khreis et al., 2016 **(.835)**; Chmutina et al., 2014 **(.818)**; Martin et al., 2014 **(.815)**; Ross et al., 2019 **(.798)**; Ellis et al., 2019 **(.795)**; Najd et al., 2015 **(.789)**; Li et al., 2016 **(.783)**; Arvidsson & Pazirandeh, 2017 **(.780)**; Machado et al., 2018 **(.762)**; Coetzee et al., 2019 **(.726)**; Vitiea & Lim, 2019 **(.724)**; Cregård & Sobis, 2017 **(.722)**; Lai & Ooi, 2015 **(.693)**; Nuruzzaman, 2015 **(.686)**; Amoah et al., 2022 **(.627)**; Kaur & Lodhia, 2014 **(.618)**; Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2019 **(.613)**; Panton & Walters, 2018 **(.589)**; Wojewnik-Filipkowska, 2017 **(.555)**; Manyane, 2017 **(.539)**; Kapoor et al., 2017 **(.509)**; Furber et al., 2016 **(.446)**; Le et al., 2018 **(.437)**; Ignaccolo et al., 2018 **(.400)**.
BC2 "POWER OF NETWORKS"	Long et al., 2015 **(.836)**; Le Feuvre et al., 2016 **(.776)**; Mouraviev & Kakabadse, 2015 **(.727)**; Romestant, 2020 **(.719)**; Lombarts, 2018 **(.654)**; Kapoor et al, 2017 **(.608)**; Wojewnik-Filipkowska & Węgrzyn, 2019 **(.571)**; Furber et al., 2016 **(.509)**; López-Toro et al., 2016 **(.477)**; Swann, 2017 **(.462)**; Wojewnik-Filipkowska, 2017 **(.441)**; Le et al., 2018 **(.428)**; Ferdinand & Williams, 2018 **(.419)**; Kaur & Lodhia, 2014 **(.408)**.
BC3 "URBAN MARKETING"	Castilhos, 2019 **(.742)**; Hudson et al., 2017 **(.733)**; Thelander & Säwe, 2015 **(.690)**; Eshuis et al., 2018 **(.661)**; Stylidis et al., 2015 **(.573)**; Wang, 2019 **(.565)**; Sztejnberg & Giovannardi, 2017 **(.550)**.

Note. From "Cities through the lens of Stakeholder Theory" by D. F. Beck and J. E. Storopoli, 2021, *Cities, 118*, n. 103377, p. 5. Copyright 2021 by Elsevier.

The *Sustainable Urban Strategy Component* (BC1) sheds light on emergent issues in fostering sustainable urban development and explains the role of stakeholders' engagement amid this process. The literature has shown the main emergent themes which constitute the urban development process: housing (Phang & Tan, 2016); transportation and logistics (Arvidsson & Pazirandeh, 2017; Ignaccolo et al., 2018; Khreis et al., 2016); municipal solid waste (Le et al., 2018); safety, sustainable infrastructure, urban resilience, and disaster risk reduction (Arvidsson & Pazirandeh, 2017; Chmutina, Ganor & Bosher, 2014; Li et al., 2016); governance oriented to socioeconomic and environmental development (Amoah et al., 2022; Coetzee et al., 2019; Cregård & Sobis, 2017; Kaur & Lodhia, 2014; Le et al., 2018; Li et al., 2016; Machado et al., 2018; Manyane, 2017; Martin et al., 2014; Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2019; Nuruzzaman, 2015; Panton & Walters, 2018 Ross et al., 2019; Vitiea & Lim, 2019; Wojewnik-Filipkowska, 2017); and urban events, sustainable tourism and heritage conservation (Ellis et al., 2019; Lai & Ooi, 2015; Machado et al., 2018; Ross et al., 2019; Manyane, 2017; Najd et al., 2015). As noticed in the list above, governance-related issues are the most prominent theme which scholars have studied, although it does not mean that other ones are not important.

In housing, understanding why housing-construction projects are abandoned is crucial to building a sustained housing delivery system in which the industry, house buyers, and government play a role in reviving those abandoned projects, creating value, and providing well-being to urban stakeholders (Phang & Tan, 2016). Even more, considering stakeholder theory, managers should consider stakeholders' interests, and hence, to revive those projects, managers will accomplish stakeholders' expectations on housing policies and their specific demands.

Concerning transportation and logistics, the literature has revealed that: understanding stakeholders' utilization of public transportation is a crucial measure to plan and make a better public transportation system on social, economic, and environmental issues because managers could maintain a viable rate of utilization (Arvidsson & Pazirandeh, 2017); stakeholders' engagement matters to build a sustainable infrastructure which meets the needs of the community and its surroundings, that is, managers will consider multiple stakeholders' criteria and decisions and find and share with stakeholders more straightforward solutions (Ignaccolo et al., 2018); and managers should consider stakeholders' recommendations to promote a shift of paradigm in transportation practices, and thus, building healthier and better urban mobility policies (Khreis et al., 2016).

In municipal solid waste, Le et al. (2018) proposed a replicable methodology to be applied in similar cities of developing countries, in which they analyzed in Hanoi, Vietnam: the influence of multiple stakeholders, the interaction among stakeholders within a network, and the role of each one within the solid waste system. Furthermore, each stakeholder plays a role in different stages and elements within the waste management system, such as waste generation, separation, composting, and use of compost. Also, scholars and managers could assess environmental, financial, institutional, legal, and social opportunities and obstacles for each stakeholder and how they influence each of those issues on urban systems, as waste ones.

Regarding safety, sustainable infrastructure, urban resilience, and disaster risk reduction, the mainstream literature has shown that these issues related to stakeholders matter to building a sustainable urban development: public transportation could be cleaner, economic, valuable, and sustainable in order to make it attractive, ethical and desirable to be exploited by its stakeholders (Arvidsson & Pazirandeh, 2017); stakeholders play a critical role in integrating disaster risk reduction activities to urban

design and planning processes, and each of them has different and similar responsibilities at different levels of those activities (Chmutina et al., 2014); and the stakeholders' expectations on infrastructure and construction projects are essential to be perceived by managers whose would like to promote and develop harmonious and sustainable development within the city and regions (Li et al., 2016).

A governance oriented to socioeconomic and environmental development has been widely explored in the literature within BC1, which deals with social responsibility, competitiveness, economic development, environmental protection, and social collaboration and engagement. That is, the literature has shown that: socioeconomic inclusion of stakeholders and a equalitarian governance matter (Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2019); government and public policies could influence local, regional and national competitiveness on supply chain and also the risk of the country (Nuruzzaman, 2015); the role of the management of environmental stakeholders as their inclusion and compliance, e.g. in the case of significant public events, as olympic games (Ross et al., 2019); engagement has been a requirement to formulate and build policies which meet end-users interests, expectations and needs, collaboration of governments on cross-boundaries, and also to disclosure and make policies more transparent, e.g. sustainability policies and indicators, waste management (Amoah et al., 2022; Kaur & Lodhia, 2014; Li et al., 2016; Machado et al., 2018; Manyane, 2017; Vitiea & Lim, 2019), in which cooperation and collaboration are essential to the dissemination of sustainability agenda and hence is an influence on internal stakeholders' decision-making, and then, urban regeneration, sustainable development could be promoted, e.g. considering public participation and online forums (Cregård & Sobis, 2017; Martin, et al., 2014; Panton & Walters, 2018; Vitiea & Lim, 2019), however, not all stakeholders have power to influence governance, it reflects fragmentation and absence of cooperation in the governance, thus social collaboration could be understood examining ties of social networks on urban policies and systems (e.g. waste management system) and then investigating how to strength those ties and increase their cooperation (Le et al., 2018).

Furthermore, by understanding different concepts of stakeholders from what should be taken into account in the decision-making in urban development, urban managers could support cities on both strategic and operational levels, and research has revealed that stakeholders' interests and engagement are nowadays proposing an urban

paradigm at promoting sustainable development and smart cities (Wojewnik-Filipkowska, 2017).

Concerning urban events (e.g., the Olympic games), sustainable tourism, and heritage conservation, sustainable urban development benefits from fair marketing legislations, including environmental stakeholders on decision-making, the variety of conceptions of stakeholders on heritage, promoting tourism stakeholders' engagement and collaboration among policymakers, and also considering stakeholders' visual preference of historic urban areas. The literature has revealed that: first, urban events, marketing legislation on sponsors of urban events should be created through policymakers' consultation with stakeholders of these events in order to protect and increase fair marketing legislation and decrease and even eliminate ambush marketing (Ellis et al., 2019), and then environmental stakeholders play a critical role in including sustainability agenda within these events (Ross et al., 2019); second, there are a wide variety of stakeholders' understandings on heritage and its visual preference, the participation and collaboration of those stakeholders and policymakers whose are related or responsible by urban/regional historic areas or heritage-related could lead to higher levels of urban sustainability and then, conserving urban heritage, creating value, and satisfying their stakeholders (Lai & Ooi, 2015; Machado et al., 2018; Manyane, 2017; Najd et al., 2015).

I excluded both papers by Kapoor, Mittal, Sharma, and Dhiman (2017) and Furber et al. (2016) from BC1 because there are cross-loadings between those references with BC2. They have lower loadings within BC1 (consecutively .509 and .446) than BC2 (consecutively .608 and .509). Notice that those references only belong to BC2. Also, although Le et al. (2018) cross-loaded between BC1 (.437) and BC2 (.428), their loadings are not much different, and their argument about stakeholders' involvement and influence matters whether for making a sustainable urban development or the constitution of vital stakeholders' networks, as shown in the current discussion.

The *Power of Networks Component* (BC2) highlights the importance of stakeholders' engagement, milieu, social networks, interaction, and partnerships, and also that social and relational capital plays a critical role within those networks in order to promote a plural, smart and sustainable urban governance which creates value for all people and promotes collective learning. The agents composing these networks could be businesses, government, civil society, and any stakeholder. Even more, this component

lies not only on Stakeholder Theory (Le Feuvre et al., 2016; Long et al., 2015; among others) but also on Actor-Network Theory (Ferdinand & Williams, 2018; Romestant, 2020), and then in BC2, urban stakeholders could be understood as human or non-human actors and the city is composed by a network of those actors.

The mainstream literature of BC2 has shown on the relation of stakeholders theory related to the networks that: stakeholders' involvement and local governments initiative matter in building urban policies, as environmental compensation (Long et al., 2015); behaviors and attitudes for urban partnership and stakeholder interaction matter should be taken into account in order to make a decision on business or policy-making, that is, understanding what are the enablers and inhibitors of stakeholders interactions to make a valuable network (Le Feuvre et al., 2016); in order to create value, government and bidders should engage actively stakeholders in the formulation process of bids because there will be alignment between those stakeholders, citizens and government on criteria of the bids as resulted from public-private partnerships and others networks (Mouraviev & Kakabadse, 2015), as well as rewarding stakeholders who takes part of making some policy or project successful (Kapoor et al, 2017), understanding the interaction, the influence and the role of stakeholders within a network (Le et. al., 2018) and a shared vision to manage conflicts among stakeholders and collaboration (Furber et al., 2016; Swann, 2017) are all important to the network achieve its goal in a sustainable manner; the urban hospitality and pluralism could be a result from stakeholders' interaction with various products and within a lot of contexts (Lombarts, 2018); and public-private partnerships could be a mean to achieve sustainable development mainly explained by the innovativeness of the relational and social capital (Wojewnik-Filipkowska & Węgrzyn, 2019).

Furthermore, regarding Actor-Network Theory in BC2, research has emphasized the role of sustainability actants within their milieu (Romestant, 2020). It has provided considerations of power as a phenomenon that is evolving, relational, and transformational among those urban actants, e.g., in the case of urban events, policies, and other urban networks (Ferdinand & Williams, 2018). In a milieu, a sustainability actant could be considered a promoter, translator, or target: the first one organizes irreversible processes which make a network; translators create consensus among stakeholders within a network which is required to enhance innovations; and the latter is made by people or things which are responsible by actions which enable the city to

achieve sustainability (Romestant, 2020). Even more, urban politics matter the asymmetry among political actors, whether human or non-human ones, creates challenges for policy-makers and urban-system managers whose should be analyzed for each urban context; that is, the power directly affects the development of those policies and systems (Ferdinand & Williams, 2018).

I excluded the papers written by Wojewnik-Filipkowska (2017) and Kaur and Lodhia (2014) from BC2 due to cross-loadings on both references between BC1 (consecutively .555 and .618) and BC2 (consecutively .441 and .408), and taking into account the lower loadings to BC2 and higher to BC1, those references remained within BC1.

The *Urban Marketing Component* (BC3) The Urban Marketing Component (BC3) explores how branding and marketplaces have affected urban people's lives and how urban branding has consulted its related stakeholders as well as considering the higher importance of stakeholders' engagement and the perceptions. Mainstream research has revealed that: on one hand, urban branding promotes socioeconomic and spatial exclusion and has been an instrument of urban elites to achieve their goals in urban governance (Castilhos, 2019); on the other hand, stakeholders' engagement could make a bottom-up governance (Eshuis et al., 2018; Hudson et al., 2017), in which stakeholders' perception is a mean to deploy a co-creative strategy for urban-branding and renew the city image for a desirable one (Thelander & Säwe, 2015), and then, reconcile the differences among stakeholders (e.g. citizens, tourists, government and industry), creating a sustainable imagery (e.g. green city), and then attracting more investments (Stylidis et al., 2015; Sztejnberg & Giovannardi, 2017; Wang, 2019).

2.4.3. AN OVERVIEW OF STAKEHOLDER THEORY WITHIN CITIES: FROM THE INTELLECTUAL STRUCTURE TO THE MAINSTREAM RESEARCH

So, from mapping the science of stakeholder theory within the city context, I analyzed how its intellectual structure evolved in its mainstream research (as illustrated in Figure 2.2): first, CC1 became two components, in which BC1 highlighted the role of sustainability and strategic management of stakeholders on the urban development, and BC2 on the emergence of special attention to the power of networks among urban stakeholders, e.g., its roots have come from the study of Timur and Getz (2008) on the

importance of networks; and second, CC2 remains with the existence of only one component for urban marketing (BC3), however, while some scholars close urban marketing with sustainability, others critique the effects of the exclusion stemmed from urban elites dominance.

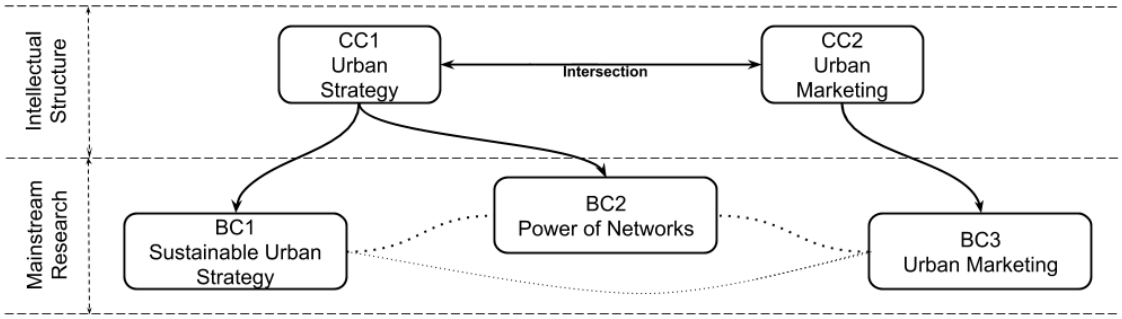

Figure 2.2. The evolution from the Intellectual Structure to the Mainstream Research on Stakeholder Theory within cities.
Note. From "Cities through the lens of Stakeholder Theory" by D. F. Beck and J. E. Storopoli, 2021, *Cities, 118,* n. 103377, p. 6. Copyright 2021 by Elsevier.

2.4.4. PERFORMING A SOCIAL NETWORK ANALYSIS ON THE INTELLECTUAL STRUCTURE AND MAINSTREAM RESEARCH

The social network analysis aims to analyze the relationship among a set of nodes (i.e., papers and publications) and the edges (i.e., ties) connected among themselves. Then, I can measure some structural properties of the network, such as the centrality, transitivity, structural balance, and cohesiveness of the actors, subgroups, groups, and also from the whole network. For more details on those concepts, I recommend reading Wasserman and Faust (1994) and Newman (2018). In the social network analysis, I used the centrality, density, transitivity, and cohesion manual measures. In order to avoid repetitiveness, I did not take into account the local clusterability because it is already obtained through the analysis of the betweenness centrality (Newman, 2018).

Taking into account how data is disposed of, whether for co-citation analysis or bibliographic coupling, I should point out that the structure of their informational networks are: first, one-mode networks, which involves data on just a single set of actors, that is, the set of publications composed within each of both networks; second, as previously explained, I gathered the data from Scopus database, in other words, I used archival methods; third, the unit of observation is the citation; and fourth, the graphs are

directed since a citation depends on one citing other previous publications, however, bibliographic coupling and co-citation analysis transform those directed graphs into non-directed graphs.

The intellectual structure is stemmed from the co-citation analysis, which considers the cited documents of the lists of references from the sample of publications, and then the co-cited documents which are in such lists are the basis for the constitution of the co-citation network as well as their weight of edges and degree of nodes. As shown in Table 2.3, the co-citation network presents a size of 30 papers, of which 21 are part of CC1 and 9 of CC2; the centralization degree of CC1 (.485) is higher than that of CC2 (.25), indicating that the most central publications are within CC1 component; the density is higher in CC1 (.514) than CC2 (.25); the density is the division of the number of the actual connections by the number of the possible ones, the data reveals that CC1 has papers with more connections than those in CC2; considering the whole Co-citation Network, the total ties between both components CC1 and CC2 are 25, and the possible ones are 189, so, approximately 13,2% of the possible ties exist in this network, indicating a lower density and cohesion manual within the total Co-citation Network; and the transitivity is higher in CC1 (.619) than in CC2 (.473), suggesting that those publications of CC1 are more likely to be co-cited in the sample of 140 papers than those of CC2.

Table 2.3

Properties of the Co-citation Network

Component	***Size***	***CD***	***Density***	***Transitivity***
CC1	21	.4857142857	.5142857143	.6194837635
CC2	9	.25	.25	.4736842105

Note. The total size of the network is 30. The total ties between components are 25, and the possible ones are 189. So, the Cohesion Manual of the whole network is .132. And *CD* = Centralization Degree. Adapted from "Cities through the lens of Stakeholder Theory" by D. F. Beck and J. E. Storopoli, 2021, Cities, 118, n. 103377, p. 6. Copyright 2021 by Elsevier.

Looking inside at both the CC1 and CC2 components of the Co-Citation Network, I can analyze the centrality measures of each publication (node), that is, the properties of them, in order to reveal the prestige of those publications and their relations. Considering that this network has non-directional relations of the graphs, I only analyzed the measures of degree centrality, betweenness centrality, and closeness centrality.

Table 2.4 provides more detailed information on the properties of each publication (node) within the Co-Citation Network, which is ordered from the node with the highest degree of centrality (DC) to the lowest one. In this way, Table 2.4 reveals that: First, the

degree centrality of the nodes of this network ranges between 2 and 29. Considering the whole network (i.e., 30 nodes) and its DC, the mean is 9.46, the median is 8, the modes are 9 and 7, the minimum remains 2, and the maximum observation below the upper whisker is 18. Ten publications have DC higher than the mean, 18 have DC equal higher than the median, and 3 are outliers and higher than the maximum observation below the upper whisker. Even more, in order to better visualize the data disposed of in Table 2.4, I plotted those measures of centrality in box plots in Figure 2.3, except for those normalized ones.

Table 2.4

Detailed properties of each publication (node) within the Co-Citation Network

Publication	***Component***	***DC***	***NDC***	***BC***	***BCN***	***CC***
Freeman (1984)	CC1	29	1.000	1.861	.004	.008
Mitchell et al. (1997)	CC1	22	.759	52.478	.129	.015
Clarkson (1995)	CC1	19	.655	31.093	.077	.015
Donaldson & Preston (1995)	CC1	18	.621	42.452	.105	.016
Savage et al. (1991)	CC1	13	.448	30.454	.075	.015
Delmas & Toffel (2004)	CC1	11	.379	11.047	.027	.014
Carroll & Buchholtz (1996)	CC1	11	.379	15.051	.037	.015
Jones (1995)	CC1	11	.379	22.197	.055	.014
Carroll (1991)	CC1	10	.345	29.716	.073	.015
Reed et al. (2009)	CC1	10	.345	3.750	.009	.014
Rowley (1997)	CC1	9	.310	9.893	.024	.014
Bryson (2004)	CC1	9	.310	2.442	.006	.013
Carroll (1999)	CC1	9	.310	7.744	.019	.015
Freeman et al. (2010)	CC1	9	.310	25.485	.063	.016
Arnstein (1969)	CC1	8	.276	26.339	.065	.013
Bryson et al. (2011)	CC1	8	.276	17.964	.044	.014
Byrd (2007)	CC2	8	.276	60.700	.150	.016
Banville et al. (1998)	CC1	8	.276	12.670	.031	.014
Lucarelli & Berg (2011)	CC2	7	.241	39.581	.097	.015
Eden & Ackermann (1998)	CC1	7	.241	0.939	.002	.012
Freeman & Evan (1990)	CC1	7	.241	8.274	.020	.014
Timur & Getz (2008)	CC1	7	.241	8.408	.021	.015
Aas et al. (2005)	CC2	6	.207	7.516	.019	.014
Friedman & Miles (2006)	CC1	6	.207	1.655	.004	.013
Kavaratzis (2004)	CC2	5	.172	13.660	.034	.011
Merrilees et al. (2012)	CC2	5	.172	15.228	.038	.011
Stathopoulos et al. (2011)	CC2	4	.138	1.013	.002	.012
Ansell & Gash (2008)	CC2	3	.103	6.404	.016	.011
Kotler et al. (1993)	CC2	3	.103	0	0	.008
Servaes (1996)	CC2	2	.069	0	0	.005

Note. *DC* = Degree Centrality; *NDC* = Normalized Degree Centrality; *BC* = Betweenness Centrality; *NBC* = Normalized Betweenness Centrality; and *CC* = Closeness Centrality. The sum of the column *DC* results in a total of 284 edges. The number of edges of nodes within CC1 is 241, and for CC2 is 43, which means consecutively 84.85% and 15.14% of the total number of edges of this network. Adapted from "Cities through the lens of Stakeholder Theory" by D. F. Beck and J. E. Storopoli, 2021, Cities, 118, n. 103377, p. 7. Copyright 2021 by Elsevier.

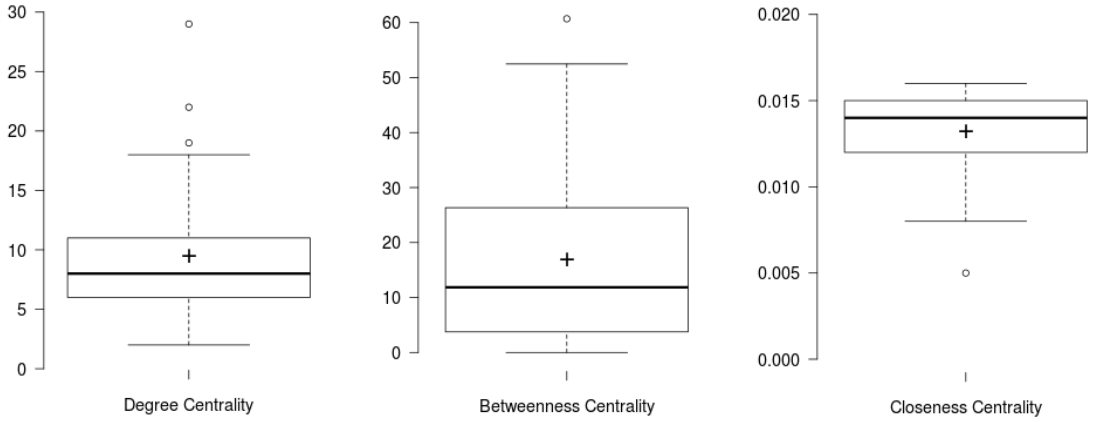

Figure 2.3. Box plots of centrality measures of the Co-Citation Network.
Note. Own elaboration.

In other words, the prestige varies among the nodes of this network, suggesting inequality of connections and some preferences of the scholars for some publications. This inequality is expected for the intellectual structures considering a twofold reason: first, theories have been developed over time considering the existence of their seminal literature and foremost theorists, which have the most preferred over other scholars and publications to be cited and referenced (e.g., Lotka's law); second, this inequality is hypothetically strengthened over time, in this case, the older publication of this network is from 1969 (by Arnstein) and the newest from 2012 (by Merrilees and colleagues). The following points will explain more detail this inequality of prestige.

Second, as expected, the publication of Freeman (1984) is the node that has the most significant number of edges (29 of 284 or 10.21% of the total number of edges) because the search expression gathers only publications which cite Freeman (1984) led us to this result. Third, converging with earlier results presented in Table 2.3 on the higher centralization degree of CC1 than CC2 i.e., the most important publications of the Co-citation Network belong to CC1, the results in Table 2.4 shows that the 16th most essential publications belong to CC1 component, which means that 16/30 of the most critical nodes of the sample within Co-citation Network are part of the CC1.

Fourth, as a complement of the last consideration, considering that the total number of edges is 284 and that the sum up of the 16th most publications with edges belongs to CC1 have 206 edges, it means that 72.53% of the edges connect nodes from the CC1 component, indicating that CC1 plays a critical role in the composition and dynamism within the Intellectual Structure. Note that that value of 72.53% does not

consider all the nodes of CC1, only the 16th most nodes with more connections of the whole network and CC1 simultaneously, so the participation of CC1 is even higher in the network (84.85%), while CC2 has only 15.14% in this perspective of edge connections.

Fifth, the normalized degree centrality (NDC) takes this network's highest number of edges, which is 29. It assumes it as 1.0 or 100% of the DC's highest value presented within the network so that the other nodes are compared with that. Although the NDC does not enable us to make the same conclusions from the degree centrality, it provides another way of visualization which can be helpful to compare the node with the highest number of edges to others. Seventh, considering the publications that have more than 50% of the NDC, which are Freeman (1984), Mitchell et al. (1997), Clarkson (1995), and Donaldson and Preston (1995), I argue that those are the most relevant nodes of this network, that is, the seminal publications on stakeholder theory are the cornerstone of the intellectual structure. These first three are those outliers of DC distribution earlier discussed, and the last one has the maximum value.

Seventh, the publications that have an NDC between 30% and 50% also play an essential role within this network, which are Savage et al. (1991), Delmas and Toffel (2004), Carroll and Buchholtz (1996), Jones (1995), Carroll (1991), Reed et al. (2009), Rowley (1997), Bryson (2004), Carroll (1999), and Freeman et al. (2010), suggesting that seminal literature on stakeholder theory, corporate social responsibility, and value-creation to stakeholders remains at this level of NDC within the network.

Eight publications with an NDC range between 15% and 29.99% have somewhat prestigious degrees; at least, they are important due to their introduction to the urban theme with a broader range of categories related to topics explored in the context of a plethora of urban stakeholders. For instance, Arnstein (1969) highlighted the importance of citizen engagement, Byrd (2007) on sustainable tourism, Lucarelli and Berg (2011) and Kavaratzis (2004) on urban branding, Timur and Getz (2008) on the inter-relationships among government, communities, and industries, Aas et al. (2005) on the cultural heritage and city-branding made by the interests and collaboration of urban stakeholders, and Merrilees et al. (2012) on multiple stakeholders at developing urban branding.

Ninth, the studies of Ansell and Gash (2008), Kotler et al. (1993), and Servaes (1996) have lower prestige to the whole network. However, they are still important to the

CC2 component if taken into account that the CC2 component actually has a considerably lower centralization degree than CC1.

Tenth, considering the geodesic distance and shortest path between a node with another one, the betweenness centrality (BC) assumes that a node can constitute a preferential attachment by choosing the shortest path between one node with another, that is, there is a privileged location, which a publication could serve as an "intellectual turning point," a bridge between components and a class of documents (Shin & Perdue, 2019; Uysal, 2010), as well as network clusterability (Newman, 2018). Regarding the BC of nodes within this network, there are no outliers and no mode; its minimum is 0 (also its lowest value), its maximum is 60.7 (its highest value, too), its mean is 16.86, and its median is 11.859. Although this network has no outliers, it has unequal and considerably different values so that only five nodes have a value higher than half of the maximum one (60.7), which was discussed in the next paragraph.

In this way, study I confirms the phenomenon of BC serving as a turning point between components as well as the publications of the intellectual structure that have more control over the network flow. Byrd (2007) has the highest BC with 60.7 of the shortest pathways between other nodes. Byrd (2007) is part of the CC2, which is directly connected to three nodes of CC2, which are Aas et al. (2005), Lucarelli and Berg (2011), and Kavaratzis (2004), and five of CC1, which are Timur and Getz (2008), Freeman (1984), Arnstein (1969), Jones (1995), and Donaldson and Preston (1995). The second one with the highest BC is Mitchell et al. (1997) from the CC1, having 52.47 of the shortest pathways, which is connected to only two nodes of CC2 and twenty of CC1. The third one is Donaldson and Preston (1995) from the CC1, having 42.4 of the shortest pathways and being connected to three nodes of CC2 and fifteen of CC1. From CC2, the fourth one is Lucarelli and Berg (2011), with 39.58 of the shortest paths, which is connected to four nodes of CC1 and three of CC2. From CC1, Clarkson (1995) has a BC of 31.09, which is connected to only one node of CC2 (Lucarelli & Berg, 2011) and eighteen of CC1. Savage et al. (1991) is the following node with the highest BC (i.e., 30.45), which stems from CC1 and has been connected to thirteen nodes of CC1 and without any connection to CC2. The majority of the other nodes with lower BC of this network have only connections to others of the same component and play a peripheral role within the network.

However, some nodes have been connected to only nodes of the other component. This is the case for Stathopoulos et al. (2011) from CC2, which has been connected to four nodes of the CC1, i.e., Freeman (1984), Bryson et al. (2011), Banville et al. (1998), and Donaldson and Preston (1995). According to Stathopoulos et al. (2011), an efficient and sustainable urban infrastructure (e.g., urban freight) is vital whether for making an urban strategy or urban marketing, and its relationship with those nodes of CC1 reveals that the urban stakeholders' expectations normative approach, ethical perspective, and even for creating value for them are necessary to be well understood in order to satisfy their stakeholders. Also, this is the case for Servaes (1996), a node from CC2 that has been connected to two nodes of CC1, which are Arnstein (1969) and Freeman (1984), supporting the idea that participatory communication is a crucial way to achieve more citizen engagement on urban policies and to be used by public administrators to manage democratically the urban stakeholders. Even more, both Stathopoulos et al. (2011) and Servaes (1996) are of the nodes that have the lowest numbers of the three measures of centrality analyzed in this paper (i.e., degree centrality, betweenness centrality, and closeness centrality).

Previous discussions on DC revealed the publications (nodes with a greater degree of autonomy in the co-citation network) and those with the network's most prestigious and popular information. Concerning BC, I revealed how a node could connect with others and, thus, how a node could control the flow of information. So, in order to better understand the distance among nodes of the co-citation network and the nodes best located in the network that easily influence other ones, the following point discusses the closeness centrality.

Eleventh, considering that closeness centrality (CC) is "the mean distance from a node to other nodes" (Newman, 2018, p. 170), which indicates how a node is influential on the network flow. As shown in Table 4, the CC ranges from .005 to .016 (adjusted). The mean of CC is .013, the median is .014, the mode is .015, the minimum is .008, the maximum is .016 (also the highest value), and there is only one outlier, which is the lowest value (.005) and is above the minimum of distribution, that is Servaes (1996). The majority of the nodes are above the median. 19 out of 30 nodes are equal to or higher than the median value, revealing that the Co-citation Network is considerably composed of nodes concentrated with approximate CC over the same measure. Consecutively, Donaldson and Preston (1995), Byrd (2007), and Freeman et al. (2010) are the top-three

nodes with the highest CC; that is, they are in the most advantageous position in the network and can easily influence the other nodes in the Co-Citation Network. As DC and CC are often positively correlated (Newman, 2018), I did not expect that although Freeman (1984) is the most prestigious (i.e., with the highest DC) of this network, the same is not applied to both BC and CC measures (.008 for the last one). Therefore, Freeman (1984) has the highest popular information in the network. Meanwhile, his publication has a low ability to control the flow of information and has not been well located in the network as those top-three nodes in CC.

Figure 2.4 shows a visualization of the Co-Citation Network through the Yifan Hu algorithm. We choose the Yifan Hu algorithm due to its more realistic demonstration of the dynamism within the network in an efficient and high-quality manner (Hu, 2004). For instance, Figure 2.4 shows us the peripheral and central nodes within this network, its components, and edges, which is helpful for a better understanding of those earlier eleven points explained.

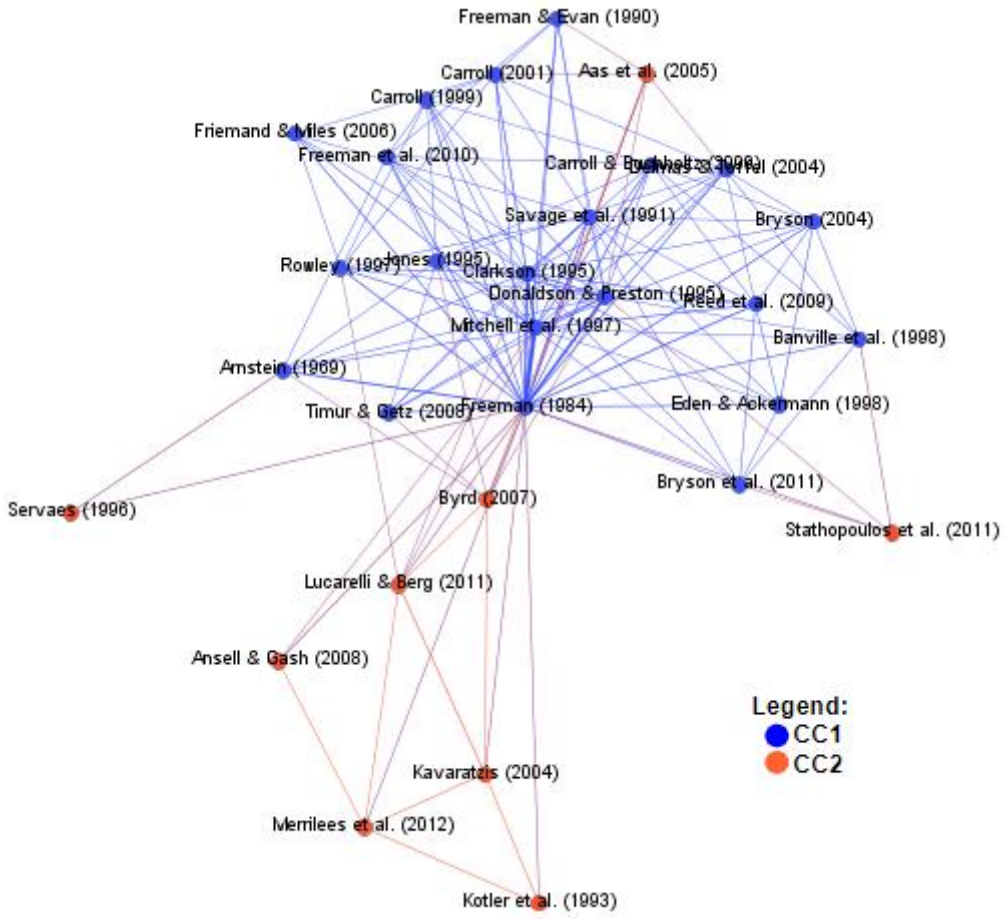

Figure 2.4. Visualization of the Co-Citation Network through the Yifan Hu algorithm.
Note. From "Cities through the lens of Stakeholder Theory" by D. F. Beck and J. E. Storopoli, 2021, *Cities, 118*, n. 103377, p. 8. Copyright 2021 by Elsevier.

In sum, the results of the Co-Citation Network reveal that: (1) CC1 has the most central publications, the publications with more connections and dynamism, and more probability of having publications co-cited than CC2; (2) there is a variance of prestige among the nodes of this network. That is, scholars have a preference for some publications over others, mainly those located at CC1; (3) the most prestigious nodes of this network are consecutively Freeman (1984), Mitchell et al. (1997), and Clarkson (1995), which means that these are the cornerstone of the intellectual structure of study I; (4) the phenomenon of BC as an indicator of a turning point between components in the intellectual structure is also shown in study I, in which Byrd (2007), Mitchell et al. (1997), Donaldson and Preston (1995), and Clarkson (1995) are turning points between CC1 and CC2 having a higher number of connections with nodes of the other component if compared with the majority of the nodes; (5) although Freeman (1984) has the highest prestige, this reference also has a low ability to control the flow of information and needs to be better located in this network.

The mainstream research stems from the bibliographic coupling, which is based on the idea that identifying a cited document by at least two others constitutes a similarity measure. Then, there is a higher probability that those citing papers have similarities on a specific matter. In other words, while cited papers have been central in co-citation analysis, citing papers have been analyzed in bibliographic coupling.

Table 2.5 shows the general properties of Bibliographic Coupling Network: first, it has a total of 55 nodes, considering that 27 of them are part of BC1, 14 of BC3 and also 14 of BC2, revealing that BC1 has higher number of nodes than the other two components; second, the three components have lower centrality degree if compared with those measures of the co-citation network, however it is expected due the nature of considering emerging publications of bibliographic coupling, so the data shows that BC3 (.076) and BC1 (.065) has higher centrality degree than BC2 (0), revealing that the two firsts have more prestige than BC2 as mainstream research; the density measures reveal that all of the three components (BC1, BC2, and BC3) are huge dense (higher than .9), so this network has high degree of connectivity among the ties of its components, it is also revealed by the closeness numbers of possible and total ties between components; and following the pattern of density, transitivity of those three components are higher than .95, suggesting that the publications within them have higher probability to be citing papers of the same literature.

Table 2.5

Properties of the Bibliographic Coupling Network

Component	***Size***	***CD***	***Density***	***Transitivity***	***Cohesion***	***TTBC***	***PTBC***	***CM***
BC1	27	0.0655	0.9345	0.9912	3	696	756	0.9206
BC3	14	0.0769	0.9231	0.9556	6	520	574	0.9059
BC2	14	0.0000	1.0000	1.0000	13	542	574	0.9443

Note. The total size of the network is 55. CD = Centralization Degree. *TTBC* = Total ties between components. *PTBC* = Possible ties between componentes. CM = Cohesion Manual. Adapted from "Cities through the lens of Stakeholder Theory" by D. F. Beck and J. E. Storopoli, 2021, *Cities, 118*, n. 103377, p. 8. Copyright 2021 by Elsevier.

Table 2.6 provides more detailed information on the properties of each publication (node) within the Bibliographic Coupling Network in descending order by degree of centrality. In this way, Table 2.6 reveals that: first, the degree centrality of the nodes within this network varies in the range of 5 and 53; second, considering the whole network (i.e., 55 nodes) and its DC, the mean is 50.25, and the both median and mode is 52, only three nodes are below the mean of the whole network (which are the outliers of the DC in this network), and 11 below the median and mode, so the majority of nodes (i.e., 52 of them) have a DC between 51 (minimum) and 53 (maximum), it was expected due the high degree of density of the three components of this network seen in Table 2.5. Among these three nodes below the mean, two of them are part of BC1 (Khreis et al., 2016; MacDonald et al., 2019) and one of BC3 (Castilhos, 2019), which reveals the why and whose nodes are responsible for the mild lower density degree of BC1 and BC3, however, their density is not highly impacted because their density is still higher than .9. In other words, except for these three nodes, all of the other nodes in this network have similarly the same prestige, which was expected because those papers were recently published and had not enough time as those publications of the intellectual structure to be constituted as a seminal publication. The papers of this network have been published since 2014, which are only the mainstream research of the topic of study I.

Table 2.6

Detailed properties of each publication (node) within the Bibliographic Coupling Network

Publication	*Component*	*DC*	*NDC*	*BC*	*NBC*	*CC*
Ross et al. (2019)	BC1	53	0.981	6.181	0.004	0.010
Vitiea & Lim (2019)	BC1	53	0.981	14.062	0.010	0.010
Wang (2019)	BC3	53	0.981	0.805	0.001	0.009
Ndaguba & Hanyane (2019)	BC1	53	0.981	2.755	0.002	0.009
Ellis et al. (2019)	BC1	53	0.981	12.570	0.009	0.010
Amoah et al. (2022)	BC1	53	0.981	9.876	0.007	0.011
Eshuis et al. (2018)	BC3	53	0.981	78.338	0.055	0.015
Manyane (2017)	BC1	53	0.981	6.411	0.004	0.010
Sztejnberg & Giovanardi (2017)	BC3	53	0.981	6.501	0.005	0.010
Stylidis et al. (2015)	BC3	53	0.981	36.561	0.026	0.012
Najd et al. (2015)	BC1	53	0.981	5.463	0.004	0.009
Nuruzzaman (2015)	BC1	53	0.981	2.377	0.002	0.010
Katsela & Browne (2019)	BC3	52	0.963	30.551	0.021	0.014
Wojewnik-Filipkowska & Węgrzyn (2019)	BC2	52	0.963	3.663	0.003	0.010
Coetzee et al. (2019)	BC1	52	0.963	0.246	0.000	0.010
Machado et al. (2018)	BC1	52	0.963	1.623	0.001	0.009
Ignaccolo et al. (2018)	BC1	52	0.963	11.757	0.008	0.012
Lombarts (2018)	BC2	52	0.963	4.137	0.003	0.010
Le et al. (2018)	BC1	52	0.963	3.440	0.002	0.010
McGehee et al. (2018)	BC2	52	0.963	38.644	0.027	0.015
Le Pira (2018)	BC3	52	0.963	37.866	0.026	0.014
Panton & Walters (2018)	BC1	52	0.963	0.320	0.000	0.009
Cregård & Sobis (2017)	BC1	52	0.963	2.799	0.002	0.010
Suárez-Cebador et al. (2017)	BC2	52	0.963	1.199	0.001	0.010
Hudson et al. (2017)	BC3	52	0.963	44.921	0.031	0.015
Arvidsson & Pazirandeh (2017)	BC1	52	0.963	1.435	0.001	0.010
Swann (2017)	BC2	52	0.963	20.732	0.014	0.013
Wojewnik-Filipkowska (2017)	BC1	52	0.963	1.392	0.001	0.010
Kapoor et al., 2017	BC2	52	0.963	0.766	0.001	0.009
Li et al. (2016)	BC1	52	0.963	1.143	0.001	0.010
López-Toro et al. (2016)	BC2	52	0.963	0.629	0.000	0.009
Furber et al. (2016)	BC2	52	0.963	9.581	0.007	0.011
Phang & Tan (2016)	BC1	52	0.963	2.246	0.002	0.010
Le Feuvre et al. (2016)	BC2	52	0.963	19.019	0.013	0.011
Burnside-Lawry & Carvalho (2016)	BC1	52	0.963	2.711	0.002	0.010
Kong et al. (2015)	BC3	52	0.963	6.685	0.005	0.011
Macharis & Milan (2015)	BC1	52	0.963	2.130	0.001	0.010
Lai & Ooi (2015)	BC1	52	0.963	0.655	0.000	0.009
Thelander & Säwe (2015)	BC3	52	0.963	11.256	0.008	0.012
Burnside-Lawry & Carvalho (2015)	BC1	52	0.963	24.812	0.017	0.013
Chmutina et al. (2014)	BC1	52	0.963	0.606	0.000	0.010
Kaur & Lodhia (2014)	BC1	52	0.963	1.262	0.001	0.009
Macharis & Milan (2014)	BC2	52	0.963	25.299	0.018	0.013
Martin et al. (2014)	BC1	52	0.963	2.035	0.001	0.010
Romestant (2020)	BC2	51	0.944	12.308	0.009	0.011
Ferdinand & Williams (2018)	BC2	51	0.944	57.951	0.040	0.017
Bennis & Bahi (2016)	BC3	51	0.944	63.112	0.044	0.017
Long et al. (2015)	BC2	51	0.944	18.657	0.013	0.012
Mouraviev & Kakabadse (2015)	BC2	51	0.944	1.028	0.001	0.010
Nordtømme et al. (2015)	BC3	51	0.944	48.995	0.034	0.015
Bennis & Bahi (2015)	BC3	51	0.944	56.027	0.039	0.016
Tretvik et al. (2014).	BC3	51	0.944	57.380	0.040	0.016
Khreis et al. (2016)	BC1	39	0.722	1.110	0.001	0.009
Castilhos (2019)	BC3	12	0.222	1.466	0.001	0.008
MacDonald et al. (2019)	BC1	5	0.093	0.267	0.000	0.008

Note. *DC* = Degree Centrality; *NDC* = Normalized Degree Centrality; *BC* = Betweenness Centrality; *NBC* = Normalized Betweenness Centrality; and *CC* = Closeness Centrality. The sum of the column DC results in a total of 2,764 edges. The number of edges of nodes within BC1 is 1,352, BC2 is 724, and BC3 is 688, which means consecutively 48.91%, 26.19%, 24.89% of the total number of edges of this network. Adapted from "Cities through the lens of Stakeholder Theory" by D. F. Beck and J. E. Storopoli, 2021, Cities, 118, n. 103377, p. 9. Copyright 2021 by Elsevier.

In order to provide better visualization of the centrality measures disposed of in Table 2.6, Figure 2.5 presents a box plot for each one, except those normalized ones.

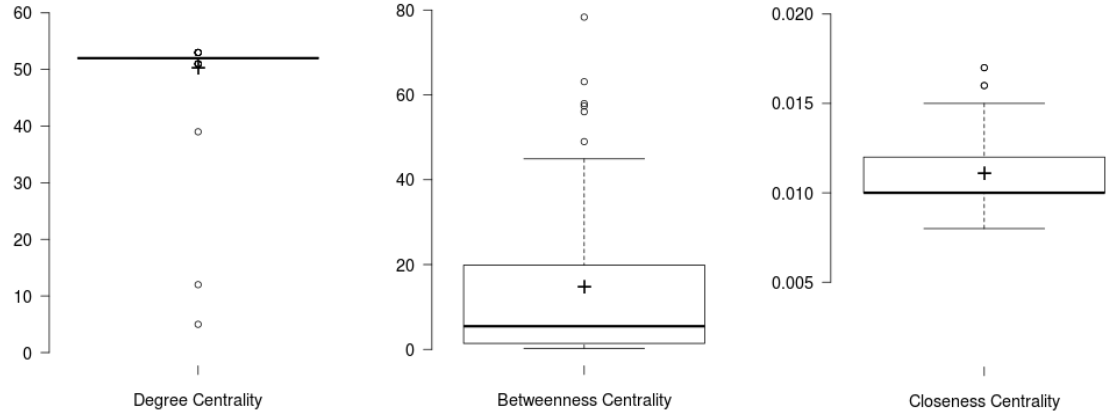

Figure 2.5. Box plots of centrality measures of the Bibliographic Coupling Network.
Note. Own elaboration.

Third, the betweenness centrality of this network varies in the range of .246 (Coetzee et al., 2019) to 78.33 (Eshuis et al., 2018), its mean is 14.83, its median is 5.46 (Najd et al., 2015), and no values occur more than once (i.e., there is no mode) within this network. Considering the frequency of the BC data in this network, the minimum remains at .0246. However, the maximum observation until the upper whisker is 44.92 (Hudson et al., 2017, from BC3), and then, there are six outliers: first, Eshuis et al. (2018) from BC3, with 78.33; second, Bennis and Bahi (2016) from BC3, with 63.11; third, Ferdinand and Williams (2018) from BC2, with 57.95; fourth, Tretvik et al. (2014) from BC3 with 57.38; fifth, Bennis and Bahi (2015) from BC3 with 56.02; and sixth, Nordtømme et al. (2015), from BC3 with 48.99.

Note that five of those six outliers are within BC3 and only one to BC2, suggesting that the theme of urban marketing has had a space between the sustainable urban strategy and the power of networks emerging approaches.

These five outliers are positioned in a privileged location within the Bibliographic Coupling Network and, thus, could be preferential attachments due to their shortest path among other nodes. As shown in Figure 2.6, all of these five nodes are located on the right side of the network, but there is no exact reason that explains it. Even more, differently from the Co-Citation Network, the BC could not reveal links between components within the Bibliographic Coupling Network because this network has a high density and low centralization degree (as seen in Table 2.5) as well as its recent formation (since 2014) in contrast with the oldest formation of the intellectual structure (from 1969

to 2012). In other words, I could not identify the nodes with the function of "bridge" among the components of this network due to its immaturity, which has not been developed with enough time to build solid clusters as the Co-Citation Network did over the years.

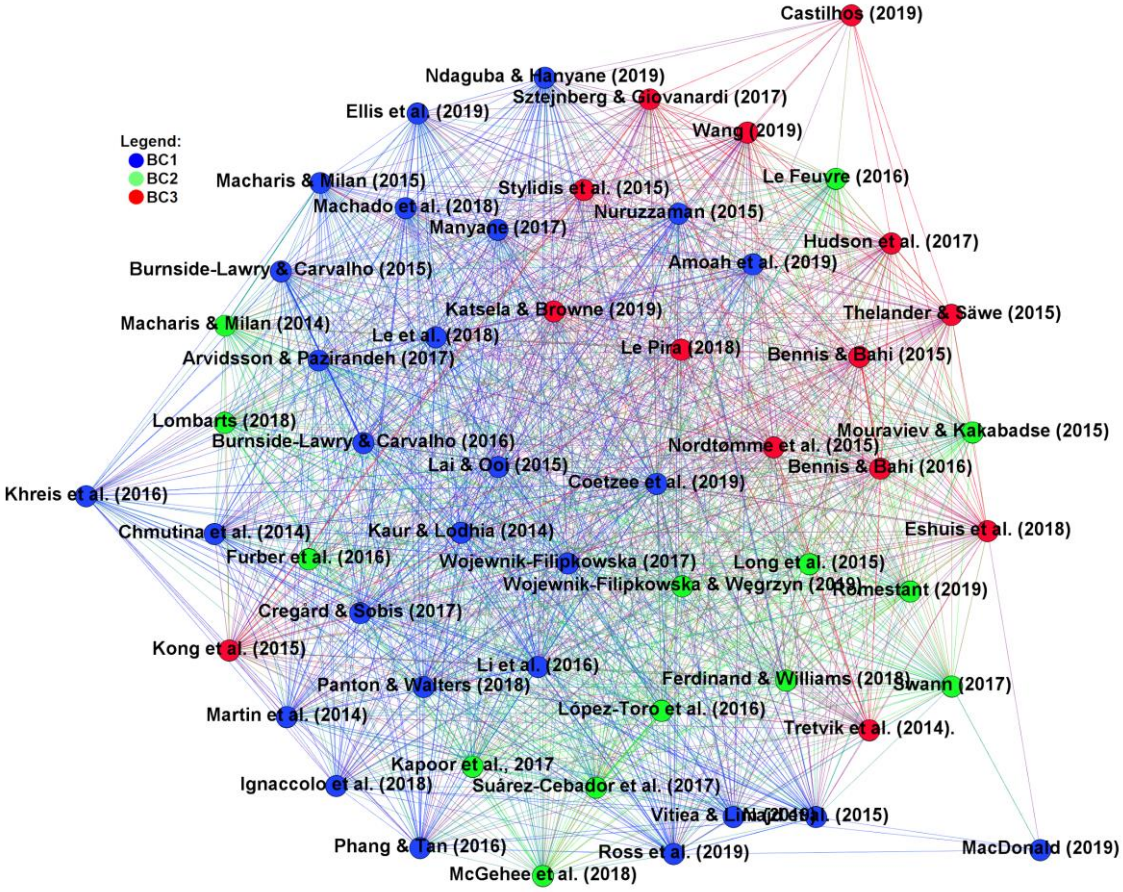

Figure 2.6. Visualization of the Bibliographic Coupling Network through the Yifan Hu algorithm with some modified positions of nodes.

Note. Adapted from "Cities through the lens of Stakeholder Theory" by D. F. Beck and J. E. Storopoli, 2021, *Cities, 118*, n. 103377, p. 10. Copyright 2021 by Elsevier.

Figure 2.6 shows a visualization of the Bibliographic Coupling Network through the Yifan Hu algorithm. Although I chose the Yifan Hu algorithm due to its more realistic demonstration of the dynamism within the network in an efficient and high-quality manner (Hu, 2004), I made some changes in the position of the nodes in order to improve its visualization, e.g., the MacDonald et al. (2019) and Castilhos (2019) were so far from the other nodes of the network, so I assumed that approximating them to the network would make more accessible the visualization as well as fitting the figure in a better size to this publication.

Fourth, the closeness centrality of this network varies in ascending order from .008 to .017. However, considering its standard distribution, the minimum remains .008,

but its maximum observation below the upper whisker is 0.1587, so higher values are outliers. Even more, its mean is .011, its median is .01, and its mode is .012. Therefore, the data reveals three outliers, which are Bennis and Bahi (2016) from BC3 containing .0169, Ferdinand and Williams (2018) from BC2 containing .0166, and Bennis and Bahi (2015) from BC3 containing .0163. In other words, these outliers are more able to control the flow of information within the Bibliographic Coupling Network than others and, then, have more influence in the flow of information of the mainstream research in this context. Also, as DC and CC are often positively correlated (Newman, 2018), the nodes with the lowest DC have the lowest CC, e.g., Castilhos (2019) and MacDonald et al. (2019) within this network.

In sum, the results of the Bibliographic Coupling Network reveal that: first, the majority of nodes are within BC1; second, BC1 and BC3 have more prestige than BC2; third, this network is dense, highly connected among its components, and its publications have a higher probability of being citing papers of the same literature; fourth, except for Khreis et al. (2016), MacDonald et al. (2019) and Castilhos (2019), all of the other nodes in this network have similarly the same prestige, because this network has not achieved maturity; fifth, the theme of networks has had a space well located between the sustainable urban strategy and the urban marketing emerging approaches; and sixth, due the immaturity of this network, I cannot identify turning points between components.

2.4.5. VALUE CREATION AND STAKEHOLDERS' SALIENCE IN THE URBAN CONTEXT

As previously seen in the theoretical background, the stakeholder theory has worked not only on the construct of stakeholder but also on the construct of value creation (Bridoux & Stoelhorst, 2014; Tantalo & Priem, 2014; among others) and stakeholders' salience and their attributes of power, legitimacy, and urgency (Mitchell et al., 1997). This subsection discusses the findings with the extant literature on stakeholder theory and urban studies.

By considering the construct of value creation of stakeholder theory (Freeman et al., 2010; Bridoux & Stoelhorst, 2014; Tantalo & Priem, 2014; among others), the urban strategy (CC1) and the sustainable urban strategy (BC1) has considered how urban managers can meet the stakeholders' expectations through their engagement and to

deliver a sustainable urban system and policies that are valuable for their stakeholders (Banville et al., 1998; Bryson, 2004; Phang & Tan, 2016; Le et al., 1998; Ibrahim et al., 2017; among others). The power of networks (BC2) contributes to the value creation construct with a plural, smart, and sustainable governance (Le Feuvre et al., 2016; Long et al., 2015, among others). Furthermore, urban marketing (BC3) has created value for urban stakeholders by building valuable urban branding based on stakeholders' perceptions (Wang, 2019; Castilhos, 2019; Eshuis et al., 2018). So, value creation for urban stakeholders is a concern in the sustainable urban strategy, power of networks, and urban marketing, because it results in better urban governance, the acknowledgment of the common good, and the democratization of urban management. Further studies can explore details of the value creation process of which one of these components in the urban context.

Although the urban-specific literature has not discussed the construct of stakeholders' salience, some suggestive points exist. First, in urban strategy (CC1), urban marketing (CC2) sustainable urban strategy (BC1), urban managers ought to satisfy the stakeholders' needs, suggesting that citizens, investors, tourists, and industries possibly have a degree of power over urban managers (e.g., Delmas & Toffel, 2004; Kotler et al., 1993). Second, legitimacy is suggested in CC1, CC2, and BC1 whenever urban management has to respond to institutional and societal pressures. The main concerns of legitimacy in urban management have been related to urban image management, ethics issues, social inclusion, environmental protection, democratic policies, a more accessible environment for businesses, and communication tools and urban marketing to engage urban stakeholders in the urban management (e.g., Ansell & Gash, 2008; Byrd, 2007; Fainstein, 2000). Third, the urgency of stakeholders appears in urban strategy when the urban stakeholders require the minimum infrastructure and resources to supply the needs of the urban socioeconomic development and risk disaster management (Arvidsson & Pazirandeh, 2017; Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2019; among others). To conclude, by taking into account the scarcity of studies exploring the salience of urban stakeholders in urban management, future studies should fill this gap in the literature through the creation, validation, and application of a psychometric scale to urban managers about their perception of urban stakeholders' salience.

2.5. CONCLUSIONS OF STUDY I

The purpose of this paper was achieved by mapping the intellectual structure and mainstream research on Stakeholder Theory within cities. I found that the intellectual structure has two principal components: the urban strategy (CC1) and the urban marketing (CC2) – and these both lay their structure on stakeholder theory, environmental management, environmental performance, and collaborative and participative governance. On the one hand, CC1 is the most representative component of such intellectual structure, focusing on meeting the expectation of urban stakeholders and social-political aspects of the urban system in which they create value for stakeholders. On the other hand, CC2 seeks to satisfy urban stakeholders by exploring how to create and maintain a good and attractive urban image constructed through a consensus in order to exploit it.

The network analysis reveals that CC1 has the most significant publications with more connections and dynamism and more probability of having publications co-cited than CC2. Freeman (1984), Mitchell et al. (1997), and Clarkson (1995) are the cornerstone references of the intellectual structure of study I, all of them from CC1, suggesting the higher importance of urban strategy rather than urban marketing for stakeholder theory in cities. Also, although Freeman (1984) has the highest prestige, this reference also has a low ability to control the flow of information and is not well located in this network, which competes with turning points between both components by publications such as Byrd (2007), Mitchell et al. (1997), Donaldson and Preston (1995), and Clarkson (1995).

In addition, I found that the mainstream research has three principal components which are – the sustainable urban strategy (BC1), the power of networks (BC2), and the urban marketing (BC3) – and the findings reveal that: BC1 has shown the importance of stakeholders' engagement amid the urban development process in themes as housing, transportation and logistics, solid waste, safety, sustainable infrastructure, urban resilience, disaster risk reduction, governance, urban events, sustainable tourism and heritage conservation; BC2 has not only shown the role of stakeholders' engagement, but also the importance of milieu, social networks, actor-network theory, interaction and partnerships, and also that social and relational capital plays a critical role within those urban networks in order to develop a plural, smart and sustainable urban governance which creates value for all people and promotes collective learning; and BC3 has explored

how branding and marketplaces have affected urban people's lives and how urban branding has consulted its stakeholders as well as considering the higher importance of stakeholders' engagement and perceptions to explore and exploit an attractive urban image.

The network analysis reveals that, as expected, the mainstream research has yet to achieve maturity because it is composed of the newest relevant publications on the topic, and then there is the same degree of prestige as the vast majority of its publications. The high density of this network suggests that its publications have a higher probability of citing papers of the same literature. And also, four publications of the BC3 are outliers of betweenness centrality in this network, suggesting that the theme of urban marketing is a high-trend topic, which is located between the sustainable urban strategy and the power of networks emerging approaches.

I mapped the stakeholder theory in the urban context, the main theoretical contribution. In this way, considering the results and findings, I suggest that future studies should: (1) explore qualitatively in the literature some possible interrelation among each of the three components of the mainstream research, that is, how sustainable urban strategy (BC1), the power of networks (BC2), and the urban marketing (BC3) are interrelated among themselves as illustrated by the mainstream research connections in Figure 2.2 (see the dotted lines); and (2) explore how the mainstream research could potentially contribute in expanding the boundaries of knowledge on the constructs as mentioned earlier of the stakeholder theory.

The study's novelty lies in providing a detailed and structured framework on how the stakeholder theory has been used in the urban context. I synthesized the literature on stakeholder theory in the urban context and discussed implications for the constructs of value creation and stakeholders' salience in sustainable urban strategy, power of networks, and urban marketing components. Policy-makers can be benefited from this research: (1) by managing urban policies to meet the needs of the urban stakeholders as a strategy for urban management, (2) can strengthen and improving the urban networks of human and technical resources, (3) by enhancing the urban image into a more attractive one, (4) improve the urban marketing, urban branding, and the communication with the urban stakeholders. In other words, urban managers and policy-makers can democratize and make urban systems more efficient through the lens of stakeholder theory.

Urban planners should stimulate the stakeholders' engagement to understand and meet their needs and expectations, which can result in the sustainable urban development of local communities. In this way, considering the stakeholders will increase the quality of life of the citizens, the experience of industry, tourists, and business, among other stakeholders. And then, local communities can be benefited from more democratic and efficient management, which is based on consensus among all the stakeholders and efficiency by meeting their most different needs and aspirations.

Bibliometrics has some limitations: The major one is related to citations, which are assumed to have synergic interactions. In other words, the purpose of citation is to promote theoretical agreement. Nevertheless, not all citations are synergetic, and some can have the purpose of theoretical discordance. Another limitation is that I only extracted data from the Scopus database, the most comprehensive scholarly database regarding social sciences and urban planning. Further research should make amends to include other databases, such as the Web of Science. Finally, while I explicitly reported the full search expression used in Study I, future studies should expand it to include unforesighted topics and contexts.

3. STUDY TWO: IDENTIFYING THE URBAN STAKEHOLDERS

In this chapter, I present the second study of my doctoral dissertation, which identifies and discusses what are the urban stakeholders in relation to municipal governments through the literature on Urban Studies.

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Since urbanization is a phenomenon that scholars and cities have studied, have become places where people are living in, they have become places where citizens, businesses, and tourists interact among themselves. In this way, the public administration of municipalities has not only the role of managing the city but also should have a strategy to manage their stakeholders.

Although the literature on stakeholder theory has been widely explored in the Business literature, there are few studies in Public Administration on the topic of cities. The theory's primary construct is the concept of - stakeholder - defined by Freeman (1984, p. 49) as "who can affect or are affected by the achievement of an organization's purpose." The gap is the absence of a straightforward synthesis of who are the urban stakeholders of the municipalities because the literature has solely mentioned urban stakeholders who are specific to the context of some studies (Kaur & Lodhia, 2014; Chmutina, Ganor, & Bosher, 2014; Li et al., 2016; Eshuis et al., 2018; Lai & Ooi, 2015; among others), and little is known on what are the urban stakeholders at all.

Thus, this paper aims to identify the urban stakeholders of municipalities found in the literature. The importance of this study is based on the fact that if public managers consider their stakeholders, they will make better strategies for their public organizations, solve technical and political problems, and then advance the common good (Bryson, 2004). In this way, other essential constructs of the stakeholder theory were not used in the analysis of this chapter because they do not contribute to the purpose of this paper, such as the salience (Mitchell et al., 1997), the normative, instrumental, and descriptive approaches of such theory (Donald & Preston, 1995), and value creation (Bridoux & Stoelhorst, 2014; Clarkson, 1995; Harrison et al., 2010; Tantalo & Priem, 2014).

I provided a synthesis of the literature on urban stakeholders with two mainstream perspectives: The categorical and general approaches. The first one has twelve types of urban stakeholders, which are (1) governments, (2) industry, (3) citizens, (4) civil society, (5) tourists, (6) academia, (7) unions and workers, (8) media, (9) investors, (10) financial institutions, (11) suppliers, and (12) supranational and international organizations. The last one is a critique of the categorical approach because it leads to misinterpretations and fails to focus on the goals of urban management and its projects and partnerships.

After this introduction, this paper revisits the stakeholder theory and the construct of the stakeholder defined by Freeman (1984) used in the discussion. Then, I present the method and the sample of papers reviewed composed of 36 documents. The results and discussion section are divided into two subsections for both mainstream perspectives on urban stakeholders in the literature. And finally, I conclude with the main findings, contributions, limitations, and implications.

3.2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Stakeholder theory differentiates shareholders and stakeholders, contrasting with the agency theory. Instead of emphasizing only the interest of shareholders and organizational owners (i.e., only one party) as the agency theory does, the stakeholder theory has driven the attention to the interest of any person and a third party affected by or affects the organization's actions and policies. Furthermore, stakeholder theory concerns issues related to trading, value creation, managerial mindset, social responsibility, and ethics of capitalism. In the interaction among the uncountable number of organization's stakeholders, the stakeholder theory has integrated businesses with ethics and created value for them in the medium and long term (Bonnafous-Boucher & Rendtorff, 2016; Freeman, 1984; Freeman et al., 2010).

The main constructs of the stakeholder theory are: the salience of the stakeholder (Mitchell et al., 1997); the descriptive, instrumental, and normative approaches of the stakeholder theory (Donaldson & Preston, 1995); the value creation (Freeman et al., 2010; Bridoux & Stoelhorst, 2014; Clarkson, 1995; Harrison et al., 2010; Tantalo & Priem, 2014; among others); and the own construct of stakeholder (Freeman, 1984).

Even more, stakeholder theory has a multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary perspective. This theory can be explored more in applied social sciences such as Public

Administration (Harrison et al., 2015). By considering the goal of this study, which is to identify the urban stakeholders, I chose to utilize only the construct of stakeholder suggested by Freeman (1984) to find and discuss the types of urban stakeholders in urban management in the qualitative analysis. Even more, Freeman's (1984) definition is also helpful for understanding how the literature has dealt with these urban stakeholders.

For this purpose, Freeman's (1984, p. 49) definition of a stakeholder is "who can affect or are affected by the achievement of an organization's purpose," which is used in the discussion. The constructs of salience (Mitchell et al., 1997), value creation (Freeman et al., 2010; Bridoux & Stoelhorst, 2014; Clarkson, 1995; Harrison et al., 2010; Tantalo & Priem, 2014; among others), and the descriptive, instrumental, and normative approach (Donaldson & Preston, 1995) of the stakeholder theory was not applied to the discussion of this paper because they do not allow the researchers to find and understand what and who are the urban stakeholders. However, these constructs are important and should be explored in further studies.

3.3. METHOD AND RESEARCH DESIGN

Considering the purpose of this second study, which is to identify the urban stakeholders in the context of municipal governments, I used the same data as the first study of this doctoral dissertation. In other words, the sample data of literature are those used in the co-citation analysis and bibliographic coupling from the first study. By reading the literature on the intellectual structure and mainstream research on stakeholder theory in the urban context, I identified the urban stakeholders that the authors of the papers in the sample had written about.

More specifically, I gathered the sample from *Scopus* database with the searching expression: TITLE-ABS-KEY ("Stakeholder$") AND TITLE-ABS-KEY ("city" OR "cities" OR "municip*" OR "urban") AND DOCTYPE (ar OR re) AND PUBYEAR < 2020 AND PUBYEAR > 2009 AND REFPUBYEAR = 1984 AND REFTITLE("Stakeholder") AND REFAUTH("Freeman"). In this way, the sample consists of 140 articles (ar) and reviews (re) published between 1984 and 2019, whose cited the main seminal work on stakeholder theory written by Freeman (1984), which also captures the singular or plural variation of stakeholder and also different tags on the context of urban management.

After gathering the sample, I applied a qualitative reading of the 140 papers of the sample as a whole, in which the stakeholders used in these papers were the unit of analysis. I excluded 104 papers from the analysis because they do not directly deal with urban stakeholders. Remaining thus 36 papers.

When classifying the urban stakeholders, I took into account the type or group in which the stakeholder can be understood as being part of such typology or class. Table 3.1 shows the reference, title, journal, the 2019 Scientific Journal Rankings (SJR), and the urban stakeholders involved in.

Table 3.1.

References, Titles, Journals, SJR 2019, and Stakeholders Identified in the Sample

Reference	Title	Journal	SJR 2019	Stakeholders
Arnstein (1969)	A Ladder of Citizen Participation	Journal of the American Planning Association	1.554	Citizens
Aas et al. (2005)	Stakeholder collaboration and heritage management.	Annals of Tourism Research	2.228	Civil Society Tourists Government Industry Citizens
Byrd (2007)	Stakeholders in sustainable tourism development and their roles: applying stakeholder theory to sustainable tourism development	Tourism Review	0.76	Tourists Citizens
Timur & Getz (2008)	A Network Perspective on Managing Stakeholders For Sustainable Urban Tourism	International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	2.203	Industry Government Citizens
Merrilees et al. (2012)	Multiple stakeholders and multiple city brand meanings	European Journal of Marketing	1.033	Citizens Industry Tourists Investors Civil Society
Khreis et al. (2016)	The health impacts of traffic-related exposures in urban areas: Understanding real effects, underlying driving forces and co-producing future directions	Journal of Transport and Health	0.997	Citizens Government Industry Civil Society Investors
Le Feuvre et al. (2016)	Understanding stakeholder interactions in urban partnerships	Cities	1.606	Partnerships
Arvidsson & Pazirandeh (2017)	An ex-ante evaluation of mobile depots in cities: A sustainability perspective	International Journal of Sustainable Transportation	1.493	Academia Citizens Civil Society Government Union Industry
Kaur & Lodhia (2014)	The state of disclosures on stakeholder engagement in sustainability reporting in Australian local councils	Pacific Accounting Review	0.205	Citizens Civil Society Financial Institutions Investors Suppliers Unions
Chmutina et al. (2014)	Role of urban design and planning in disaster risk reduction	Proceedings of the Institution of Civil Engineers: Urban Design and Planning	0.237	Civil Society Citizen Industry Government Financial Institutions Suppliers Unions
Nadj et al. (2015)	Visual preference dimensions of historic urban areas: The determinants for urban heritage conservation	Habitat International	1.543	Tourists Citizens
Long et al. (2015)	Who are the stakeholders and how do they respond to a local government payment for ecosystem services program in a developed area: A case study from Suzhou, China	Habitat International	1.543	Government Media Civil Society Academia Industry
Mouraviev & Kakabadse (2015)	Public–private partnership's procurement criteria: the case of managing stakeholders' value creation in Kazakhstan	Public management review	2.212	Suppliers Government Civil Society Industry Financial Institutions Partnerships
Hudson et al. (2017)	Building a place brand from the bottom up: A case study from the United States	Journal of Vacation Marketing	0.927	Citizens Industry Government

Table 3.1. (Continued)

Li et al. (2016)	Investigating stakeholder concerns during public participation	Proceedings of the Institution of Civil Engineers: Municipal Engineer	0.229	Citizens Government Civil Society
Furber et al. (2016)	Conflict management in participatory approaches to water management: A case study of lake ontario and the St. Lawrence River Regulation	Water	0.657	Government Industry Civil Society Academia Tourists
Eshuis et al. (2018)	The differential effect of various stakeholder groups in place marketing	Environment and Planning C: Politics and Space	0.998	Government Citizens Industry
Sztejnberg & Giovannardi (2017)	The ambiguity of place branding consultancy: working with stakeholders in Rio de Janeiro	Journal of Marketing Management	1.156	Industry Media Government Supranational/ International Organizations
Lai & Ooi (2015)	Branded as a World Heritage city: The politics afterwards	Place Branding and Public Diplomacy	0.279	Government Industry Civil Society Citizens
Thelander & Säwe (2015)	The challenge of internal stakeholder support for cocreational branding strategy	Public Relations Inquiry	0.424	Government
Ferdinand & Williams (2018)	The making of the London Notting Hill carnival festivalscape: Politics and power and the Notting Hill carnival	Tourism management perspectives	1.186	Government Civil Society Citizens Financial Institutions Industry
Le et al. (2018)	Understanding the stakeholders' involvement in utilizing municipal solid waste in agriculture through composting: A case study of Hanoi, Vietnam	Sustainability	0.581	Government Industry Academia Civil Society
López-Toro et al. (2016)	Consideration of stakeholder interests in the planning of sustainable waste management programmes	Waste Management and Research	0.65	Citizens Investors Industry Unions Governments Partnerships Media Suppliers
Phang & Tan (2016)	Challenges of implementing build-then-sell housing delivery system to address the abandoned housing problem in Malaysia.	Malaysian Journal of Economic Studies	0.128	Citizens Industry Government Financial Institutions
Vitiea & Lim (2019)	Voluntary environmental collaborations and corporate social responsibility in Siem Reap City, Cambodia	Sustainability Accounting, Management and Policy Journal	0.672	Government Civil Society Industry Citizens
Wang (2019)	Green city branding: perceptions of multiple stakeholders	Journal of Product and Brand Management	0.841	Citizens Tourists
Machado et al. (2018)	Governing Locally for Sustainability: Public and Private Organizations' Perspective in Surf Tourism at Aljezur, Costa Vicentina, Portugal.	Tourism Planning and Development	0.521	Government Industry
Castilhos (2019)	Branded places and marketplace exclusion	Consumption Markets & Culture	0.904	Industry Citizens Government Civil Society Academia
Ndaguba & Hanyane (2019)	Stakeholder model for community economic development in alleviating poverty in municipalities in South Africa	Journal of Public Affairs	0.206	Citizens Industry Academia Investors Government

Table 3.1. (Continued)

Panton & Walters (2018)	'It's just a Trojan horse for gentrification': austerity and stadium-led regeneration	International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics	0.693	Civil Society Citizens Industry Government Academia Media
Amoah et al. (2022)	The level of participation of the end-users in the construction of the RDP houses: the case study of Manguang municipality	International Journal of Construction Management	0.571	Citizens Government
Romestant (2020)	Sustainability agencing: The involvement of stakeholder networks in megaprojects.	Industrial Marketing Management	2.084	Government Civil Society Supranational/ International Organizations Industry Tourists Citizens
Ross et al. (2019)	Governance of Olympic Environmental Stakeholders	Journal of Global Sport Management	0.331	Supranational/ International Organizations Government Civil Society Industry Media
Coetzee et al. (2019)	Changing stakeholder influences in managing authoritative information–the case of the Centraal ReferentieAdressenBestand (CRAB) in Flanders	Journal of Spatial Science	0.439	Citizens Government Industry
Cregård & Sobis (2017)	Dissemination of Environmental Information and its Effects on Stakeholders' Decision-Making: A Comparative Study between Swedish and Polish Municipalities	NISPAcee Journal of Public Administration and Policy	0.296	Government Citizens Industry Academia Civil Society Unions
Stylidis et al. (2015)	Three Tales of a City: Stakeholders' Images of Eilat as a Tourist Destination	Journal of Travel Research	3.014	Citizens Industry Unions Tourists

Note. Own elaboration. *SJR* means "Scientific Journal Rankings" made by *Scimago*, in this table the data refers to 2019, and all of this information is available on https://www.scimagojr.com/journalrank.php

In a nutshell, there are thirteen different occurrences of stakeholders, which are: (1) the government, (2) industry, (3) citizens, (4) civil society, (5) tourists, (6) academia, (7) Union, (8) media, (9) investors, (10) financial institutions, (11) suppliers, (12) supranational and international organizations, and (13) partnerships.

Furthermore, using Freeman's (1984) definition of a stakeholder, I analyze how each of the thirteen urban stakeholders affects or is affected by the achievement of the municipality's objectives. The goal of quantitative analysis is to provide comprehensive and generalist information of data; meanwhile, the qualitative approach provides more detailed information.

3.4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The literature on Stakeholder Theory applied to the context of urban management points out two perspectives: one emphasizing the existence of a range of urban stakeholders and the other contrasting with the first one, in which the urban stakeholders are analyzed together in partnerships. By taking a look at the intellectual structure, the urban strategy has erased questions on how to manage efficient urban governance and attractive and sustainable tourism (Aas et al., 2005; Timur & Getz, 2008; Byrd, 2007; Kotler et al., 1993; among others).

From the perspective of the different types of urban stakeholders, the urban stakeholders identified in the mainstream literature are: governments, industry, citizens, civil society, tourists, academia, union, media, investors, financial institutions, suppliers, and supranational and international organizations. On the other hand, the other perspective has focused solely on the - partnerships - in the city rather than individual types of urban stakeholders because the goals of urban management are what matters and how the urban stakeholders can do to achieve the objectives of a determined program or partnership of the city. In other words, the first perspective has a typological approach, while the other has a general approach.

3.4.1. AN OVERVIEW OF THE URBAN STAKEHOLDERS THROUGH AN EXPLORATORY DATA ANALYSIS

Table 3.2 presents the number of occurrences, the median of citations, and the median of SJR 2019 for each of the thirteen urban stakeholders mentioned in the sample.

The number of occurrences variable ranges from 3 to 29 (as well as the minimum and maximum consecutively), its mean is 11.61, its median is 6 (referring to unions), and its mode is 5, although there is no outlier for the number of occurrences, there are four urban stakeholders above the mean, which are in descending order: government, industry, citizen, and civil society.

Table 3.2.

Number of occurrences, median of citation and median of SJR 2019 on the sample papers.

Urban Stakeholder/Statistical Properties	***Occurrences***	***Median of Citation***	***Median of SJR 2019***
Government	29	5	0.6645
Industry	28	4.5	0.9040
Citizen	28	6.5	0.8410
Civil Society	19	9	0.6930
Tourists	8	11	1.2880
Academia	8	3	0.6750
Union	6	9	0.4730
Media	5	4	0.6930
Investors	5	24	0.6500
Financial Institutions	5	12	0.2370
Suppliers	4	13	0.4435
Partnerships	3	12	1.6060
Supranational/International Organizations	3	1	1.1560
Mean	11.615	8.769	0.794
Median	6	9	0.693
Mode	5	9	0.693

Note. Elaborated by the author. *SJR* means "Scientific Journal Rankings" made by *Scimago*. The Median of Citation considers the number of citations on the *Scopus* database on December 18th, 2020.

The citation median ranges from 1 to 24, its mean is 8.76, and its median and mode are 9. There is a unique outlier: Investors are the urban stakeholder type with the highest citation median. Excluding the outlier, there are four urban stakeholders above the median and the mode, which are in ascending order, suppliers, financial institutions, partnerships, and tourists. Even more, the citation median reveals scholars' degree of interest in a determined topic and is a proxy of the visibility of the papers. In this way, investors, suppliers, financial institutions, partnerships, and tourists are the urban stakeholders getting more attention from the scholars in mainstream research.

In order to provide a better visualization of the number of occurrences and median of citations for each urban stakeholder in the sample, Figure 3.1 interplays these two variables, which are not correlated. The x-axis stands for the number of occurrences, the y-axis for the categorical variable on the name of the urban stakeholder, and the color of the bars reveals the density of the median of citations, in which a more precise bar means a higher median of citations and a darker bar means lower median of citation. Although the government, industry, and citizens are the top-3 urban stakeholders considering the number of occurrences, they are above the mean and median on the citation median. The same occurs to the median of citation; although investors, suppliers, financial institutions, partnerships, and tourists have a higher median than the median and mode of the median of citation, they are above the median of the number of occurrences.

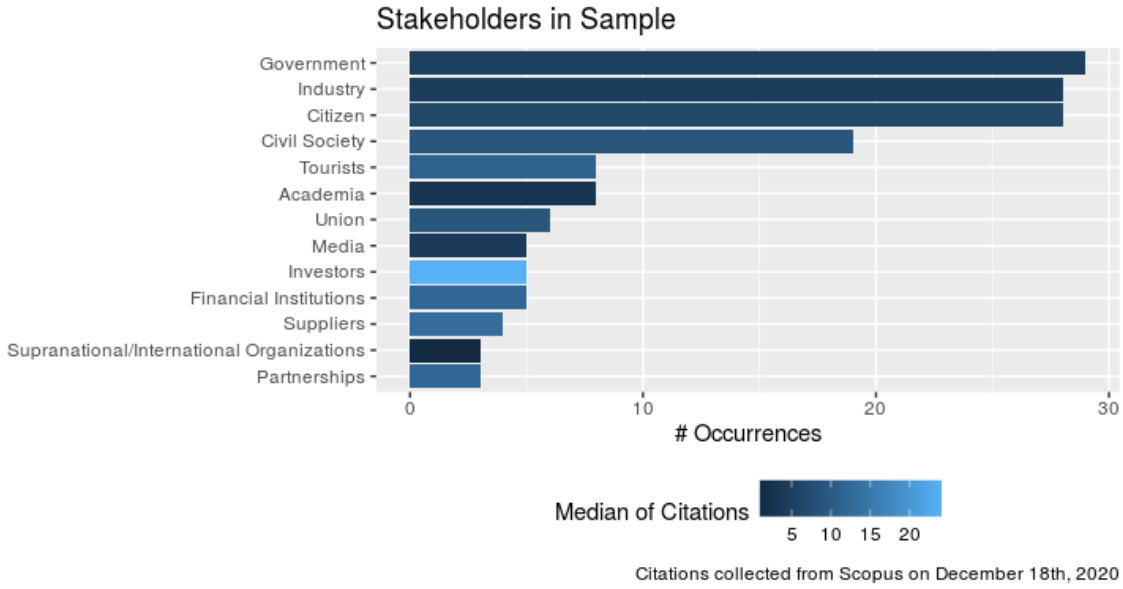

Figure 3.1. "Number of occurrences" and "median of citations" of urban stakeholders in the sample.
Note. Own elaboration.

The distribution of the elements within a variable matter when data is being analyzed. Boxplots are widely used to visualize and understand how a variable is distributed, such as the median, the upper and lower whiskers, and outliers. In this study, I used the method proposed by Tukey (1977), as previously described in the method section. In this way, Figure 3.2 shows two boxplots, one representing the number of occurrences and the other representing the median of citation of the urban stakeholders in the sample.

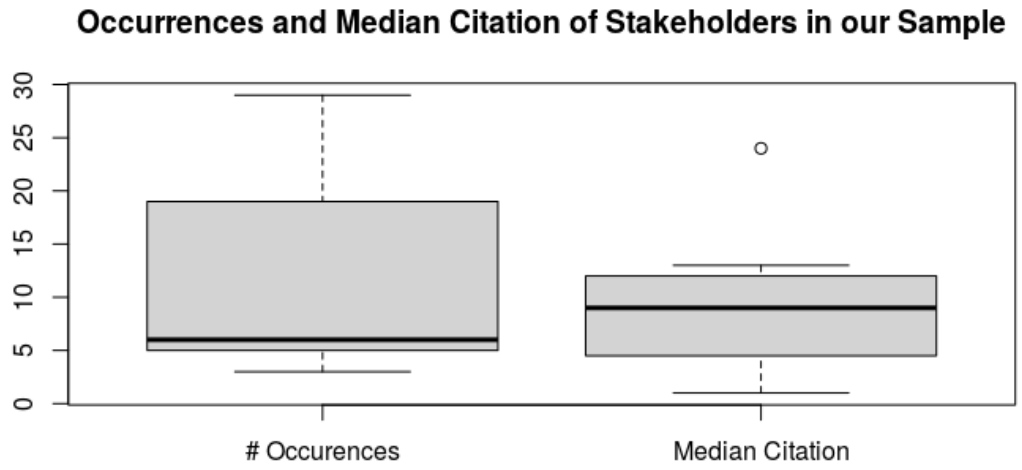

Figure 3.2. Boxplots of the variables "number of occurrences" and "Median of Citation" of the urban stakeholders in the sample.
Note. Own elaboration.

The last but not least important studied variable is the median SJR, which measures the median of the SJR and is a proxy for the visibility of the journals in which the type of urban stakeholder was mentioned. While the median citation is a proxy of the visibility of the paper, the median SJR reveals the visibility of the journal in which a paper was published. Figure 3.3

presents a boxplot of the median SJR of the stakeholders in the sample, showing three outliers, two above the upper and one below the lower. As shown in Table 3.1, the median SJR ranges from .237 to 1.606, its mean is 0.794, and its mode and median are 0.693.

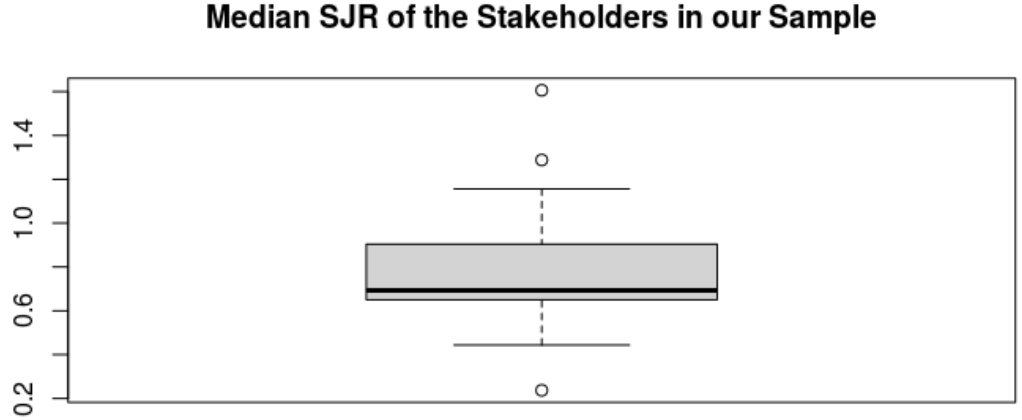

Figure 3.3. Boxplot of the variable "Median SJR" of the urban stakeholders in the sample.
Note. Own elaboration.

The two outliers having the higher median SJR are "Partnerships" (1.606) and "Tourists" (1.288). The higher median SJR of partnerships can be explained by the few numbers of occurrences (3) in which the papers were published in highly visible journals, such as the *Public Management Review* with an SJR 2019 of 2.212 (Mouraviev & Kakabadse, 2015) and the *Cities* with an SJR of 1.606 (Le Feuvre et al., 2016). On the

other hand, as for "tourists," even this type of stakeholder has a considerably high number of occurrences. The reason is that there is much research being published on this topic in journals of high impact, such as: the *Journal of Travel Research* with an SJR 2019 of 3.014 which is the highest of the sample (Stylidis et al., 2015); the *Annals of Tourism Research* with an SJR 2019 of 2.228, which has the highest SJR after the previous one (Aas et al., 2005); the *Industrial Marketing Management* with an SJR 2019 of 2.084 (Romestant, 2020); the *Habitat International* with an SJR 2019 of 1.543 (Nadj et al., 2015); and the *European Journal of Marketing* with an SJR 2019 of 1.033 (Merrilees et al., 2012).

Conversly, "financial institutions" are the stakeholders with the lower median SJR. Although they appear in two highly visible journals, the *Public Management Review* (Mouraviev & Kakabadse, 2015) and the *Tourism Management Perspectives* (Ferdinand & Williams, 2018), they appear in three with low visibility (Chmutina et al., 2014; Kaur & Lodhia, 2014; Phang & Tan, 2016).

There is a limitation regarding the "Median SJR" and "Median of Citation" indicators: The absence of homogeneity between the number of occurrences among the urban stakeholders. It means that for those stakeholders with low occurrences, these two indicators will be less reliable due to the higher probability that these indicators will follow the variable elements inconsistently. In other words, the lower the number of observations and occurrences, the lower the data consistency and accuracy. For instance, partnerships have only three occurrences, two in high-impact journals.

To proceed with this analysis, taking into account the extent to which an urban stakeholder is mentioned in the sample (i.e., the number of occurrences) disregarding their median SJR and median of citation, the number of occurrences is a good proxy of how important is an urban stakeholder in all of these studies.

3.4.2. THE PERSPECTIVE FROM THE DIFFERENT TYPES OF URBAN STAKEHOLDERS: A TYPOLOGICAL APPROACH.

This subsection presents a qualitative analysis, having Freeman's (1984) definition of the construct of stakeholder as the unit of analysis as well as considering and analyzing this concept on all of the thirteen occurrences in the sample, begging from the government and ending to the partnerships in order to follow the relevance order shown by the occurrence variable. Even more, there were two approaches to analyzing the urban

stakeholders within a city, one by stakeholders' typologies and the other by the nature of the urban partnerships.

3.4.2.1. GOVERNMENTS

Government agents play a critical role in implementing policies and programs; those who work in Government represent their political and societal interests, e.g., the mayor, any representative of municipal departments, and civil servants. In democracies, governments are supposed to represent the common will of their citizens. In the context of the cities, the local Government, also known as municipal Government, plays a central role in urban management because they are responsible for developing socioeconomic and environmental policies for their cities. Noteworthy is the interference of regional and national governments, which can interfere in municipal policies and collaborate with municipal governments.

In this way, the literature has shown concern about how regulations, policies, and plans made by governments impact urban development on diversified themes (Timur & Getz, 2008; Kotler et al., 1993), mainly on tourism (Aas et al., 2005; Timur & Getz, 2008; Byrd, 2007). Considering the salience construct of stakeholder theory, the government has been the most powerful stakeholder in cities, and aligned with this, most of the challenges of the government in urban governance are related to the higher centralization of government in the decision-making processes, to the lower degree of citizens' engagement, and to enhance connectivity between the industry and urban policy (Aas et al., 2005; Timur & Getz, 2008). Some municipalities have found ways to deal with the higher centralization of the government by privatizing their organizations, and then, the government loses power transmitting it to the community or the industry (Timur & Getz, 2008).

The mainstream literature on stakeholder theory in the urban context has shown that infrastructure, sustainable development, culture, heritage, urban events, tourism, real estate, and public administration are the key topics for governments and their agents. Table 3.3 presents a synthesis of how governments are affected by or affect urban management in the mainstream literature on this topic.

Table 3.3.

Governments in relation to urban management

Reference	Affect	Are affected by
Khreis et al. (2016)	By aspiring and implementing urban policies to promote healthy and safe urban transportation and interchange values and ideas on urban transportation with the research community and transport practitioners.	By interchanging values and ideas on urban transportation with the research community and transport practitioners.
Arvidsson & Pazirandeh (2017)	By planning the urban transport system.	
Kaur & Lodhia (2014)	By having an active role in urban regulation and policy-making from the Municipal Government.	Through State's and Federal Government's interventions.
Chmutina et al. (2014)	By involving in the urban construction process of the urban disaster risk reduction.	From the Private and Public Agents' engagement in the urban construction process of the urban disaster risk reduction, such as architects, planners, and emergency services.
Long et al. (2015)	By dominating all the urban policy cycle in the case of payments for ecosystem services.	Local, macro/microeconomic, and social context.
Mouraviev & Kakabadse (2015)	Own governmental assessment criteria of bids. And creating value for the private sector partner and for itself.	Suppliers' assessment criteria of bids.
Hudson et al. (2017)	By providing quality of life, infrastructure, and good public services to the city dwellers, businesses, and tourists.	
Li et al. (2016)	Through own internal demands on sustainable urban policies, such as sustainable urban transportation, environment, and design.	Through external demands on sustainable urban policies, such as sustainable urban transportation, environment, and design.
Furber et al. (2016)	Municipal Water Supply firms want high-quality water.	Domestic Water Supply firms want high-quality water.
Eshuis et al. (2018)	By impacting the place marketing on spatial planning policy through public managers.	
Lai & Ooi (2015)	By transforming the urban branding and the cultural heritage management.	Political and economic context.
Thelander & Säwe (2015)	Different internal stakeholders of the municipality have different positions and roles in urban management, influencing each other and then making communication harder.	
Ferdinand & Williams (2018)	By creating challenges and barriers for other stakeholders, such as festival organizers.	
Le et al. (2018)	By managing and having power in municipal solid waste, regulating the environment through regulatory agencies, and providing infrastructure and incentives for enterprises.	Media and Academia can connect the government with citizens, industry, civil society, etc.

Table 3.3. (Continued)

López-Toro et al. (2016)		Some environmental issues have emerged in government and public administration, such as the consumption of finite resources, pollution, job creation, and financial concerns.
Phang & Tan (2016)	By managing the relationship between house sellers and buyers in the housing industry. Making a clear and fair housing policy. Furthermore, involving financial institutions and industry to reduce interest rates of loans for sellers and similar policies.	
Vitiea & Lim (2019)	By influencing and encouraging the industry to create value and have Corporate Social Responsibility policies.	
Machado et al. (2018)	By intervening in urban planning to promote urban sustainability.	
Panton & Walters (2018)	By managing the economic development.	
Ndaguba & Hanyane (2019)	By stimulating business to improve the urban quality of life. Tackling societal challenges and promoting economic development.	Bt learning success cases from the industry.
Amoah et al. (2022)	By engaging citizens and civil society and considering their interests.	
Romestant (2020)		Governments could suffer from less urban attractiveness due to social, economic, and environmental issues.
Ross et al. (2019)	By disrespecting the bid, the government can be punished.	By disrespecting the bid, the industry, and suppliers could be punished.
Coetzee et al. (2019)	By managing and integrating city data with regional or national data, such as address data.	By getting integrated the data of the city into regional or national data through other governmental bodies.
Cregård & Sobis (2017)		Constitutions, National or Regional legislations can obligate municipalities to be accountable and publicize governmental information.

Note. Own elaboration.

Regarding Public Administration related issues, the main themes it has approached are data management, regulations, policies, bidding, strategy, and marketing (urban branding and urban governance), in which governments have mainly an active role in these topics. The government affects urban management by regulating, making, and getting involved in general urban policies, urban marketing, and urban planning (Kaur & Lodhia, 2014; Chmutina, 2014; Li et al., 2016; Eshuis et al., 2018; Lai & Ooi, 2015), dominating all the process and cycle of urban policies, e.g., in the case of environmental ones, such as those related to payments for ecosystem services (Long et al., 2015), creating value for the private sector partners and for itself (Mouraviev & Kakabadse, 2015), managing its assessment criteria of bids and establishing clear rights and duties between government and suppliers (Mouraviev & Kakabadse, 2015; Ross et al., 2019), stimulating the civil society and citizens' engagement (Amoah et al., 2022), and managing urban data as well as integrating municipal data to regional and national one (Coetzee et al., 2019).

Conversely, the municipal government is affected when there are interventions from the national or regional government (Kaur & Lodhia, 2014), when public and private agents influence and participate in urban policy processes as well as own internal demands requiring governmental attitudes (Chmutina et al., 2014; Li et al., 2016; López-Toro et al., 2016), through influences from local, macro/microeconomic, political and social context and on how the city is considered attractive to other stakeholders (Long et al., 2015; Lai & Ooi, 2015), and at managing the suppliers' assessment criteria of bids (Mouraviev & Kakabadse, 2015).

On infrastructure, government and its agents affect urban management since they aspire and implement urban policies to promote healthy and safe urban transportation; they interchange values and ideas with the research community and transport practitioners (Khreis et al., 2016), they plan the urban transportation system, solid waste, sustainable urban planning, and programs to reduce urban disaster risks,

(Arvidsson & Pazirandeh, 2017; Chmutina et al., 2014; Li et al., 2016; Le et al., 2018), they should provide basic urban infrastructure and high-quality water (Hudson et al., 2017; Furber et al., 2016), and also they can provide infrastructure and incentives for enterprises (Le et al., 2018). On the other hand, they can be affected by interchanging ideas with, collaborating with, and meeting the demands of other stakeholders and then changing or improving urban policies and decisions or decisions previously made

(Chmutina et al., 2014; Khreis et al., 2016; Li et al., 2016; Furber et al., 2016). Also, the government can be connected to citizens, industry, and civil society, among others, through media and academic initiatives (Le et al., 2018).

On sustainable development, the literature has shown the importance of government affecting urban management through sustainable, resilient, and environmental urban policies and improvement of the urban infrastructure and public services offered, e.g., payments for ecosystem services, sustainable transportation, sustainable urban design, disaster risk reduction, waste, and water management, among others (Long et al., 2015; Li et al., 2015; Chmutina et al., 2014; Le et al., 2018). Also, sustainable urban development takes socio-economic issues into account, e.g., implementing inclusive housing policies and promoting corporate social responsibility in the firms located in the city (Phang & Tan, 2016; Vitae & Lim, 2019; Machado et al., 2018; Panton & Walters, 2018; Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2019). Somewhat the government can be affected by the urban context in which the city is inserted (Long et al., 2019), demands stemming from the own government or external stakeholders (Li et al., 2016; Chmutina et al., 2014; López-Toro et al., 2016). Also, industrial success cases can provide some lessons to improve the government and then impact how the government manages itself and its challenges (Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2019).

As for culture, heritage, events, and tourism of cities, the literature has shown that government is an important player in providing infrastructure and good services (Hudson et al., 2017), transforming strategically urban branding and cultural heritage management into what the government believes the urban branding and cultural heritage should be in terms of policy management (Lai & Ooi, 2015), however, sometimes the government can create challenges and barriers for other stakeholders, such as festival organizers of urban events (Ferdinand & Williams, 2018). In this topic, the purpose is to analyze whether or not the government is an urban stakeholder identifying it in the literature, that is if the government affects or is affected by the goals of the urban management. In this way, I do not aim to discuss more details on how the government is affected or affects and judge what should be the better and more effective consequences of each event found in the literature.

On real estate, Phang and Tan (2016) showed that the government plays a pivotal role in managing the relationship between house sellers and buyers in the housing

industry, such as making a transparent and fair housing policy as well as involving financial institutions and the industry to reduce interest rates of loans for sellers.

In sum, government agents affect the achievement of the municipality's objectives by doing what they were designated or hired for, such as following the norms and obligations, delivering expected results, and then, theoretically, creating value for the municipality. Thus, they are affected by the municipality's objectives because they have responsibilities toward the government, other government agents, and the whole community within the city. For instance, someone designated for the economic department should formulate, implement, supervise, and manage determined urban economic policies that satisfy the municipality's objectives. Some challenges to the achievement of the municipality's objectives can potentially be derived from political agreements, political orientation, culture, and political regime.

3.4.2.2. INDUSTRY

The industry is that urban stakeholder who is a developer, producer of a good, or provider of a service, having profitability as its primary purpose, which is located in or at least possessing interests with the city. Some examples of industries are small businesses, high-tech companies, travel agencies, hospitality, construction, real estate, and individual entrepreneurs, among others.

The literature has shown that industries are affected by how the city is perceived by all sorts of people and the number of clusters existing within the city; when a city has more clusters, better will be its economic development (Timur & Getz, 2008), as well as the local community, contextual changes, and the urban policies can financially impact the industry (Aas et al., 2005; Byrd, 2007). Even more, industries and businesses are essential to cities because they provide jobs for the citizens, revenues for the government, and economic vitality; in this way, cities should have an attractive environment to them, having lower taxes, lower bureaucracy, providing incentives and aid, as well as developing science parks (Kotler et al., 1993).

Table 3.4 presents a synthesis of how industries are affected by or affect urban management in the mainstream literature on this topic.

Table 3.4.

Industry in relation to urban management

Reference	Affects	Is affected by
Khreis et al. (2016)		The private sector should consider the social dimension and not only the economic dimension of the business.
Chmutina et al. (2014)	Playing an important role in structural mitigation in managing urban disaster risk reduction.	
Long et al. (2015)	Industry productivity can affect urban policies. For instance, rural productivity affects the urban policy of institutionalizing payments for ecosystem services.	The industry can be affected by incentives or constraints from governmental policies.
Hudson et al. (2017)	The industry affects urban development by providing residents with job opportunities, infrastructure, and hospitality for tourists.	
Furber et al. (2016)		The industry can have its activities regulated by the municipal government, such as shipping activities.
Eshuis et al. (2018)	Impacting the effect of place marketing on tourism and leisure policy.	
Sztejnberg & Giovannardi (2017)		The industry can be a victim of the rhetoric discourse of urban marketing consultants.
Lai & Ooi (2015)	Influencing policies on tourism and housing policies.	Getting involved in governmental activities to achieve goals related to socioeconomic development.
Ferdinand & Williams (2018)	Emergency and Transportation firms can influence urban events projects.	
Le et al. (2018)		The industry can be charged with managing its waste with respect to sustainable waste management and transforming waste resources into new products. Also, the industry can have or need more incentives to promote sustainable waste management.
López-Toro et al. (2016)		The industry can be attracted by urban economic impact in order to gain profits and reduce costs.
Phang & Tan (2016)		The housing industry can have its market regulated by the government to ensure fairer prices.
Vitiea & Lim (2019)		The industry can be stimulated by the government to create value and to deploy policies on corporate social responsibility.
Machado et al. (2018)		The industry can have its activities regulated by laws and other governmental policies.
Ndaguba & Hanyane (2019)		The industry can receive a governmental orientation to have a strategy oriented to improve the citizens' quality of life and sustainability issues.

Note. Own elaboration.

When differentiating people who have the city as a place to do business from those who have it as a place to live, Merrilles et al. (2012) found that businesses emphasize more urban issues related to transportation and networking, which can be two critical attributes to cities that attract more businesses. Aligned with Merrilles et al. (2012), Stathopoulos et al. (2011) highlighted the importance of reducing the cost of transportation in urban logistics for businesses, mainly for freight operators. In short, urban logistics and human capital matter when industries analyze cities and regions.

The industry affects the achievement of the Municipality's objectives depending on the socioeconomic and environmental impact in which the industry has. For instance, Kotler et al. (1993) exemplified that "gambling" and "prostitution" can be considered undesirable "businesses" in the cities because businesses like these threaten the social dimension of the city, as well as polluting industries undermine the urban environmental dimension.

The mainstream literature reveals the key sectors of the industry as urban stakeholders, which are (1) the construction sector and real estate (Chmutina et al., 2014; Lai & Ooi, 2015; Phang & Tan, 2016), (2) businesses oriented to a sustainable approach in its three known dimensions, i.e., environment, economic, and social (Long et al., 2015; Le et al., 2018; López-Toro et al., 2016; Vitiea & Lim, 2019), (3) tourism and hospitality (Hudson et al., 2017; Eshuis et al., 2018); (4) logistic and transportation (Furber et al., 2016; Ferdinand & Williams, 2018); (5) emergency and basic services of the cities, e.g., those of health, safety, and security (Chmutina et al., 2014; Ferdinand & Williams, 2018); (6) and infrastructure, e.g., urban waste and water management (Le et al., 2018).

Furthermore, the mainstream literature has shown that the industry affects it for several reasons: the industry plays an important role in structural mitigation at managing urban disaster risk reduction (Chmutina et al., 2014); its productivity can affect the urban policies, for instance, the rural productivity affects the urban policy of institutionalizing payments for ecosystem services (Long et al., 2015); the industry affects the urban development providing job opportunities for city dwellers as well as infrastructure and hospitality for tourists (Hudson et al., 2017); the industry impacts the effect of place marketing on tourism and leisure policy (Eshuis et al., 2018); the industry has influenced how housing and tourism policies have been made by the government (Lai & Ooi, 2015); and the urban emergency services and transportation firms can influence the urban events formulation and projects (Ferdinand & Williams, 2018).

On the other hand, the industry is affected by the achievement of the Municipality's objectives depending on the perception and impact that urban policies have at the level of an individual, a cluster, or a set of industries. For example, taxes, regulations, and bureaucracy can make businesses' activities harder so that businesses potentially will avoid their activities in these cities and regions (Aas et al., 2005; Byrd, 2007; Kotler et al., 1993). In this way, the mainstream research has shown that the industry has been affected when: the context and other urban stakeholders (e.g., government) can lead the private sector to consider social issues (e.g., environmental ones, ethics, and corporate social responsibility, value creation for society) rather than merely focusing only on economic ones (Khreis et al., 2016; Lai & Ooi, 2015; Vitiea & Lim, 2019; Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2019) as well as governmental policies can constrain or incentivize industrial activities, e.g., through regulations and public policies on shipping activities, waste management, the housing industry, among others (Long et al., 2015; Furber et al., 2016; Le et al., 2018; Phang & Tan, 2016; Machado et al., 2018); the industry can be a victim of urban marketing consultants (Sztejnberg & Giovannardi, 2017); the industry can be attracted by the urban economic impact looking for higher profitability and lower costs (López-Toro et al., 2016).

In sum, the industry is a stakeholder that affects or is affected by the objectives of urban management. Moreover, the industry affects it due to its economic interests, being a job and infrastructure provider, and lobbying the market regulations and policies. Furthermore, the industry is affected by the institutionalization of its duties and rights and by regulations and policies that have been decided by the urban managers on the challenges that a city has to tackle.

3.4.2.3. CITIZENS

The citizens are those people who live in the city, having their own rights and duties towards urban management. Also, there is the community, which is defined as "a geographical area, or a group of people with shared origins or interests" (Aas et al., 2005, p. 30) or merely as "citizens within a given locality" (Aas et al., 2005, pp. 30-31). Civil society, which is aligned with the concept of community, emerges as organized people

arguing for a determined purpose, such as environmentalists movements, professional organizations, and neighborhood associations (Kotler et al., 1993; Merrilees et al., 2012).

Literature has shown that citizens' participation in urban management is the most important element. Arnstein (1969) is a seminal on this topic, which proposed a typology of citizen participation stating that there is only citizen participation when there is one or more of the three following types of policy management - citizen control, delegated power, or partnership - even more, Arnstein (1969) stated that placation, consultation, and informing are tokenism because in these latter cases, the powerholders still having the right to make decisions.

In this way, the collaboration of the community is a requirement for urban management. If the citizens live in the city and own the urban heritage (Aas et al., 2005), culture, and assets, among others, the citizens have the legitimacy to claim their interests (Mitchell et al., 1997; Arnstein, 1969). According to Merrilees et al. (2012), social bonding, safety, and nature are the most important citizens' interests, which urban managers should take into account when dealing with urban branding.

The mainstream literature has pointed out that citizens have four approaches to how they affect or are affected concerning the objectives of urban management: participation and collaboration (Khreis et al., 2016; Kaur & Lodhia, 2014; Nadj et al., 2015; Eshuis et al., 2018; Ferdinand & Williams, 2018; Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2019; Amoah et al., 2019; Cregård & Sobis, 2017); demanding and solving urban issues (Chmutina et al., 2014; Li et al., 2016; López-Toro et al., 2016; Phang & Tan, 2016; Panton & Walters, 2018; Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2019; Amoah et al., 2019; Cregård & Sobis, 2017); branding and emotional ties with the city (Hudson et al., 2017; Sztejnberg & Giovannardi, 2017; Lai & Ooi, 2015; Wang, 2019); and shaping the city (Romestant, 2020; Stylidis et al., 2015; Eshuis et al., 2018).

Table 3.5 presents a synthesis of how citizens are affected by or affect urban management in the mainstream literature on this topic.

Table 3.5.

Citizens in relation to urban management

Reference	Affect	Are affected by
Khreis et al. (2016)	The citizens' engagement and collaboration in urban governance can affect urban management.	The infrastructure provided by the municipality can affect the citizens' mobility, transportation, and quality of life.
Kaur & Lodhia (2014)	Community involves in the development of policies and programs reporting.	
Chmutina et al. (2014)	Citizens are clients of the construction sector who have demanded less construction-risk policies.	
Nadj et al. (2015)	The hospitality industry has connected the tourists' preference to the local community and vice-versa. In this way, the local community has played an active and passive role in the urban management of tourism.	The hospitality industry has connected the tourists' preference to the local community and vice-versa. In this way, the local community has played an active and passive role in the urban management of tourism.
Hudson et al. (2017)	Local residents develop a connection with the urban brand, and then they participate in identifying and positioning the urban brand.	The infrastructure (good education, and development opportunities, among others) can affect the citizens' quality of life.
Li et al. (2016)	The community can impact urban management by incentivizing it to make sustainable policies, such as environmental protection and urban design (e.g., promoting higher density in cities).	
Eshuis et al. (2018)	Resident involvement positively impacts urban marketing on spatial planning.	
Sztejnberg & Giovannardi (2017)		There is a risk of marketing consultants exploiting rhetoric discourses on urban branding to the citizens.
Lai & Ooi (2015)	The community can develop emotional ties with the urban brand. Nevertheless, conversely, people can protest against undesired urban policies.	Sometimes, the government can engage citizens in urban policy development. However, the industry can have other and contrary interests to those interests of the community.
Ferdinand & Williams (2018)	The community can organize urban festivals in collaboration with other urban stakeholders.	
López-Toro et al. (2016)	Citizens are impacted as well as they want and try to solve the following urban social-environmental issues: the consumption of finite resources; pollution (visual impact, noise, and smells); job creation; easy access; and corporate image and social responsibility.	Citizens are impacted as well as they want and try to solve the following urban social-environmental issues: the consumption of finite resources; pollution (visual impact, noise, and smells); job creation; easy access; and corporate image and social responsibility.
Phang & Tan (2016)		Citizens can suffer from high and unfair prices in the city's housing market.
Wang (2019)	Residents have a different perception of urban branding than other stakeholders, e.g., tourists.	
Panton & Walters (2018)		The gentrification process in urban development affects the community, possibly from governmental or industrial policies.
Ndaguba & Hanyane (2019)	Citizens can affect urban development and then, indirectly, urban management through their social and intellectual capital skills. They are, furthermore, participating in urban programs and polici	The industry and the government can utilize local resources to improve the lives of the community, tackle urban socioeconomic challenges, and promote urban sustainability.

Table 3.5. (Continued).

Amoah et al. (2019)	Citizens have their needs and concerns. In this way, governments should consult and engage them to deploy efficient urban projects.
Romestant (2020)	The community can pollute and increase urbanization, making the city less attractive.
Cregård & Sobis (2017)	Citizens demand governmental transparency and accountability as well as they can be engaged in urban policy development, demanding sustainable policies.
Stylidis et al. (2015)	Residents affect the urban image depending on their behavior (e.g., sympathy and arrogance).

Note. Own elaboration.

The literature has shown that citizens and communities affect urban management through their collaboration with, engagement, and involvement in the urban governance and other stakeholders involved, playing an active role in the management of urban policies and urban planning (Khreis et al., 2016; Kaur & Lodhia, 2014; Nadj et al., 2015; Eshuis et al., 2018; Ferdinand & Williams, 2018). Citizens' social and intellectual capital play a strategic role in urban development and then indirectly affect urban management (Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2019). In this way, aligned with these perspectives on citizens' participation and the strategic position of the human capital in urban development, Amoah et al. (2019) and Cregård and Sobis (2017) highlighted that the government should consulate citizens and stimulate the citizens' participation in order to deploy efficient and sustainable urban projects and policies.

As for demanding, citizens affect urban management by demanding less risk of construction (Chmutina et al., 2014), sustainable policies as in the case of environmental protection, sustainable urban design (e.g., promoting high density in the city), less pollution, socio-economic issues, among others (Li et al., 2016; López-Toro et al., 2016), and having their needs and concerns met by the government, which should have transparency and accountability towards the citizens and other stakeholders (Amoah et al., 2019; Cregård & Sobis, 2017).

Regarding urban branding and the emotional ties of the community among themselves, Hudson et al. (2017) pointed out that residents can develop a connection with the urban brand, and then they have identification and positioning concerning the urban brand. Even more, although the community can develop emotional ties with the urban brand, they can protest against urban policies that are considered undesirable (Lai & Ooi, 2015). In this context, it is noteworthy that there are different points of view within the own community and between tourists and citizens, so consensus should be reached (Wang, 2019). Urban planning and the shape of the city have resulted from community participation (Eshuis et al., 2018), from the citizens' perception and behavior (Romestant, 2020; Stylidis et al., 2015).

Conversely, the citizens not only affect urban management but are also affected by such phenomena. So, the citizens can be affected by the infrastructure, services (e.g., education, health, safety, and security), and urban ecosystems managed or provided by the municipality and the industry located in the city (Khreis et al., 2016; Hudson et al., 2017; Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2019), which affect their quality of life. Although the

industry has connected the tourists' and community's preferences in the governance environment of the municipality (Nadj et al., 2015), the interests of these stakeholders often contrast among themselves. Socioeconomic factors, such as higher or lower housing prices, can affect the citizens and their daily life conditions and sometimes cause gentrification (Phang & Tan, 2016; Panton & Walters, 2018).

In sum, citizens and the community are important type of urban stakeholder that is affected by and affects the objectives of urban management in a range of ways. It should be emphasized that they live in the city, and then all sorts of events occurring in the city as well as decisions made in the urban context, have the potential to affect their quality of life and wealth.

3.4.2.4. CIVIL SOCIETY

According to Keane (2010, p. 461), civil society is "a realm of social life - market exchanges, charitable groups, clubs, and voluntary associations, independent churches and publishing houses - institutionally separated from territorial state institutions," in other words, it means "a complex and dynamic ensemble of legally protected nongovernmental institutions that tend to be nonviolent, self-organizing, self-reflexive, and permanently in tension, both with each other and with governmental institutions that "frame," constrict and enable their activities."

In the urban context, the literature provides some examples of urban stakeholders representing civil society: professional organizations of architects, engineers, urban planners, and consultants in general (Arvidsson & Pazirandeh, 2017); organized groups that argue for an idea, thought, and reason, such as environmental groups (Kaur & Lodhia, 2014; Le et al., 2018; Ross et al., 2019), indigenous groups (Furber et al., 2016), cultural organizations (Ferdinand & Williams, 2018), and groups for sustainability acknowledging all of its three dimensions, i.e., social, economic, and environmental (Vitiea & Lim, 2019).

The mainstream literature on civil society as an urban stakeholder has shown that civil society can affect or be affected by the objectives of urban management. Table 3.6 presents a synthesis of how civil society is affected by or affects urban management in the mainstream literature on this topic.

Table 3.6.

Civil Society in relation to urban management

Reference	Affects	Is affected by
Kaur & Lodhia (2014)	Local Environmental groups can influence urban policies and programs for tourism.	
Chmutina et al. (2014)	Civil Society can influence urban policies and programs (as those on risk disaster reduction).	
Long et al. (2015)	Civil Society can provide technologies and human resources for the city, e.g., technologies and social capital to promote urban sustainability and urban environment. They can provide these things even more than the government.	
Mouraviev & Kakabadse (2015)	Civil Society can influence governmental biddings' assessment criteria to create value for the Society.	However, sometimes civil Society can be excluded from the process of urban policy development.
Furber et al. (2016)	Civil Society can influence public policies, e.g., indigenous people tackling environmental destruction and arguing for increased biodiversity and ecological integrity.	
Lai & Ooi (2015)		Civil Society can be constrained from participating in urban policies, e.g., place branding projects and urban renewal strategies.
Ferdinand & Williams (2018)	Civil Society can organize urban festivals in collaboration with other urban stakeholders, e.g., Cultural Organizations can organize urban events.	
Le et al. (2018)	In collaboration with other stakeholders, civil Society can work with them and the environmental agency of the governments to plan sustainable policies.	Media and academia can connect civil Society to other relevant stakeholders, such as government, community, and businesses, to strengthen their ties.
Vitiea & Lim (2019)	Civil Society can be voluntarily involved in collaborative networks to create value and promote sustainability in the city.	
Panton & Walters (2018)	Civil Society can share knowledge to tackle urban challenges.	
Ross et al. (2019)	Environmental organizations have been more engaged in urban policy management and bidding, as in the case of urban events and sports.	

Note. Own elaboration.

In the first case, civil society can influence as well as collaborate with other stakeholders on urban policies and programs in a wide range of sectoral themes, e.g., on tourism, infrastructure, safety, risk disaster reduction, public administration, and governmental biddings, environmental issues, social issues, indigenous issues, culture, and urban events (Kaur & Lodhia, 2014; Chmutina et al., 2014; Mouraviev & Kakabadse, 2015; Furber et al., 2016; Ferdinand & Williams, 2018; Le et al., 2018; Ross et al., 2019; Vitiea & Lim, 2019). Also, civil society can provide technologies, knowledge, and human resources for the city as a whole, not only for the government but for all stakeholders inserted in urban governance (Long et al., 2015; Panton & Walters, 2018).

Civil society can be affected by urban management in the case of its exclusion from or getting constrained in the process of urban policy development and urban policies due to industrial lobbies or political decisions of the government (Mouraviev & Kakabadse, 2015; Lai & Ooi, 2015). Also, media and academia can connect civil society

to other relevant stakeholders, such as government, community, and businesses, to strengthen their ties (Le et al., 2018).

In sum, civil society influences and collaborates with the government and other stakeholders on various urban policies. However, it can be affected by the objectives of urban management when it is constrained from participating in urban policies by industrial lobbyists or governmental decisions based on political dynamics.

3.4.2.5. TOURISTS

Tourists are people who are visiting the city due to some reason. They can be business or non-business visitors (Kotler et al., 1993). For instance, business visitors are conventioneers, firms' representatives, and business decision-makers. As for non-business visitors, they are people who want to enjoy the landscape of the city (such as beaches and mountains, among others) or social and cultural characteristics of the city (such as urban heritage, history, and food), and also, sometimes, non-business visitors can be people who are looking for services and facilities, in which the places they are coming from do not possess those services and facilities (such as health services with more resources). Table 3.7 presents a synthesis of how tourists are affected by or affect urban management in the mainstream literature on this topic.

Table 3.7.

Tourists in relation to urban management

Reference	Affect	Are affected by
Nadj et al. (2015)	Tourists affect urban management because they have their own preferences. For instance, they can prefer more urban, historical, congestion-free, and well-kept areas.	
Furber et al. (2016)	Tourists affect urban management because they want a preserved city.	
Romestant (2020)		Tourists can be attracted by beauties and repulsed by social (e.g., criminality) and environmental issues (e.g., pollution and noise).

Note. Own elaboration.

The mainstream literature has shown that tourists affect the achievement of the municipality's objectives due to their own heterogeneous preferences towards the city, and the vast majority of the tourists have preferred more urban, historical, free-of-congestion, preserved, and well-kept areas (Nadj et al., 2015; Furber et al., 2016). Conversely, tourists are affected by urban management, considering the degree to which the urban beauty attracts them, and can be repulsed by social and environmental issues, e.g., criminality, pollution, and noise (Romestant, 2020).

Therefore, tourists affect and are affected by achieving the municipality's objectives, whether for business or non-business visitors. Although they have their own preferences, they emphasize the role of socio-economic and environmental issues.

3.4.2.6. ACADEMIA

Academia is a type of urban stakeholder composed of scholars, researchers, scientists, and academic institutions such as universities and research centers. This term is also known as the academic community. Unlike the other urban stakeholders, academia plays more of an active than passive role. That is, it can affect urban management more than it can be affected. Table 3.8 presents a synthesis of how academia is affected by or affects urban management in the mainstream literature on this topic.

Table 3.8.

Academia in relation to urban management

Reference	Affects	Is affected by
Arvidsson & Pazirandeh (2017)	Academia can research urban transportation and then contribute to urban management to build a sustainable city.	
Kaur & Lodhia (2014)	Academia can research sustainability and then contribute to urban management to build a sustainable city.	
Long et al. (2015)	The Academia can provide technologies and human resources for the city, e.g., technologies and social capital, to promote urban sustainability and the urban environment. They can provide these things even more than the government.	
Furber et al. (2016)	As the Civil Society, the Academia can influence public policies, e.g., indigenous people tackling environmental destruction and then arguing for an increase in biodiversity and ecological integrity.	
Le et al. (2018)	The Academia has worked with other stakeholders and governmental regulatory agencies on environmental protection of waste management.	
Ndaguba & Hanyane (2019)	Some universities can have some researchers without interest in reinventing the local community.	
Sztejnberg & Giovannardi (2017)	Media has the power to emphasize the role of science and academia in urban development.	Media has the power to emphasize the role of science and academia in urban development.

Note. Own elaboration.

In this way, the mainstream literature has shown that the academy can contribute to urban management by researching sustainable urban transportation (Arvidsson & Pazirandeh, 2017) and urban sustainability (Kaur & Lodhia, 2014), among other similar contributions to the city. Furthermore, academia can provide technologies and human resources for the city, improving the urban social capital (Long et al., 2015), can influence urban-policy management (Furber et al., 2016), can work with other stakeholders and the government in order to ensure better urban policies, such as those related to the waste management and environmental protection (Le et al., 2018), even more, academia has a strategic role in urban development (Sztejnberg & Giovannardi, 2017). But unfortunately, some universities can have researchers who are not interested in reinventing the local community because they need roots or plans to live in the city in the long run (Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2019).

On the other hand, the media has the power to emphasize the role of science and the academic community in urban development (Sztejnberg & Giovannardi, 2017). In doing so, academia is affected by other urban stakeholders of urban governance, not by the municipal government. Thus, more is needed to know how academia is directly affected by the urban government. The literature has mainly demonstrated academia's active role, and more research on this topic should be explored.

3.4.2.7. UNION AND WORKERS

Union and the workforce within a city are other kinds of urban stakeholders in urban management. Although a category of workers, including architects, engineers, and urban planners, can affect urban projects, as in the case of the construction sector (Chmutina et al., 2014). It means that the own workforce within an urban context has its own influence, perspectives, power, and positions, depending on its interest in a determined urban topic. As for urban sustainability, urban councils have been involved by employees, workers, and trade unions at the moment of their accountability reports (Arvidsson & Pazirandeh, 2017). Even more, workers are affected by waste management, pollution, social impacts, job creation, and quality of employment within their city (López-Toro et al., 2016). In this way, the union can be affected and affect the achievement of the municipality's objectives.

Table 3.9 presents a synthesis of how the union and the workforce are affected by or affect urban management in the mainstream literature on this topic.

Table 3.9.

Union and workforce in relation to urban management

Reference	Affect	Are affected by
Arvidsson & Pazirandeh (2017)		Urban councils involve employees, workers, and trade unions in preparing reports on urban sustainability.
Chmutina et al. (2014)	A category of workers (such as architects, engineers, and planners) can affect urban projects, as in the case of the construction sector.	
López-Toro et al. (2016)		Workers are affected by urban waste treatment, urban pollution, social impacts, job creation, and quality of employment.

Note. Own elaboration.

3.4.2.8. MEDIA

According to the *Dictionary of Media Studies* (A&C Black Publishers, 2006, p. 143), media is understood as "the various means of mass communications considered as a whole, including television, radio, magazines and newspapers, together with the people involved in their production."

The mainstream literature on stakeholder theory concerning urban management considers the media as an urban stakeholder, which can affect the achievement of the municipality's objectives (Long et al., 2015; Sztejnberg & Giovannardi, 2017; López-Toro et al., 2016) as well as it is affected by the urban management (López-Toro et al., 2016; Ross et al., 2019). Table 3.10 presents a synthesis of how the media is affected by or affects urban management in the mainstream literature on this topic.

Table 3.10.

Media in relation to urban management

Reference	Affects	Is affected by
Long et al. (2015)	Media can provide technologies and human resources for the city, e.g., technologies and social capital to promote urban sustainability and the urban environment. They can provide these things even more than the government.	
Sztejnberg & Giovannardi (2017)	Media has the power to emphasize the role of science and academia in urban development.	
López-Toro et al. (2016)	Media is concerned about urban pollution (visual impact, noise, and smells) because they aim to inform citizens about what is happening in the city and the pollution status.	
Ross et al. (2019)	In sustainable urban events, sponsors are essential to create stakeholder engagement and finding funding and suppliers for the game.	

Note. Own elaboration.

As for media affecting urban management, the literature reveals that media can provide technologies and better social capital (Long et al., 2015) and can strengthen the role of science contribution to the cities (Sztejnberg & Giovannardi, 2017). Even more, in order to inform the community on what is happening at any time and context in the city, media is impacted by urban issues, such as urban pollution (visual impact, noise, and smells), and then putting pressure on the authorities to deal with these issues (López-Toro

et al., 2016), that is, the media is highly sensitive and impacted by the urban context, and then, it impacts the urban government to meet such demands. Furthermore, regarding sustainable urban events, sponsors of media depend on the degree of interest and of their funding (disregarding public or private entities) and suppliers of the event. Even more, not only are they affected, but also, they affect urban management due to their capacity to create and strengthen engagement among urban stakeholders (Ross et al., 2019).

3.4.2.9. INVESTORS

Investors are people who invest their money or assets (such as those related to real estate, finances, and stocks, among others) to obtain profits in the long term. According to Kotler et al. (1993) and Khreis et al. (2016), investors play a critical role in the cities because they can provide essential loans and investments that enhance the city's social and economic development. Table 3.11 presents a synthesis of how investors are affected by or affect urban management in the mainstream literature on this topic.

Table 3.11.

Investors in relation to urban management

Reference	Affect	Are affected by
Khreis et al. (2016)	Real estate developers and other financiers can provide generous loans or investments to the city.	Real estate developers and other financiers can have the confidence or not depending on how they perceive the city (that is, how the urban image comes to them).
Kaur & Lodhia (2014)	Shareholders are interested in higher profits from their businesses settled in the cities, thus lobbying for their interests.	
López-Toro et al. (2016)	Shareholders/business owners are interested in getting higher profits and lower costs and then improving their budgets from the urban characteristics, market, nature, and context.	Shareholders/owners can be affected by urban economic policies and impacts, which affect their economies and finances.
Ndaguba & Hanyane (2019)	Business investors can decide if they will not reinvest their profits into the cities. Nevertheless, in doing so, they impact the socioeconomic status of the cities.	Business investors are affected by how they are stimulated to use local resources.

Note.Own elaboration.

The mainstream literature has shown that investors are urban stakeholders that affect or are affected by the achievement of the municipality’s objectives. Investors affect

the urban management and the flow of urban economic development considering that firms' and industries' shareholders and owners are interested in having higher profits and lower costs in order to improve their budgets (Kaur & Lodhia, 2014; López-Toro et al., 2016).

An important issue is the time and the context in which investors will convert their investments to concrete improvements to the city. In this way, investors can affect urban management as real estate developers and other financiers when they will provide loans and other sorts of investments to the city (Khreis et al., 2016) as well as business investors can decide if they will not reinvest their profits into the cities, impacting the urban socio-economic status (Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2019).

When investors are affected by urban management, the literature has shown how the urban image comes to the investor and how they perceive the city will affect their decisions and thoughts on the city (Khreis et al., 2016). Another important factor is how investors are stimulated to use local resources and municipal socio-economic and environmental policies because these policies affect the investors' economies, budgets, and finances (López-Toro et al., 2016; Ndaguba & Hanyane, 2019).

3.4.2.10. FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS

Financial Institutions provide capital and financial resources to persons and other human institutions. For instance, banks, insurers, and lenders are Financial Institutions. Table 3.12 presents a synthesis of how financial institutions are affected by or affect urban management in the mainstream literature on this topic. Although Financial Institutions are urban stakeholders, they play a small role and power to the general public because there are many situations in that people, companies, and governments have their own capacity to fund themselves (Chmutina et al., 2014; Mouraviev & Kakabadse, 2015).

Table 3.12.

Financial Institutions in relation to urban management

Reference	Affect	Are affected by
Kaur & Lodhia (2014)	Capital providers can decide if they will or will not provide business and citizens loans to improve their lives.	Capital providers depend on the degree of demand of those needing more capital to leverage their socioeconomic status.
Chmutina et al. (2014)	Insurers are non-important stakeholders and play a small role in the building construction process.	
Mouraviev & Kakabadse (2015)	Sometimes, the urban management has its own funds to finance construction, and then lenders can have less importance in the construction process.	
Ferdinand & Williams (2018)	Statutory Funding Bodies, disregarding public or private, are interested in financing urban events, festivals, and similar activities	
Phang & Tan (2016)	Financial Institutions may or not wish to finance affordable rates to house buyers.	House buyers' inability to continue paying their loans can affect financial institutions. The government can intervene to deal with financial institutions to assure better rates of loans to house buyers.

Note. Own elaboration.

Furthermore, Financial Institutions affect urban management by considering their degree of power related to their decision-making and aspirations. Since capital providers decide if they will or not provide loans to businesses and citizens - a decision that can improve these last urban stakeholders (Kaur & Lodhia, 2014), even more, they may or not wish to finance affordable rates to house buyers, which are people who want own a home or want to move from another to a determined city (Phang & Tan, 2016).

On the other side of this relationship, Financial Institutions are affected by urban management when they find themselves depending on the extent of the credit demand of those people needing more capital to leverage their socioeconomic status and quality of life (Kaur & Lodhia, 2015). In this way, when depending on financial institutions, urban managers often have the challenge of reviving the city's abandoned areas and neighborhoods because house buyers cannot continue paying their loans. Then, the government can intervene to deal with Financial Institutions to assure better rates of loans to these house buyers. In other words, the default would be reduced, city dwellers could maintain their real estate in use, and there would be a lower vacancy rate, affecting Financial Institutions directly (Phang & Tan, 2016).

In short, Financial Institutions are urban stakeholders that affect and are affected by urban management, having lower power and role concerning other urban stakeholders.

3.4.2.11. SUPPLIERS

Suppliers are a category of urban stakeholders comprising companies that provide inputs and resources to other companies. In the case of urban management, suppliers are companies that provide inputs and resources to the municipal government, and then bidding is generally a required process depending on the laws and institutional rules in which the municipal government is inserted.

Table 3.13 presents a synthesis of how suppliers are affected by or affect urban management in the mainstream literature on this topic.

Table 3.13.

Suppliers in relation to urban management

Reference	Affect	Are affected by
Mouraviev & Kakabadse (2015)	Supplier is considered in the assessment criteria of the governmental bids as well as the supplier should meet the governmental demand.	Supplier is considered in the assessment criteria of the governmental bids as well as the supplier should meet the governmental demand.
López-Toro et al. (2016)		If the public administration is concerned with issues such as the consumption of finite resources and pollution, these issues also affect governmental bidding criteria.

Note. Own elaboration.

Although little is known about how suppliers are an actual urban-stakeholder type, Mouraviev and Kakabadse (2015) considered suppliers and their issues as crucial in the assessment criteria of bidding as well as the supplier should meet the governmental requirements and demands, that is, suppliers affect and are affected by the urban management. As for the topics the urban management has concerned, the consumption of finite resources and pollutants are considered the main issues in the bidding processes concerning the suppliers, which affect the suppliers that provide resources to the urban management (López-Toro et al., 2016).

In a nutshell, suppliers are urban stakeholders that affect and are affected by the achievement of the municipality’s objectives, having a broad opportunity for research in Public Administration due to the incipience of literature on this topic.

3.4.2.12. SUPRA/INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Supranational or International Organizations transcend national boundaries, in which countries or member-states participate and share the same or similar perspectives among themselves; even more, each one of these organizations has its own goals and missions. Examples of these organizations are the International Chamber of Commerce, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the United Nations (UN), and the International Olympic Committee on Olympic Games (IOCOG), among others (Kotler et al., 1993; Romestant, 2020; Ross et al., 2019).

Table 3.14 presents a synthesis of how Supranational and International Organizations are affected by or affect urban management in the mainstream literature on this topic.

Table 3.14.

Supra/International Organizations in relation to urban management

Reference	Affect	Are affected by
Khreis et al. (2016)	Supra/International Organizations influence sectoral policies, for instance, the United Nations on transportation policies.	
Romestant (2020)	Supra/International Organizations influence sectoral policies, for instance, UNESCO on tourism and development policies.	
Ross et al. (2019)	Supra/International Organizations influence sectoral policies, for instance, the International Olympic Committee on Olympic Games.	

Note. Own elaboration.

The mainstream literature on stakeholder theory in cities provides some examples of how Supra and International Organizations are urban stakeholders in which they can influence the urban sectoral policies, e.g., the United Nations on sustainable transportation policies (Khreis et al., 2016), the UNESCO on urban tourism and development policies (Romestant, 2020), and the IOCOG in Olympic games (Ross et al., 2019). However, I did not find evidence that Supra/International Organizations are affected by urban management, only that these organizations affect the urban policies of the municipal management. So, more research should explore this topic.

3.4.3. THE PERSPECTIVE OF THE PARTNERSHIPS: A GENERAL APPROACH

The general approach of the stakeholders in urban management highlights the partnership as its cornerstone. Le Feuvre et al. (2016) are the key scholars of this approach, justifying that an analysis focused on the partnership is needed due to issues related to the big governments and their inability to respond to the current global challenges, which are dynamic, complex, and fragmented.

According to Le Feuvre et al. (2016), the benefits of analyzing the urban stakeholders through urban partnerships lie in a better understanding of the nature of the - stakeholder interaction - in the urban context, which the behavior of urban stakeholders has influenced, and then influencing the outcome of the partnership toward the objectives of their own partnership. In this way, Le Feuvre et al. (2016) have highlighted that the objectives of an urban partnership should be clear to the urban stakeholders in order to ensure the expected and better outcomes of these objectives.

And then, the perspective of the urban partnerships considers that "a stakeholder can theoretically occupy shifting and (in the case of behavior) sometimes simultaneously different interactive positions. [For this reason,] ... classifying urban stakeholders as being of a particular organizational/sectoral 'type' is problematic" (Le Feuvre et al., 2016, p. 63). That is, categorizing stakeholder types as made in a typological approach is limited. The reason is that there is a variation of stakeholders' behavior in their own category, causing a misinterpretation of these differences and misunderstanding of the stakeholders' interaction dynamism.

Thus, to succeed in urban partnerships, urban managers should remove and minimize process inhibitors of stakeholders' interaction, decreasing the chances of subversion of the objectives. Also, urban managers should be aware of the consequences of so many issues which affect a variety of urban stakeholders (López-Toro et al., 2016; Le Feuvre et al., 2016).

3.5. CONCLUSIONS OF STUDY II

As the stakeholders in the context of municipalities are essential to urban managers due to their duty to strategize and manage urban policies and projects, this paper

provides a synthesis of the literature on urban stakeholders. The analysis revealed two perspectives in the literature - the categorical and general approaches.

On the one hand, the categorical approach has twelve types of urban stakeholders, which are (1) governments, (2) industry, (3) citizens, (4) civil society, (5) tourists, (6) academia, (7) unions and workers, (8) media, (9) investors, (10) financial institutions, (11) suppliers, and (12) supranational and international organizations. For each one of these urban stakeholders, I discussed how they affect or are affected by the achievement of the municipality's objectives, in which a stakeholder only could be considered as such only when the stakeholder affects or is affected by the achievement of the municipality's objectives, as defined by Freeman (1989). In this study, all of these twelve urban stakeholders are aligned with this definition.

On the other hand, the general approach is focused mainly on the purpose of the urban projects and partnerships as a unit of analysis of the research, presenting a critique of the typological perspective (Le Feuvre et al., 2016), in which urban stakeholders can be misinterpreted and can ignore the own purpose of the urban partnership or project at emphasizing one or more urban stakeholders. Therefore, in the general approach, the goals of urban management are what matters and how the urban stakeholders can achieve the objectives of a determined program or partnership of the city.

Study II contributes to the theory by synthesizing the literature on who the urban stakeholder are and their two mainstream approaches to analysis. The social contribution of this study lies in a better understanding of the urban stakeholders and their relationship with urban management, which can indirectly improve the democracies in the cities as well as the achievement of the common well. Furthermore, practitioners as municipal public managers can use the two approaches presented in this paper to organize their strategy and improve the performance of their stakeholder management.

There is a limitation regarding the "Median SJR" and "Median of Citation" indicators: The absence of homogeneity between the number of occurrences among the urban stakeholders. It means that for those stakeholders with low occurrences, these two indicators will be less reliable due to the higher probability that these indicators will follow the variable elements inconsistently. In other words, the lower the number of observations and occurrences, the lower the data consistency and accuracy will be. For instance, partnerships have only three occurrences, two in high-impact journals.

Further studies can utilize one or both typologic and general approaches of the urban stakeholders for their analysis model and empirical and case studies. In addition, other constructs of the Stakeholder Theory, e.g., salience and value creation, could be explored in cities and their managers.

4. STUDY THREE: EXPLORING QUALITY OF LIFE, MANAGERIAL VALUES, STAKEHOLDER SALIENCE AND COOPERATION IN URBAN GOVERNANCE

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The phenomenon of stakeholder networks has been analyzed in business and public administration (Freeman, 1984; Freeman et al., 2010; Bryson, 2004) and urban management (Beck & Storopoli, 2021a). Stakeholder Theory aims to explain stakeholder networks in multiple fields of knowledge. Stakeholder Orientation and Stakeholder Salience have been studied as vital organizational strategy for reaching performance (Freeman et al., 2010; Agle et al., 1999). Since Business Administration, Public Administration, and Urban management are all parts of Administrative Science (Wood & Wood, 2002; Chakrabarty, 2001), Stakeholder Theory as a multi and interdisciplinary approach can be applied to these fields and even beyond the Administrative Sciences by analyzing multiple and distinct types of phenomena with stakeholder networks (Gamble & Kelly, 1996; Harrison et al., 2015). Therefore, these fields of Administrative Sciences use similar, new, and adapted techniques and theoretical approaches, including Stakeholder Theory.

The main constructs of Stakeholder Theory are the construct of stakeholder (Freeman, 1984), *stakeholder salience* (Mitchell et al., 1997; Agle et al., 1999), and *stakeholder value creation* (Bridoux & Stoelhorst, 2014; Harrison et al., 2010; Tantalo & Priem, 2014; Beck et al., 2023a; Beck et al., 2023b; Beck & Ferasso, 2023). In urban management, Beck and Storopoli (2021a) revealed that stakeholder-orientation in urban management is key for strategic urban management, democracy promotion, local community development, urban marketing, urban branding enhancement, urban networks of human and technical resources development, and better urban governance as a whole.

Furthermore, Beck and Storopoli (2021a) suggested that further studies should analyze the relationship between stakeholder salience and urban management performance. Several studies have investigated the relationship between stakeholder salience and performance in business (Mitchell et al., 1997; Agle et al., 1999; Carter & Greer, 2013), third-sector and public administration (Elliott et al., 2020; Siriwardhane & Khan, 2019; Conaty & Robbins, 2021), and even in urban affairs (Yu et al., 2019; Siriwardhane & Khan, 2019), where urban infrastructure, urban projects, and urban

policies can have better performance under stakeholder-oriented urban management, and thus, achieve better socioeconomic urban performance or urban quality of life (Beck & Storopoli, 2021a; Beck, 2023a; Beck, 2023b). Despite differences between business and urban management, mayors and business managers have had more similar perceptions of stakeholder salience attributes of distinct types of stakeholders than differences (Siriwardhane & Taylor, 2014).

Although the literature has shown the importance of stakeholder-orientation in urban management (Beck & Storopoli, 2021a), there is an empirical gap on how stakeholder salience would be related to the performance of urban management. One way of assessing the performance of urban management is through indicators oF urban quality of life (Beck, 2023a). In this way, the research questions (RQs) are twofold: (RQ1) What is the relationship between stakeholder salience and urban quality of life?; and (RQ2) What is the moderator role of the values of urban managers in that relationship? Therefore, the purpose of this study is to analyze the salience of urban stakeholders, urban quality of life, and managerial values in an integrative model of stakeholder-orientation in urban management.

4.2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

This section is divided into two subsections. The first one provides the main theoretical advancements and concepts on Stakeholder research in Urban Management. The second one provides an in-depth overview of stakeholder salience, which is a critical construct of Stakeholder Theory and is the primary construct of this study.

4.2.1. STAKEHOLDER RESEARCH IN URBAN MANAGEMENT

Stakeholder Theory has not only been theorized in business (Freeman et al., 2010; Mitchell et al., 1997; Agle et al., 1999; Wood et al., 2021; among others), public administration and the public sector (Bryson, 2004; Assad & Goddard, 2010; Ahmed & Cohen, 2019; Wang et al., 2020; Siriwardhane & Taylor, 2014), but also in other fields, such as in general socioeconomic development perspectives (Schwab & Vanham, 2021), and urban studies (Beck & Storopoli, 2021a; Wang et al., 2020; Yu et al., 2019; Siriwardhane & Taylor, 2014).

Moreover, *Stakeholder Theory* is a multi and interdisciplinary theoretical approach, which can be an umbrella theory for the most varied fields of knowledge

(Gamble & Kelly, 1996; Harrison et al., 2015). Considering that *stakeholder salience* has been studied in business, which is a field of the administrative sciences, it could be applied not only to business and public management but also to *urban management* (Wood & Wood, 2002; Chakrabarty, 2001; Beck & Storopoli, 2021a).

Accountability relationships, stakeholder attitudes, and managerial perception of stakeholders' attributes play critical roles in *stakeholder-orientation* in public and urban management. Research in the public sector, public administration, and urban management has shown that: (1) accountability in relationships matters (Assad & Goddard, 2010; Beck & Storopoli, 2021a); (2) stakeholder attributes could explain some stakeholder attitudes toward governmental policies (Ahmed & Cohen, 2019); and (3) mayors and business managers have had more similar than different perceptions of stakeholder attributes of distinct types of stakeholders (Siriwardhane & Taylor, 2014).

Beck and Storopoli (2021a) suggested the need for *adapting the stakeholder salience model* of Agle et al. (1999) *for urban management*. For this purpose, this study filled the literature gap of theoretical and empirical knowledge about the relationship between *urban quality of life* (representing the urban-socioeconomic performance of cities) and *stakeholder-orientation* in urban management. It is relevant since stakeholder research has shown that stakeholder-orientation in urban management can result in effective urban policies and mitigate conflicts among urban stakeholders (Yu et al., 2019; Beck & Storopoli, 2021a).

4.2.2. STAKEHOLDER SALIENCE OVERVIEW

Stakeholder Theory stems from management studies in business (Freeman, 1984; Freeman et al., 2010; Mitchell et al., 1997) with the perspective that stakeholders of the firms should be taken into account in strategic management. In other words, the origins of stakeholder theory are the assumption that not only shareholders should be considered in strategic management (Freeman et al., 2010). Stakeholders can be understood as anyone “who can affect or are affected by the achievement of an organization's purpose” (Freeman, 1984, p. 49).

In addition to Freeman’s definition of what a stakeholder is, Mitchell et al. (1997) proposed the construct of *stakeholder salience* for *stakeholder identification* and *prioritization*, in which the stakeholder is not only who can affect or can be affected by organizations but also who has power, urgency, and legitimacy toward organizations: (1)

power is an attribute that is held by a stakeholder that can force or establish what this one wants; (2) *legitimacy* occurs when a stakeholder has legal rights in the face of an organization either from dealings or organic social convention; and (3) *urgency* is an attribute related to time, ownership, sentiment, expectation and/or exposure, for which a stakeholder has to claim immediate attention of the organization.

Since the publication of Mitchell and colleagues in 1997, *stakeholder salience* and its attributes have been considered relevant by scholars, empirically validated, criticized, extended, modified, and widely discussed in many general management fields, e.g., business, marketing, project management, tourism, technology studies, among others (Wood et al., 2021).

Managerial perception of stakeholder attributes. According to Agle et al. (1999, p. 509), social cognition theory and stakeholder salience are interrelated, in which social cognition theory could explain how managers understand their stakeholders through their perception: "Thus, as the stakeholder attributes of power, legitimacy, and urgency cumulate in the mind of a manager, selectivity is enhanced, intensity is increased, and higher salience of the stakeholder group is the likely result." Managers' individual characteristics and environmental context influence their perception of stakeholder attributes (Joos, 2019). Even more, the characteristics of managers, such as level and role in the organization, can moderate the relationship between the number of stakeholders identified by managers and stakeholder attributes (Parent & Deephouse, 2007).

Underlying theories of stakeholder salience. Social salience relies upon three main items in *social cognition theory* (Agle et al., 1999; Fiske & Taylor, 2017): (1) visual field domination, which is related to the attentional tasks; (2) unusual/differential characteristics, which are related to either prior knowledge or prior expectations of people; and (3) the immediate context novelty, which is how individuals select some figural or novel elements that become prioritized elements at an immediate moment. *Resource dependence* (Pfeffer & Salancik, 2003; Pfeffer, 1992), *organization theory* (Mitchell et al., 1997; Fiske & Taylor, 2017), and *behavioral theory* (Cyert & March, 1963) are the main underlying theories behind the assumptions made by Agle et al. (1999) and Mitchell et al. (1997) that *power, legitimacy, and urgency constitute stakeholder salience*.

Power as stakeholder salience attribute. Organizations could be dominated by a third party when they depend upon resources and outcomes from others; this phenomenon

is also known as visual field domination (Agle et al., 1999; Pfeffer & Salancik, 2003; Pfeffer, 1992; Fiske & Taylor, 2017). Thus, resource dependence has been considered a power source of stakeholders due to their control of critical organizational resources, processes, or outcomes (Frooman, 1999; Pajunen, 2006) and because organizational reputation relies on stakeholder cooperation and perceptions (Mahon, 2002; Carter & Deephouse, 1999; Peloza & Papania, 2008). Other key sources of power of stakeholders are: (1) stakeholder identity and ideology in terms of influence over the organization (Rowley & Moldoveanu, 2003; den Hond & de Bakker, 2007; de Bakker & den Hond, 2008); (2) stakeholder networks and relationships in terms of centrality and influence in decision-making (Prell et al., 2009); (3) the existence or absence of regulatory and legal resources, e.g., environmental protection laws (Schneper & Guillén, 2004; Reid & Toffel, 2009); and (4) institutional pressures (Wood et al., 2021).

Legitimacy as stakeholder salience attribute. Prior knowledge and the social context composed of cultural norms and behaviors are the dominant characteristics of *legitimacy* in societies (Fiske & Taylor, 2017; Mitchell et al., 1997; Suchman, 1995). Fairness matters for legitimacy by which the normative domain sustains the central essence of legitimacy since organizations have duties and moral obligations toward their stakeholders (Phillips, 2003). Also, legitimacy is the prime factor of stakeholder salience (Neville et al., 2011), which can be derived from a moral claim and social contracts and conventions (Mitchell et al., 1997). The bottom line here is behind the selection of unusual and different characteristics in processes, that is, sharp distinctions that can be perceived by people, leaders, and managers, among others.

Urgency as stakeholder salience attribute. Behavioral theory has shown that urgency-related events or elements can capture the attention of managers, which have to be responsive to the claims emerging in an *immediate context* (Cyert & March, 1963). Not only selectivity but also the *intensity of judgments* of managers and claiming stakeholders matter in immediate contexts (Mitchell et al., 1997; Cyert & March, 1963). For some scholars, such as Neville et al. (2011), urgency is an attribute for prioritization instead of the identification of stakeholders by managers. However, the majority of the literature has considered the urgency in stakeholder salience for stakeholder identification (Wood et al., 2021).

Critiques of and alternatives for stakeholder salience. The stakeholder salience model can ignore low-scoring stakeholders in salience attributes (Hart & Sharma, 2004)

and consider relevant stakeholders as not salient due to low scores in some of the stakeholder attributes, e.g., important stakeholders who have urgency could be ignored when scoring low in power and legitimacy (Derry, 2012). Therefore, some scholars argue that stakeholder salience can be replaced by other constructs/definitions that would be more accurate in identifying stakeholders, such as *social identity* (Crane & Ruebottom, 2011), stakeholder *accessibility* to resources that could harm the organization (Jawahar & McLaughlin, 2001), among others.

Despite some criticism, I used in this study the three stakeholder attributes of salience proposed by Mitchell and colleagues in 1997 (i.e., power, urgency, and legitimacy) because it has been *empirically validated* in organizational research (Goel et al., 2020; Wood et al., 2021). In addition to these three traditional stakeholder attributes, some studies have inserted the construct of proximity, potency, feedback, and responsiveness (Bourne & Walker, 2005; Bourne & Walker, 2008; Bahadorestani et al., 2019; Best et al., 2019). Stakeholder closeness to a project composes the *proximity* attribute (Bourne & Walker, 2005; Bourne & Walker, 2008). Bahadorestani et al. (2019) replaced *power* with a more comprehensive construct called *potency*, which represents how a stakeholder can influence the current and future conditions of projects either by its internal or external aspects. In the public sector, *feedback* and *responsiveness* have been found as extensions of power, urgency, and legitimacy attributes as critical attributes for value creation (Best et al., 2019).

Although these and other stakeholder attributes have been included in stakeholder salience; proximity and potency are more appropriate to be used in projects of organizations (Bourne & Walker, 2005; Bourne & Walker, 2008; Bahadorestani et al., 2019; Best et al., 2019), rather than to be used in the context of whole organizations *per si*, or more complex social systems as cities and their management (Beck & Storopoli, 2021a). As for *feedback* and *responsiveness*, they are more appropriate to be used in identifying and prioritizing stakeholders for value creation in sectoral urban policies since urban managers wish to meet stakeholder expectations and intervene to improve urban policies (Best et al., 2019). Therefore, *power*, *urgency*, and *legitimacy* are enough attributes to identify and prioritize stakeholders in urban management, which were considered in the next section about hypothesis development.

4.3. MODEL AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

This section presents research hypotheses and is divided into four subsections: (1) the first proposes hypotheses regarding the relationship between values of urban managers and stakeholder salience; (2) the second hypothesizes that salience urban stakeholder salience is related to urban quality of life; (3) the third one hypothesizes that stakeholder cooperation is a positive moderator for the relationship between stakeholder salience and urban quality of life; and (4) the last one provides an overview of the research model.

4.3.1. VALUES OF URBAN MANAGERS AND STAKEHOLDER SALIENCE

Mitchell et al. (1997) suggested that the *values of managers* would play a moderator role in the relationship between the managerial perception of stakeholder attributes and stakeholder salience. Considering that values of people change according to their context, time, geographical location, and culture, Agle et al. (1999) found that managerial values are inconclusive as moderators in the relationship between stakeholder attributes and stakeholder salience in a business context. Nonetheless, the majority of the evidence does not allow Agle and colleagues to reject the null hypotheses, and also their study has missing data. Therefore, the values of urban managers will hypothetically affect their perceptions of power, legitimacy, and urgency. Thus, the values of urban managers will also affect the stakeholder salience of urban stakeholders.

The literature has shown that the *values of managers* have been manifested in stakeholder salience through *manager prioritization* (O'Riordan, 2014) as well as in the managerial *decision* of stakeholder engagement activities (Brower & Mahajan, 2013). In terms of 'stakeholder culture', values can be analyzed in organizations from *self-regarding* to *other-regarding* perspectives. (Agle et al., 1999; Jones et al., 2007; Boesso & Kumar, 2016). In business studies, Agle et al. (1999) found inconclusive results for managerial other-regarding values affecting positively stakeholder salience of non-shareholders as well as for managerial other-regarding values affecting negatively stakeholder salience of shareholders.

Stakeholder culture is defined as "the beliefs, values, and practices that have evolved for solving stakeholder-related problems and otherwise managing relationships with stakeholders" (Jones et al., 2007, p. 142). According to Jones et al. (2007), stakeholder culture can be categorized into three dimensions, from the most self-regarding to the most other-regarding, which are: (1) *amoral* (based on agency theory);

(2) *limitedly moral* (based on corporate egotism or an instrumentalist approach of stakeholders); and (3) *broadly moral* (moralist or altruist stakeholder culture, considering other interests).

In this way, taking the propositions made by Jones et al. (2007), Boesso and Kumar (2016) found that: (1) power and urgency are very important to determine the salience of stakeholders in amoral and egoist stakeholder culture; (2) legitimacy and urgency are key to the determination of stakeholder salience in moralist stakeholder-culture; and (3) power and legitimacy play some considerable role in determining the salience of stakeholder in instrumentalist stakeholder culture. In other words, the attributes of stakeholder salience vary according to the organizational culture and managerial values.

Urban management and business have differences and similarities. Many managerial theories and techniques can be applied in different fields of administrative science (Wood & Wood, 2002; Chakrabarty, 2001). Noteworthy is that business differs from urban management in terms of its goals, objectives, functions, and structure. On the one hand, firms have shareholders and owners. On the other hand, urban management has no owners but public agents who are responsible for managing urban affairs and urban governance to satisfy urban stakeholders instead.

While it would be possible to argue that other-regarding CEOs care for not only shareholder interests but also organizational stakeholders (Agle et al., 1999; Jones et al., 2007; Boesso & Kumar, 2016), as urban managers aim to promote urban development by "planning, organizing, staffing, leading, and controlling" the urban management (Chakrabarty, 2001, p. 333), all urban stakeholders would likely be interested in fostering *urban-socioeconomic development* (Beck & Storopoli, 2021a). Thus, urban managers with *other-regarding* values would be more prone to meet and satisfy the needs of urban stakeholders (i.e., those perceived as more *salient*) rather than those with *self-regarding* values. In this way, considering research findings that stakeholder culture affects stakeholder salience perception (Jones et al., 2007; Boesso & Kumar, 2016), I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1a (H1a): There is a positive relationship between ***other-regarding values*** *and* ***stakeholder salience*** *as perceived by urban managers.*

Furthermore, according to Boesso and Kumar (2016), the relationship between stakeholder salience and values has two distinct main directions. On the one hand, urban managers with higher other-regarding values will have a higher perception of urban stakeholder salience than urban managers with lower other-regarding values. On the other hand, urban managers with higher self-regarding values will have a lower perception of urban stakeholder salience than urban managers with lower self-regarding values.

In this way, stakeholder culture affects not only stakeholder salience perception but also specific types of stakeholder salience attributes depending upon the values (Boesso & Kumar, 2016): (1) power and urgency have been considered the most preponderant stakeholder salience attributes in egoist stakeholder culture, i.e., a culture oriented to self-regarding values; and (2) legitimacy and urgency are the most scored attributes of stakeholder salience in moralist stakeholder culture, i.e., a culture oriented to other-regarding values. Noteworthy is that the findings of Boesso and Kumar (2016) revealed that urgency was also related to managers with self-regarding values. Considering the rationale of stakeholder culture in terms of specific stakeholder salience attributes (Jones et al., 2007; Boesso & Kumar, 2016), I hypothesize that:

*Hypothesis 1b (H1b): There is a positive relationship between **self-regarding values** and the attribute of the **power** of stakeholders as perceived by urban managers.*

*Hypothesis 1c (H1c): There is a positive relationship between **other-regarding values** and the attribute of the **urgency** of stakeholders as perceived by urban managers.*

*Hypothesis 1d (H1d): There is a positive relationship between **self-regarding values** and the attribute of the **urgency** of stakeholders as perceived by urban managers.*

*Hypothesis 1e (H1e): There is a positive relationship between **other-regarding values** and the attribute of the **legitimacy** of stakeholders as perceived by urban managers.*

4.3.2. SALIENCE OF URBAN STAKEHOLDERS AND URBAN QUALITY OF LIFE

Stakeholder salience has been related to urban quality of life (i.e., to urban-socioeconomic performance). Several studies based on Stakeholder Theory have

investigated the relationship between stakeholder salience and performance in business (Agle et al., 1999; Carter & Greer, 2013), in third-sector and public administration (Axelsson et al., 2013; Elliott et al., 2020; Best et al., 2019; Siriwardhane & Khan, 2019; Conaty & Robbins, 2021), and in urban affairs (Yu et al., 2019; Siriwardhane & Khan, 2019). In Public Administration and Not-for-Profit Organizations, stakeholder prioritization is related to higher accountability (Chen et al., 2018; Komutputipong & Keerasuntonpong, 2019). In all of these fields, stakeholder salience has been related to higher performance because organizations and managers have set policies and strategies to meet stakeholder needs and expectations, that is, because of a stakeholder-oriented organizational strategy.

In urban studies, the literature has shown that urban infrastructure, urban projects, urban policies, and urban socioeconomic and environmental dimensions perform better when are oriented for multiple stakeholders rather than oriented for only one stakeholder, e.g., oriented only for meeting the expectations of the government or only for business shareholders (Beck & Storopoli, 2021a; Schwab & Vanham, 2021). Thus, urban management that aims to satisfy all urban stakeholders provides better quality of life by fostering urban socioeconomic development (Beck & Storopoli, 2021a; Schwab & Vanham, 2021). For this reason, *urban-socioeconomic performance* can be explored in terms of *urban quality of life* (Kaklauskas et al., 2018; Omidipoor et al., 2019; Beck & Storopoli, 2021a; Beck, 2023a). Therefore, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 2 (H2): Stakeholder Salience as perceived by urban managers will be positively related to urban quality of life.

4.3.3. STAKEHOLDER COOPERATION, STAKEHOLDER SALIENCE, AND URBAN QUALITY OF LIFE

Cooperation among the parties is a facilitator ingredient in complexity interplays of stakeholders for performance, in which stakeholder cooperation comprehends from the internal leadership to the most distant external stakeholder. In this way, research has shown that leadership and ecosystem stakeholder cooperation matter for value-creation results and organizational performance by creating trust and strengthening ties with all internal or external stakeholders (Abubakar et al., 2019; Ansell & Gash, 2008; Ansell & Gash, 2012; Granstrand & Holgersson, 2020; Lee et al., 2001; Teece, 2007; among

others). Moreover, cooperation is crucial for higher performance in achieving organizational purposes and creating value and innovation in public management (Vigoda-Gadot, 2003; Kapucu & Demiroz, 2011; Head & Alford, 2015; Greve, 2015; among others). Similarly, cooperation matters for higher performance in urban management (Guan et al., 2015; Yao, Li, & Li, 2020; Pang et al., 2021). Thus, I argue that the higher stakeholder cooperation, the higher will be the relationship between stakeholder salience and urban performance:

Hypothesis 3 (H3): Stakeholder cooperation, as perceived by urban managers, moderates the relationship between stakeholder salience and urban quality of life.

4.3.4. RESEARCH MODEL

All research hypotheses are illustrated in the model presented in Figure 4.1.

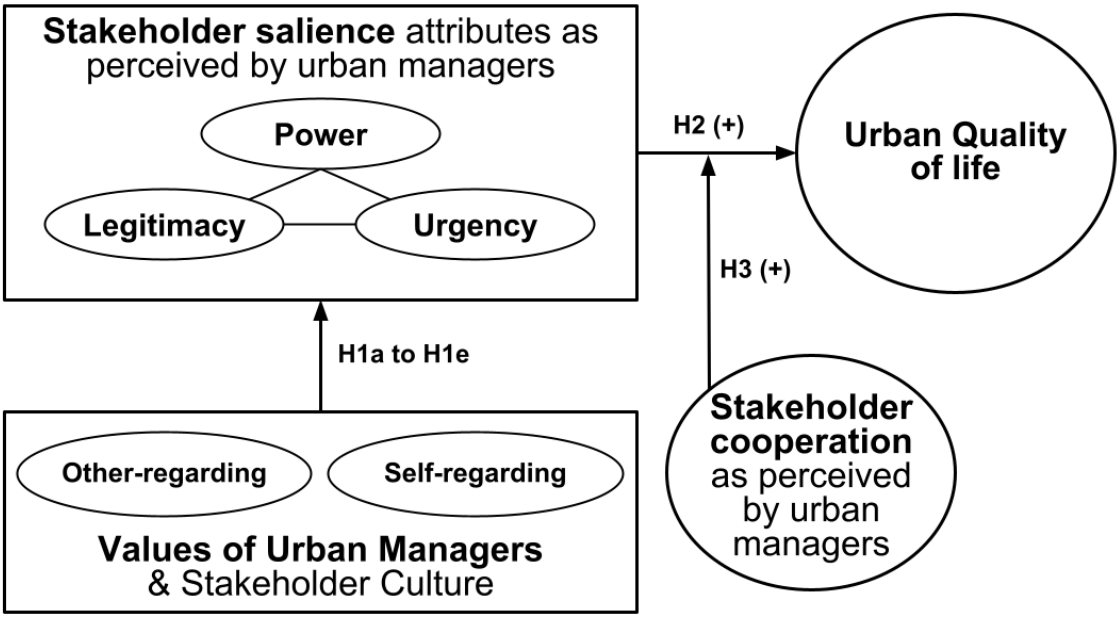

Figure 4.1. Research model.

Note. Own elaboration.

In sum, the research model proposes that the stakeholder salience attributes (i.e., power, legitimacy, and urgency) are a mediator between the values of urban managers (i.e., stakeholder culture characterized by both other-regarding and self-regarding values) and urban-socioeconomic performance (i.e., in terms of human development) as well as

stakeholder cooperation is a moderator between stakeholder salience attributes and urban-socioeconomic performance

4.4. METHOD AND RESEARCH DESIGN

This section details the research design and methods used in this study, which is divided into nine subsections. The first seven subsections explain in-depth the seven stages of this study (summarized in the bullet list presented after this paragraph). The seventh subsection provides the calculations of the variables used in the dataset and the regression models. And the eighth subsection presents the descriptive statistics.

This study was divided into seven stages:

- First, I adapted the psychometric scale used by Agle et al. (1999) to measure the construct of urban stakeholder salience (mediator variable);
- Second, I adapted the psychometric scale used by Agle et al. (1999) to measure the construct of the values of urban managers (independent variable);
- Third, I adapted the psychometric scale for measuring the construct of stakeholder cooperation used by Orchard et al. (2018) as stakeholder cooperation perceived by the respondents (moderator variable);
- Fourth, I set up the control variables of the model;
- Fifth, I defined the convenience sample and applied the three psychometric scales developed in the previous steps, resulting in a convenience sampling of 85 responses from urban managers of 24 different cities in Brazil, the US, and Israel;
- Sixth, I gathered data on quality of life (dependent variable) at the municipal level from Numbeo's dataset (Numbeo, 2023); and
- Seventh, I tested the research model (as depicted in Figure 4.1) adapted from the study of Agle et al. (1999) in urban management through a statistical Bayesian hierarchical model.

This study used primary and secondary sources to test the model. Primary sources were obtained in the third first steps regarding the following variables: urban stakeholder salience (power, urgency, and legitimacy); values of urban managers (self-regarding and other-regarding values); stakeholder cooperation; gender; educational level; age; and political orientation. As for the dependent variable, I used secondary data about the "quality of life index" gathered from the *Numbeo* database (Numbeo, 2023).

4.1. FIRST STAGE: SCALE FOR STAKEHOLDER SALIENCE AS PERCEIVED BY URBAN MANAGERS (MEDIATOR VARIABLE)

I adapted the validated scale used by Agle et al. (1999) to measure *urban stakeholder salience* as perceived by urban managers. The three latent variables that compose this scale are the three attributes of stakeholder salience, i.e., power, legitimacy, and urgency. The item pool consists of nine items, three items for each latent variable. I used a seven-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, and 7 = strongly agree). The generic stakeholder groups in this study are the four outstanding urban-stakeholder types found in study II of this doctoral dissertation, which are: (1) Governments (i.e., municipal, regional, and national governments); (2) Industry; (3) Citizens; and (4) Civil society.

As the scale developed by Agle et al. (1999) was used to measure stakeholder salience in business, I adapted this scale to urban management by changing the occurrences of the term "firm" in the scale used by Agle et al. (1999) for the terms "management" or "management team". Three items were applied for each stakeholder attribute (i.e., power, legitimacy, and urgency), which are presented in Table 4.1. Also, in order to help the respondents properly answer the survey, I provided a short academic definition of power, urgency, and legitimacy.

Table 4.1

Urban Stakeholder Salience: Scale and Item Pools

Stakeholder Attribute	SI	Item
Power		
	P1	This stakeholder group had power, whether used or not.
	P2	This stakeholder group had access to, influence on, or the ability to impact our management, whether used or not.
	P3	This stakeholder group had the power to enforce its claims.
Urgency		
	U1	This stakeholder group exhibited urgency in its relationship with our management.
	U2	This stakeholder group actively sought the attention of our management team.
	U3	This stakeholder group urgently communicated its claims to our management.
Legitimacy		
	L1	The claims of this particular stakeholder group were viewed by our management team as legitimate.
	L2	Our management team believes that the claims of this stakeholder group were not proper or appropriate.
	L3	The claims of this group were legitimate in the eyes of our management team.

Note. Own elaboration. Definition of power: the ability to apply a high level of direct economic reward or punishment [money, goods, services, etc.] and/or coercive or physical force [gun, lock, sabotage, etc., including access to legal processes that can invoke the use of physical force] and/or positive or negative social influence [on reputation, prestige, etc. through media, etc.] to obtain its will). Definition of urgency: active in pursuing claims - demands or desires - which it felt were important. Definition of legitimacy: proper or appropriate. *SI* = Suffix of the item.

The assertions in Table 4.1 were applied to the four groups of stakeholders. When the assertion was applied to governments, this assertion received the prefix “Gov.” For instance, the assertion P1 made in relation to the government stakeholder type would be understood as “GovP1.” This logic is also applied to other stakeholder types: when applied to the industry, it received the prefix “Ind”; when applied to the citizens, it received the prefix “Cit”; finally, when applied to civil society, it received the prefix “Civ.”

4.4.2. SECOND STAGE: SCALE FOR THE VALUES OF URBAN MANAGERS (INDEPENDENT VARIABLE)

As for the variable *values of urban managers,* I applied the same seven validated items used by Agle et a. (1999) for *self-regarding values* and *other-regarding values* on a seven-point Likert Scale (ranging from 1 to 7, from least important to most important). Table 4.2 shows the three items that represent self-regarding values as well as the four items that represent other-regarding values.

Table 4.2

Values of Urban Managers: Scale and Item Pools

Value	Item
Self-regarding Values	
SRV1	For you, what is the degree of importance for "a comfortable and prosperous life"?
SRV2	For you, what is the degree of importance for "wealth by making money for you and your family"?
SRV3	For you, what is the degree of importance for "pleasurable and enjoyable life"?
Other-regarding Values	
ORV1	For you, what is the degree of importance for "being helpful and working for the welfare of others"?
ORV2	For you, what is the degree of importance for "being compassionate and feeling empathy for others"?
ORV3	For you, what is the degree of importance for "defending equality and fraternity"?
ORV4	For you, what is the degree of importance for "loving and being affectionate to others"?

Note. Own elaboration.

4.4.3. THIRD STAGE: SCALE FOR STAKEHOLDER COOPERATION (MODERATOR VARIABLE)

As for the variable *stakeholder cooperation* as perceived by urban managers, I adapted the items for the construct *stakeholder cooperation* of the 'Assessment of Interprofessional Team Collaboration Scale' (AITCS) revised by Orchard et al. (2018), which was originally proposed by Orchard, King, Khalili, and Bezzina in 2012. Orchard et al. (2012, p. 60) stated that there is *cooperation* when stakeholders "work together in an environment where each person's skills, knowledge, and expertise are valued and sought out". In the revised form of AITCS (Orchard et al., 2018, p. 16), eight items are able to reveal the latent variable *cooperation*.

Differently from Orchard et al. (2018), which used 5 points Likert Scale, I decided to use a 7 points Likert Scale for measuring cooperation perception since the other Likert Scales adapted to this survey have this pattern. This scale ranges from 1 as strongly disagree to 7 as strongly agree. Thus, I adapted these eight items for the context of urban management, which are presented in Table 4.3 for more details.

Table 4.3
Stakeholder Cooperation: Items in English

Item
C1: This stakeholder-type shares power with other stakeholders in urban governance.
C2: This stakeholder-type shares respect and trust with other stakeholders in urban governance.
C3: This stakeholder-type is open and honest with other stakeholders in urban governance.
C4: This stakeholder-type makes changes to their functioning based on reflective reviews.
C5: This stakeholder-type strives to achieve mutually satisfying resolutions for differences of opinions.
C6: This stakeholder-type understands the boundaries of what each other can do.
C7: This stakeholder-type understands that there are shared knowledge and skills with other stakeholders in urban governance.
C8: This stakeholder-type establishes a sense of trust among the stakeholders in urban governance.

Note. Own elaboration.

The assertions in Table 4.3 were applied to the four groups of stakeholders. When the assertion was applied to governments, this assertion received the prefix "Gov." For instance, the assertion C1 made concerning the government stakeholder type would be

understood as “GovC1”. This logic is also applied to other stakeholder types: when applied to the industry, it received the prefix “Ind”; when applied to the citizens, it received the prefix “Cit”; finally, when applied to the civil society, it received the prefix “Civ.”

4.4.4. FOURTH STAGE: SETTING UP THE CONTROL VARIABLES

The *control variables* of this study are gender, educational level, age, political orientation (right) of the respondents, and country. As for *gender*, the respondents stated if they consider themselves as male, female, non-binary, transgender, intersex, or if they prefer not to say about it. However, the respondents answered male and female. The respondents chose no other genders. As for *educational level*, the respondents stated if they do not have a university, undergraduate, or graduate degree or prefer not to say about it. Those who answered that they did not have a university degree received the code 0, those who had an undergraduate degree received the code 1, and graduate degree the code 2. The *age* variable was classified into six different age groups: (1) less than 18 years old; (2) between 18 and 29; (3) Between 30 and 39 years old; (4) Between 40 and 49 years old; (5) Between 50 and 59 years old; (6) Higher than 60 years old; and the option as (7) "I prefer not to say." No respondents answered, "I prefer not to say." Thus, all of them provided their age range. Those who answered "less than 18 years old" received a point 1, "between 18 and 29" a point 1, "between 30 and 39", a point 3, and so the following range used the same logic by the point 6, i.e., "higher than 60 years old." There were no responses for "less than 18 years old."

As for *right political orientation* (RPO), respondents responded to four 7-point Likert Scale items:

- RPO1: What is your political orientation?
- RPO2: I support limited government, which is considered less governmental interference in the economy;
- RPO3: I support the social-traditional values; and
- RPO4: The fact on crime, sexual immorality, and the recent public disorders all show I have to crack down harder on deviant groups and troublemakers if I am going to save our moral standards and preserve law and order.

For all these items, the scale ranges from 1 as strongly disagree to 7 as strongly agree. I decided to call this variable RPO by conventionalism since the greater the point in this scale, the greater the person will be. The first item reveals which part of the political spectrum the respondent considers to be. Based on Everett's (2013) study, the second item reveals the extent to which the respondent is conservative in economics, and the third item reveals as conservative in social issues. Finally, the fourth item reveals the degree of authoritarian aggression of the respondent (Rattazzi et al., 2007). As political orientation is a control variable and the hypotheses and research model are not related to this variable, I decided not to explore this variable deeply.

In short, the control variables were used in three different ways in the models: first, RPO was used as a control variable of salience, power, legitimacy, and urgency in their respective models; second, gender, educational level, and age were used as control variables of QLI in all models; and third, the country was set as a QLI local intercept and stakeholder cooperation was divided into quartiles as a QLI local intercept (local intercept is also known as a random effect).

4.4.5. FIFTH STAGE: DEFINING THE SAMPLE AND APPLYING THE SURVEY

The primary condition for considering the survey valid is the respondent being an urban manager. There is no convergence on urban management, an interdisciplinary concept ranging from urban studies, urban sociology, political science, and administrative science (Stren, 1993; Mattingly, 1994; Chakrabarty, 2001; Bačlija, 2011). As inserted in urban governance with many stakeholders, urban management has managerial roles towards urban stakeholders, urban systems, and urban dimensions, e.g., socioeconomic, political, legal, environmental, and technological, among other factors (Chakrabarty, 2001; Bačlija, 2011). In this way, *an urban manager is anyone who is responsible for one team that works for the municipality in one or more urban systems or dimensions at all different levels of management*. Examples of urban managers are: the mayor, committee leaders, unit leaders, council leaders, municipal secretaries, department leaders, and department-section leaders, among other chiefs and leaders. Therefore, if the respondent answered that he is not an urban manager in these terms, I ended the survey.

I collected email addresses from all the websites of the sampled municipalities. And thus, I sent an invitation email to each address by following the best recommendations in the literature for getting higher response rates. Thus, the email

contained a concise self-presentation, the survey's purpose and funding, and the first question embedded in the email (Whitcomb & Porter, 2004; Liu & Inchausti, 2017; Cobanoglu et al., 2022). *Google Forms* was used in this survey with a white background color and a simple header with the logo of the author's affiliated Educational Institutions (Whitcomb & Porter, 2004).

Furthermore, pleading for help increases the response rate (Petrovčič et al., 2016). For this reason, I included a plea for help by highlighting that by responding to this survey, the respondents will help the Public Administration theoretical development and the first author to earn his/her/their doctorate.

As personalized emails do not differ in response rates significantly (Heerwegh et al., 2005; Trespalacios & Perkins, 2016), the emails were sent without containing the names of the respondents. Respondents might recognize automation in personalized emails, which could also be ineffective since the sender and the potential respondent do not have an intimacy or direct relationship (Heerwegh et al., 2005). For this reason, the invitation emails were not personalized. However, I clearly and briefly explained that I collected the emails from the municipality website.

Initially, I aimed to collect responses from urban managers from all the US capitals (including Washington, District of Columbia), Brazilian capitals (including Brasília, Distrito Federal), and cities equal to or above 200k inhabitants, and from all the 73 Israeli cities. Accordingly, in this study, 85 individual responses were collected through convenience sampling in Brazil (69 responses), the US (10 responses), and Israel (6 responses).

- In Brazil, the sample includes the following cities: Sorocaba, São Paulo State (1 response); São José do Rio Preto, São Paulo State (3 responses); Santos, São Paulo State (3 responses); Juiz de Fora, Minas Gerais State (1 response); Joinville, Santa Catarina State (3 responses); São José dos Campos, São Paulo State (2 responses); Belo Horizonte, Minas Gerais State (20 responses); Curitiba, Paraná State (2 responses); Florianópolis, Santa Catarina State (2 responses); Fortaleza, Ceará State (1 response); Natal, Rio Grande do Norte State (1 response); Porto Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul State (8 responses); Recife, Pernambuco State (4 responses); Rio de Janeiro, Rio de Janeiro State (4 responses); Salvador, Bahia State (1 response); São Paulo, São Paulo State (12 responses); and Vitória, Espírito Santo State (1 response).

- In the US, the sample includes the following cities: Austin, Texas (3 responses); Columbus, Ohio (3 responses); Raleigh, North Carolina (1 response); Baton Rouge, Louisiana (1 response); Honolulu, Hawaii (1 response); and Atlanta, Georgia (1 response).
- In Israel, all six Israeli responses were from Haifa city.

In short, I collected 85 responses from 24 cities, i.e., seventeen Brazilian cities, six American cities, and one Israeli city. After knowing the cities of the sample, I gathered the data on the dependent variable, i.e., quality of life. The next subsection explains the details of this process.

4.4.6. SIXTH STAGE: GATHERING SECONDARY DATA ON QUALITY OF LIFE (DEPENDENT VARIABLE)

In order to represent the quality of life, I used the *Quality of Life Index* (QLI) available on the Numbeo website (Numbeo, 2023). I decided to use the QLI of the Numbeo dataset since it has been used as a reliable, consolidated, and congruent source of quality of life by mainstream research in urban studies (Kaklauskas et al., 2018; Nevado-Peña et al., 2019; Bogoviz et al., 2020; Carlsen & Bruggemann, 2020; Shahraki et al., 2020; Helble et al., 2021; Wang, 2022). More details on each index can be found on the Numbeo (2023) website. I collected the data regarding all of Numbeo's indicators on March 16, 2023, of which the sampled cities (country and State) and their respective QLI and related indicators are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4
QLI and related-indicators of the sampled cities

CY	ST	City	QLI	PPI	SI	HCI	CI	CLI	HPIR	TCTI	PI
US	TX	Austin	174.96	123.08	59.36	67.6	82.08	74.38	6.11	35.16	40.83
US	NC	Raleigh	173.87	104.82	61.16	67.73	83.88	80.28	6.43	36.3	31.62
US	OH	Columbus	173.43	119.29	51.37	68.38	71.29	72.66	7.07	30.39	32.33
US	LA	Baton Rouge	169.76	134.03	29.71	67.31	86.44	72.41	1.55	33.83	43.09
US	GA	Atlanta	164.58	125	36.2	69.24	89.73	74.22	3.17	41.68	44.79
BR	SP	SJRP	164	42.61	52.96	72.22	97.01	29.23	10.69	8	34.71
BR	SP	SJC	155.55	34.8	50.69	67.93	98.81	34.86	10	17.91	32.07
US	HI	Honolulu	152.46	75.41	52.41	72.53	95.33	101.84	9.01	41.28	37.3
IL	NA	Haifa	151.62	88.47	72.73	73.32	93.57	71.64	8.91	29.7	74.6
BR	PR	Curitiba	139	36.54	37.94	66.77	99.6	35.04	13.48	32.41	31.97
BR	SP	Sorocaba	137.59	27.59	53.34	74.97	98.5	34.94	19.68	15	48.39
BR	SP	Santos	130.35	24.01	48.05	63.55	90.62	41.62	18.06	25	36.28
BR	SC	Joinville	126.49	23.3	51.44	68.71	91.19	34.93	15.69	36.94	43.17
BR	SC	Florianópolis	122.11	29.75	50.06	60.14	97	37.02	17.57	46.59	39.96
BR	ES	Vitória	121.4	33.15	55.49	67.07	90.39	38.18	12.07	39.9	61.09
BR	MG	Juiz de Fora	119.28	21.12	43.34	51.39	99.24	32.98	20.62	18.75	39.25
BR	RN	Natal	114.67	30.83	23	43.08	84.29	30.79	12.35	22.44	41.75
BR	RS	Porto Alegre	111.34	27.56	27.93	63.31	98.75	36.01	15.01	31.32	56.43
BR	MG	Belo Horizonte	108.02	24.96	36.26	63.9	98.5	35.12	18.57	43.41	52.05
BR	BA	Salvador	96.27	17.71	23.16	60.09	82.81	35.05	23.91	38.35	41.15
BR	PE	Recife	85.69	33.93	23.67	62.54	79.28	34.18	18.05	46.49	69.57
BR	CE	Fortaleza	82.11	19.75	22.9	48.96	80.35	32.29	23.15	43.23	53.42
BR	SP	São Paulo	75.78	25.02	29.34	58.93	99.04	41.89	23.61	49.9	79.1
BR	RJ	Rio de Janeiro	67.72	21.25	22.37	45.25	88.22	40.16	24.54	51.34	67.88

Note. *CY* = Country; *ST* = State; *US* = United States of America; *IL* = Israel; *BR* = Brazil; *TX* = Texas; *NC* = North Carolina; *OH* = Ohio; *LA* = Louisiana; *GA* = Georgia; *SP* = São Paulo; *HI* = Hawaii; *NA* = Not applied/Not Available; *PR* = Paraná; *SC* = Santa Catarina; *ES* = Espírito Santo; *MG* = Minas Gerais; *RN* = Rio Grande do Norte; *RS* = Rio Grande do Sul; *BA* = Bahia; *PE* = Pernambuco; *CE* = Ceará; *RJ* = Rio de Janeiro; *SJRP* = São José do Rio Preto; and *SJC* = São José dos Campos. The information presented in this table is ordered by the QLI score of the cities.

In sum, QLI provides information at the local level with empirical data on socioeconomic and environmental performance.

4.4.7. SEVENTH STAGE: TESTING THE MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

In order to test the hypothesis proposed in the theoretical model, I have developed a statistical Bayesian hierarchical model (Gelman et al., 2014; Gelman et al., 2020a; McElreath, 2020). I have chosen a Bayesian model since we have two nested statistical models. The first revolves around stakeholder salience, whereas the second revolves around QLI. One of the many advantages of the Bayesian model is the possibility of including both likelihood statements on these variables in a single model without resorting to ad hoc simple disjoint models.

The likelihood of stakeholder salience has: first, self-regarding values and others regarding values as independent variables; second, right-wing political orientation as a control variable. The likelihood of QLI has: first, stakeholder salience as an independent variable, which was previously the dependent variable); and second, age group, gender, and education level as control variables. Since it is a hierarchical model, I set the country as the varying intercept (i.e., a random-effect or group-level parameter), thus, estimating the local intercept for each group and the global intercept. In other words, this setting allows the QLI to have different intercepts (and basal rates) across countries in the sample. Finally, I followed the recommendation of Gelman et al. (2020b) to use moderator effects as a varying intercept instead of using them in the model as a multiplication; thus, I set the stakeholder cooperation (i.e., the moderator variable between stakeholder salience and QLI) as a varying-intercept on the quartiles of the cooperation scores. Hence, the model has different intercepts across the four quartiles of the values of stakeholder cooperation.

I used R version 4.2.2 (R Core Team, 2023) with *RStan* version 2.30.1 (Stan Development Team, 2023) and *brms* version 2.19 (Bürkner, 2017) for the model specification and estimation procedures. The fully reproducible code is available in a public GitHub repository at https://github.com/LabCidades/urban-stakeholders.

The following subsection presents the calculations of the model and variables.

4.4.8. CALCULATIONS

This subsection presents the calculations and notations used for the variables of the dataset used in the model and the regression models. This subsection is also organized as follows. First, I explained and presented the math notation of the *Quality of Life Index* (QLI) and its related variables. Second, I explained and presented the math notation of *Right Political Orientation* (RPO). Third, I explained and presented the math notations of *Stakeholder Salience*, including its attributes of *Power*, *Urgency*, and *Legitimacy*. Fourth, I explained and presented the math notations of *Stakeholder Cooperation*. Fifth, I explained and presented the math notations of values of urban managers, i.e., *Self-Regarding Values* (SRV) and *Other-Regarding Values* (ORV). Sixth, I explained and presented the math notations necessary for the *four Bayesian Regression Models* used in this research.

4.4.8.1 CALCULATION AND MATH NOTATION OF QUALITY OF LIFE INDEX

The QLI formula, designed by Numbeo (2023), is “an estimation of the overall quality of life by using an empirical formula that takes into account eight different indexes.” (Kaklauskas et al., 2018, p. 84). The indexes considered in QLI are (Numbeo, 2023): Purchasing Power Index including rent prices (PPI); Pollution Index (PI or “Pollution_I”); House (or Property) Price to Income Ratio (HPIR or PPIR); Cost of Living Index (CLI); Safety Index (SI or “Safety_I”); Health Care Index (HCI); Traffic Commute Time Index (TCTI); and Climate Index (CI or “Climate_I”). Eq. 1 shows the formula adopted by the QLI (Numbeo, 2023):

$$QLI = \frac{PPI}{2.5} - (HPIR \cdot 1) - \frac{CLI}{10} + \frac{SI}{2} + \frac{HCI}{2.5} - \frac{TCTI}{2} - \frac{PI \cdot 2}{3} + \frac{CI}{3} \quad (1)$$

Where:

QLI = Quality of Life Index;
PPI = Purchase Power Index Including rent prices;
HPIR = House Price to Income Ratio;
CLI = Cost of Living Index;
SI = Safety Index;
HCI = Health Care index;
TCTI = Traffic Commute Time Index;
PI = Pollution Index;
CI = Climate Index.

4.4.8.2 CALCULATION AND MATH NOTATION OF RIGHT POLITICAL ORIENTATION

Right Political Orientation (RPO) is the mean ($\bar{x}$) of the sum of the means of RPO1, RPO2, RPO3, and RPO4 (previously presented in section 4.4.4), shown in eq. 2:

$$RPO = \frac{RPO1_{\bar{x}} + RPO2_{\bar{x}} + RPO3_{\bar{x}} + RPO4_{\bar{x}}}{4} \quad (2)$$

Where:

RPO = Right Political Orientation of the urban managers respondents, which is the mean of the means of all items regarding it;
$RPO1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item RPO1;
$RPO1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item RPO2;
$RPO1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item RPO3;
$RPO1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item RPO4.

4.4.8.3 CALCULATIONS AND MATH NOTATIONS OF STAKEHOLDER SALIENCE AND ITS THREE ATTRIBUTES

Stakeholder Salience is made up of power, urgency, and legitimacy. Before presenting the notation of stakeholder salience, it is necessary to present the notations of each one of the attributes that constitute stakeholder salience. In this way, I first explained power, urgency, and legitimacy sequentially. Finally, I explained stakeholder salience.

4.4.8.3.1 POWER: A STAKEHOLDER SALIENCE ATTRIBUTE

The three items used to constitute power were described in Table 4.1 in subsection "4.4.1 First stage: Scale for stakeholder salience as perceived by urban managers (mediator variable)." The respondents responded to a seven-point Likert Scale in a way that the closer the answer is to seven, the greater the power of a stakeholder group is perceived by the respondents. The respondents answered about their perception of the power of the following urban-stakeholder types: Government, Industry; Citizens; and Civil Society.

The perception of the urban managers about the power of the Government (GovP) is the mean ($\bar{x}$) of the means of the three items regarding the power of Government (GovP1, GovP2, and GovP3), which was notated in the eq. 3:

$$GovP = \frac{GovP1_{\bar{x}} + GovP2_{\bar{x}} + GovP3_{\bar{x}}}{3} \quad (3)$$

Where:

GovP = Power of the government as perceived by the urban managers respondents, which is the mean of the means of all items regarding it;

$GovP1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item GovP1;

$GovP2_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item GovP2;

$GovP3_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item GovP3.

The perception of the urban managers about the power of the Industry (IndP) is the mean ($\bar{x}$) of the means of the three items regarding the power of the industry (IndP1, IndP2, and IndP3), which was notated in the following notation in eq. 4.

$$IndP = \frac{IndP1_{\bar{x}} + IndP2_{\bar{x}} + IndP3_{\bar{x}}}{3} \quad (4)$$

Where:

IndP = Power of the industry as perceived by the urban managers respondents, which is the mean of the means of all items regarding it;

$IndP1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item IndP1;

$IndP2_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item IndP2;

$IndP3_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item IndP3.

The perception of the urban managers about the power of the Citizens (CitP) is the mean ($\bar{x}$) of the means of the three items regarding the power of the citizens (CitP1, CitP2, and CitP3), which was notated in the following notation in eq. 5:

$$CitP = \frac{CitP1_{\bar{x}} + CitP2_{\bar{x}} + CitP3_{\bar{x}}}{3} \quad (5)$$

Where:

CitP = Power of the citizens as perceived by the urban managers respondents, which is the mean of the means of all items regarding it;

$CitP1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item CitP1;

$CitP2_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item CitP2;

$CitP3_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item CitP3.

The perception of the urban managers about the power of the Civil Society (CivP) is the mean ($\bar{x}$) of the means of the three items regarding the power of the civil society (CivP1, CivP2, and CivP3), which was notated in the following notation in eq. 6:

$$CivP = \frac{CivP1_{\bar{x}} + CivP2_{\bar{x}} + CivP3_{\bar{x}}}{3} \quad (6)$$

Where:

CivP = Power of the civil society as perceived by the urban managers respondents, which is the mean of the means of all items regarding it;

$CivP1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item CivP1;

$CivP2_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item CivP2;

$CivP3_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item CivP3.

The perception of the urban managers about the power of all urban-stakeholder types overall (variable named “Power”) is the sum of their perception about the power of the government (GovP), industry (IndP), citizens (CitP), and civil society (CivP) divided by four, which was notated in eq. 7:

$$Power = \frac{GovP + IndP + CitP + CivP}{4} \quad (7)$$

Where:

Power = Power of all studied urban-stakeholder types as perceived by the urban managers respondents, which is the mean of the means of all items regarding it;

GovP = Power of the government as perceived by urban managers, resulted from eq. 3;

IndP = Power of the industry as perceived by urban managers, resulted from eq. 4;

CitP = Power of the citizens as perceived by urban managers, resulted from eq. 5;

CivP = Power of the civil society as perceived by urban managers, resulted from eq. 6.

4.4.8.3.2 URGENCY: A STAKEHOLDER SALIENCE ATTRIBUTE

The three items used to constitute urgency were described in Table 4.1 in subsection "4.1 First stage: Scale for stakeholder salience as perceived by urban managers (mediator variable)." The respondents responded to a seven-point Likert Scale in a way that the closer the answer is to seven, the greater the urgency of a stakeholder group is perceived by the respondents. The respondents answered about their perception of urgency of the following urban-stakeholder types: Government, Industry; Citizens; and Civil Society.

The perception of the urban managers about the urgency of the Government (GovU) is the mean ($\bar{x}$) of the means of the three items regarding the urgency of Government (GovU1, GovU2, and GovU3), which was notated in the following notation in eq. 8:

$$GovU = \frac{GovU1_{\bar{x}} + GovU2_{\bar{x}} + GovU3_{\bar{x}}}{3} \quad (8)$$

Where:

GovU = Urgency of the government as perceived by the urban managers respondents, which is the mean of the means of all items regarding it;

$GovU1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item GovU1;

$GovU2_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item GovU2;

$GovU3_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item GovU3.

The perception of the urban managers about the urgency of the Industry (IndU) is the mean ($\bar{x}$) of the means of the three items regarding the urgency of the industry (IndU1, IndU2, and IndU3), which was notated in the following notation in eq. 9:

$$IndU = \frac{IndU1_{\bar{x}} + IndU2_{\bar{x}} + IndU3_{\bar{x}}}{3} \quad (9)$$

Where:

IndU = Urgency of the industry as perceived by the urban managers respondents, which is the mean of the means of all items regarding it;

$IndU1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item IndU1;

$IndU2_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item IndU2;

$IndU3_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item IndU3.

The perception of the urban managers about the urgency of the Citizens (CitU) is the mean ($\bar{x}$) of the means of the three items regarding the urgency of the citizens (CitU1, CitU2, and CitU3), which was notated in the following notation in eq. 10:

$$CitU = \frac{CitU1_{\bar{x}} + CitU2_{\bar{x}} + CitU3_{\bar{x}}}{3} \quad (10)$$

Where:

CitU = Urgency of the citizens as perceived by the urban managers respondents, which is the mean of the means of all items regarding it;

$CitU1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item CitU1;

$CitU2_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item CitU2;

$CitU3_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item CitU3.

The perception of the urban managers about the urgency of the Civil Society (CivU) is the mean ($\bar{x}$) of the means of the three items regarding the urgency of the civil society (CivU1, CivU2, and CivU3), which was notated in the following notation in eq. 11:

$$CivU = \frac{CivU1_{\bar{x}} + CivU2_{\bar{x}} + CivU3_{\bar{x}}}{3} \quad (11)$$

Where:

CivU = Urgency of the civil society as perceived by the urban managers respondents, which is the mean of the means of all items regarding it;

$CivU1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item CivU1;

$CivU2_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item CivU2;

$CivU3_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item CivU3.

The perception of the urban managers about the urgency of all urban-stakeholder types overall (variable named "Urgency") is the sum of their perception about the urgency of the government (GovU), industry (IndU), citizens (CitU), and civil society (CivU) divided by four, which was notated in eq. 12:

$$Urgency = \frac{GovU + IndU + CitU + CivU}{4} \quad (12)$$

Where:

Urgency = Urgency of all studied urban-stakeholder types as perceived by the urban managers respondents, which is the mean of the means of all items regarding it;

GovU = Urgency of the government, resulted from eq. 10;

IndU = Urgency of the industry, resulted from eq. 9;

CitU = Urgency of the citizens, resulted from eq. 10;

CivU = Urgency of the civil society, resulted from eq. 11.

4.4.8.3.3 LEGITIMACY: A STAKEHOLDER SALIENCE ATTRIBUTE

The three items used to constitute legitimacy were described in Table 4.1 in subsection "4.1 First stage: Scale for stakeholder salience as perceived by urban managers (mediator variable)." The respondents responded to a seven-point Likert Scale in a way that the closer the answer is to seven, the greater the legitimacy of a stakeholder group is perceived by the respondents. The respondents answered about their perception of urgency of the following urban-stakeholder types: Government, Industry; Citizens; and Civil Society.

The perception of the urban managers about the legitimacy of the Government (GovL) is the mean ($\bar{x}$) of the means of the three items regarding the legitimacy of the Government (GovL1, GovL2, and GovL3), which was notated in the following notation in eq. 13:

$$GovL = \frac{GovL1_{\bar{x}} + GovL2_{\bar{x}} + GovL3_{\bar{x}}}{3} \quad (13)$$

Where:

GovL = Legitimacy of the government as perceived by the urban managers respondents, which is the mean of the means of all items regarding it;

$GovL1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item GovL1;

$GovL2_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item GovL2;

$GovL3_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item GovL3.

The perception of the urban managers about the legitimacy of the Industry (IndU) is the mean ($\bar{x}$) of the means of the three items regarding the legitimacy of the industry (IndL1, IndL2, and IndL3), which was notated in the following notation in eq. 14:

$$IndL = \frac{IndL1_{\bar{x}} + IndL2_{\bar{x}} + IndL3_{\bar{x}}}{3} \quad (14)$$

Where:

IndL = Legitimacy of the industry as perceived by the urban managers respondents, which is the mean of the means of all items regarding it;

$IndL1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item IndL1;

$IndL2_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item IndL2;

$IndL3_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item IndL3.

The perception of the urban managers about the legitimacy of the Citizens (CitL) is the mean ($\bar{x}$) of the means of the three items regarding the legitimacy of the citizens (CitL1, CitL2, and CitL3), which was notated in the following notation in eq. 15:

$$CitL = \frac{CitL1_{\bar{x}} + CitL2_{\bar{x}} + CitL3_{\bar{x}}}{3} \quad (15)$$

Where:

CitL = Legitimacy of the citizens as perceived by the urban managers respondents, which is the mean of the means of all items regarding it;

$CitL1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item CitL1;

$CitL2_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item CitL2;

$CitL3_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item CitL3.

The perception of the urban managers about the legitimacy of the Civil Society (CivL) is the mean ($\bar{x}$) of the means of the three items regarding the legitimacy of the civil society (CivL1, CivL2, and CivL3), which was notated in the following notation in eq. 16:

$$CivL = \frac{CivL1_{\bar{x}} + CivL2_{\bar{x}} + CivL3_{\bar{x}}}{3} \quad (16)$$

Where:

CivL = Legitimacy of the civil society as perceived by the urban managers respondents, which is the mean of the means of all items regarding it;

$CivL1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item CivL1;

$CivL2_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item CivL2;

$CivL3_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item CivL3.

The perception of the urban managers about the legitimacy of all urban-stakeholder types overall (variable named “Legitimacy”) is the sum of their perception about the legitimacy of the government (GovL), industry (IndL), citizens (CitL), and civil society (CivL) divided by four, which was notated in eq. 17:

$$Legitimacy = \frac{GovL + IndL + CitL + CivL}{4} \quad (17)$$

Where:

Legitimacy = Legitimacy of all studied urban-stakeholder types as perceived by the urban managers respondents, which is the mean of the means of all items regarding it;

GovL = Legitimacy of the government, resulted from eq. 13;

IndL = Legitimacy of the industry, resulted from eq. 14;

CitL = Legitimacy of the citizens, resulted from eq. 15;

CivL = Legitimacy of the civil society, resulted from eq. 16.

4.4.8.3.4 STAKEHOLDER SALIENCE: THE SUM OF POWER, URGENCY, AND LEGITIMACY

Stakeholder salience, as used in the model, is the sum of the attributes of power, urgency, and legitimacy. Overall, "Stakeholder Salience" (of all stakeholders combined) can result in two ways and have the same values: first, by summing up the variables "Power," "Urgency," and "Legitimacy," and then dividing this result by three (eq. 18); and second, by summing up the variables "GovS," "IndS," "CitS," and CivS" (these four variables are further explained in this subsection), and then, dividing this result by four (eq. 19).

$$Stakeholder\ Salience = \frac{Power\ +\ Urgency\ +\ Legitimacy}{3} \tag{18}$$

$$Stakeholder\ Salience = \frac{GovS\ +\ IndS\ +\ CitS\ +\ CivS}{4} \tag{19}$$

Where:

Stakeholder Salience = Stakeholder Salience of all studied urban-stakeholder types as perceived by the urban managers respondents;

Power = Power of all studied urban-stakeholder types, resulted from eq. 7;

Urgency = Urgency of all studied urban-stakeholder types, resulted from eq. 12;

Legitimacy = Legitimacy of all studied urban-stakeholder types, resulted from eq. 17;

GovS = Salience of the governments, resulted from eq. 20.

IndS = Salience of the industry, resulted from eq. 21.

CitS = Salience of the citizens, resulted from eq. 22.

CivS = Salience of the civil society, resulted from eq. 23.

Furthermore, stakeholder salience was also measured for each urban-stakeholder type. First, the salience of government (GovS) was measured by summing up the power (GovP), urgency (GovU), and legitimacy (GovL) of the government and then dividing this result by three. Eq. 20 shows the notation of the salience of the government.

$$GovS = \frac{GovP\ +\ GovU\ +\ GovL}{3} \tag{20}$$

Where:

GovS = Salience of the government as perceived by the urban managers;

GovP = Power of the government, resulted from eq. 3;

GovU = Urgency of the government, resulted from eq. 8;

GovL = Legitimacy of the government, resulted from eq. 13.

Second, the salience of the industry (IndS) was measured by summing up the power (IndP), urgency (IndU), and legitimacy (IndL) of the industry and then dividing this result by three. Equation 21 shows the notation of the salience of the industry.

$$IndS = \frac{IndP + IndU + IndL}{3} \tag{21}$$

Where:
IndS = Salience of the industry as perceived by the urban managers;
IndP = Power of the industry, resulted from eq. 4;
IndU = Urgency of the industry, resulted from eq. 9;
IndL = Legitimacy of the industry, resulted from eq. 14.

Third, the salience of the citizens (CitS) was measured by summing up the power (CitP), urgency (CitU), and legitimacy (CitL) of the citizens and then dividing this result by three. Equation 22 shows the notation of the salience of the citizens.

$$CitS = \frac{CitP + CitU + CitL}{3} \tag{22}$$

Where:
CitS = Salience of the citizens as perceived by the urban managers;
CitP = Power of the citizens, resulted from eq. 5;
CitU = Urgency of the citizens, resulted from eq. 10;
CitL = Legitimacy of the citizens, resulted from eq. 15.

Fourth, the salience of the civil society (CivS) was measured by summing up the power (CivP), urgency (CivU), and legitimacy (CivL) of the civil society and then dividing this result into three. Eq. 23 shows the notation of salience of the civil society.

$$CivS = \frac{CivP + CivU + CivL}{3} \tag{23}$$

Where:
CivS = Salience of the civil society as perceived by the urban managers;
CivP = Power of the civil society, resulted from eq. 6;
CivU = Urgency of the civil society, resulted from eq. 11;
CivL = Legitimacy of the civil society, resulted from eq. 16.

4.4.8.4 CALCULATIONS AND MATH NOTATIONS OF STAKEHOLDER COOPERATION

Before getting the math notation for stakeholder cooperation of all stakeholders in general, it is necessary to understand the math notation for each one of the urban-stakeholder types of this study (i.e., government, industry, citizens, and civil society) since these last math notations give the results needed in the first ones.

The perception of the urban managers about the cooperation of the government (GovC) is the mean ($\bar{x}$) of the means of the eight items regarding the cooperation of the government (GovC1, GovC2, GovC3, GovC4, GovC5, GovC6, GovC7, and GovC8), which was notated in the following notation in eq. 24:

$$GovC = \frac{\sum_{i=GovC1_{\bar{x}}}^{GovC8_{\bar{x}}} i}{8} \tag{24}$$

Where:

GovC = Cooperation of the government as perceived by the urban managers;
i = Items representing cooperation of the government (i.e., GovC1, …, GovC8);
$i_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the item;
$GovC1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of item GovC1;
$GovC8_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of item GovC8.

The perception of the urban managers about the cooperation of the industry (IndC) is the mean ($\bar{x}$) of the means of the eight items regarding the cooperation of the industry (IndC1, IndC2, IndC3, IndC4, IndC5, IndC6, IndC7, and IndC8), which was notated in the following notation in eq. 25:

$$IndC = \frac{\sum_{i=IndC1_{\bar{x}}}^{IndC8_{\bar{x}}} i}{8} \tag{25}$$

Where:

IndC = Cooperation of the industry as perceived by the urban managers;
i = Items representing cooperation of the industry (i.e., IndC1, …, IndC8);
$i_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the item;
$IndC1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of item IndC1;
$IndC8_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of item IndC8.

The perception of the urban managers about the cooperation of the citizens (CitC) is the mean ($\bar{x}$) of the means of the eight items regarding the cooperation of the citizens (CitC1, CitC2, CitC3, CitC4, CitC5, CitC6, CitC7, and CitC8), which was notated in the following notation in eq. 26:

$$CitC = \frac{\sum_{i=CitC1_{\bar{x}}}^{CitC8_{\bar{x}}} i}{8} \tag{26}$$

Where:
CitC = Cooperation of the citizens as perceived by the urban managers;
i = Items representing cooperation of the citizens (i.e., CitC1, …, CitC8);
$i_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the item;
$CitC1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of item CitC1;
$CitC8_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of item CitC8.

The perception of the urban managers about the cooperation of the civil society (CivC) is the mean ($\bar{x}$) of the means of the eight items regarding the cooperation of the civil society (CivC1, CivC2, CivC3, CivC4, CivC5, CivC6, CivC7, and CivC8), which was notated in the following notation in eq. 27:

$$CivC = \frac{\sum_{i=CivC1_{\bar{x}}}^{CivC8_{\bar{x}}} i}{8} \tag{27}$$

Where:
CivC = Cooperation of the civil society as perceived by the urban managers;
i = Items representing cooperation of the civil society (i.e., CivC1, …, CivC8);
$i_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the item;
$CivC1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of item CivC1;
$CivC8_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of item CivC8.

The perception of the urban managers about the cooperation of all urban-stakeholder types overall (variable named “Cooperation”) is the sum of their perception about the cooperation of the government (GovC), industry (IndC), citizens (CitC), and civil society (CivC) divided by four, which was notated in eq. 28:

$$Cooperation = \frac{GovC + IndC + CitC + CivC}{4} \quad (28)$$

Where:

Cooperation = Cooperation of all studied urban-stakeholder types as perceived by the respondents;
GovC = Cooperation of the government, resulted from eq. 24;
IndC = Cooperation of the industry, resulted from eq. 25;
CitC = Cooperation of the citizens, resulted from eq. 26.
CivC = Cooperation of the civil society, resulted from eq. 27.

4.4.8.5 CALCULATIONS AND MATH NOTATIONS OF THE VALUES OF URBAN MANAGERS

This subsection is divided into two subsections. The first one explains the calculations and provides the math notation on Self-regarding Values. The second one explains the calculations and provides the math notation on Other-regarding Values.

4.4.8.5.1 SELF-REGARDING VALUES

The self-regarding values of urban managers (SRV) is the mean ($\bar{x}$) of the means of the three items regarding self-regarding values previously presented in subsection 4.2 (SRV1, SRV2, and SRV3), which was notated in the following notation in eq. 29:

$$SRV = \frac{SRV1_{\bar{x}} + SRV2_{\bar{x}} + SRV3_{\bar{x}}}{3} \tag{29}$$

Where:

SRV = Self-regarding values reported by the urban managers respondents, which is the mean of the means of all the three items regarding it;

$SRV1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item SRV1;

$SRV2_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item SRV2;

$SRV3_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item SRV3.

4.4.8.5.2 OTHER-REGARDING VALUES

The other-regarding values of urban managers (ORV) are the mean ($\bar{x}$) of the means of the four items regarding self-regarding values presented in subsection 4.4.2 (ORV1, ORV2, ORV3, and ORV4), which was notated in the following notation in eq. 30:

$$\mathrm{ORV} = \frac{ORV1_{\bar{x}} + ORV2_{\bar{x}} + ORV3_{\bar{x}} + ORV4_{\bar{x}}}{4} \tag{30}$$

Where:

ORV = Other-regarding values reported by the urban managers respondents, which is the mean of the means of all the four items regarding it;

$ORV1_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item ORV1;

$ORV2_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item ORV2;

$ORV3_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item ORV3.

$ORV4_{\bar{x}}$ = Mean of the responses of the urban managers for the item ORV4.

4.4.8.6 BAYESIAN REGRESSION MODELS

In order to test the research model (illustrated in Figure 4.1), I performed four different models. Model 1 is based on the power attribute of stakeholder salience. Model 2 is based on the legitimacy attribute of stakeholder salience. Model 3 is based on the urgency attribute of stakeholder salience. Finally, Model 4 is based on the conjunction of the three aforementioned attributes of salience, and thus, Model 4 is more comprehensive in explaining the phenomenon of stakeholder salience.

4.4.8.6.1 MODEL 1: POWER

In this model, power is the mediator variable. At the first moment, I set up power as the dependent variable, both the self-regarding values and other-regarding values as independent variables (representing urban managers' values), and political orientation as a variable control (eq. 31).

$$Y_{Power} \sim N(\beta_0 + \beta_{\mathrm{SRV}} X_{\mathrm{SRV}} + \beta_{\mathrm{ORV}} X_{\mathrm{ORV}} + \beta_{\mathrm{RPO}} X_{\mathrm{RPO}}, \sigma^2) \qquad (31)$$

Where:

Y_{Power} = The dependent variable is "power," resulted from eq. 7;
N = Gaussian Distribution;
β_0= The intercept;
β_{SRV} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between power and SRV;
X_{SRV} = The independent variable "self-regarding values," resulted from eq. 29;
β_{ORV} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between power and ORV;
X_{ORV} = The independent variable "other-regarding values," resulted from eq. 30;
β_{RPO} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between power and RPO;
X_{RPO} = The control variable "right-political orientation," resulted from eq. 2;
σ = Standard Deviation.

Second, I set up QLI as the dependent variable, power as an independent variable, stakeholder cooperation (the moderator) and country as random effects (local intercepts) of QLI, and finally, age, gender, and educational level as control variables (eq. 32).

$$Y_{QLI} \sim N(\beta_0 + \beta_{\text{Power}} X_{\text{Power}} + \beta_{\text{Age}} X_{\text{Age}} + \beta_{\text{Gender}} X_{\text{Gender}} + \beta_{\text{Education}} X_{\text{Education}} + u_{\text{Cooperation}} + u_{\text{Country}}, \sigma^2) \quad (32)$$

Where:

Y_{QLI} = The dependent variable is "Quality of Life Index," resulted from eq. 1;
N = Gaussian Distribution;
β_0= The intercept;
β_{Power} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between QLI and Power;
X_{Power} = The independent variable "Power," resulted from eq. 7;
β_{Age} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between QLI and Age;
X_{Age} = The control variable "Age" groups;
β_{Gender} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between QLI and Gender;
X_{Gender}= The control variable "Gender" of the respondents;
$\beta_{Education}$ = The coefficient that scales the relationship between QLI and Education;
$X_{Education}$ = The control variable "Education" of the respondents;
$u_{Cooperation}$ = The random effect/local intercept of "Stakeholder Cooperation," see eq. 28;
$u_{Country}$ = The random effect/local intercept of "Country" of the respondents;
σ = Standard Deviation.

Finally, model 1 was created by combining equations 31 and 32, i.e., using the Bayesian Generalized Linear Model (see the plained equation 33). Also, it is noteworthy to highlight that I set up a 90% CI for this model due to the small sample size (i.e., 85 respondents).

$$Model1_{Power} = Equation31 + Equation32 \quad (33)$$

Where:

$Model1_{Power}$ = Final representation of Model 1, which has power as the mediator variable;
Equation31 = Eq. 31;
Equation32 = Eq. 32.

Therefore, after the link function of the Bayesian Generalized Linear Model, power is the mediator variable of the model, the values of urban managers (self and other-regarding values) precede power, and power precedes QLI. Unlike the research model in Figure 4.1, legitimacy and urgency were excluded from this regression model. As Gelman et al. (2020b) recommended, the moderator should be set as a local intercept (random effect); thus, stakeholder cooperation is a random effect in this model.

4.4.8.6.2 MODEL 2: URGENCY

In this model, urgency is the mediator variable. At the first moment, I set up urgency as the dependent variable, both the self-regarding values and other-regarding values as independent variables (representing urban managers' values), and political orientation as a variable control (eq. 34).

$$Y_{Urgency} \sim N(\beta_0 + \beta_{\text{SRV}} X_{\text{SRV}} + \beta_{\text{ORV}} X_{\text{ORV}} + \beta_{\text{RPO}} X_{\text{RPO}}, \sigma^2) \qquad (34)$$

Where:

$Y_{Urgency}$ = The dependent variable is "urgency," resulted from eq. 12;
N = Gaussian Distribution;
β_0= The intercept;
β_{SRV} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between urgency and SRV;
X_{SRV} = The independent variable "self-regarding values," resulted from eq. 29;
β_{ORV} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between urgency and ORV;
X_{ORV} = The independent variable "other-regarding values," resulted from eq. 30;
β_{RPO} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between urgency and RPO;
X_{RPO} = The control variable "right-political orientation," resulted from eq. 2;
σ = Standard Deviation.

Second, I set up QLI as the dependent variable, urgency as an independent variable, stakeholder cooperation (the moderator) and country as random effects (local intercepts) of QLI, and finally, age, gender, and educational level as control variables (see eq. 35).

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{QLI} \sim N(&\beta_0 + \beta_{\text{Urgency}} X_{\text{Urgency}} \\ &+ \beta_{\text{Age}} X_{\text{Age}} + \beta_{\text{Gender}} X_{\text{Gender}} + \beta_{\text{Education}} X_{\text{Education}} \\ &+ u_{\text{Cooperation}} + u_{\text{Country}}, \sigma^2) \end{aligned} \qquad (35)$$

Where:

Y_{QLI} = The dependent variable is "Quality of Life Index," resulted from eq. 1;
N = Gaussian Distribution;
β_0= The intercept;
$\beta_{Urgency}$ = The coefficient that scales the relationship between QLI and Urgency;
$X_{Urgency}$ = The independent variable "Urgency," resulted from eq. 12;
β_{Age} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between QLI and Age;
X_{Age} = The control variable "Age" groups;
β_{Gender} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between QLI and Gender;
X_{Gender}= The control variable "Gender" of the respondents;
$\beta_{Education}$ = The coefficient that scales the relationship between QLI and Education;
$X_{Education}$ = The control variable "Education" of the respondents;
$u_{Cooperation}$ = The random effect/local intercept of "Stakeholder Cooperation," see eq. 28;
$u_{Country}$ = The random effect/local intercept of "Country" of the respondents;
σ = Standard Deviation.

Finally, model 2 is created by combining equations 34 and 35, i.e., using the Bayesian Generalized Linear Model (see the plained equation 36). Also, it is noteworthy to highlight that I set up a 90% CI for this model due to the small sample size (i.e., 85 respondents).

$$Model2_{Urgency} = Equation34 + Equation35 \tag{36}$$

Where:

Model2$_{Urgency}$ = Final representation of Model 2, i.e., urgency as the mediator variable;
Equation37 = Eq. 37;
Equation38 = Eq. 38.

Therefore, after the link function of the Bayesian Generalized Linear Model, urgency is the mediator variable of the model, the values of urban managers (self and other-regarding values) precede urgency, and urgency precedes QLI. Unlike the research model in Figure 4.1, power and legitimacy were excluded from this regression model. As Gelman et al. (2020b) recommended, the moderator should be set as a local intercept (random effect); thus, stakeholder cooperation is a random effect in this model.

4.4.8.6.3 MODEL 3: LEGITIMACY

In this model, legitimacy is the mediator variable. At the first moment, I set up legitimacy as the dependent variable, both the self-regarding values and other-regarding values as independent variables (representing urban managers' values), and political orientation as a variable control (eq. 37).

$$Y_{Legitimacy} \sim N(\beta_0 + \beta_{\mathrm{SRV}} X_{\mathrm{SRV}} + \beta_{\mathrm{ORV}} X_{\mathrm{ORV}} + \beta_{\mathrm{RPO}} X_{\mathrm{RPO}}, \sigma^2) \quad (37)$$

Where:

$Y_{Legitimacy}$ = The dependent variable is "legitimacy," resulted from eq. 17;
N = Gaussian Distribution;
β_0= The intercept;
β_{SRV} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between legitimacy and SRV;
X_{SRV} = The independent variable "self-regarding values," resulted from eq. 29;
β_{ORV} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between legitimacy and ORV;
X_{ORV} = The independent variable "other-regarding values," resulted from eq. 30;
β_{RPO} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between legitimacy and RPO;
X_{RPO} = The control variable "right-political orientation," resulted from eq. 2;
σ = Standard Deviation.

Second, I set up QLI as the dependent variable, legitimacy as an independent variable, stakeholder cooperation (the moderator) and country as random effects (local intercepts) of QLI, and finally, age, gender, and educational level as control variables (see eq. 38).

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{QLI} \sim N(&\beta_0 + \beta_{\mathrm{Legitimacy}} X_{\mathrm{Legitimacy}} \\ &+ \beta_{\mathrm{Age}} X_{\mathrm{Age}} + \beta_{\mathrm{Gender}} X_{\mathrm{Gender}} + \beta_{\mathrm{Education}} X_{\mathrm{Education}} \\ &+ u_{\mathrm{Cooperation}} + u_{\mathrm{Country}}, \sigma^2) \end{aligned} \quad (38)$$

Where:

Y_{QLI} = The dependent variable is "Quality of Life Index," resulted from eq. 1;
N = Gaussian Distribution;
β_0= The intercept;
$\beta_{Legitimacy}$ = The coefficient that scales the relationship between QLI and Legitimacy;
$X_{Legitimacy}$ = The independent variable "Legitimacy," resulted from eq. 17;
β_{Age} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between QLI and Age;
X_{Age} = The control variable "Age" groups;
β_{Gender} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between QLI and Gender;
X_{Gender}= The control variable "Gender" of the respondents;
$\beta_{Education}$ = The coefficient that scales the relationship between QLI and Education;
$X_{Education}$ = The control variable "Education" of the respondents;
$u_{Cooperation}$ = The random effect/local intercept of "Stakeholder Cooperation," see eq. 28;
$u_{Country}$ = The random effect/local intercept of "Country" of the respondents;
σ = Standard Deviation.

Finally, model 3 is created by combining equations 37 and 38, i.e., using the Bayesian Generalized Linear Model (see the plained equation 39). Also, it is noteworthy to highlight that I set up a 90% CI for this model due to the small sample size (i.e., 85 respondents).

$$Model3_{Legitimacy} = Equation37 + Equation38 \tag{39}$$

Where:

Model3$_{Legitimacy}$ = Final representation of Model 3, i.e., legitimacy as the mediator variable;
Equation34 = Eq. 34;
Equation35 = Eq. 35.

Therefore, after the link function of the Bayesian Generalized Linear Model, legitimacy is the mediator variable of the model, the values of urban managers (self and other-regarding values) precede legitimacy, and legitimacy precedes QLI. Unlike the research model in Figure 4.1, power and urgency were excluded from this regression model. As Gelman et al. (2020b) recommended, the moderator should be set as a local intercept (random effect); thus, stakeholder cooperation is a random effect in this model.

4.4.8.6.4 MODEL 4: STAKEHOLDER SALIENCE

In this model, stakeholder salience is the mediator variable, i.e., with all three attributes of power, urgency, and legitimacy. At the first moment, I set up stakeholder salience as the dependent variable, both the self-regarding values and other-regarding values as independent variables (representing urban managers' values), and political orientation as a variable control (eq. 40).

$$Y_{Salience} \sim N(\beta_0 + \beta_{\mathrm{SRV}} X_{\mathrm{SRV}} + \beta_{\mathrm{ORV}} X_{\mathrm{ORV}} + \beta_{\mathrm{RPO}} X_{\mathrm{RPO}}, \sigma^2) \qquad (40)$$

Where:

$Y_{Salience}$ = The dependent variable is "stakeholder salience", resulted from eqs. 18 and 19;
N = Gaussian Distribution;
β_0= The intercept;
β_{SRV} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between stakeholder salience and SRV;
X_{SRV} = The independent variable "self-regarding values", resulted from eq. 29;
β_{ORV} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between stakeholder salience and ORV;
X_{ORV} = The independent variable "other-regarding values", resulted from eq. 30;
β_{RPO} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between stakeholder salience and RPO;
X_{RPO} = The control variable "right-political orientation", resulted from eq. 2;
σ = Standard Deviation.

Second, I set up QLI as the dependent variable, stakeholder salience as an independent variable, stakeholder cooperation (the moderator) and country as random effects (local intercepts) of QLI, and finally, age, gender, and educational level as control variables (eq. 38).

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{QLI} \sim N(&\beta_0 + \beta_{\mathrm{Salience}} X_{\mathrm{Salience}} \\ &+ \beta_{\mathrm{Age}} X_{\mathrm{Age}} + \beta_{\mathrm{Gender}} X_{\mathrm{Gender}} + \beta_{\mathrm{Education}} X_{\mathrm{Education}} \\ &+ u_{\mathrm{Cooperation}} + u_{\mathrm{Country}}, \sigma^2) \end{aligned} \qquad (41)$$

Where:

Y_{QLI} = The dependent variable is "Quality of Life Index," resulted from eq. 1;
N = Gaussian Distribution;
β_0= The intercept;
$\beta_{Salience}$ = The coefficient that scales the relationship between QLI and Stakeholder Salience;
$X_{Salience}$ = The independent variable "Stakeholder Salience", resulted from eqs. 18 and 19;
β_{Age} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between QLI and Age;
X_{Age} = The control variable "Age" groups;
β_{Gender} = The coefficient that scales the relationship between QLI and Gender;
X_{Gender}= The control variable "Gender" of the respondents;
$\beta_{Education}$ = The coefficient that scales the relationship between QLI and Education;
$X_{Education}$ = The control variable "Education" of the respondents;
$u_{Cooperation}$ = The random effect/local intercept of "Stakeholder Cooperation", see eq. 28;
$u_{Country}$ = The random effect/local intercept of "Country" of the respondents;
σ = Standard Deviation.

Finally, model 4 is created by combining equations 40 and 41, i.e., using the Bayesian Generalized Linear Model (see the simple equation 42). Also, it is noteworthy to highlight that I set up a 90% CI for this model due to the small sample size (i.e., 85 respondents).

$$Model4_{Salience} = Equation40 + Equation41 \tag{42}$$

Where:

Model4$_{Salience}$ = Final representation of Model 4, i.e., salience as the mediator variable;
Equation40 = Eq. 40;
Equation41 = Eq. 41.

Therefore, after the link function of the Bayesian Generalized Linear Model, stakeholder salience is the model's mediator variable, urban managers' values (self and other-regarding values) precede stakeholder salience, and stakeholder salience precedes QLI. This regression model performs exactly all the variables included in the research model (see Figure 4.1). As Gelman et al. (2020b) recommended, the moderator should be set as a local intercept (random effect); thus, stakeholder cooperation is a random effect in this model.

4.5. RESULTS

This subsection presents the descriptive statistics and results of the research variables and is divided into eight parts, which are about: (1) geographical location, gender, education, and age of the respondents; (2) Quality of Life Index (QLI) and related variables; (3) Right Political Orientation (RPO); (4) Stakeholder Salience and its three attributes of power, urgency, and legitimacy; (5) Stakeholder Cooperation; (6) Values of Urban Managers, i.e., Self-Regarding Values (SRV) and Other-Regarding Values (ORV); (7) Bayesian Correlation Matrix; and (8) the Bayesian Regression Models.

4.5.1. GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION, GENDER, AGE, AND EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF THE RESPONDENTS

This subsection part consecutively provides the descriptive statistics of the following variables: (1) geographical location; (2) gender; (3) age; and (4) educational level.

Geographical location. From the 85 responses, as seen in Table 4.5, the majority of them were from Brazil (69 responses, i.e., 81.17% of the total responses), ten responses were from the US (i.e., 11.76% of the total responses), and six from Israel (i.e., 7.05% of the total responses). Noteworthy is that 20 responses were from Belo Horizonte (i.e., 23.52% of the total responses, and 28.98% of the responses from Brazil), 12 responses from São Paulo City (i.e., 14.11% of the total responses, and 17.39% of the responses from Brazil), eight from Porto Alegre (i.e., 9.41% of the total responses, and 11.59% of the responses from Brazil), and six from Haifa (i.e., all the responses from Israel, representing 7.05% of the total responses). All the other sampled cities have no more than six responses, and the majority of them have had at least one response (see subsection 4.5 for further details).

Table 4.5
Frequencies for Country

Country	***Frequency***	***Percentage***
Brazil	69	81.17
Israel	6	7.05
USA	10	11.76
Total	85	100

Note. Own elaboration.

Gender. From the 85 responses, 49 respondents declared to be of the male gender, 36 respondents of the female gender, and no respondents declared to be non-binary, transgender, or intersex (see Table 4.6). However, the frequency for gender also changes according to the country (see Table 4.7). 80% of the responses from the US were given by male respondents and 20% by female respondents. In Brazil, male respondents are the majority (57.97%). However, there is a considerably greater number of female respondents (42.02%). Conversely, in Israel, most respondents were female (83.33%) and minority male (16.66%).

Table 4.6
Frequencies for Gender

Gender	***Frequency***	***Percentage***
Female	36	42.35
Male	49	57.64
Total	85	100

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.7
Frequencies for Gender in Countries

Country	***Gender***	***Frequency***	***Percentage***
Brazil	Female	29	42.02
	Male	40	57.97
	Total	69	100
Israel	Female	5	83.33
	Male	1	16.66
	Total	6	100
USA	Female	2	20
	Male	8	80
	Total	10	100

Note. Own elaboration.

When splitting the frequencies of gender by cities, considering that most cities have solely one respondent, this one was a male or a female (see Table 4.8). The male gender was predominant in the majority of cities. However, the female gender was predominant in some municipalities, which are: Joinville, BR (100%, three out of three responses); Juiz de Fora, BR (100%, the unique response was from a female); Raleigh, US (100%, the unique response was from a female); Haifa, IL (83.33%, five out of six responses); and São José do Rio Preto (66.66%, two out of three responses). There was found an equal percentage of male and female respondents in the following cities:

Florianópolis, BR (50%, two out of four responses); Porto Alegre, BR (50%, four out of eight responses); Recife, BR (50%, two out of four responses); and Rio de Janeiro, BR (50%, two out of four responses).

Table 4.8
Frequencies for Gender in Cities

City	*Gender*	*Frequency*	*Percentage*
Atlanta, US	Female	0	0%
	Male	1	100%
	Total	1	100%
Austin, US	Female	1	33.33%
	Male	2	66.66%
	Total	3	100%
Baton Rouge, US	Female	0	0%
	Male	1	100%
	Total	1	100%
Belo Horizonte, BR	Female	9	45%
	Male	11	55%
	Total	20	100%
Columbus, US	Female	0	0%
	Male	3	100%
	Total	3	100%
Curitiba, BR	Female	0	0%
	Male	2	100%
	Total	2	100%
Florianópolis, BR	Female	1	50%
	Male	1	50%
	Total	2	100%
Fortaleza, BR	Female	0	0%
	Male	1	100%
	Total	1	100%
Haifa, IL	Female	5	83.33%
	Male	1	16.66%
	Total	6	100%
Honolulu, US	Female	0	0%
	Male	1	100%
	Total	1	100%
Joinville, BR	Female	3	100%
	Male	0	0%
	Total	3	100%

Table 4.8 (continued)

Juiz de Fora, BR	Female	1	100%
	Male	0	0%
	Total	1	100%
Natal, BR	Female	0	0%
	Male	1	100%
	Total	1	100%
Porto Alegre, BR	Female	4	500%
	Male	4	500%
	Total	8	100%
Raleigh, US	Female	1	100%
	Male	0	0%
	Total	1	100%
Recife, BR	Female	2	50%
	Male	2	50%
	Total	4	100%
Rio de Janeiro, BR	Female	2	50%
	Male	2	50%
	Total	4	100%
SJRP, BR	Female	2	66.66%
	Male	1	33.33%
	Total	3	100%
SJC, BR	Female	0	0%
	Male	2	100%
	Total	2	100%
São Paulo, BR	Female	5	41.66%
	Male	7	58.33%
	Total	12	100%
Salvador, BR	Female	0	0%
	Male	1	100%
	Total	1	100%
Santos, BR	Female	0	0%
	Male	3	100%
	Total	3	100%
Sorocaba, BR	Female	0	0%
	Male	1	100%
	Total	1	100%
Vitória, BR	Female	0	0%
	Male	1	100%
	Total	1	100%

Note. Own elaboration.

Age. Table 4.9 presents the frequencies for age in general. More than a third of the respondents are between 40 and 49 years old (38.82%). Also, there is a representative percentage of respondents between 50 and 59 years old (21.17%), between 30 and 39 years old (20%), and more than 60 years old (16.47%). Only three respondents are urban managers aged between 18 and 29 years old (3.53%) and are also from Brazil (see Table 4.10). In all countries, the majority of respondents are between 40 and 49 years old. However, only in the US, the percentage of respondents above 60 years old (30%) is almost one-third.

Table 4.9
Frequencies for Age (overview)

Age	***Frequency***	***Percentage***
Between 18 and 29 years old	3	3.53%
Between 30 and 39 years old	17	20%
Between 40 and 49 years old	33	38.82%
Between 50 and 59 years old	18	21.17%
Higher than 60 years old	14	16.47%
Total	85	100%

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.10
Frequencies for Age in Countries

Country	***Age***	***Frequency***	***Percentage***
Brazil	Between 18 and 29 years old	3	4.35%
	Between 30 and 39 years old	15	21.74%
	Between 40 and 49 years old	25	36.23%
	Between 50 and 59 years old	16	23.19%
	Higher than 60 years old	10	14.49%
	Total	69	100%
Israel	Between 18 and 29 years old	0	0%
	Between 30 and 39 years old	0	0%
	Between 40 and 49 years old	4	66.66%
	Between 50 and 59 years old	1	16.66%
	Higher than 60 years old	1	16.66%
	Total	6	100%
USA	Between 18 and 29 years old	0	0%
	Between 30 and 39 years old	2	20%
	Between 40 and 49 years old	4	40%
	Between 50 and 59 years old	1	10%
	Higher than 60 years old	3	30%
	Total	10	100%

Note. Own elaboration.

Educational level. Table 4.11 reveals the percentage of respondents regarding their educational level. More than half of the respondents have a graduate degree (69.41%). Also, 29.41% of the respondents have an undergraduate degree. However, the number of respondents without a university degree is considerably low (1.17%), with only one response. Table 4.12 reveals the percentage of respondents regarding their education level and age, revealing that the graduate degree has a higher frequency in all age ranges, followed by the undergraduate degree. Furthermore, Table 4.13 reveals the percentage of respondents regarding their educational level and country, revealing that the graduate degree also has a higher frequency in all countries, followed by the undergraduate degree.

Table 4.11

Frequencies for Education (overview)

Education	***Frequency***	***Percentage***
Graduate degree	59	69.41%
I don't have a university degree	1	1.17%
Undergraduate degree	25	29.41%
Total	85	100%

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.12

Frequencies for Education and Age

Age	***Education***	***Frequency***	***Percentage***
18 - 29 years old	Graduate degree	2	66.66%
	I don't have a university degree	0	0%
	Undergraduate degree	1	33.33%
	Total	3	100%
30 - 39 years old	Graduate degree	10	58.82%
	I don't have a university degree	0	0%
	Undergraduate degree	7	41.17%
	Total	17	100%
40 - 49 years old	Graduate degree	24	72.72%
	I don't have a university degree	1	3.03%
	Undergraduate degree	8	24.24%
	Total	33	100%
50 - 59 years old	Graduate degree	15	83.33%
	I don't have a university degree	0	0%
	Undergraduate degree	3	16.66%
	Total	18	100%
=/> 60 years old	Graduate degree	8	57.14%
	I don't have a university degree	0	0%
	Undergraduate degree	6	42.85%
	Total	14	100%

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.13
Frequencies for Education and Country

Country	*Education*	*Frequency*	*Percentage*
Brazil	Graduate degree	49	71.014
	I don't have a university degree	0	0.000
	Undergraduate degree	20	28.986
	Total	69	100.000
Israel	Graduate degree	3	50.000
	I don't have a university degree	1	16.667
	Undergraduate degree	2	33.333
	Total	6	100.000
USA	Graduate degree	7	70.000
	I don't have a university degree	0	0.000
	Undergraduate degree	3	30.000
	Total	10	100.000

Note. Own elaboration.

4.5.2. QUALITY OF LIFE INDEX AND RELATED VARIABLES (85 RESPONSES AS SAMPLE ELEMENTS)

As presented in subsection "4.4.6 Sixth stage: Gathering secondary data on quality of life (dependent variable)", *Quality of Life* (QLI) results from a formula shown in eq. 1 containing *Purchase Power Index* (PPI), *Safety Index* (Safety_I), *Health Care Index* (HCI), *Climate Index* (Climate_I), *Cost of Living Index* (CLI), *Property Price to Income Ratio* (PPIR), *Traffic Commute Time Index* (TCTI), and *Pollution Index* (Pollution_I). Here, I present the main descriptive statistics of these variables considering the 85 responses as elements. Importantly, I applied 95% CI for mean, SD, and variance to infer all variables presented in this subsection.

Quality of Life Index. The main descriptive statistics of QLI are shown in Table 4.14, the distribution plot in Figure 4.2, and the boxplot in Figure 4.3. The skewness of QLI is 0.290 (between -0.5 and 0.5), thus, indicating that QLI has almost a symmetrical distribution. The kurtosis of QLI is -0.890 (neither greater than 2 [too peak] nor less than -2 [too flat]), indicating a distribution shape flatter than usual. The SD is 31.956, and the coefficient of variation is 27.3%, indicating a considerable difference in QLI among the cities of the 85 responses. The minimum QLI in the sample is 67.72 (i.e., Rio de Janeiro, Brazil), and the highest is 174.96 (i.e., Austin, USA). The cities closest to the median (Mdn = 111.340) and mean ($\bar{x}$ = 117.139) are the Brazilian cities of Juiz de Fora (119.28), Natal (114.67), Porto Alegre (111.34), and Belo Horizonte (108.02). São José do Rio Preto, São José dos Campos, and Curitiba are the Brazilian cities above the third quartile.

However, all the other top-5 highest-ranked cities in QLI are from the U.S., consecutively Austin, Raleigh, Columbus, Baton Rouge, and Atlanta. In general, all the cities are distributed within the interquartile range (IRQ), and for this reason, when it comes to QLI, no sampled city in the 85 responses is an outlier.

Table 4.14
Descriptive Statistics of QLI

	QLI
Valid	85
Mode	108.020
Median	111.340
Mean	117.139
Std. Deviation	31.956
Coefficient of variation	0.273
IQR	42.730
Skewness	0.290
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261
Kurtosis	-0.890
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517
Range	107.240
Minimum	67.720
Maximum	174.960
25th percentile	96.270
50th percentile	111.340
75th percentile	139.000

Note. *QLI* = Quality of Life Index. *n* = 85 responses.

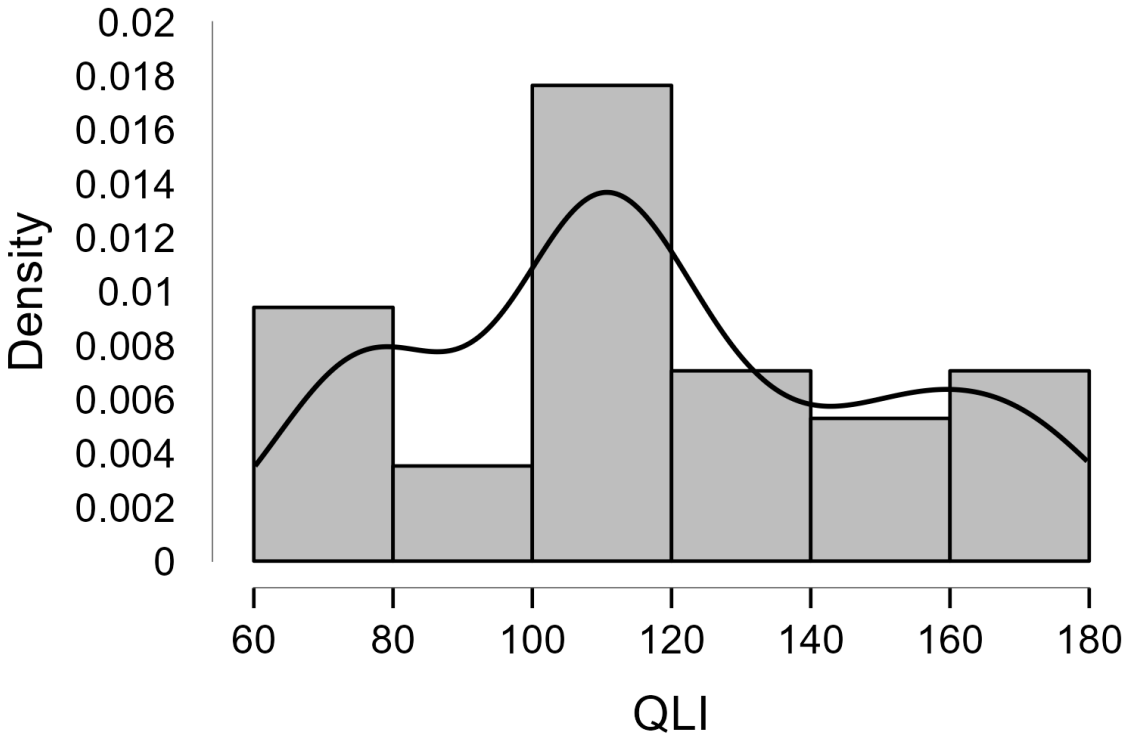

Figure 4.2. Distribution plot of Quality of Life Index based on the 85 responses.
Note. Own elaboration.

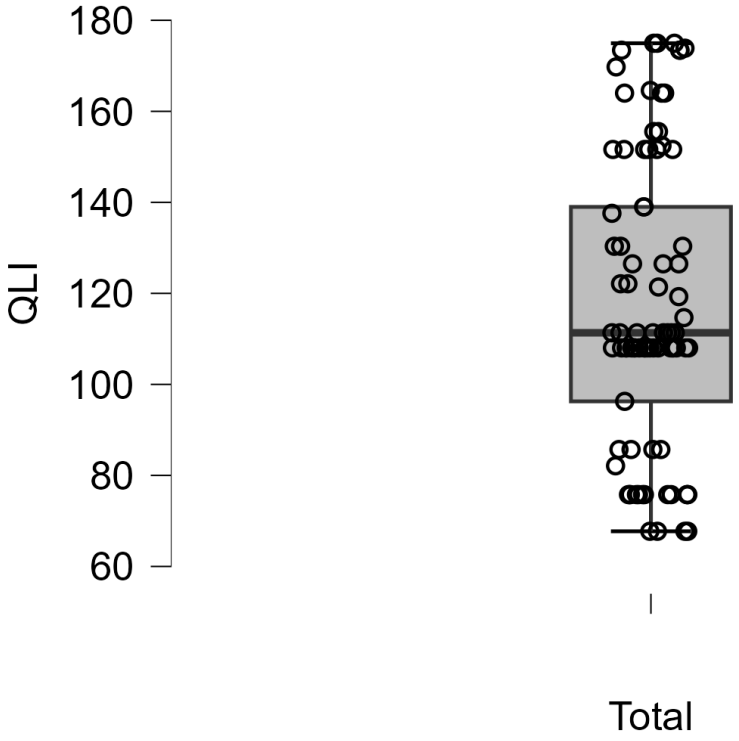

Figure 4.3. Boxplot of Quality of Life Index based on the 85 responses.
Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.15 shows measures of descriptive statistics regarding the variables used in the QLI formula.

Table 4.15
Descriptive Statistics of the variables used in the QLI formula (85 responses)

	PPI	***SI***	***HCI***	***CI***	***CLI***	***HPIR***	***TCTI***	***PI***
Valid Elements	85	85	85	85	85	85	85	85
Mode	24.960	36.260	63.900	98.500	35.120	18.570	43.410	52.050
Median	25.020	36.260	63.900	98.500	36.010	18.060	43.230	52.050
Mean	41.881	39.869	63.484	93.626	43.831	16.300	37.860	54.716
Std. Deviation	32.432	14.059	6.691	7.489	15.719	5.823	10.744	15.504
Coefficient of variation	0.774	0.353	0.105	0.080	0.359	0.357	0.284	0.283
IQR	9.840	22.030	7.460	8.130	6.770	6.500	15.170	28.420
Skewness	1.770	0.846	-1.109	-1.449	1.692	-0.489	-0.920	0.236
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261
Kurtosis	1.610	-0.091	1.943	1.242	1.774	-0.580	0.477	-1.135
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517
Range	116.320	50.360	31.890	28.310	72.610	22.990	43.340	47.480
Minimum	17.710	22.370	43.080	71.290	29.230	1.550	8.000	31.620
Maximum	134.030	72.730	74.970	99.600	101.840	24.540	51.340	79.100
25th percentile	24.960	29.340	60.140	90.620	35.120	12.070	31.320	41.150
50th percentile	25.020	36.260	63.900	98.500	36.010	18.060	43.230	52.050
75th percentile	34.800	51.370	67.600	98.750	41.890	18.570	46.490	69.570

Note. *PPI* = Purchasing Power Index; *SI* = Safety Index; *HCI* = Health Care Index; *CI* = Climate Index. *CLI* = Cost of Living Index; *HPIR* = House Price to Income Ratio; *TCTI* = Traffic Commute Time Index; *PI* = Pollution Index.

Purchasing Power Index (PPI). The main descriptive statistics of PPI are shown in Table 4.15, the distribution plot in Figure 4.4, and the boxplot in Figure 4.5. The skewness of PPI is 1.770 (greater than 1), thus, indicating that PPI is highly positively skewed, with an asymmetrical distribution. As seen in Figure 4.14, most responses were made for cities with a PPI between 20 and 40 (all Brazilian cities). All non-Brazilian cities of the sample have a PPI greater than 75.41. The kurtosis of PPI is 1.610 (neither greater than 2 [too peak] nor less than -2 [too flat]), indicating a distribution shape more peaked than usual. The SD is 32.432, and the coefficient of variation is 77.4%, indicating a substantial considerable difference in PPI among the cities based on the sample of 85 responses. The minimum PPI in the sample is 17.71 (i.e., Salvador, Brazil), and the maximum is 134.03 (i.e., Baton Rouge, USA). As the PPI is highly positively skewed, it is expected to have a considerably lower median (*Mdn* = 25.020) than the mean ($\bar{x}$ = 41.881). São Paulo, BR, is the city with the exact PPI value in the median, and São José do Rio Preto, BR, is the city scoring the closest value to the mean (42.61). Above the third quartile, six American cities are leading the PPI ranking (i.e., Baton Rouge, Atlanta,

Austin, Columbus, Raleigh, and Honolulu), one Israeli city (Haifa), and three Brazilian cities (São José do Rio Preto, Curitiba, and São José dos Campos). The boxplot depicted in Figure 4.5 demonstrates the existence of outliers above a PPI greater than 42.61. That is, all the US cities and the unique IL city (Haifa) are outliers in this sample. Also, all the Brazilian cities are within the IQR. However, this result could be expected since the great majority of the responses and the sampled cities are Brazilian. In simpler words, BR cities have the normal PPI in the sample, while US cities and Haifa, IL, are outliers, and the normality of the BR cities in this sample is due to the high quantity of responses and sampled cities from Brazil.

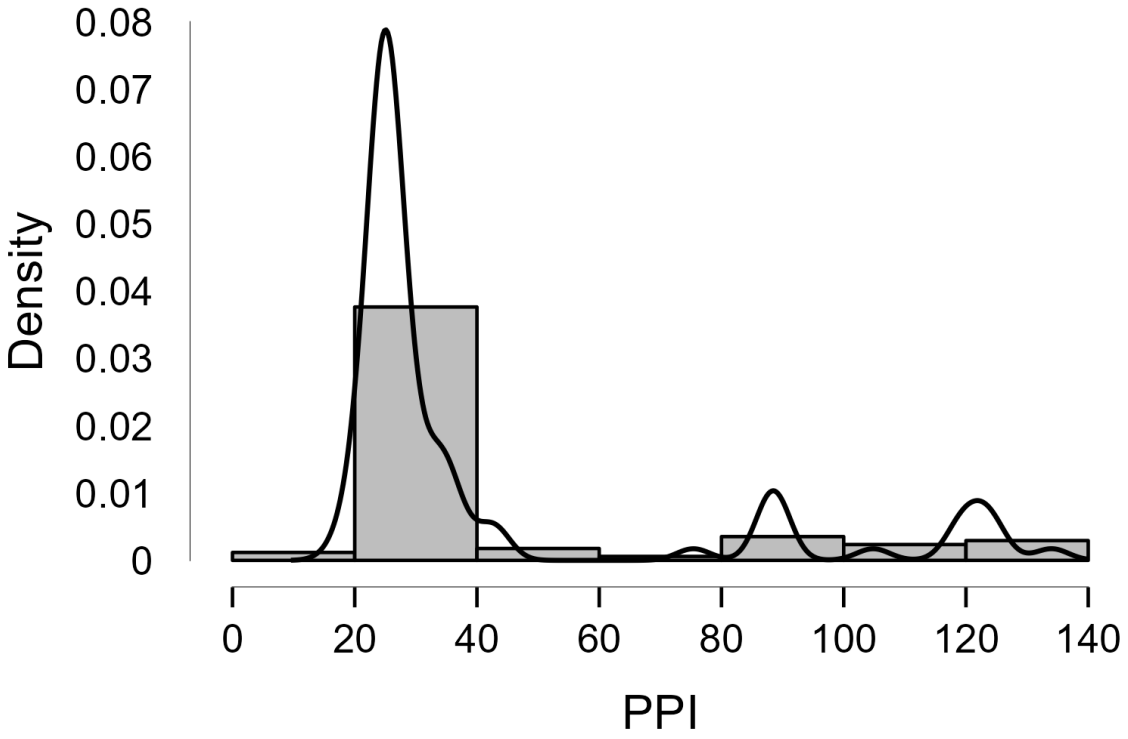

Figure 4.4. Distribution plot of Purchasing Power Index based on the 85 responses.
Note. Own elaboration.

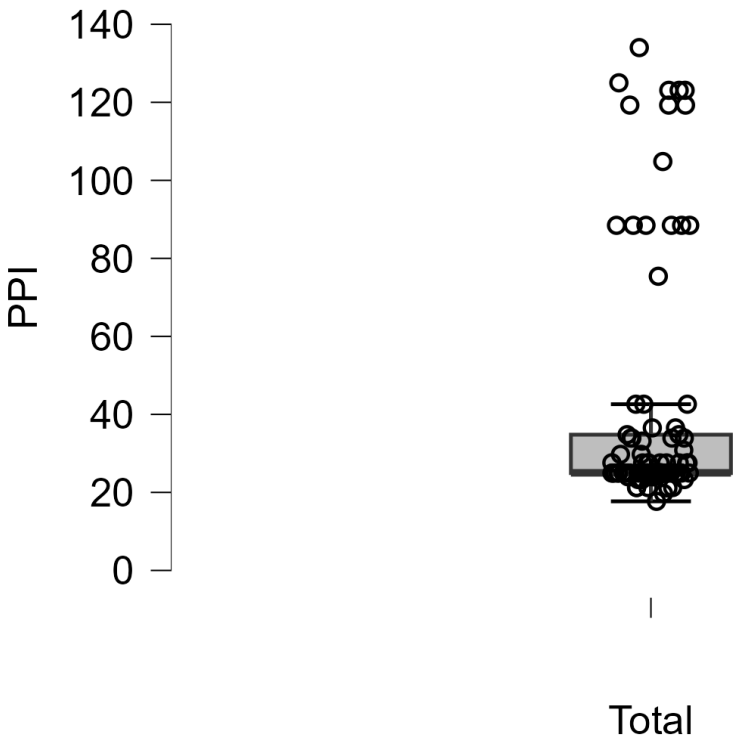

Figure 4.5. Boxplot of Purchasing Power Index based on the 85 responses.
Note. Own elaboration.

Safety Index (SI). The main descriptive statistics of SI are shown in Table 4.15, the distribution plot in Figure 4.6, and the boxplot in Figure 4.7. The skewness of SI is 0.846 (between 0.5 to 1), thus, indicating that SI is positively skewed, with an asymmetrical distribution. In this way, Figure 4.6 reveals that there are two peaks in SI distribution: first, regarding cities scoring a SI between 20 and 30, the peakest one comprising seven Brazilian cities (São Paulo, Porto Alegre, Recife, Salvador, Natal, Fortaleza, and Rio de Janeiro) and one American city (Baton Rouge); and second, a smaller peak than the previous one, regarding cities scoring a SI between 50 and 60, comprising six Brazilian cities (Vitória, Sorocaba, São José do Rio Preto, Joinville, São José dos Campos, and Florianópolis) and three American cities (Austin, Honolulu, and Columbus). Furthermore, while all cities in the first quartile are Brazilian, the cities between the first and third quartiles are either Brazilian or American. It indicates that Brazilian cities are usually less safe than American ones. Also, Haifa, the unique Israeli city in the index, leads the SI (maximum: 72.73). Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, is the most dangerous city in the ranking, scoring the minimum SI score (i.e., 22.37). The kurtosis of SI is -0.091 (neither greater than 2 [too peak] nor less than -2 [too flat]), indicating a distribution shape slightly flatter than normal. The SD is 14.059, and the coefficient of

variation is 35.3%, indicating that there is a considerable difference in SI. Belo Horizonte is the city scoring the exact value of the median (*Mdn* = 36.260); Juiz de Fora (43.34) and Curitiba (37.94) are the cities closest to the mean ($\bar{x}$ = 39.869). In general, all the cities are distributed within the interquartile range (IRQ), and for this reason, when it comes to SI, no sampled city in the 85 responses is an outlier.

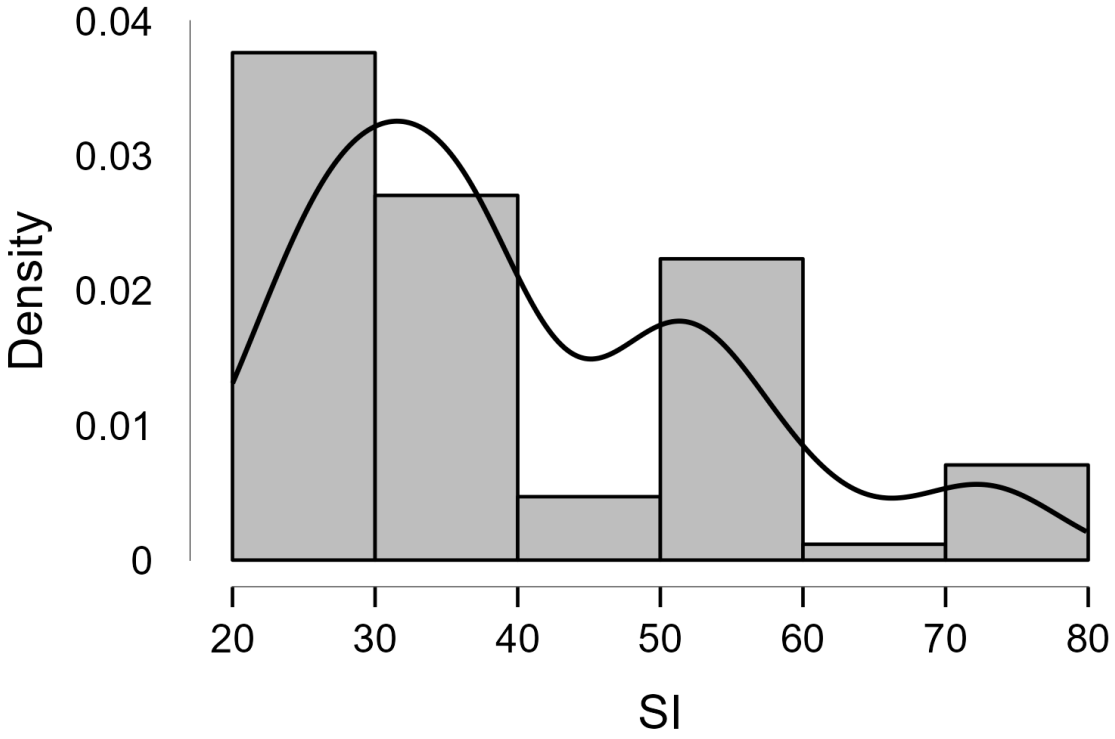

Figure 4.6. Distribution plot of Safety Index based on the 85 responses.
Note. Own elaboration.

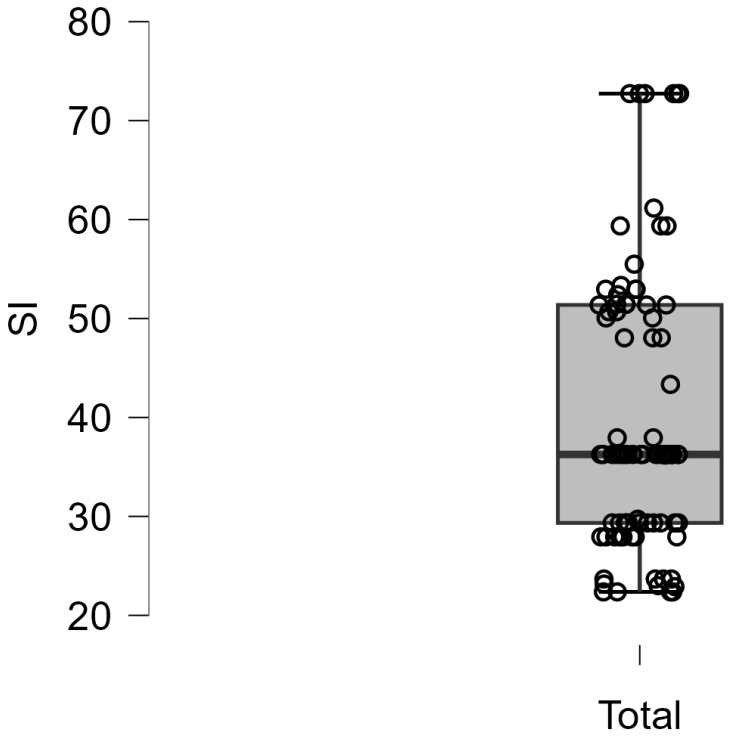

Figure 4.7. Boxplot of Safety Index based on the 85 responses.
Note. Own elaboration.

Health Care Index (HCI). The main descriptive statistics of HCI are shown in Table 4.15, the distribution plot in Figure 4.8, and the boxplot in Figure 4.9. The skewness of HCI is -1.109 (lower than -1), thus, indicating that HCI is highly negatively skewed, with an asymmetrical distribution. As seen in Figure 4.8, most cities have an HCI between 60 and 65 (all of them are Brazilian cities). The kurtosis of HCI is 1.943 (neither greater than 2 [too peak] nor less than -2 [too flat]), indicating a distribution shape considerably more peaked than normal but not too peak. The SD is 6.691, and the coefficient of variation is 10.5%, indicating a difference in HCI. The minimum HCI in the sample is 43.08 (i.e., Natal, Brazil), and the maximum is 74.97 (i.e., Sorocaba, Brazil). There are three cities closest to the mean ($\bar{x}$ = 63.484) and median (*Mdn* = 63.900), all of them are Brazilian cities: Belo Horizonte (63.9), Santos (63.55), and Porto Alegre (63.31). All cities located in the first and second quartiles are Brazilian ones, indicating that Brazilian cities have a lower HCI than the American and Israeli ones. Although the leading city of HCI is Sorocaba, Brazil, there are two outliers scoring considerably lower HCI, as seen in Figure 4.9: Rio de Janeiro (45.25) and Natal (43.08). In general, all 22 cities are distributed within the interquartile range (IRQ). However, the two cities scored considerably lower HCI than their counterparts.

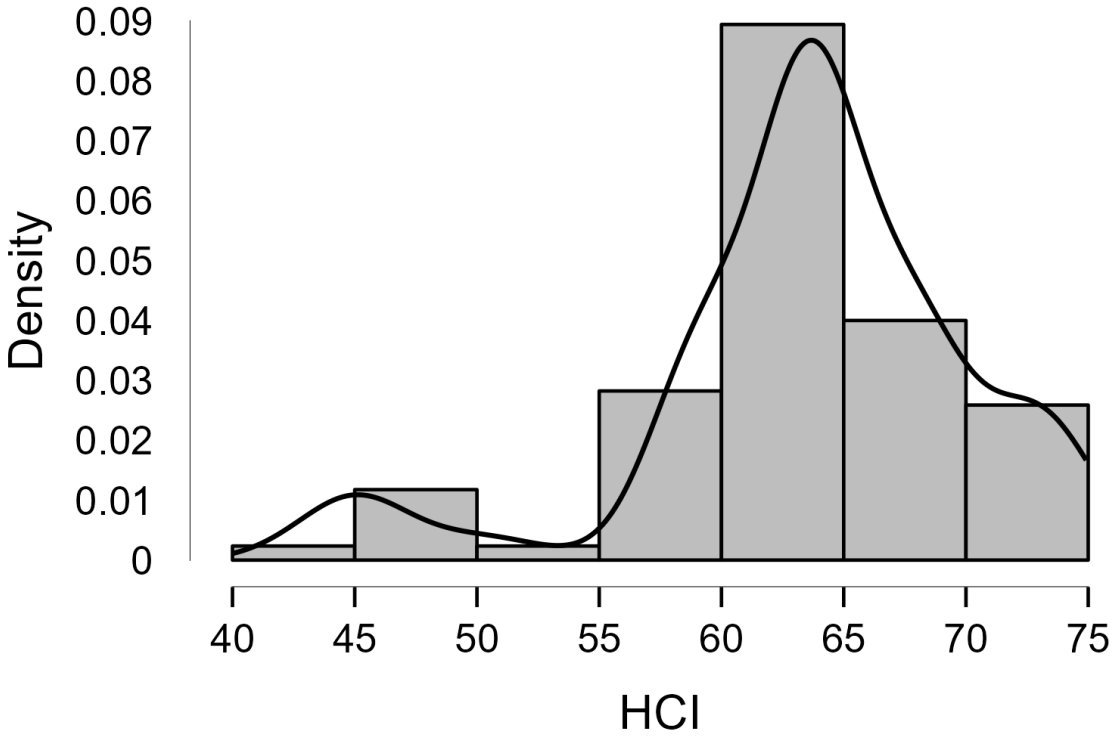

Figure 4.8. Distribution plot of Health Care Index based on the 85 responses.
Note. Own elaboration.

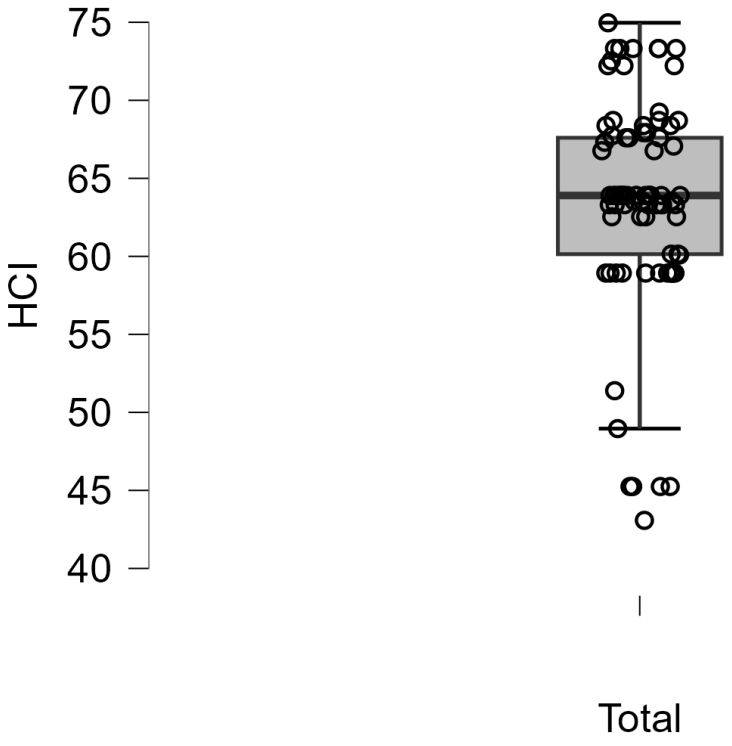

Figure 4.9. Boxplot of Health Care Index based on the 85 responses.
Note. Own elaboration.

Climate Index (CI). The main descriptive statistics of CI are shown in Table 4.15, the distribution plot in Figure 4.10, and the boxplot in Figure 4.11. The skewness of CI is -1.449 (lower than -1), thus, indicating that CI is highly negatively skewed, an asymmetrical distribution. The kurtosis of CI is 1.242 (neither greater than 2 [too peak] nor less than -2 [too flat]), indicating a distribution shape more peaked than normal. The SD is 7.489, and the coefficient of variation is 8%, indicating that there is not much difference in CI among the cities in the 85 responses. The minimum CI in the sample is 71.29 (i.e., Columbus, US), and the highest is 99.6 (i.e., Curitiba, BR). Two cities that score the exact median value (*Mdn* = 98.500) are Sorocaba and Belo Horizonte. Also, two cities are scoring closest values to the mean ($\bar{x}$ = 93.626): Honolulu (95.33) and Haifa (93.57). Brazilian cities lead the CI scores. All cities above the third quartile are Brazilian cities, while US cities scored below the median and mean (except for Honolulu). Figure 4.11 depicts Columbus (71.29) as the unique outlier underperforming CI.

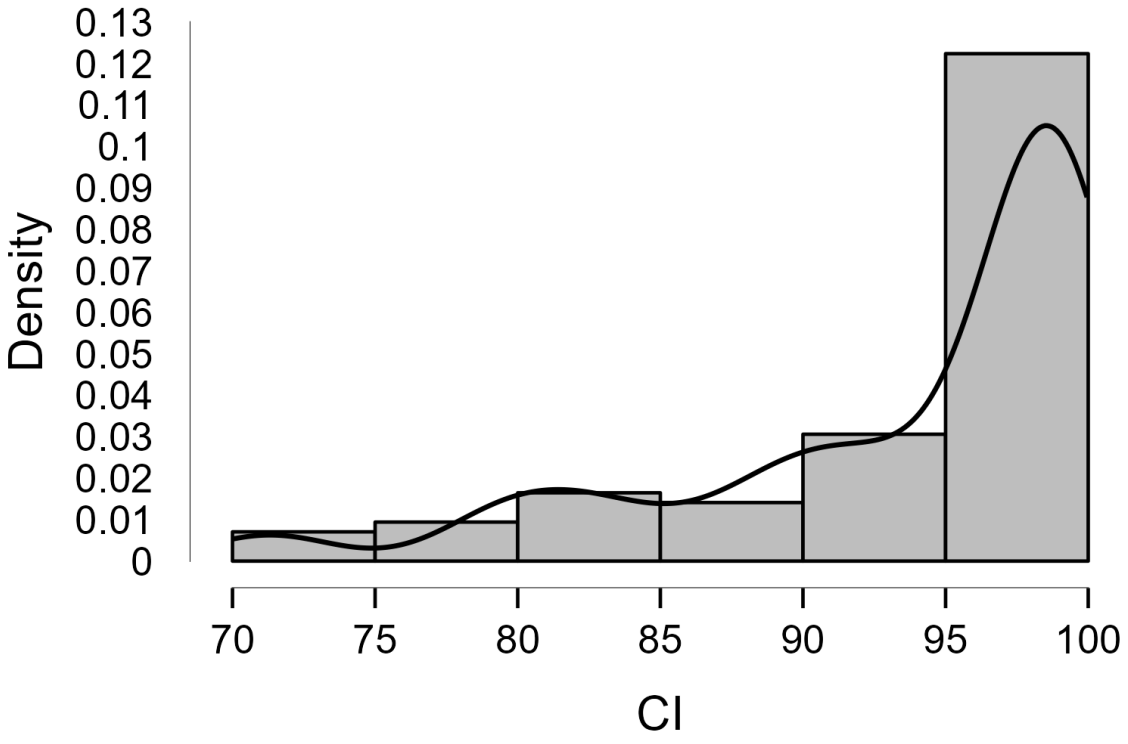

Figure 4.10. Distribution plot of Climate Index based on the 85 responses.
Note. Own elaboration.

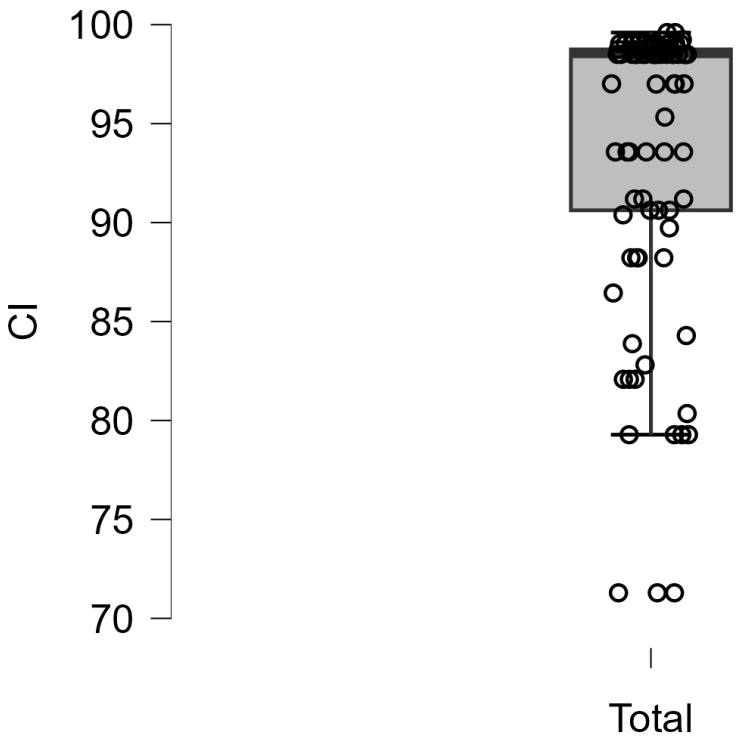

Figure 4.11. Boxplot of Climate Index based on the 85 responses.
Note. Own elaboration.

Cost of Living Index (CLI). The main descriptive statistics of CLI are shown in Table 4.15, the distribution plot in Figure 4.12, and the boxplot in Figure 4.13. The skewness of CLI is 1.692 (greater than 1), thus, indicating that CLI is highly positively skewed, with an asymmetrical distribution. The kurtosis of CLI is 1.744 (neither greater than 2 [too peak] nor less than -2 [too flat]), indicating a distribution shape more peaked than normal. The SD is 15.719, and the coefficient of variation is 35.9%, indicating a considerable difference in CLI among the cities in the 85 responses. The minimum CLI in the sample is 29.23 (i.e., São José do Rio Preto, BR), and the maximum is 101.840 (i.e., Honolulu, US). As the distribution of CLI is highly positively skewed, it is expected that the mean ($\bar{x}$ = 43.831) is bigger than the median (*Mdn* = 36.010). The cities between the mean and median are: São Paulo (41.89), Santos (41.62), Rio de Janeiro (40.16), Vitória (38.18), Florianópolis (37.02), and Porto Alegre (36.01). US cities lead the CLI scores. All cities above the third quartile are US cities, and one is Israeli (i.e., Haifa). The outliers depicted in Figure 4.13 are all the same cities above the third quartile as well as all the Brazilian cities are within the IQR. The reason for these outliers' existence is the same as the one given to the PPI. That is, this result could be expected since the great majority of the responses and the sampled cities are Brazilian. In simpler words, BR cities

have the normal CLI in the sample, while US cities and Haifa, IL, are outliers, and the normality of the BR cities in this sample is due to the high quantity of responses and sampled cities from Brazil.

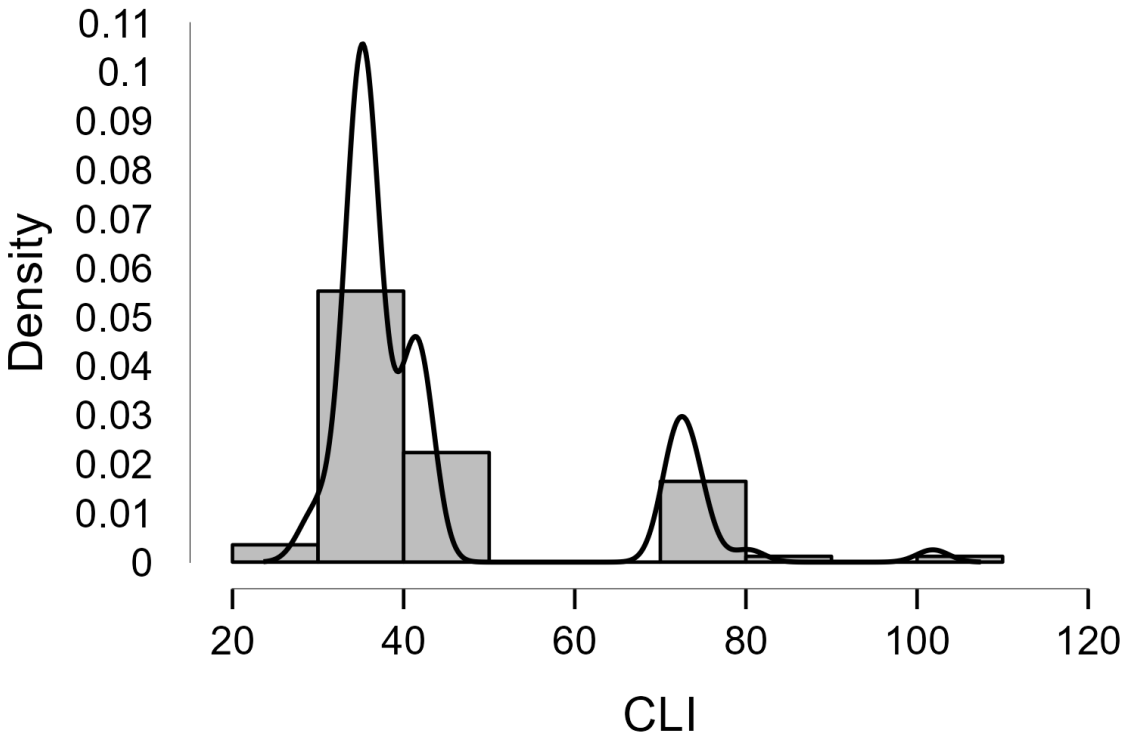

Figure 4.12. Distribution plot of Cost of Living Index based on the 85 responses.
Note. Own elaboration.

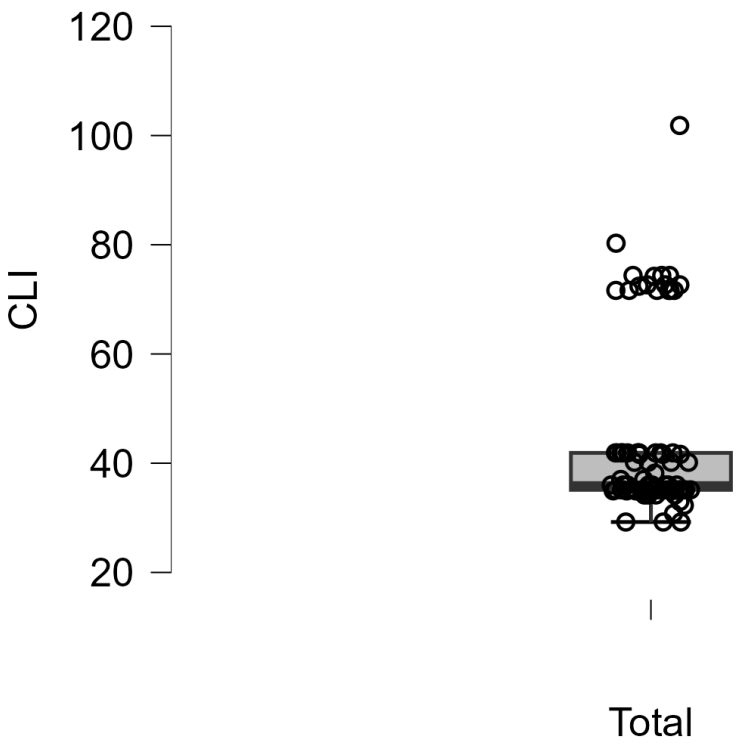

Figure 4.13. Boxplot of Cost of Living Index based on the 85 responses.
Note. Own elaboration.

House Price to Income Ratio (HPIR). The main descriptive statistics of HPIR are shown in Table 4.15, the distribution plot in Figure 4.14, and the boxplot in Figure 4.15. The skewness of HPIR is -0.489 (between -0.5 and 0.5), thus, indicating that HPIR has almost a symmetrical distribution. The kurtosis of HPIR is -0.580 (neither greater than 2 [too peak] nor less than -2 [too flat]), indicating a distribution shape slightly flatter than normal. The SD is 5.823, and the coefficient of variation is 35.7%, indicating a considerable difference in HPIR among the cities in the 85 responses. The minimum HPIR in the sample is 1.55 (i.e., Baton Rouge, US), and the maximum is 24.54 (i.e., Rio de Janeiro, BR). The cities between the mean ($\bar{x}$ = 16.300) and median (*Mdn* = 18.060) are: Santos, BR (equal to the median); Recife, BR (18.05); and Florianópolis, BR (17.57). All the Brazilian cities scored higher than US and IL cities, indicating that Brazilians have to work considerably more years than Americans and Israelis to buy a house. Baton Rouge, US, is the unique outlier with the lowest HPIR scores.

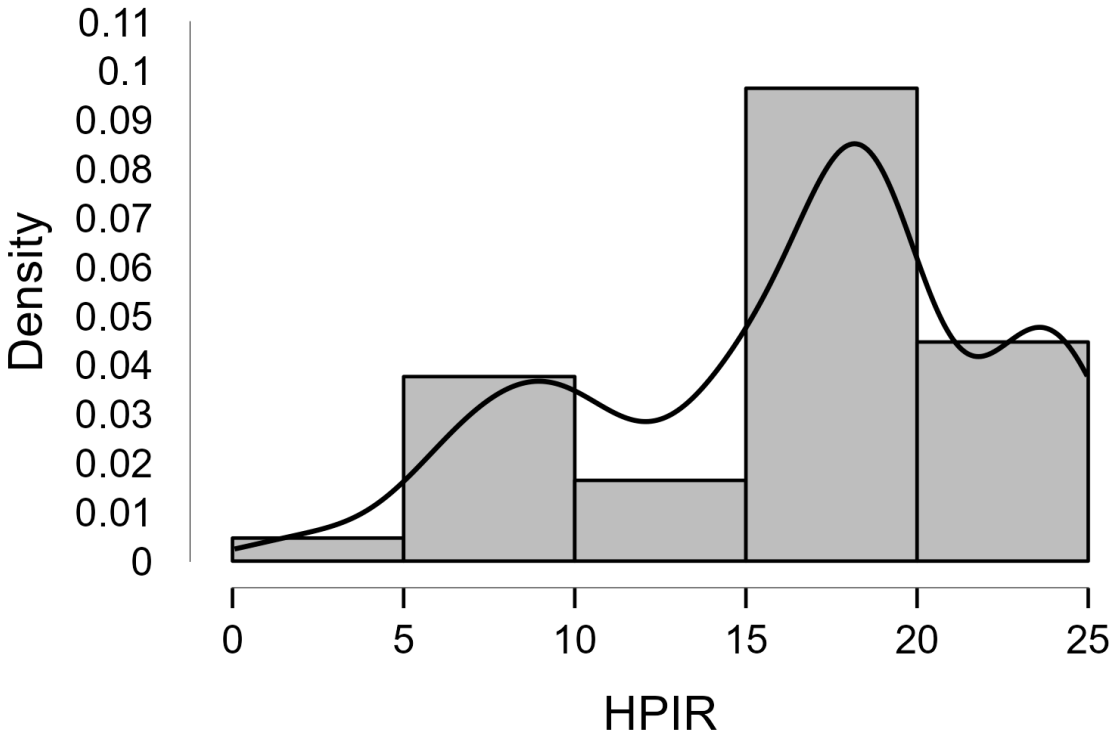

Figure 4.14. Distribution plot of House Price to Income Ratio based on the 85 responses.
Note. Own elaboration.

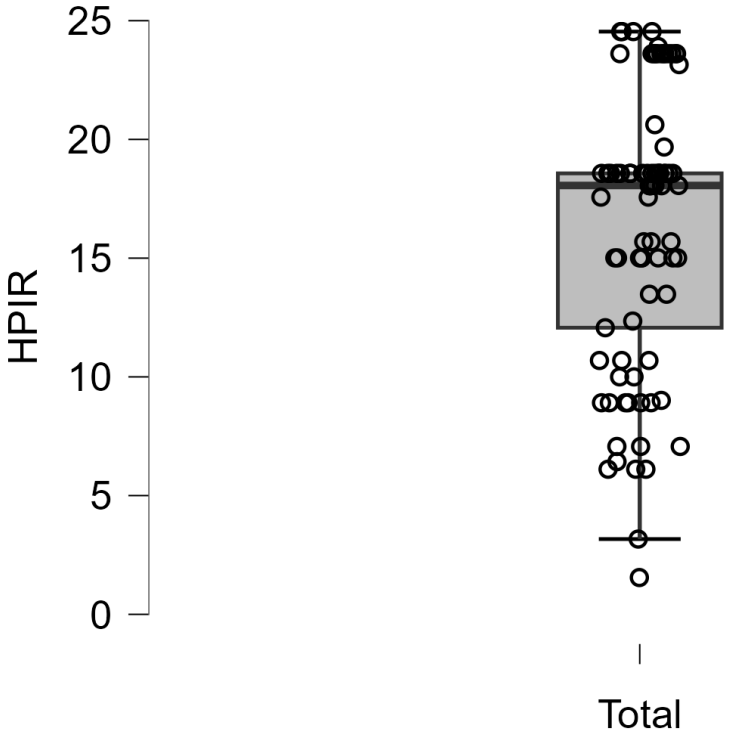

Figure 4.15. Boxplot of House Price to Income Ratio based on the 85 responses.
Note. Own elaboration.

Traffic Commute Time Index (TCTI). The main descriptive statistics of TCTI are shown in Table 4.15, the distribution plot in Figure 4.16, and the boxplot in Figure 4.17. The skewness of TCTI is -0.920 (between -0.5 to -1), thus, indicating that TCTI is negatively skewed, with an asymmetrical distribution. The kurtosis of TCTI is -0.477 (neither greater than 2 [too peak] nor less than -2 [too flat]), indicating a distribution shape slightly flatter than normal. The SD is 10.744, and the coefficient of variation is 28.4%, indicating a considerable difference in TCTI among the 85 responses. The minimum TCTI in the sample is 8 (i.e., São José do Rio Preto, BR), and the maximum is 51.34 (i.e., Rio de Janeiro, BR). As expected in a negatively skewed distribution, the median (*Mdn* = 43.230) is greater than the mean ($\bar{x}$ = 37.860). The cities between the mean and median are: Fortaleza, BR (same value as the median); Atlanta, US (41.68); Honolulu, US (41.28); Vitória, BR (39.9); and Salvador, BR (38.35). São José do Rio Preto is the unique outlier in TCTI with the lowest load (8); thus, this city has the best traffic compared to the others.

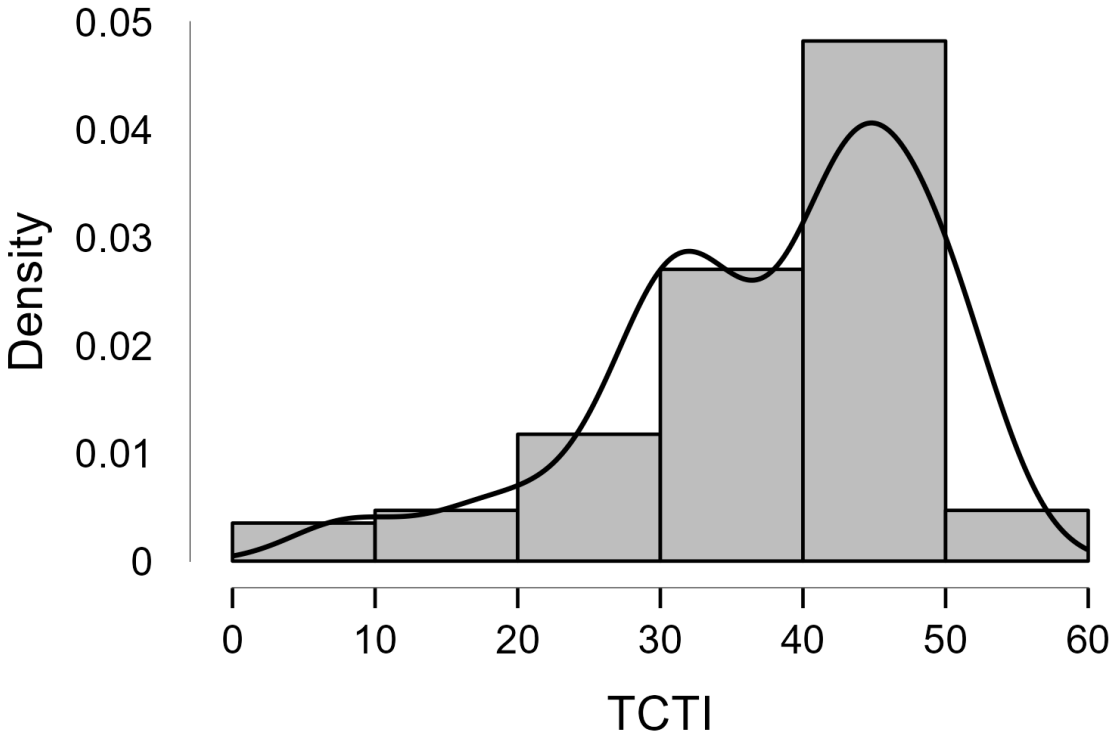

Figure 4.16. Distribution plot of Traffic Commute Time Index based on the 85 responses.
Note. Own elaboration.

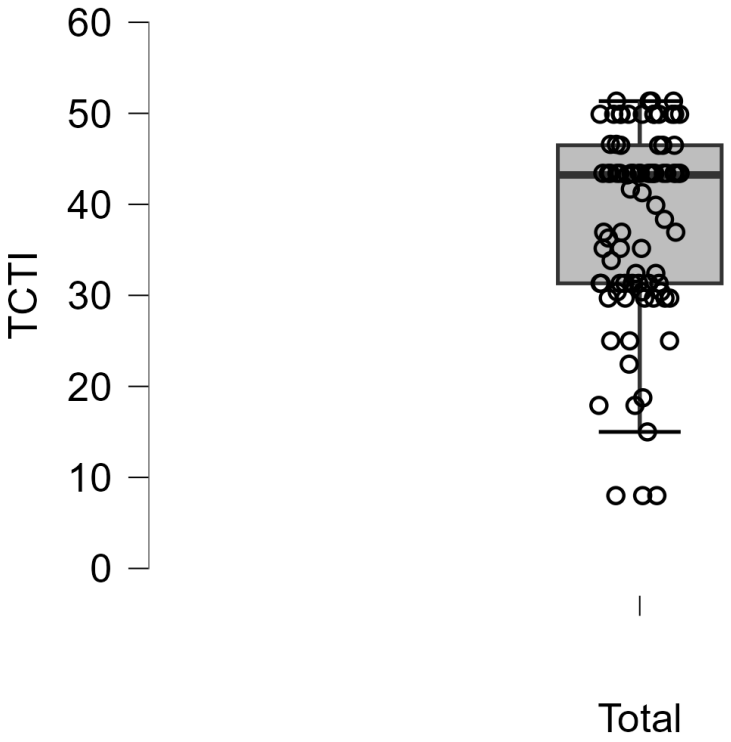

Figure 4.17. Boxplot of Traffic Commute Time Index based on the 85 responses.
Note. Own elaboration.

Pollution Index (PI). The main descriptive statistics of PI are shown in Table 4.15, the distribution plot in Figure 4.18, and the boxplot in Figure 4.19. The skewness of PI is 0.236 (between -0.5 and 0.5), thus, indicating that HPIR has almost a symmetrical distribution. The kurtosis of PI is -1.135 (neither greater than 2 [too peak] nor less than -2 [too flat]), indicating a distribution shape flatter than normal. The SD is 15.504, and the coefficient of variation is 28.3%, indicating a considerable dispersion. The minimum PI in the sample is 31.62 (i.e., Raleigh, US), and the maximum is 79.1 (i.e., São Paulo, BR). The cities between the mean ($\bar{x}$ = 54.716) and median (*Mdn* = 52.050) are: Fortaleza (53.42) and Belo Horizonte (the same median score). In general, all the cities are distributed within the interquartile range (IRQ); for this reason, no sampled city is an outlier when it comes to PI.

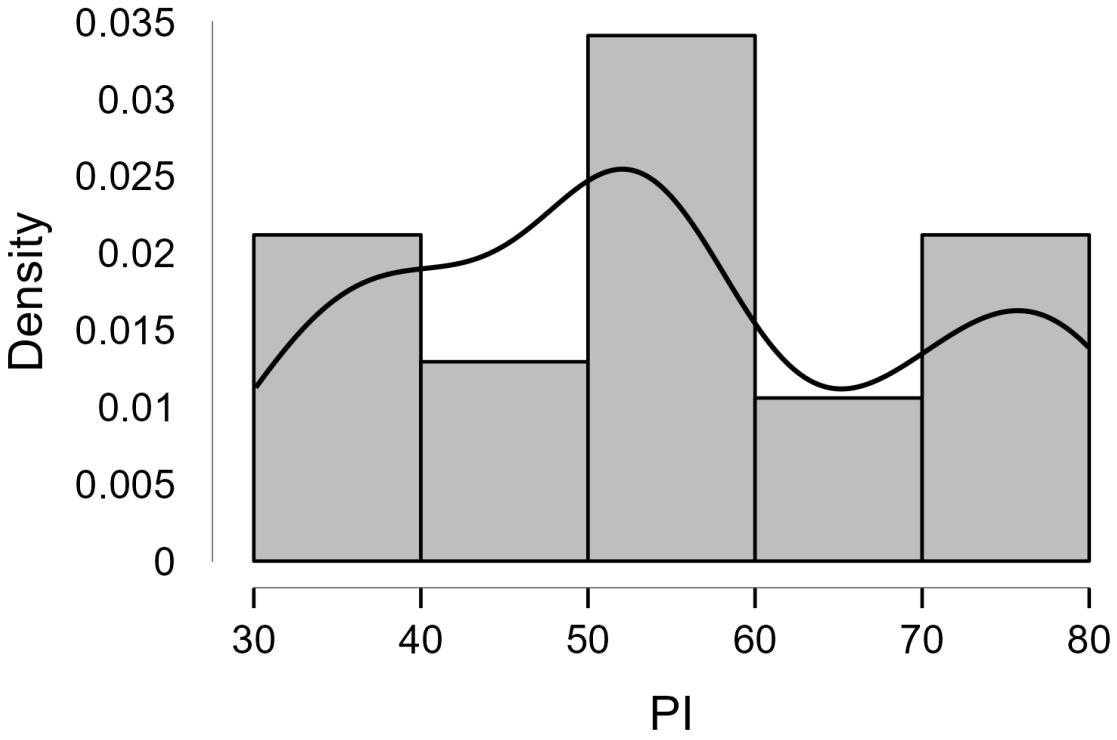

Figure 4.18. Distribution plot of Pollution Index based on the 85 responses.
Note. Own elaboration.

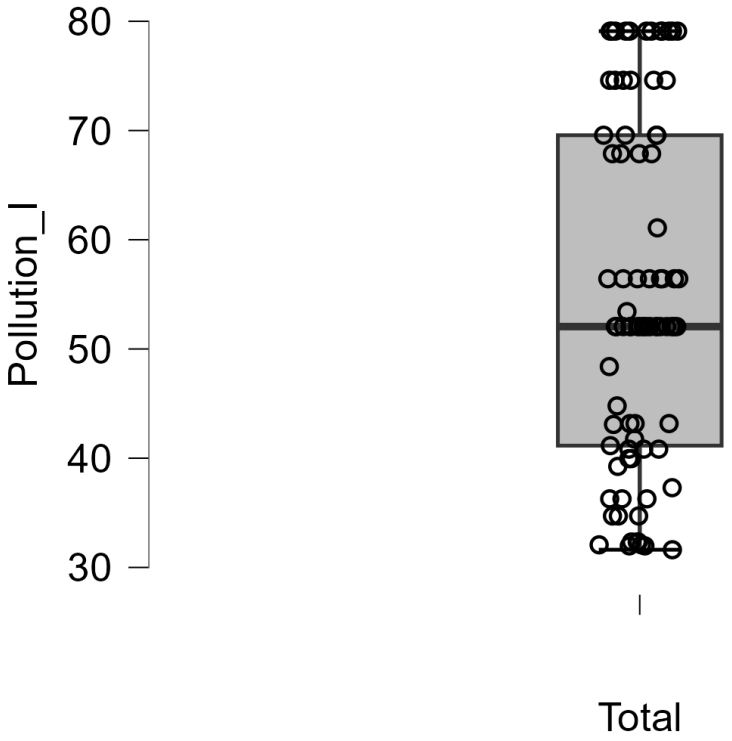

Figure 4.19. Boxplot of Pollution Index based on the 85 responses.
Note. Own elaboration.

4.5.3 RIGHT POLITICAL ORIENTATION

Right Political Orientation. I used the mean of the four-RPO items in the models to represent this variable (see the column RPOM in Table 4.16, distribution plot in Figure 4.20, and boxplot in Figure 4.21). As explained in subsection 4.4, RPO1 is a direct question about the political orientation of the respondent (closer to 0 is the left-political wing, and closer to 7 is the right-political wing), RPO2 is a question about the economic point of view of the respondent (closer to 0 represents high interventionism, closer to 7 represents low governmental interventionism), and RPO3 and RPO4 represent the political orientation of the respondents regarding social issues (closer to 0 represents progressivism, and closer to 7 represents conservatism). In general, although there is considerable variance among the political orientation of the respondents (coefficient of variation of 44.3%), most considered themselves center-left (since the median and mean of the responses are close to 3.2). Also, it is noteworthy that conservatism for social values is slightly greater in the sample, even for those who consider themselves center-leftists (the median and mean of RPO3 and RPO4 are slightly greater than RPO1 and RPO2).

Table 4.16
Descriptive Statistics of Right Political Orientation

	RPO^{M}	***RPO1***	***RPO2***	***RPO3***	***RPO4***
Valid elements	85	85	85	85	85
Median	3.25	3	3	3	4
Mean	3.294	2.953	3.212	3.259	3.753
Std. Deviation	1.458	1.654	1.878	1.853	2.214
Coefficient of variation	0.443	0.56	0.585	0.568	0.59
IQR	2	2	2	3	5
Skewness	0.312	0.772	0.525	0.461	0.051
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261
Kurtosis	-0.543	-0.027	-0.738	-0.973	-1.477
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517
Range	6	6	6	6	6
Minimum	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum	7	7	7	7	7
25th percentile	2.25	2	2	2	1
50th percentile	3.25	3	3	3	4
75th percentile	4.25	4	4	5	6

Note. Own elaboration. RPO = Right Political Orientation. ^{M} = Mean of RPO1, RPO2, RPO3, and RPO4 items, which were used in the model.

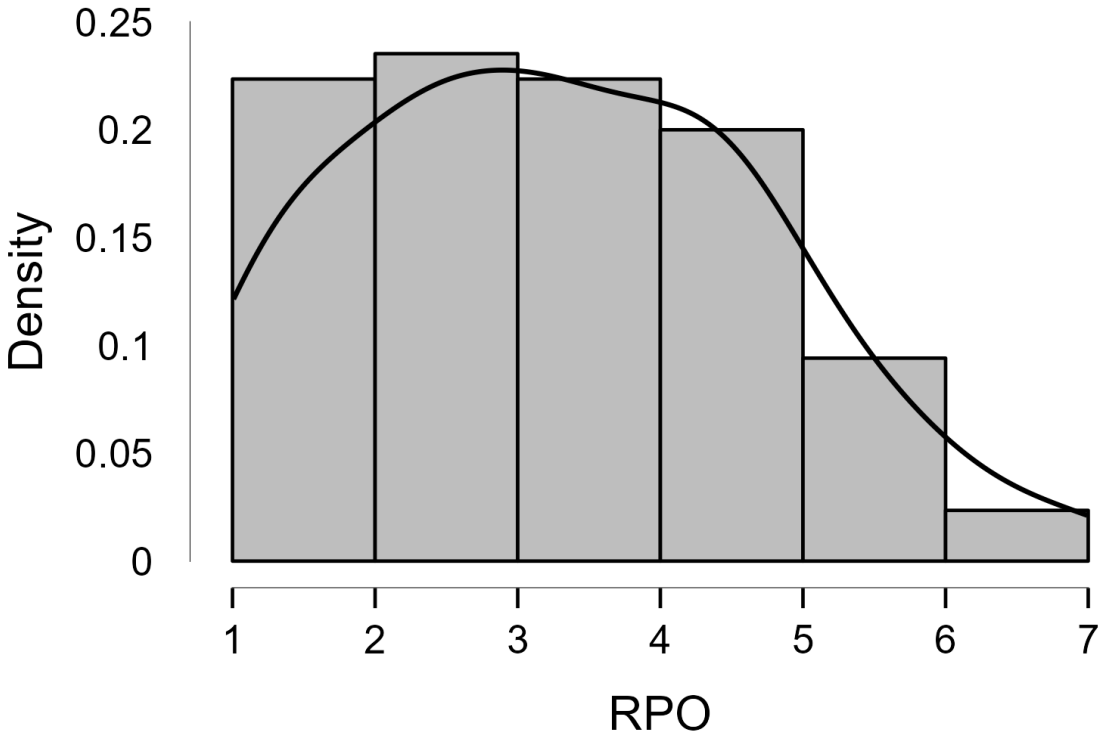

Figure 4.20. Distribution plot of Right Political Orientation of all 85 respondents.
Note. Own elaboration.

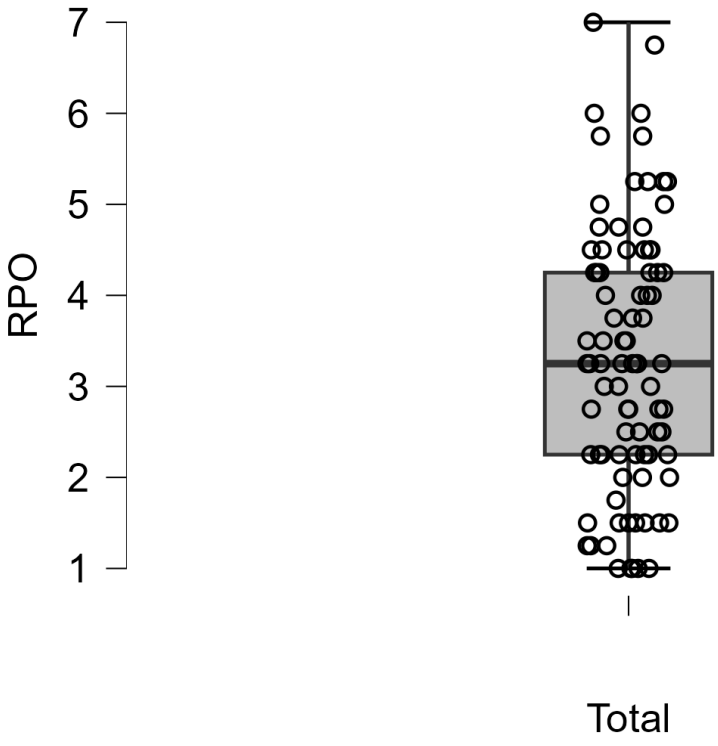

Figure 4.21. Boxplot of Right Political Orientation of all 85 respondents.
Note. Own elaboration.

Right Political Orientation: The differences among Brazil, Israel, and the United States. Table 4.17 reveals that Brazilian urban managers consider themselves more in the center-left than American ones, and Israeli urban managers are prone to consider themselves as center-right (the mean and media are above 3.5).

Table 4.17
Descriptive Statistics of Right Political Orientation among the sample countries

	Right Political Orientation		
	Brazil	***Israel***	***USA***
Valid	69	6	10
Median	3	3.625	3.5
Mean	3.239	3.792	3.375
Std. Deviation	1.525	0.485	1.401
Coefficient of variation	0.471	0.128	0.415
IQR	2	0.625	2.25
Skewness	0.427	0.638	-0.076
Std. Error of Skewness	0.289	0.845	0.687
Kurtosis	-0.538	-1.243	-1.505
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.57	1.741	1.334
Range	6	1.25	3.75
Minimum	1	3.25	1.5
Maximum	7	4.5	5.25
25th percentile	2.25	3.5	2.313
50th percentile	3	3.625	3.5
75th percentile	4.250	4.125	4.563

Note. Own elaboration. RPO = Right Political Orientation. ^{M} = Mean of RPO1, RPO2, RPO3, and RPO4 items, which were used in the model.

Other interesting results among the differences in the item responses are shown in Table 4.18: First, Israeli urban managers can consider themselves on the political left and consider economic interventionism important (the mean and median of RPO1 and RPO2 below 3.5). However, they are prone to posit themselves to conservatism regarding social values (the mean and median of RPO3 and RPO4 above 3.5). Second, American urban managers declared to be more prone to a free-market economy than Brazilian and Israeli ones (RPO2).

Table 4.18

Descriptive Statistics of Right Political Orientation pool items

	RPO1			***RPO2***			***RPO3***			***RPO4***		
	BR	***IL***	***US***	***BR***	***IL***	***US***	***BR***	***IL***	***US***	***BR***	***IL***	***US***
Valid	69	6	10	69	6	10	69	6	10	69	6	10
Median	3	2.5	3.5	3	2	4	3	3	4	4	6.5	2
Mean	2.91	3.16	3.1	3.2	2.17	3.9	3.11	3.83	3.9	3.72	6	2.6
Standard Deviation	1.64	2.13	1.6	1.94	1.17	1.52	1.83	2.23	1.72	2.21	1.26	1.77
Coefficient of Variation	0.56	0.67	0.51	0.61	0.54	0.39	0.59	0.58	0.44	0.59	0.21	0.68
IQR	2	1.75	2	2	1.5	1.75	2	3.5	2.5	5	1.75	3
Skewness	0.8	1.34	0.21	0.59	0.67	-0.73	0.54	0.63	-0.13	0.05	-0.89	0.76
Standard Error of Skewness	0.29	0.84	0.69	0.29	0.84	0.69	0.29	0.84	0.68	0.28	0.84	0.68
Kurtosis	0.02	1.87	-0.46	-0.72	-0.44	0.04	-0.86	-1.81	-0.8	-1.49	-0.78	-0.57
Standard Error of Kurtosis	0.57	1.74	1.33	0.57	1.74	1.33	0.57	1.74	1.33	0.57	1.74	1.33
Range	6	6	5	6	3	5	6	5	5	6	3	5
Minimum	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	4	1
Maximum	7	7	6	7	4	6	7	7	6	7	7	6
25th percentile (Q1)	2	2	2	2	1.25	3.25	2	2	3	1	5.25	1
50th percentile (Q2)	3	2.5	3.5	3	2	4	3	3	4	4	6.5	2
75th percentile (Q3)	4	3.75	4	4	2.75	5	4	5	5	6	7	4

Note. Own elaboration.

4.5.4 STAKEHOLDER SALIENCE

In the models, *stakeholder salience* is the mean of the sum of all of its three attributes. In other words, after summing the mean of *power*, *urgency*, and *legitimacy*, the mean of these three attributes is calculated, thus, constituting the stakeholder salience. In the following three subsections, I described the main statistics of these three attributes. After then, in the fourth subsection, I discussed the *stakeholder salience*, which was used in the models.

4.5.4.1 POWER OF STAKEHOLDERS

In this subsection, I present the general data on how urban managers perceive the power of stakeholders. Table 4.19 presents the descriptive statistics of stakeholder power for the global scenario for all analyzed countries, cities, and urban-stakeholder types. In general, stakeholders are perceived by urban managers as having power. The reasons are: first, the median (*Mdn* = 4.833) and mean ($\bar{x}$ = 4.823) are above 3.5; second, the coefficient of variance is acceptable, 16.5%; and third, the distribution is negatively skewed (-0.346); assuring that most of the responses are distributed in higher scores, that is, higher power perceived by the urban managers (see the distribution plot depicted in Figure 4.22).

Table 4.19
Descriptive Statistics of Power of all Urban-Stakeholder Types (overall)

	Power
Valid	85
Median	4.833
Mean	4.823
Std. Deviation	0.795
Coefficient of variation	0.165
IQR	1.083
Skewness	-0.346
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261
Kurtosis	-0.163
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517
Range	3.667
Minimum	2.833
Maximum	6.500
25th percentile	4.333
50th percentile	4.833
75th percentile	5.417

Note. Own elaboration.

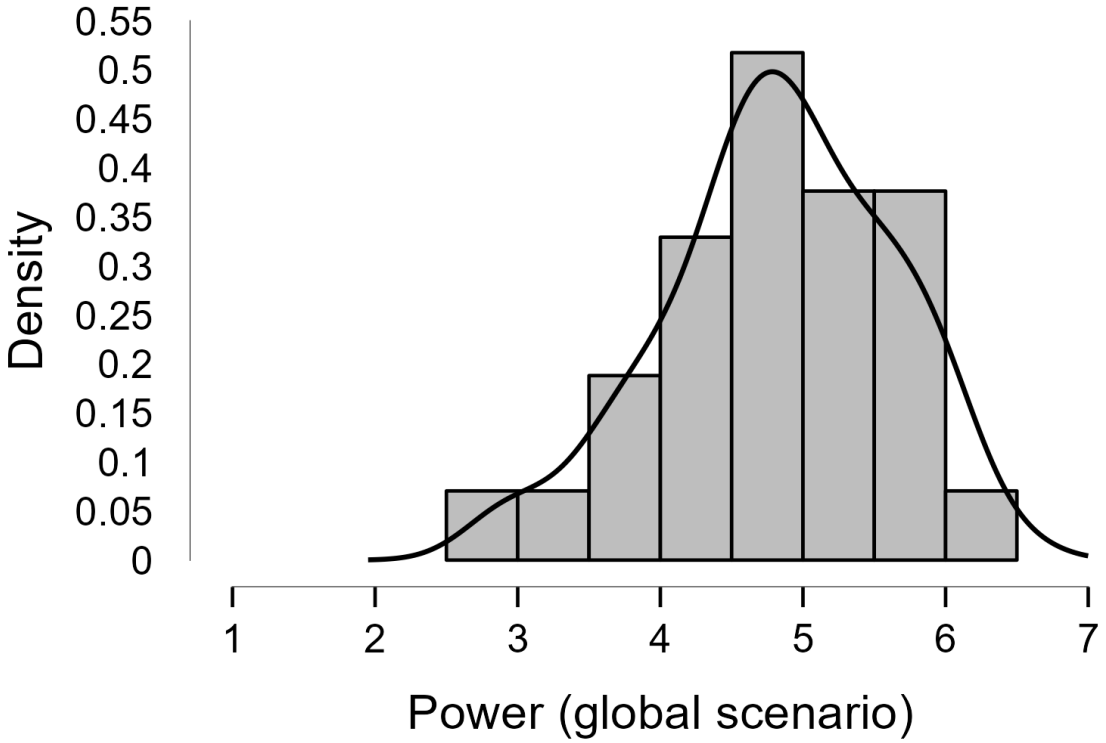

Figure 4.22. Distribution plot of the Power of Stakeholders as globally perceived by urban managers.

Note. Own elaboration.

The Power of the Government. Table 4.20 describes the main statistics of the Power of the Government, in which the column GovP is the mean of the sum of its three items in the psychometric scale (GovP1, GovP2, and GovP3). According to all the interviewed urban managers, the government is a powerful urban stakeholder type because: first, the median (*Mdn* = 5.3) and mean ($\bar{x}$ = 5.1) are above 3.5; second, the coefficient of variance is acceptable at 21.9%, and third, the distribution is negatively skewed (-0.684), assuring that most of the responses are distributed in higher scores, that is, higher power perceived by the urban managers.

Table 4.20
Descriptive Statistics of Power of the Government

	GovP	***GovP1***	***GovP2***	***GovP3***
Valid	85	85	85	85
Median	5.333	5	6	5
Mean	5.122	4.976	5.6	4.788
Std. Deviation	1.121	1.793	1.293	1.407
Coefficient of variation	0.219	0.360	0.231	0.294
IQR	1.667	2	2	2
Skewness	-0.684	-0.789	-0.903	-0.638
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261
Kurtosis	0.279	-0.161	0.299	0.071
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517
Range	5.333	6	5	6
Minimum	1.667	1	2	1
Maximum	7	7	7	7
25th percentile	4.333	4	5	4
50th percentile	5.333	5	6	5
75th percentile	6	6	7	6

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.21 provides descriptive statistics on how urban managers perceive the power of the government in the sample countries. In short, Governments are considered powerful in all the sample countries. Also, Israeli urban managers consider the government more powerful than Brazilian and American ones due to the greater median and mean.

Table 4.21
Descriptive Statistics of Power of the Government (Countries)

	GovP		
	Brazil	***Israel***	***USA***
Valid	69	6	10
Median	5.333	5.5	5.167
Mean	5.130	5.222	5
Std. Deviation	1.170	1.026	0.875
Coefficient of variation	0.228	0.196	0.175
IQR	1.667	1.333	0.917
Skewness	-0.750	-0.705	0.277
Std. Error of Skewness	0.289	0.845	0.687
Kurtosis	0.295	-0.93	0.251
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.570	1.741	1.334
Range	5.333	2.667	3
Minimum	1.667	3.667	3.667
Maximum	7	6.333	6.667
25th percentile	4.333	4.583	4.417
50th percentile	5.333	5.5	5.167
75th percentile	6	5.917	5.333

Note. Own elaboration.

The Power of the Industry. Table 4.22 describes the main statistics of the Power of the Industry, in which the column IndP is the mean of the sum of its three items in the psychometric scale (IndP1, IndP2, and IndP3). According to all the interviewed urban managers, the industry is a relevant stakeholder type in terms of power since the median (Mdn = 4.3) and mean ($\bar{x}$ = 4.5) are above 3.5. However, there is a considerable coefficient of variance (29.4%) and standard deviation (SD = 1.33 points), indicating that it is not consensus for all urban managers that the industry is powerful in the relationship between urban management and the industry.

Table 4.22
Descriptive Statistics of Power of the Industry

	IndP	***IndP1***	***IndP2***	***IndP3***
Valid	85	85	85	85
Median	4.333	5	4	4
Mean	4.525	5.024	4.200	4.353
Std. Deviation	1.332	1.535	1.738	1.548
Coefficient of variation	0.294	0.306	0.414	0.356
IQR	1.667	2	2	3
Skewness	-0.219	-0.708	-0.302	-0.082
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261
Kurtosis	-0.285	0.07	-0.787	-0.896
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517
Range	5.667	6	6	6
Minimum	1.333	1	1	1
Maximum	7	7	7	7
25th percentile	4	4	3	3
50th percentile	4.333	5	4	4
75th percentile	5.667	6	5	6

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.23 provides descriptive statistics on how urban managers perceive the industry's power in the sample countries. In short, industries are considered to have higher power for most urban managers in all the sample countries. Despite the considerable standard deviation, American urban managers consider the industry more powerful than Brazilian and Israeli ones.

Table 4.23
Descriptive Statistics of Power of the Industry (Countries)

	IndP		
	Brazil	***Israel***	***USA***
Valid	69	6	10
Median	4.333	4.167	4.667
Mean	4.459	4.556	4.967
Std. Deviation	1.372	0.886	1.281
Coefficient of variation	0.308	0.195	0.258
IQR	1.667	1.333	1.583
Skewness	-0.223	0.728	-0.081
Std. Error of Skewness	0.289	0.845	0.687
Kurtosis	-0.37	-1.861	-0.192
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.57	1.741	1.334
Range	5.667	2	4.333
Minimum	1.333	3.667	2.667
Maximum	7	5.667	7
25th percentile	3.667	4	4.333
50th percentile	4.333	4.167	4.667
75th percentile	5.333	5.333	5.917

Note. Own elaboration.

The Power of the Citizens. Table 4.24 describes the main statistics of the Power of the Citizens, in which the column CitP is the mean of the sum of its three items in the psychometric scale (CitP1, CitP2, and CitP3). According to all the interviewed urban managers, the citizens are a relevant stakeholder type in terms of power since the median (*Mdn* = 4.66) and mean ($\bar{x}$ = 4.56) are above 3.5. However, there is a considerable coefficient of variance (28.6%) and standard deviation (*SD* = 1.305 points), indicating that it is not consensus for all urban managers that the citizens are powerful in the relationship between urban management and the citizens.

Table 4.24
Descriptive Statistics of Power of the Citizens

	CitP	***CitP1***	***CitP2***	***CitP3***
Valid	85	85	85	85
Median	4.667	5	5	4
Mean	4.565	4.965	4.824	3.906
Std. Deviation	1.305	1.835	1.544	1.63
Coefficient of variation	0.286	0.37	0.32	0.417
IQR	1.333	2	2	2
Skewness	-0.486	-0.811	-0.551	-0.031
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261
Kurtosis	0.228	-0.221	-0.17	-0.844
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517
Range	6	6	6	6
Minimum	1	1	1	1
Maximum	7	7	7	7
25th percentile	4	4	4	3
50th percentile	4.667	5	5	4
75th percentile	5.333	6	6	5

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.25 provides descriptive statistics on how urban managers perceive the power of the citizens in the sample countries. In short, citizens are considered to have a certain higher degree of power as perceived by most urban managers in all the sample countries, despite the considerable standard deviation and coefficient of variation. Brazilians and American urban managers are more prone to consider the citizens a powerful stakeholder type than Israeli ones.

Table 4.25
Descriptive Statistics of Power of the Citizens (Countries)

	CitP		
	Brazil	***Israel***	***USA***
Valid	69	6	10
Median	4.667	4	4.667
Mean	4.589	4	4.733
Std. Deviation	1.347	0.816	1.255
Coefficient of variation	0.293	0.204	0.265
IQR	1.667	0.75	1.333
Skewness	-0.622	-0.612	0.227
Std. Error of Skewness	0.289	0.845	0.687
Kurtosis	0.277	0.633	0.003
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.57	1.741	1.334
Range	6	2.333	4.333
Minimum	1	2.667	2.667
Maximum	7	5	7
25th percentile	4	3.75	4
50th percentile	4.667	4	4.667
75th percentile	5.667	4.5	5.333

Note. Own elaboration.

The Power of the Civil Society. Table 4.26 describes the main statistics of Power of the Civil Society, in which the column CivP is the mean of the sum of its three items in the psychometric scale (CivP1, CivP2, and CivP3). According to all the interviewed urban managers, Civil Society is a powerful stakeholder type since the median (*Mdn* = 5.33) and mean ($\bar{x}$ = 5.078) are far above 3.5, under an acceptable coefficient of variance (23.7%) and standard deviation (*SD* = 1.205 points).

Table 4.26
Descriptive Statistics of Power of the Civil Society

	CivP	***CivP1***	***CivP2***	***CivP3***
Valid	85	85	85	85
Median	5.333	6	6	4
Mean	5.078	5.494	5.247	4.494
Std. Deviation	1.205	1.501	1.344	1.342
Coefficient of variation	0.237	0.273	0.256	0.299
IQR	1.667	2	2	2
Skewness	-1.018	-1.221	-0.827	-0.426
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261
Kurtosis	1.579	1.266	0.742	0.078
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517
Range	6	6	6	6
Minimum	1	1	1	1
Maximum	7	7	7	7
25th percentile	4.333	5	4	4
50th percentile	5.333	6	6	4
75th percentile	6	7	6	6

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.27 provides descriptive statistics on how urban managers perceive the power of civil society in the sample countries. In short, Civil Society is considered more powerful by Brazilian urban managers than Israeli and American ones.

Table 4.27
Descriptive Statistics of Power of the Civil Society (Countries)

	CivP		
	Brazil	***Israel***	***USA***
Valid	69	6	10
Median	5.333	4.333	4.500
Mean	5.237	3.833	4.733
Std. Deviation	1.146	1.472	1.028
Coefficient of variation	0.219	0.384	0.217
IQR	1.333	0.917	1.917
Skewness	-1.082	-1.881	0.164
Std. Error of Skewness	0.289	0.845	0.687
Kurtosis	1.784	3.780	-2.164
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.570	1.741	1.334
Range	6.000	4.000	2.333
Minimum	1.000	1.000	3.667
Maximum	7.000	5.000	6.000
25th percentile	4.667	3.750	3.750
50th percentile	5.333	4.333	4.500
75th percentile	6.000	4.667	5.667

Note. Own elaboration.

The Power of the Urban-Stakeholder Types: Government, Industry, Citizens, and Civil Society. Table 4.28 shows the descriptive statistics for comparing the power of these four stakeholder types. Among the stakeholder types, the government ($\bar{x}$ = 5.12, *Mdn* = 5.33) and civil society ($\bar{x}$ = 5.07, *Mdn* = 5.33) are similarly considered the most powerful stakeholder types by the respondents. Moreover, government and Civil Society not only have similar medians and means but also have a lower coefficient of variation (21.9% and 23.7%, consecutively) than industry (29.4%) and citizens (28.6%). Thus, most respondents agree that government and civil society are powerful stakeholder types, while there is considerable divergence among the respondents regarding the power of the industry and citizens in the relationship with urban management. Nevertheless, 75% of the respondents agree that the industry and citizens have some degree of power (25th percentile is 4).

Table 4.28
Power of the Urban-Stakeholder Types

	GovP	***IndP***	***CitP***	***CivP***
Valid	85	85	85	85
Median	5.333	4.333	4.667	5.333
Mean	5.122	4.525	4.565	5.078
Std. Deviation	1.121	1.332	1.305	1.205
Coefficient of variation	0.219	0.294	0.286	0.237
IQR	1.667	1.667	1.333	1.667
Skewness	-0.684	-0.219	-0.486	-1.018
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261
Kurtosis	0.279	-0.285	0.228	1.579
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517
Range	5.333	5.667	6	6
Minimum	1.667	1.333	1	1
Maximum	7	7	7	7
25th percentile	4.333	4	4	4.333
50th percentile	5.333	4.333	4.667	5.333
75th percentile	6	5.667	5.333	6

Note. Own elaboration.

4.5.4.2 URGENCY OF STAKEHOLDERS

In this subsection, I present the general data on how urban managers perceive the urgency of stakeholders. Table 4.29 presents the descriptive statistics of stakeholder urgency for the global scenario, that is, for all countries, cities, and urban-stakeholder types analyzed. In general, stakeholders are perceived by urban managers as having urgency. The reasons are: first, the median (*Mdn* = 4.5) and mean ($\bar{x}$ = 4.43) are above 3.5; second, the coefficient of variance is acceptable, 19.8%; and third, the distribution is negatively skewed (-0.482), assuring that most of the responses are distributed in higher scores, that is, higher urgency is perceived by the urban managers (see the distribution plot depicted in Figure 4.23). Nonetheless, two respondents ranked stakeholder urgency far below the other respondents such that these two responses are outliers below the IQR (see boxplot in Figure 4.24).

Table 4.29
Descriptive Statistics of Urgency (overall)

	Urgency
Valid	85
Median	4.500
Mean	4.435
Std. Deviation	0.876
Coefficient of variation	0.198
IQR	1.083
Skewness	-0.482
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261
Kurtosis	0.664
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517
Range	4.917
Minimum	1.417
Maximum	6.333
25th percentile	4.000
50th percentile	4.500
75th percentile	5.083

Note. Own elaboration.

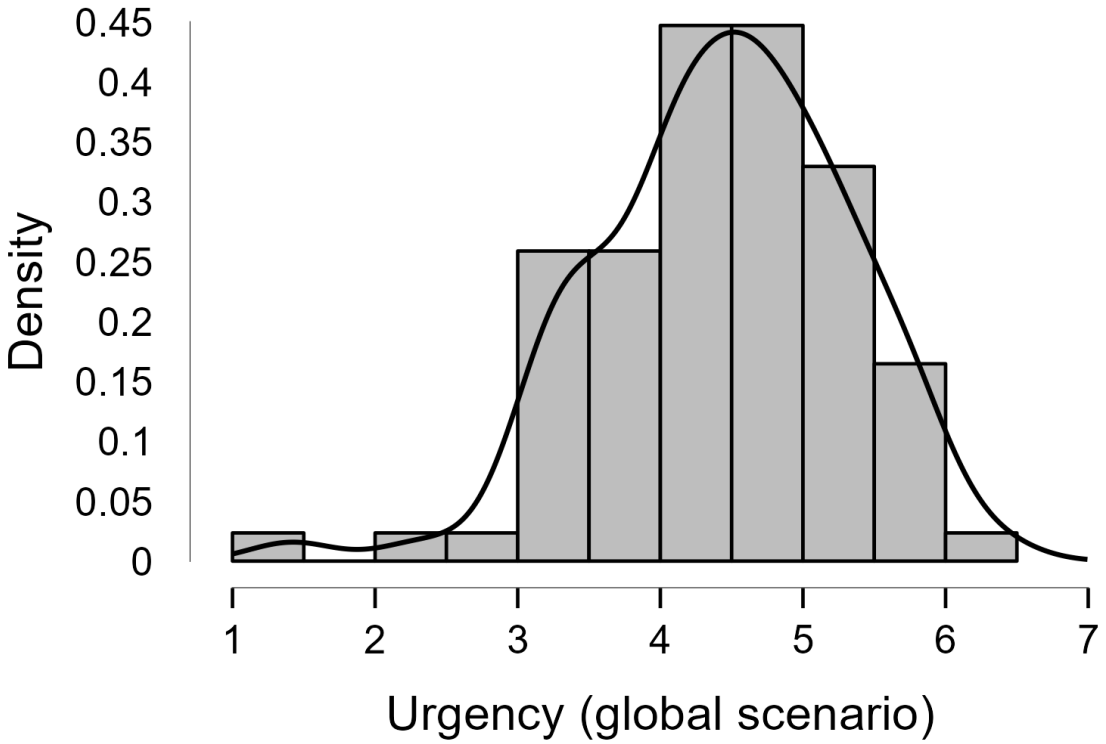

Figure 4.23. Distribution plot of the Urgency of Stakeholders as globally perceived by urban managers.
Note. Own elaboration.

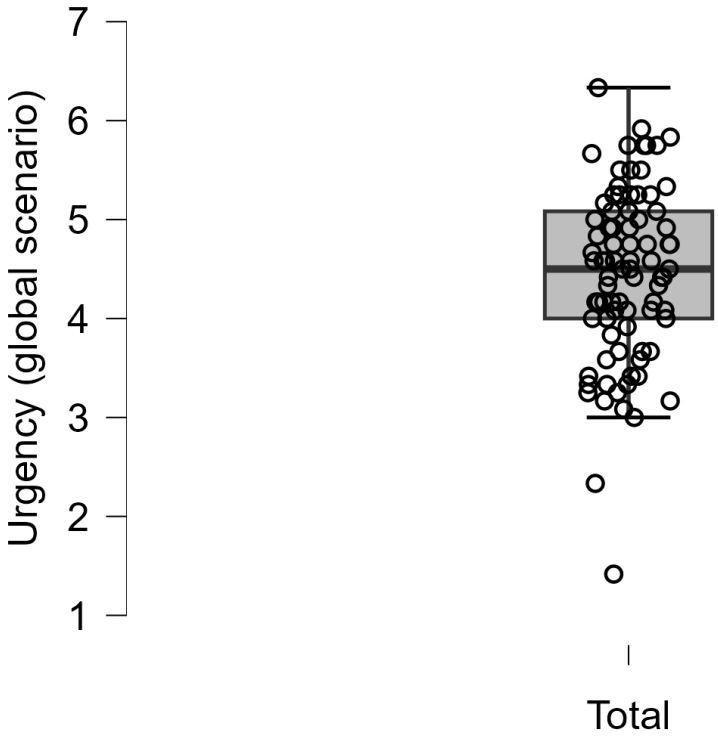

Figure 4.24. Boxplot of the Urgency of Stakeholders as globally perceived by urban managers.
Note. Own elaboration.

The Urgency of the Government. Table 4.30 describes the main statistics of the Urgency of the Government, in which the column GovU is the mean of the sum of its three items in the psychometric scale (GovU1, GovU2, and GovU3). According to all the interviewed urban managers, the Government is an urban-stakeholder type with power in their relations with the urban management since the median (*Mdn* = 4.33) and mean ($\bar{x}$ = 4.35) are above 3.5. However, there is a considerable difference among the respondents because there is a high coefficient of variance (27.2%) and standard deviation (*SD* = 1.186 points).

Table 4.30
Descriptive Statistics of Urgency of the Government

	GovU	***GovU1***	***GovU2***	***GovU3***
Valid	85	85	85	85
Median	4.333	4	5	4
Mean	4.353	4.353	4.647	4.059
Std. Deviation	1.186	1.533	1.548	1.693
Coefficient of variation	0.272	0.352	0.333	0.417
IQR	1.667	3	3	2
Skewness	-0.191	-0.253	-0.292	-0.079
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261
Kurtosis	-0.208	-0.451	-0.747	-0.769
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517
Range	5.667	6	6	6
Minimum	1	1	1	1
Maximum	6.667	7	7	7
25th percentile	3.667	3	3	3
50th percentile	4.333	4	5	4
75th percentile	5.333	6	6	5

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.31 provides descriptive statistics on how urban managers perceive the urgency of the governments over the sample countries. In short, the urgency of government has been similarly perceived among the countries.

Table 4.31
Descriptive Statistics of Urgency of the Government (Countries)

	GovU		
	Brazil	***Israel***	***USA***
Valid	69	6	10
Median	4.333	4.167	4.167
Mean	4.382	4.111	4.3
Std. Deviation	1.217	1.068	1.116
Coefficient of variation	0.278	0.26	0.26
IQR	1.667	0.333	1.167
Skewness	-0.235	-0.452	0.108
Std. Error of Skewness	0.289	0.845	0.687
Kurtosis	-0.23	2.276	0.514
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.57	1.741	1.334
Range	5.667	3.333	4
Minimum	1	2.333	2.333
Maximum	6.667	5.667	6.333
25th percentile	3.667	4	3.75
50th percentile	4.333	4.167	4.167
75th percentile	5.333	4.333	4.917

Note. Own elaboration.

The Urgency of the Industry. Table 4.32 describes the main statistics of the Urgency of the Industry, in which the column IndU is the mean of the sum of its three items in the psychometric scale (IndU1, IndU2, and IndU3). In short, there is no consensus among the interviewed urban managers about the urgency of the industry since the mean ($\bar{x}$ = 3.8) and the median (*Mdn* = 4) are close to 3.5 (i.e., half of the total of 7 points of the applied Likert scale). This rationale is even more sustained by the considerable dispersion of the data (*SD* = 1.26, coefficient of variation of 33.2%).

Table 4.32
Descriptive Statistics of Urgency of the Industry

	IndU	***IndU1***	***IndU2***	***IndU3***
Valid	85	85	85	85
Median	4	4	4	4
Mean	3.808	4.318	3.553	3.553
Std. Deviation	1.262	1.583	1.6	1.531
Coefficient of variation	0.332	0.367	0.45	0.431
IQR	1.667	2	3	3
Skewness	-0.016	-0.044	0.107	-0.143
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261
Kurtosis	-0.179	-0.663	-0.63	-0.835
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517
Range	5.667	6	6	6
Minimum	1	1	1	1
Maximum	6.667	7	7	7
25th percentile	3	3	2	2
50th percentile	4	4	4	4
75th percentile	4.667	5	5	5

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.33 provides descriptive statistics on how urban managers perceive the urgency of the industry in the sample countries. American urban managers have perceived greater urgency in the industry compared to Israeli ones, which in turn, Israeli urban managers have also perceived greater urgency in the industry than Brazilian ones. However, there is a colossal dispersion (considerable standard deviation and coefficient of variation) for the three countries. In this way, in the case of Brazil, the mean and median are very close to 3.5, revealing that the industry is an urban-stakeholder type considered with little urgency for Brazilian urban managers. As for Israeli managers, the median (*Mdn* = 4.3) and the mean ($\bar{x}$ = 3.8) are farther from 3.5, indicating that the industry's claims are perceived as more urgent. As for the American context, the industry claims are even considered more urgent by urban managers since the median (*Mdn* = 4.6) and mean ($\bar{x}$ = 4.4) are much farther than in the case of Israeli and Brazilian urban managers.

Table 4.33
Descriptive Statistics of Urgency of the Industry (Countries)

	IndU		
	Brazil	***Israel***	***USA***
Valid	69	6	10
Median	3.667	4.333	4.667
Mean	3.715	3.889	4.4
Std. Deviation	1.212	1.409	1.489
Coefficient of variation	0.326	0.362	0.338
IQR	1.333	2.167	2
Skewness	-0.026	-0.606	-0.258
Std. Error of Skewness	0.289	0.845	0.687
Kurtosis	0.207	-1.84	-1.008
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.57	1.741	1.334
Range	5.667	3.333	4.333
Minimum	1	2	2
Maximum	6.667	5.333	6.333
25th percentile	3	2.75	3.25
50th percentile	3.667	4.333	4.667
75th percentile	4.333	4.917	5.25

Note. Own elaboration.

The Urgency of the Citizens. Table 4.34 describes the main statistics of Urgency of the Citizens, in which the column CitU is the mean of the sum of its three items in the psychometric scale (CitU1, CitU2, and CitU3). Despite the considerable data dispersion (*SD* = 1.35; Coefficient of variation = 28.7%), thus most urban managers have considered the citizens' claims as urgent (CitU: $\bar{x}$ = 4.7, *Mdn* = 5, *Q1* = 4).

Table 4.34
Descriptive Statistics of Urgency of the Citizens

	CitU	***CitU1***	***CitU2***	***CitU3***
Valid	85	85	85	85
Median	5	5	5	5
Mean	4.718	4.788	4.859	4.506
Std. Deviation	1.355	1.793	1.521	1.532
Coefficient of variation	0.287	0.375	0.313	0.34
IQR	1.667	2	2	2
Skewness	-0.421	-0.587	-0.317	-0.337
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261
Kurtosis	-0.127	-0.601	-0.555	-0.57
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517
Range	6	6	6	6
Minimum	1	1	1	1
Maximum	7	7	7	7
25th percentile	4.	4	4	4
50th percentile	5	5	5	5
75th percentile	5.667	6	6	6

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.35 provides descriptive statistics on how urban managers perceive the urgency of the citizens in the sample countries. The urgency of citizens has been similarly perceived among the countries (because the medians and means of these three countries are considerably close), which have considered the citizens' claims as urgent.

Table 4.35
Descriptive Statistics of Urgency of the Citizens (Countries)

	CitU		
	Brazil	***Israel***	***USA***
Valid	69	6	10
Median	5	4.5	4.667
Mean	4.705	4.889	4.7
Std. Deviation	1.369	1.186	1.478
Coefficient of variation	0.291	0.243	0.314
IQR	1.667	1.25	2.333
Skewness	-0.555	1.328	0.118
Std. Error of Skewness	0.289	0.845	0.687
Kurtosis	0.007	1.445	-1.259
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.57	1.741	1.334
Range	6	3	4.333
Minimum	1	4	2.667
Maximum	7	7	7
25th percentile	4	4	3.5
50th percentile	5	4.5	4.667
75th percentile	5	5.25	5.833

Note. Own elaboration.

The Urgency of the Civil Society. Table 4.36 describes the main statistics of the Urgency of Civil Society, in which the column CivU is the mean of the sum of its three items in the psychometric scale (CivU1, CivU2, and CivU3). The claims of Civil Society have been considered urgent by the urban managers (CivU: $\bar{x}$ = 4.86, *Mdn* = 5, *Q1* = 4.333), despite the considerable data dispersion (*SD* = 1.20; Coefficient of variation = 24.7%).

Table 4.36
Descriptive Statistics of Urgency of the Civil Society

	CivU	***CivU1***	***CivU2***	***CivU3***
Valid	85	85	85	85
Median	5	5	5	5
Mean	4.863	5.153	4.788	4.647
Std. Deviation	1.201	1.402	1.39	1.351
Coefficient of variation	0.247	0.272	0.29	0.291
IQR	1.333	2	2	2
Skewness	-0.546	-0.678	-0.537	-0.394
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261
Kurtosis	0.475	0.022	0.011	-0.138
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517
Range	6	6	6	6
Minimum	1	1	1	1
Maximum	7	7	7	7
25th percentile	4.333	4	4	4
50th percentile	5	5	5	5
75th percentile	5.667	6	6	6

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.37 provides descriptive statistics on how urban managers perceive the urgency of civil society in the sample countries. The urgency of civil society has been similarly perceived among the countries (because the medians and means of these three countries are considerably close), which have considered the claims of civil society as urgent.

Table 4.37
Descriptive Statistics of Urgency of the Civil Society (Countries)

	CivU		
	Brazil	***Israel***	***USA***
Valid	69	6	10
Median	5	4.833	4.667
Mean	4.889	5.111	4.533
Std. Deviation	1.21	1.089	1.259
Coefficient of variation	0.247	0.213	0.278
IQR	1.333	1.083	1.25
Skewness	-0.647	1.158	-0.338
Std. Error of Skewness	0.289	0.845	0.687
Kurtosis	0.68	1.103	-0.453
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.57	1.741	1.334
Range	6	3	4
Minimum	1	4	2.333
Maximum	7	7	6.333
25th percentile	4.333	4.417	4
50th percentile	5	4.833	4.667
75th percentile	5.667	5.5	5.25

Note. Own elaboration.

The Urgency of the Urban-Stakeholder Types: Government, Industry, Citizens, and Civil Society. Table 4.38 shows the descriptive statistics for comparing the urgency of these four urban-stakeholder types. Among the stakeholder types, the respondents consider civil society ($\bar{x}$ = 4.863, *Mdn* =5) and citizens ($\bar{x}$ = 4.718, *Mdn* = 5) as the stakeholder types with the most urgent claims. Although considered urgent, the claims of governments ($\bar{x}$ = 4.353, *Mdn* = 4.33) were classified as less urgent than those from civil society and citizens. Finally, there is no consensus among the respondents that the industry's claims have been urgent (coefficient of variation = 33.2%). However, the industry's claims have been considered less urgent than the three urban-stakeholder types aforementioned, scoring a mean ($\bar{x}$ = 3.808) and median (*Mdn* = 4) close to 3.5 (i.e., a middle ground between not urgent "1" and extremely urgent "7"). Thus, urban managers did not assess the industry's claims as urgent or urgent.

Table 4.38

Urgency of the Urban-Stakeholder Types

	GovU	***IndU***	***CitU***	***CivU***
Valid	85	85	85	85
Median	4.333	4	5	5
Mean	4.353	3.808	4.718	4.863
Std. Deviation	1.186	1.262	1.355	1.201
Coefficient of variation	0.272	0.332	0.287	0.247
IQR	1.667	1.667	1.667	1.333
Skewness	-0.191	-0.016	-0.421	-0.546
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261
Kurtosis	-0.208	-0.179	-0.127	0.475
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517
Range	5.667	5.667	6	6
Minimum	1	1	1	1
Maximum	6.667	6.667	7	7
25th percentile	3.667	3	4.	4.333
50th percentile	4.333	4	5	5
75th percentile	5.333	4.667	5.667	5.667

Note. Own elaboration.

4.5.4.4 LEGITIMACY OF STAKEHOLDERS

In this subsection, I present the general data on how urban managers perceive the legitimacy of stakeholders. Table 4.39 presents the descriptive statistics of stakeholder legitimacy for the global scenario, that is, for all sample countries, sample cities, and urban-stakeholder types analyzed. In general, stakeholders are perceived by urban managers as having legitimacy. The reasons are: first, the median and mean are above 3.5, scoring around 4.58; second, the coefficient of variance is acceptable, 16.8%; and third, the distribution is negatively skewed (-0.573), assuring that most of the responses are distributed in higher scores, that is, higher power perceived by the urban managers (see the distribution plot depicted in Figure 4.25 and the boxplot in Figure 4.26).

Table 4.39
Descriptive statistics of Legitimacy (overall)

	Legitimacy
Valid	85
Median	4.583
Mean	4.577
Std. Deviation	0.771
Coefficient of variation	0.168
IQR	0.917
Skewness	-0.573
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261
Kurtosis	0.901
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517
Range	3.917
Minimum	2.167
Maximum	6.083
25th percentile	4.083
50th percentile	4.583
75th percentile	5

Note. Own elaboration.

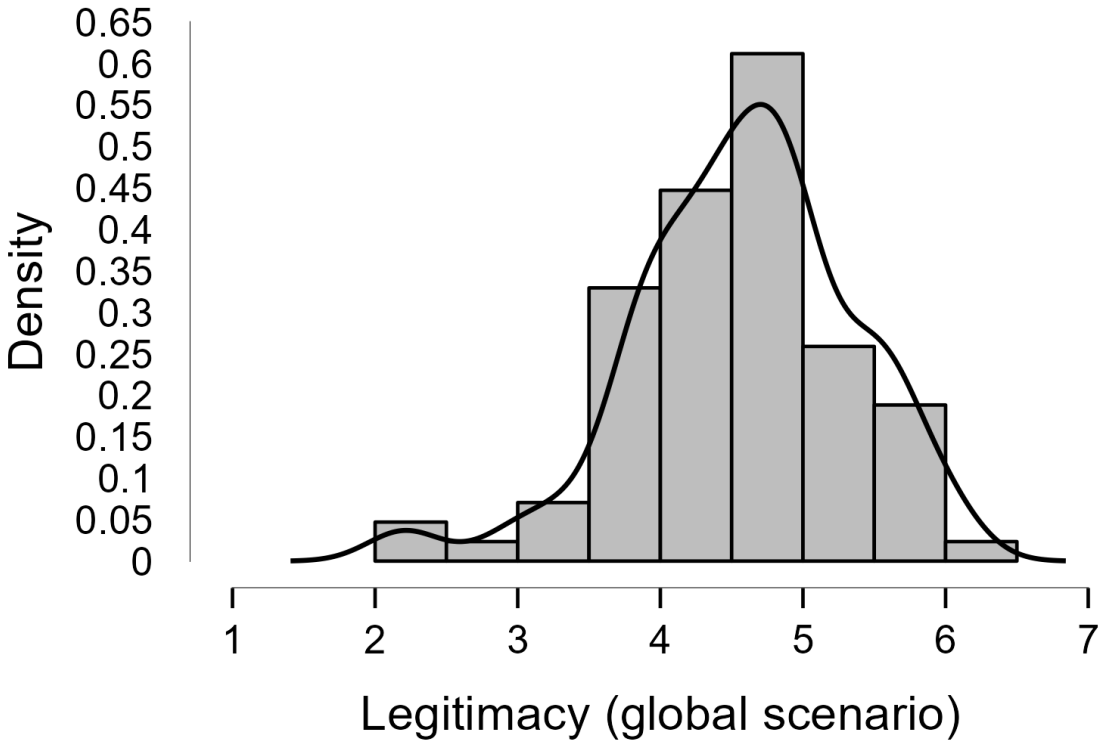

Figure 4.25. Distribution plot of the Legitimacy of Stakeholders as globally perceived by urban managers.
Note. Own elaboration.

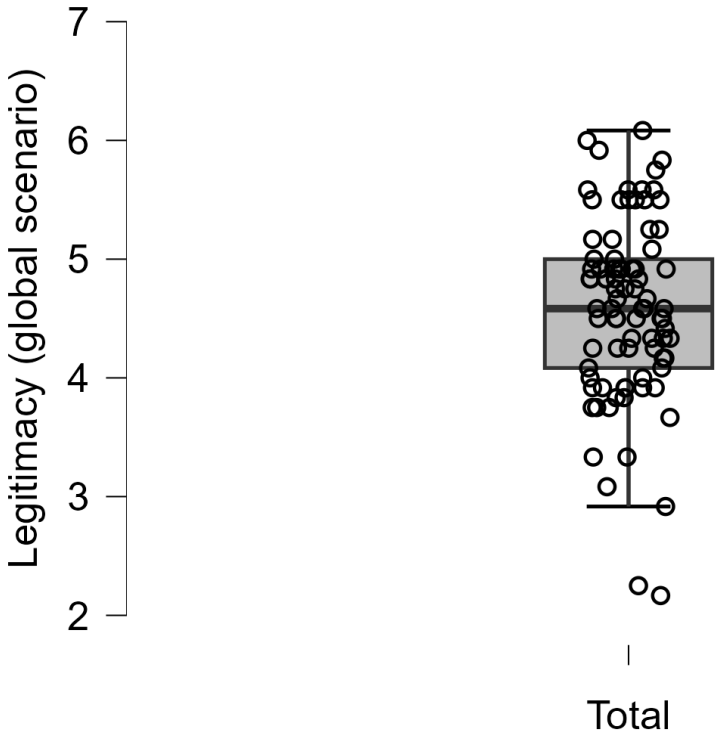

Figure 4.26. Boxplot of the Legitimacy of Stakeholders as globally perceived by urban managers.
Note. Own elaboration.

The Legitimacy of the Government. Table 4.40 describes the main statistics of the Legitimacy of the Government, in which the column GovL is the mean of the sum of its three items in the psychometric scale (GovL1, GovL2, and GovL3). According to all the interviewed urban managers, the Government is considered a legitimate urban-stakeholder type (i.e., not only their relations with the urban management since the median (*Mdn* = 4.33) and mean ($\bar{x}$ = 4.32) are above 3.5. However, there is a considerable difference among the respondents because there is a high coefficient of variance (30.7%) and standard deviation (*SD* = 1.328 points).

Table 4.40
Descriptive Statistics of Legitimacy of the Government

	GovL	***GovL1***	***GovL2***	***GovL3***
Valid	85	85	85	85
Median	4.333	5	4	4
Mean	4.329	4.588	4.212	4.188
Std. Deviation	1.328	1.357	1.489	1.592
Coefficient of variation	0.307	0.296	0.353	0.38
IQR	2	2	2	3
Skewness	-0.317	-0.118	-0.329	-0.135
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261
Kurtosis	-0.515	-0.371	-0.614	-0.938
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517
Range	6	6	6	6
Minimum	1	1	1	1
Maximum	7	7	7	7
25th percentile	3.333	4	3	3
50th percentile	4.333	5	4	4
75th percentile	5.333	6	5	6

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.41 provides descriptive statistics on how urban managers perceive the legitimacy of the governments in the sample countries. In the United States, urban managers consider the government stakeholder type (i.e., not only the municipal government but also at the national and state levels when existing) more legitimate than in Israel and Brazil. However, it is noteworthy that there is a low variance among the American respondents (*SD* = 0.75, and coefficient of variation = 15.2%). At the same time, there is a considerably high variance among the responses of urban managers from Brazil (*SD* = 1.397, and coefficient of variation = 32.8%) and Israel (*SD* = 1.109, and coefficient of variation = 27%). Also, most Israeli and Brazilian urban managers consider governments' claims legitimate, with medians and means lower than in the American scenario.

Table 4.41
Descriptive Statistics of Legitimacy of the Government (Countries)

	GovL		
	Brazil	***Israel***	***USA***
Valid	69	6	10
Median	4.333	4.167	4.833
Mean	4.261	4.111	4.933
Std. Deviation	1.397	1.109	0.75
Coefficient of variation	0.328	0.27	0.152
IQR	2.333	0.833	0.917
Skewness	-0.213	-0.388	-0.275
Std. Error of Skewness	0.289	0.845	0.687
Kurtosis	-0.681	1.149	-0.726
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.57	1.741	1.334
Range	6	3.333	2.333
Minimum	1	2.333	3.667
Maximum	7	5.667	6
25th percentile	3	3.75	4.667
50th percentile	4.333	4.167	4.833
75th percentile	5.333	4.583	5.583

Note. Own elaboration.

The Legitimacy of the Industry. Table 4.42 describes the main statistics of the Legitimacy of the Industry, in which the column IndL is the mean of the sum of its three items in the psychometric scale (IndL1, IndL2, and IndL3). In short, there is no consensus among the interviewed urban managers about the legitimacy of the industry since the mean ($\bar{x}$ = 3.67), and the median (*Mdn* = 4) are close to 3.5, and there is considerable dispersion of the data (*SD* = 1.246, coefficient of variation of 33.9%).

Table 4.42
Descriptive Statistics of Legitimacy of the Industry

	IndL	***IndL1***	***IndL2***	***IndL3***
Valid	85	85	85	85
Median	4	4	4	4
Mean	3.675	3.941	3.541	3.541
Std. Deviation	1.246	1.331	1.468	1.35
Coefficient of variation	0.339	0.338	0.415	0.381
IQR	1.667	2	2	1
Skewness	0.239	0.172	0.241	0.178
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261
Kurtosis	-0.405	-0.133	-0.576	-0.093
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517
Range	5.667	6	6	6
Minimum	1	1	1	1
Maximum	6.667	7	7	7
25th percentile	2.667	3	2	3
50th percentile	4	4	4	4
75th percentile	4.333	5	4	4

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.43 provides descriptive statistics on how urban managers perceive the industry's legitimacy in the sample countries. There is no consensus among the respondents regarding the legitimacy of the claims of the Industry stakeholder type in all sample countries. The considerable high dispersion of the data and the medians and means closer to 3.5 sustain the absence of consensus in all sample countries. Noteworthy is that the legitimacy of the industry is much lower in Brazil (bigger variance and lower median and mean) than in Israel and the US.

Table 4.43
Descriptive Statistics of Legitimacy of the Industry (Countries)

	IndL		
	Brazil	***Israel***	***USA***
Valid	69	6	10
Median	3.667	4	4
Mean	3.604	4.167	3.867
Std. Deviation	1.299	1.13	0.892
Coefficient of variation	0.36	0.271	0.231
IQR	1.667	1.75	0.25
Skewness	0.343	0.369	-0.683
Std. Error of Skewness	0.289	0.845	0.687
Kurtosis	-0.427	-1.696	1.788
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.57	1.741	1.334
Range	5.667	2.667	3.333
Minimum	1	3	2
Maximum	6.667	5.667	5.333
25th percentile	2.667	3.25	3.750
50th percentile	3.667	4	4
75th percentile	4.333	5	4

Note. Own elaboration.

The Legitimacy of the Citizens. Table 4.44 describes the main statistics of the Legitimacy of the Citizens, in which the column CitL is the mean of the sum of its three items in the psychometric scale (CitL1, CitL2, and CitL3). Despite the considerable data dispersion (CitL: *SD* = 1.205; Coefficient of variation = 23%), it is possible to infer that most urban managers have considered the claims of citizens as urgent (CitL: $\bar{x}$ = 5.24, *Mdn* = 5.33), more than 75% of the respondents affirm that the claims of the citizens are highly legitimate (*Q1* = 4.667).

Table 4.44
Descriptive Statistics of Legitimacy of the Citizens

	CitL	***CitL1***	***CitL2***	***CitL3***
Valid	85	85	85	85
Median	5.333	6	5	5
Mean	5.247	5.447	5.059	5.235
Std. Deviation	1.205	1.367	1.45	1.36
Coefficient of variation	0.23	0.251	0.287	0.26
IQR	1.333	2	2	1
Skewness	-0.771	-1.003	-0.584	-0.615
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261
Kurtosis	1.225	1.319	-0.083	0.255
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517
Range	6	6	6	6
Minimum	1	1	1	1
Maximum	7	7	7	7
25th percentile	4.667	5	4	5
50th percentile	5.333	6	5	5
75th percentile	6	7	6	6

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.45 provides descriptive statistics on how urban managers perceive the legitimacy of the citizens in the sample countries. The legitimacy of the citizens' claims has been highly perceived among the countries because the medians and means of these three countries are greater than 3.5. There is a lower coefficient of variation in the Brazilian and American scenarios (21.6% and 19.1% consecutively) than in the Israeli one (41.6%), indicating that the responses in the US and Brazil are more congregated than the Israeli ones. However, in all scenarios, 75% of the respondents agree that the citizens' claims are legitimate (the first quartile [*Q1*] of the respondents marked at least 4 points out of 7). Therefore, even with dispersion, most urban managers of all the sampled countries agree that the citizens' claims are legitimate.

Table 4.45
Descriptive Statistics of Legitimacy of the Citizens (Countries)

	CitL		
	Brazil	***Israel***	***USA***
Valid	69	6	10
Median	5.333	4.667	5
Mean	5.353	4.333	5.067
Std. Deviation	1.159	1.801	0.966
Coefficient of variation	0.216	0.416	0.191
IQR	1.333	1.417	1.917
Skewness	-0.552	-1.529	0.06
Std. Error of Skewness	0.289	0.845	0.687
Kurtosis	0.375	2.697	-2.071
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.57	1.741	1.334
Range	5.333	5	2.333
Minimum	1.667	1	4
Maximum	7	6	6.333
25th percentile	4.667	4.083	4.083
50th percentile	5.333	4.667	5
75th percentile	6	5.5	6

Note. Own elaboration.

The Legitimacy of the Civil Society. Table 4.46 describes the main statistics of the Legitimacy of the Civil Society, in which the column CivL is the mean of the sum of its three items in the psychometric scale (CivL1, CivL2, and CivL3). The claims of Civil Society have been considered legitimate by the urban managers (CivL: $\bar{x}$ = 5.05, *Mdn* = 5, *Q1* = 4.33), despite the considerable data dispersion (*SD* = 1.25; Coefficient of variation = 24.8%).

Table 4.46
Descriptive Statistics of Legitimacy of the Civil Society

	CivL	***CivL1***	***CivL2***	***CivL3***
Valid	85	85	85	85
Median	5	5	5	5
Mean	5.059	5.224	4.953	5
Std. Deviation	1.253	1.392	1.234	1.371
Coefficient of variation	0.248	0.266	0.249	0.274
IQR	1.667	1	2	2
Skewness	-0.848	-0.791	-0.61	-0.851
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261
Kurtosis	1.33	0.686	1.068	0.93
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517
Range	6	6	6	6
Minimum	1	1	1	1
Maximum	7	7	7	7
25th percentile	4.333	5	4	4
50th percentile	5	5	5	5
75th percentile	6	6	6	6

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.47 provides descriptive statistics on how urban managers perceive the legitimacy of civil society in the sample countries. The legitimacy of civil society's claims has been highly perceived by urban managers from Brazil ($\bar{x}$ = 5.2, *Mdn* = 5.33) and the US ($\bar{x}$ = 4.73, *Mdn* = 5). Although more than 75% of the Israeli urban managers consider the civil society's claims legitimate (*Q1* = 4), it is not consensual among all Israeli urban managers (*min* = 1, coefficient of variation = 38.2%, *SD* = 1.48). Therefore, most urban managers consider the claims of civil society as legitimate in all countries. Furthermore, Brazilian urban managers are those of the sample countries with the higher perception that civil society's claims are legitimate, followed by the US and Israel.

Table 4.47
Descriptive Statistics of Legitimacy of the Civil Society (Countries)

	CivL		
	Brazil	***Israel***	***USA***
Valid	69	6	10
Median	5.333	4.167	5
Mean	5.208	3.889	4.733
Std. Deviation	1.225	1.486	0.94
Coefficient of variation	0.235	0.382	0.199
IQR	1.333	0.833	1.25
Skewness	-0.86	-1.946	-0.068
Std. Error of Skewness	0.289	0.845	0.687
Kurtosis	1.236	4.199	-1.265
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.57	1.741	1.334
Range	6	4	2.667
Minimum	1	1	3.333
Maximum	7	5	6
25th percentile	4.667	4	4
50th percentile	5.333	4.167	5
75th percentile	6	4.833	5.25

Note. Own elaboration.

The Legitimacy of the Urban-Stakeholder Types: Government, Industry, Citizens, and Civil Society. Table 4.48 shows the descriptive statistics for comparing the legitimacy of these four urban-stakeholder types. Among the stakeholder types, the respondents consider citizens ($\bar{x}$ = 5.247, *Mdn* = 5.33) and civil society ($\bar{x}$ = 5.059, *Mdn* = 5) as the stakeholder types with the most legitimate claims. Although considered legitimate, the claims of governments ($\bar{x}$ = 4.329, *Mdn*= 4.33) were classified as less legitimate than those from civil society and citizens. Finally, there is no consensus among the respondents that the industry's claims have been legitimate (coefficient of variation = 33.9%).

However, the industry's claims have been considered less legitimate than the three urban-stakeholder types aforementioned, scoring a mean ($\bar{x}$ = 3.675) and median (*Mdn* = 4) close to 3.5 (i.e., a middle ground between not legitimate "1" and highly legitimate "7"). Thus, urban managers did not assess the industry's claims as legitimate or not legitimate.

Table 4.48
Legitimacy of the Urban-Stakeholder Types

	GovL	***IndL***	***CitL***	***CivL***
Valid	85	85	85	85
Median	4.333	4	5.333	5
Mean	4.329	3.675	5.247	5.059
Std. Deviation	1.328	1.246	1.205	1.253
Coefficient of variation	0.307	0.339	0.23	0.248
IQR	2	1.667	1.333	1.667
Skewness	-0.317	0.239	-0.771	-0.848
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261
Kurtosis	-0.515	-0.405	1.225	1.33
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517
Range	6	5.667	6	6
Minimum	1	1	1	1
Maximum	7	6.667	7	7
25th percentile	3.333	2.667	4.667	4.333
50th percentile	4.333	4	5.333	5
75th percentile	5.333	4.333	6	6

Note. Own elaboration.

4.5.4.5 STAKEHOLDER SALIENCE

In this subsection, I present the general data on how urban managers perceive stakeholder salience. Table 4.49 presents the descriptive statistics of stakeholder salience for the global scenario, that is, for all sample countries, sample cities, and urban-stakeholder types analyzed. The respondents have generally perceived the urban-stakeholder types analyzed (government, industry, citizens, and civil society) as salient stakeholders. The reasons are: first, the median and mean are above 3.5, scoring both around 4.6; second, the coefficient of variance is acceptable, 14.1%; and third, the distribution is negatively skewed (-0.573), assuring that most of the responses are distributed in higher scores (*Q1* = 4.25), that is, higher power perceived by the urban managers (see the distribution plot depicted in Figure 4.27 and boxplot in Figure 4.28).

Table 4.49
Descriptive statistics of Stakeholder Salience (overall)

	Stakeholder Salience
Valid	85
Median	4.639
Mean	4.612
Std. Deviation	0.651
Coefficient of variation	0.141
IQR	0.833
Skewness	-0.591
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261
Kurtosis	1.335
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517
Range	3.889
Minimum	2.222
Maximum	6.111
25th percentile	4.25
50th percentile	4.639
75th percentile	5.083

Note. Own elaboration.

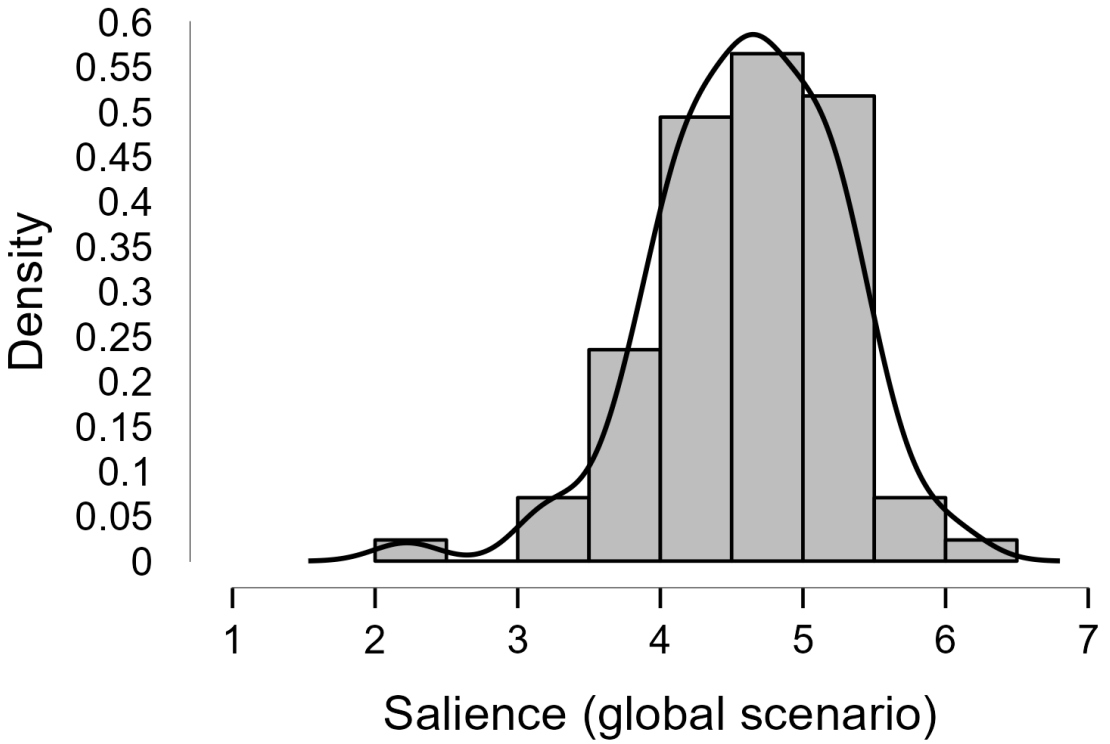

Figure 4.27. Distribution plot of Stakeholder Salience as globally perceived by urban managers.
Note. Own elaboration.

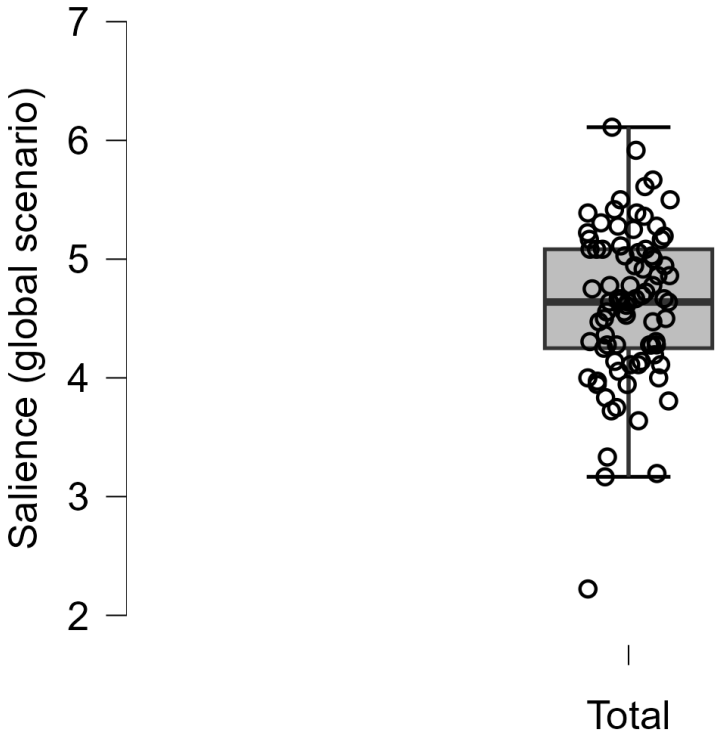

Figure 4.28. Boxplot of Stakeholder Salience as globally perceived by urban managers.
Note. Own elaboration.

The Salience of the Urban-Stakeholder Types: Government, Industry, Citizens, and Civil Society. Table 4.50 describes the main statistics of the Salience of all stakeholder types analyzed in this study. First, the existing variance of the responses of the urban managers about all stakeholder types is acceptable (with a coefficient of variation equal to or less than 22.9%). The data reveals that civil society is the stakeholder type most salient (*Mdn* = 5.11, $\bar{x}$ = 5, *Q1* = 4.44). Citizens are the second most salient stakeholder type (*Mdn* = 4.889, $\bar{x}$ = 4.843). The third most salient stakeholder type is the government (*Mdn* = 4.556, $\bar{x}$ = 4.601). Finally, the industry (*Mdn* = 4, $\bar{x}$ = 4) is in the fourth position. However, the industry has an *SD* of 0.915, in which if the median (*Mdn* = 4) is subtracted by 0.915, the result is 3.085 (below half of the points in the 7-Likert scale applied, i.e., 3.5). Thus, the data reveals that the industry is considered a salient-stakeholder type as the other three (i.e., government, citizens, and civil society).

Table 4.50
Descriptive Statistics of Salience of the Urban-Stakeholder Types (overview)

	GovS	***IndS***	***CitS***	***CivS***
Valid	85	85	85	85
Median	4.556	4	4.889	5.111
Mean	4.601	4.003	4.843	5
Std. Deviation	0.913	0.915	0.915	1.004
Coefficient of variation	0.198	0.229	0.189	0.201
IQR	1.333	1	1.111	1.333
Skewness	-0.399	0.071	-0.124	-0.991
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261
Kurtosis	0.256	1.007	0.02	2.013
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517
Range	4.333	5.222	4.444	5.778
Minimum	2	1.556	2.556	1
Maximum	6.333	6.778	7	6.778
25th percentile	4	3.556	4.333	4.444
50th percentile	4.556	4	4.889	5.111
75th percentile	5.333	4.556	5.444	5.778

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.51 describes the main statistics of the Salience of all urban-stakeholder types analyzed in this study stratified by country. The data reveals that: first, according to the Brazilian urban managers, the most important urban-stakeholder type is civil society (considering the mean and median), and consecutively are the citizens, the government, and the industry; second, as for Israeli urban managers, the mean and median of the four urban-stakeholder types are very similar, in which in the first place, the

government and civil society are the most salient stakeholder-types, and the citizens and the industry are in the second place as the most salient urban-stakeholder types; third, in the US, the government is in the first place, civil society, and citizens (mean and median close to the other) in the second place, and the industry in the third place.

Table 4.51

Descriptive Statistics of Salience of the Urban-Stakeholder Types (stratified by country)

	GovS			***IndS***			***CitS***			***CivS***		
	Brazil	**Israel**	**USA**	**Brazil**	**Israel**	**USA**	**Brazil**	**Israel**	**USA**	**Brazil**	**Israel**	**USA**
Valid	69	6	10	69	6	10	69	6	10	69	6	10
Median	4.44	4.5	4.77	4	4.22	4.33	5	4.27	4.61	5.22	4.44	4.66
Mean	4.59	4.48	4.74	3.92	4.2	4.41	4.88	4.4	4.83	5.11	4.27	4.66
Standard Deviation	0.94	0.92	0.7	0.91	0.95	0.87	0.93	0.62	0.96	1.01	0.71	0.9
Coefficient of Variation	0.20	0.2	0.14	0.23	0.22	0.19	0.19	0.14	0.19	0.19	0.16	0.19
IQR	1.33	1.028	1.25	0.88	1.27	0.94	1.22	0.61	1.13	1	0.72	1.38
Skewness	-0.44	0.38	0.07	0.04	-0.09	0.72	-0.32	0.83	0.81	-1.3	-1.35	0.19
Standard Error of Skewness	0.28	0.84	0.68	0.28	0.84	0.68	0.28	0.84	0.68	0.28	0.84	0.68
Kurtosis	0.3	-0.49	-1.45	1.29	-1.15	0.84	0.14	0.55	0.39	3.16	1.78	-1.69
Standard Error of Kurtosis	0.57	1.74	1.33	0.57	1.74	1.33	0.57	1.74	1.33	0.57	1.74	1.33
Range	4.33	2.55	2	5.22	2.55	3	4.444	1.77	3.22	5.77	1.88	2.44
Minimum	2	3.33	3.77	1.55	2.88	3.22	2.556	3.66	3.55	1	3	3.55
Maximum	6.33	5.88	5.77	6.77	5.44	6.22	7	5.44	6.77	6.77	4.88	6
25th percentile (Q1)	4	3.86	4.08	3.55	3.58	3.91	4.333	4.05	4.22	4.77	4.08	3.83
50th percentile (Q2)	4.44	4.5	4.77	4	4.22	4.33	5	4.27	4.61	5.22	4.44	4.66
75th percentile (Q3)	5.33	4.88	5.33	4.44	4.86	4.86	5.55	4.66	5.36	5.77	4.8	5.22

Note. Own elaboration.

4.5.5 STAKEHOLDER COOPERATION

In this section, I present the descriptive statistics of stakeholder cooperation, the moderator variable between stakeholder salience and urban quality of life. Table 4.52 presents the main descriptive statistics of stakeholder cooperation overall, demonstrating that stakeholder cooperation among all urban-stakeholder types is not consensual among the respondents. This inference is possible due to a considerable data dispersion (coefficient of variation = 21.1%, SD = 0.84) and mean ($\bar{x}$ = 4) and median (Mdn = 4) close to 3.5. Figure 4.29 depicts the distribution plot of stakeholder cooperation overall, and Figure 4.30 shows its box plot.

Table 4.52
Descriptive Statistics of Stakeholder Cooperation (overall)

	Cooperation
Valid	85
Median	4.022
Mean	4.004
Std. Deviation	0.844
Coefficient of variation	0.211
IQR	1.054
Skewness	-0.244
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261
Kurtosis	1.143
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517
Range	5.040
Minimum	1.170
Maximum	6.210
25th percentile	3.429
50th percentile	4.022
75th percentile	4.482

Note. Own elaboration.

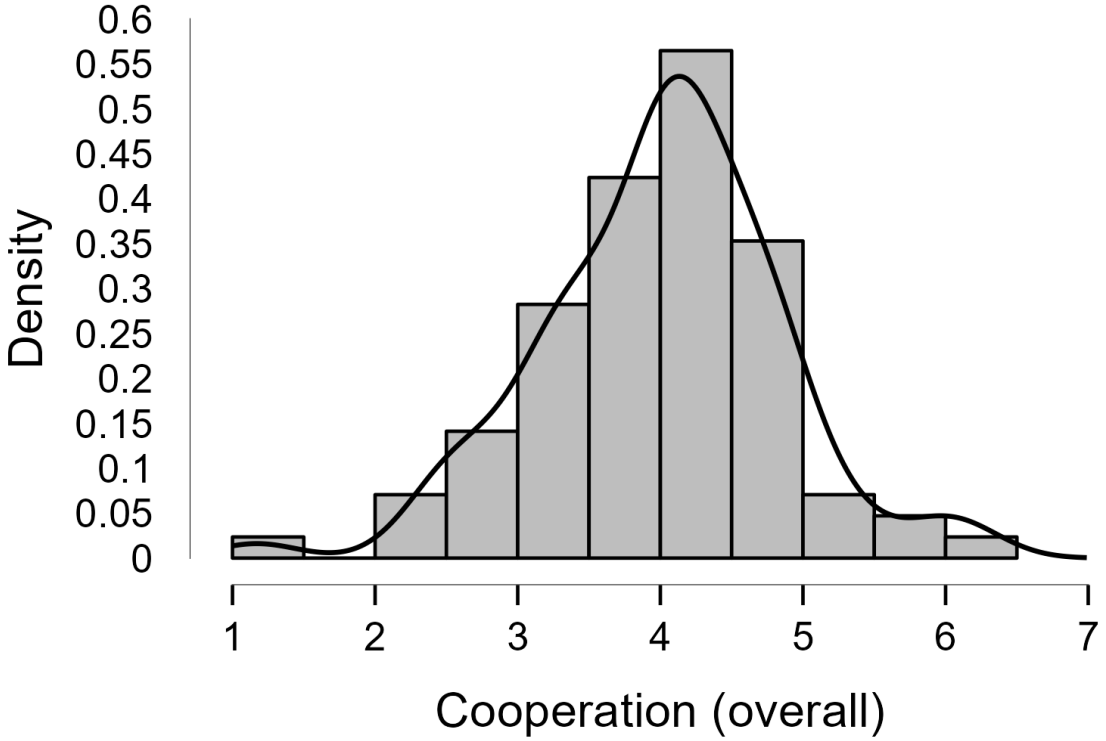

Figure 4.29. Distribution plot of Stakeholder Cooperation as perceived by urban managers overall.
Note. Own elaboration.

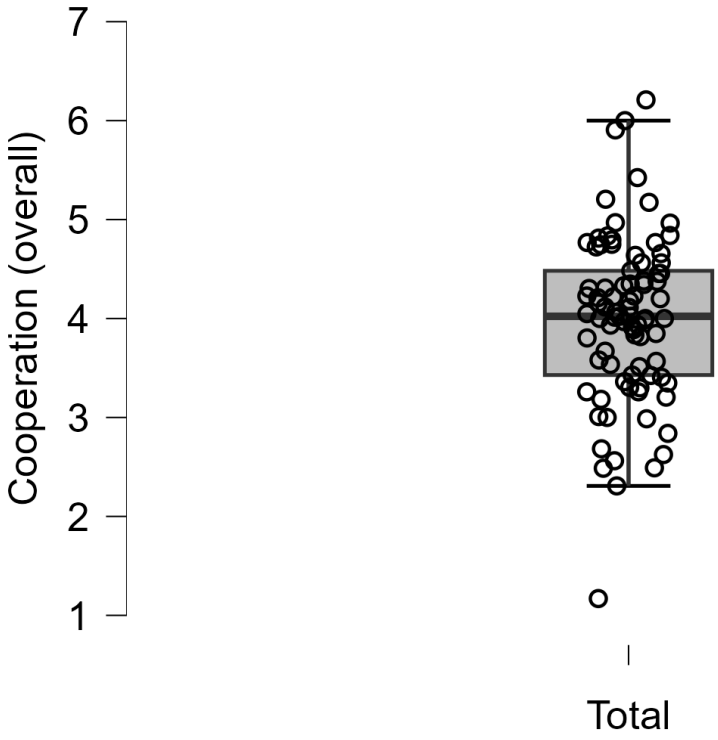

Figure 4.30. Boxplot of Stakeholder Cooperation as perceived by urban managers overall.
Note. Own elaboration.

The Cooperation of the Government. Table 4.53 describes the main statistics of Cooperation of the Government, in which the column GovC is the mean of the sum of its eight items in the psychometric scale (GovC1, GovC2, GovC3, GovC4, GovC5, GovC6, GovC7, and GovC8). There is no consensus among the respondents about government cooperation since some urban managers agree that the government is highly cooperative, while others disagree with this construct. This inference is based on the proximity of the mean ($\bar{x}$ = 3.96) and median (*Mdn* = 4) of GovC to 3.5 and the high data dispersion (coefficient of variation = 32.4%, *SD* = 1.284).

Table 4.53

Descriptive Statistics of Cooperation of the Government

	GovC	***GovC1***	***GovC2***	***GovC3***	***GovC4***	***GovC5***	***GovC6***	***GovC7***	***GovC8***
Valid	85	85	85	85	85	85	85	85	85
Median	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Mean	3.96	4.16	3.98	3.68	4.17	3.83	3.91	4.24	3.68
Standard Deviation	1.28	1.66	1.49	1.58	1.7	1.58	1.65	1.55	1.5
Coefficient of Variation	0.32	0.4	0.37	0.43	0.4	0.41	0.42	0.36	0.41
IQR	1.87	2	2	3	3	2	2	2	2
Skewness	-0.18	-0.14	-0.09	0.17	-0.04	-0.19	-0.12	-0.34	0.19
Standard Error of Skewness	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26
Kurtosis	-0.26	-0.98	-0.86	-0.97	-1.19	-0.66	-0.88	-0.24	-0.61
Standard Error of Kurtosis	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51
Range	5.87	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Minimum	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum	6.87	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
25th percentile (Q1)	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3
50th percentile (Q2)	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
75th percentile (Q3)	4.87	5	5	5	6	5	5	5	5

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.54 provides descriptive statistics on how urban managers perceive the government's cooperation in the sample countries. The responses in all sample countries have a mean and medium close to 3.5 and a high coefficient of variation (only in the case of Brazil and the US). However, even in the Israeli scenario with low dispersion, if the standard deviation subtracts the mean and media, it scores below 3.5. Therefore, there is no consensus among urban managers of the three sample countries about the government's cooperation.

Table 4.54

Descriptive Statistics of Cooperation of the Government (Countries)

	GovC		
	Brazil	***Israel***	***USA***
Valid	69	6	10
Median	4	3.875	4.438
Mean	3.904	4.042	4.313
Std. Deviation	1.289	0.563	1.576
Coefficient of variation	0.33	0.139	0.365
IQR	1.875	0.625	0.969
Skewness	-0.217	1.113	-0.231
Std. Error of Skewness	0.289	0.845	0.687
Kurtosis	-0.485	0.586	0.291
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.57	1.741	1.334
Range	5.5	1.5	5.375
Minimum	1	3.5	1.5
Maximum	6.5	5	6.875
25th percentile	3	3.656	3.906
50th percentile	4	3.875	4.438
75th percentile	4.875	4.281	4.875

Note. Own elaboration.

The Cooperation of the Industry. Table 4.55 describes the main statistics of Cooperation of the Industry, in which the column IndC is the mean of the sum of its eight items in the psychometric scale (IndC1, IndC2, IndC3, IndC4, IndC5, IndC6, IndC7, and IndC8). There is no consensus among the respondents about industry cooperation. This inference is based on the proximity of the mean ($\bar{x}$ = 3.43) and median (*Mdn* = 3.5) of IndC to 3.5 and the high data dispersion (coefficient of variation = 32.7%, *SD* = 1.124).

Table 4.55

Descriptive Statistics of Cooperation of the Industry

	IndC	***IndC1***	***IndC2***	***IndC3***	***IndC4***	***IndC5***	***IndC6***	***IndC7***	***IndC8***
Valid	85	85	85	85	85	85	85	85	85
Median	3.5	4	3	3	4	3	3	4	3
Mean	3.43	3.56	3.23	2.95	3.61	3.35	3.51	3.88	3.35
Standard Deviation	1.12	1.59	1.3	1.34	1.52	1.34	1.36	1.47	1.31
Coefficient of Variation	0.32	0.44	0.42	0.45	0.42	0.4	0.38	0.38	0.39
IQR	1.12	3	2	2	2	1	1	2	2
Skewness	0.07	0.05	0.11	0.47	0.16	0.08	0.3	-0.06	0.34
Standard Error of Skewness	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.2	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26
Kurtosis	0.85	-0.81	-0.3	-0.05	-0.65	-0.03	0.06	-0.21	-0.12
Standard Error of Kurtosis	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51
Range	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Minimum	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
25th percentile (Q1)	2.87	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	2
50th percentile (Q2)	3.5	4	3	3	4	3	3	4	3
75th percentile (Q3)	4	5	4	4	5	4	4	5	4

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.56 provides descriptive statistics on how urban managers perceive industry cooperation in the sample countries. The responses in all sample countries have a mean and medium close to 3.5 and a high coefficient of variation (only in the case of Brazil and the US). However, even in the Israeli scenario with low dispersion, if the standard deviation subtracts the mean and media, it scores below 3.5. Therefore, there is no consensus among urban managers of the three sample countries about the cooperation of the industry.

Table 4.56
Descriptive Statistics of Cooperation of the Industry (Countries)

	IndC		
	Brazil	***Israel***	***USA***
Valid	69	6	10
Median	3.5	3.688	3.375
Mean	3.413	3.729	3.4
Std. Deviation	1.144	0.78	1.227
Coefficient of variation	0.335	0.209	0.361
IQR	1.125	1.094	1.313
Skewness	0.152	-0.192	-0.157
Std. Error of Skewness	0.289	0.845	0.687
Kurtosis	1.013	-1.421	0.42
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.57	1.741	1.334
Range	6	2	4.375
Minimum	1	2.625	1.125
Maximum	7.0	4.625	5.5
25th percentile	2.875	3.281	2.781
50th percentile	3.5	3.688	3.375
75th percentile	4	4.375	4.094

Note. Own elaboration.

The Cooperation of the Citizens. Table 4.57 describes the main statistics of Cooperation of the Citizens, in which the column CitC is the mean of the sum of its eight items in the psychometric scale (CitC1, CitC2, CitC3, CitC4, CitC5, CitC6, CitC7, and CitC8). There is no consensus among the respondents about government cooperation since some urban managers agree that the government is highly cooperative, and others disagree with this construct. This inference is based on the proximity of the mean ($\bar{x}$ = 4.12) and median (*Mdn* = 4.14) of CitC to 3.5 and the considerable data dispersion (coefficient of variation = 23%, *SD* = 0.948).

Table 4.57

Descriptive Statistics of Cooperation of the Citizens

	CitC	***CitC1***	***CitC2***	***CitC3***	***CitC4***	***CitC5***	***CitC6***	***CitC7***	***CitC8***
Valid	85	85	85	85	85	85	85	85	85
Median	4.14	5	4	4	5	4	3	4	4
Mean	4.12	4.55	3.96	4.5	4.42	4.07	3.34	4.03	3.81
Standard Deviation	0.94	1.66	1.41	1.31	1.34	1.46	1.41	1.41	1.45
Coefficient of Variation	0.23	0.36	0.35	0.29	0.3	0.35	0.42	0.35	0.38
IQR	0.85	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	2
Skewness	-0.22	-0.58	-0.21	-0.2	-0.72	-0.33	0.38	-0.01	0.05
Standard Error of Skewness	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26
Kurtosis	0.73	-0.39	-0.51	0.60	0.40	-0.57	-0.16	-0.37	-0.6
Standard Error of Kurtosis	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51
Range	5.28	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Minimum	1.42	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum	6.71	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
25th percentile (Q1)	3.71	4	3	4	4	3	2	3	3
50th percentile (Q2)	4.14	5	4	4	5	4	3	4	4
75th percentile (Q3)	4.57	6	5	5	5	5	4	5	5

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.58 provides descriptive statistics on how urban managers perceive the cooperation of the citizens in the sample countries. Although the median and mean are bigger than 3.5 in Brazil and the US, the standard deviation has enough dispersion to reach below 3.5, indicating thus that although there is a weak tendency to perceive the citizens as cooperative, the discordance among the urban managers' perceptions is high enough to infer that there is no consensus among the urban managers about citizens' cooperation. In the case of Israel, the median (*Mdn* = 3.5) and the mean ($\bar{x}$ = 3.66) are close to 3.5, and the coefficient of variation is high (32.3%). Thus, there is also no consensus among Israeli urban managers about citizens' cooperation. Therefore, there is no consensus among the urban managers from all the sample countries about citizens' cooperation.

Table 4.58

Descriptive Statistics of Cooperation of the Citizens (Countries)

	CitC		
	Brazil	***Israel***	***USA***
Valid	69	6	10
Median	4.143	3.500	4.071
Mean	4.149	3.667	4.257
Std. Deviation	0.952	1.184	0.776
Coefficient of variation	0.229	0.323	0.182
IQR	0.857	1.857	0.571
Skewness	-0.313	0.348	1.306
Std. Error of Skewness	0.289	0.845	0.687
Kurtosis	1.035	-1.946	2.091
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.570	1.741	1.334
Range	5.286	2.857	2.714
Minimum	1.429	2.429	3.286
Maximum	6.714	5.286	6.000
25th percentile	3.714	2.679	3.893
50th percentile	4.143	3.500	4.071
75th percentile	4.571	4.536	4.464

Note. Own elaboration.

The Cooperation of the Civil Society. Table 4.59 describes the main statistics of Cooperation of the Civil Society, in which the column CivC is the mean of the sum of its eight items in the psychometric scale (CivC1, CivC2, CivC3, CivC4, CivC5, CivC6, CivC7, and CivC8). There is no consensus among the respondents about government cooperation since some urban managers agree that the government is highly cooperative, and others disagree with this construct. This inference is based on the proximity of the mean ($\bar{x}$ = 4.49) and median (*Mdn* = 4.37) of CivC to 3.5 and the considerable data dispersion (coefficient of variation = 24%, *SD* = 1.07).

Table 4.59

Descriptive Statistics of Cooperation of the Civil Society

	CivC	***CivC1***	***CivC2***	***CivC3***	***CivC4***	***CivC5***	***CivC6***	***CivC7***	***CivC8***
Valid	85	85	85	85	85	85	85	85	85
Median	4.37	5	4	5	5	5	4	5	4
Mean	4.49	4.54	4.20	4.52	4.64	4.56	4.45	4.74	4.25
Standard Deviation	1.07	1.46	1.51	1.39	1.23	1.29	1.38	1.34	1.47
Coefficient of Variation	0.24	0.32	0.36	0.3	0.26	0.28	0.31	0.28	0.34
IQR	1.25	2	2.00	1	2	2	1	2	2
Skewness	-0.07	-0.29	-0.26	-0.34	-0.27	-0.41	-0.1	-0.2	-0.27
Standard Error of Skewness	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26
Kurtosis	0.45	-0.64	-0.65	-0.07	0.46	-0.01	-0.47	-0.23	-0.11
Standard Error of Kurtosis	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51	0.51
Range	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Minimum	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
25th percentile (Q1)	3.87	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	3
50th percentile (Q2)	4.37	5	4	5	5	5	4	5	4
75th percentile (Q3)	5.12	6	5	5	6	6	5	6	5

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.60 provides descriptive statistics on how urban managers perceive civil society cooperation in the sample countries. Data dispersion varies among the sample countries: While in Israel, there is a low dispersion (coefficient of variation = 12%, *SD* = 0.494), Brazil and the US have a considerable dispersion (coefficient of variation >20%, and *SD* >.95). If the mean is subtracted by the standard deviation, in the case of Israel the number resulted is 3.631, and in the case of the US the result is 3.71, although slightly bigger than 3.5, this size is not so big and it is very close to 3.5. Thus, it is possible to infer that although Israeli and American urban managers are prone to feel that civil society cooperates with urban management, there is not a consensus among them. In other words, it is impossible to conclude that most Israeli and American urban managers agree and disagree on civil society's cooperation. This inference can also be applied to the Brazilian context since the mean subtracted by standard deviation results in 3.366, below 3.5.

Table 4.60
Descriptive Statistics of Cooperation of the Civil Society (Countries)

	CivC		
	Brazil	***Israel***	***USA***
Valid	69	6	10
Median	4.375	4.063	4.938
Mean	4.500	4.125	4.662
Std. Deviation	1.133	0.494	0.952
Coefficient of variation	0.252	0.120	0.204
IQR	1.250	0.313	1.063
Skewness	-0.090	0.029	-0.511
Std. Error of Skewness	0.289	0.845	0.687
Kurtosis	0.398	1.257	-0.629
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.570	1.741	1.334
Range	6.000	1.500	2.875
Minimum	1.000	3.375	3.125
Maximum	7.000	4.875	6.000
25th percentile	3.875	4.000	4.125
50th percentile	4.375	4.063	4.938
75th percentile	5.125	4.313	5.188

Note. Own elaboration.

Therefore, no urban-stakeholder type analyzed in this study was considered cooperative by most urban managers. The absence of consensus about stakeholder cooperation appears not only in the overall scenario but also regarding the four urban-stakeholder types analyzed.

4.5.6 VALUES OF URBAN MANAGERS

This subsection about the values of urban managers is divided into two subsections. The first subsection provides the results on self-regarding values, and the second on other-regarding values. In short, urban managers have scored high in both self-regarding and other-regarding values regardless of their countries.

4.5.6.1 SELF-REGARDING VALUES

In this subsection, I present the results of the self-regarding values of the urban managers of the sample. Table 4.61 presents the descriptive statistics on the Self-Regarding Values of urban managers, in which SRV is the mean of the sum of SRV1, SRV2, and SRV3. The results reveal that, in general, urban managers have self-regarding values. Remarkably, more than 75% of the respondents scored equal or higher than 5 points out of 7 (i.e., 25th percentile) in SRV.

Table 4.61
Descriptive Statistics of Self-Regarding Values

	SRV	***SRV1***	***SRV2***	***SRV3***
Valid	85	85	85	85
Median	5.667	6.000	5.000	6.000
Mean	5.725	6.129	5.129	5.918
Std. Deviation	0.929	0.985	1.316	1.217
Coefficient of variation	0.162	0.161	0.257	0.206
IQR	1.333	1.000	2.000	2.000
Skewness	-0.575	-0.954	-0.437	-1.381
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261
Kurtosis	0.221	0.219	0.290	2.372
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517
Range	4.000	4.000	6.000	6.000
Minimum	3.000	3.000	1.000	1.000
Maximum	7.000	7.000	7.000	7.000
25th percentile	5.000	6.000	4.000	5.000
50th percentile	5.667	6.000	5.000	6.000
75th percentile	6.333	7.000	6.000	7.000

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.62 presents the main descriptive statistics of SRV stratified by countries. Again, the results are similar to SRV because, in all sample countries, the urban managers scored in the direction of high self-regarding values.

Table 4.62

Descriptive Statistics of Self-Regarding Values (Stratified by Countries)

	SRV		
	Brazil	***Israel***	***USA***
Valid	69	6	10
Median	6.000	5.500	5.167
Mean	5.797	5.722	5.233
Std. Deviation	0.924	1.143	0.754
Coefficient of variation	0.159	0.200	0.144
IQR	1.333	1.333	0.833
Skewness	-0.800	-0.211	0.392
Std. Error of Skewness	0.289	0.845	0.687
Kurtosis	0.768	-0.445	0.463
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.570	1.741	1.334
Range	4.000	3.000	2.667
Minimum	3.000	4.000	4.000
Maximum	7.000	7.000	6.667
25th percentile	5.333	5.333	4.750
50th percentile	6.000	5.500	5.167
75th percentile	6.667	6.667	5.583

Note. Own elaboration.

4.5.6.2 OTHER-REGARDING VALUES

In this subsection, I present the results on other-regarding values of the urban managers of the sample. Table 4.63 presents the descriptive statistics on Other-Regarding Values of urban managers, in which ORV is the mean of the sum of ORV1, OSRV2, and ORV3. The results reveal that, in general, urban managers have other-regarding values. Remarkably, more than 75% of the respondents scored equal to or higher than 6 points out of 7 points (i.e., the first quartile) in SRV.

Table 4.63
Descriptive Statistics of Other-Regarding Values

	ORV	***ORV1***	***ORV2***	***ORV3***	***ORV4***
Valid	85	85	85	85	85
Median	6.750	7.000	7.000	7.000	7.000
Mean	6.332	6.212	6.459	6.494	6.165
Std. Deviation	0.897	1.103	0.958	0.881	1.174
Coefficient of variation	0.142	0.178	0.148	0.136	0.190
IQR	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
Skewness	-1.769	-1.688	-1.959	-2.012	-1.369
Std. Error of Skewness	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261	0.261
Kurtosis	2.878	2.762	3.464	3.855	0.871
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517	0.517
Range	4.000	5.000	4.000	4.000	4.000
Minimum	3.000	2.000	3.000	3.000	3.000
Maximum	7.000	7.000	7.000	7.000	7.000
25th percentile	6.000	6.000	6.000	6.000	6.000
50th percentile	6.750	7.000	7.000	7.000	7.000
75th percentile	7.000	7.000	7.000	7.000	7.000

Note. Own elaboration.

Table 4.64 presents the main descriptive statistics of ORV stratified by countries. Again, the results are similar to ORV because, in all sample countries, the urban managers scored in the direction of high self-regarding values.

Table 4.64

Descriptive Statistics of Self-Regarding Values (Stratified by Countries)

	ORV		
	Brazil	***Israel***	***USA***
Valid	69	6	10
Median	6.750	6.875	5.750
Mean	6.442	5.958	5.800
Std. Deviation	0.783	1.520	1.046
Coefficient of variation	0.121	0.255	0.180
IQR	0.750	2.313	1.500
Skewness	-2.303	-0.951	-0.471
Std. Error of Skewness	0.289	0.845	0.687
Kurtosis	6.595	-1.878	-0.884
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.570	1.741	1.334
Range	4.000	3.000	3.000
Minimum	3.000	4.000	4.000
Maximum	7.000	7.000	7.000
25th percentile	6.250	4.688	5.188
50th percentile	6.750	6.875	5.750
75th percentile	7.000	7.000	6.688

Note. Own elaboration.

4.5.7 BAYESIAN CORRELATION MATRIX

Table 4.65 (next page, the table covers the full page) shows the Bayesian Pearson Correlations of the variables used in the model.

Table 4.65

Bayesian Pearson Correlations (Variables of the Model)

Variable		*QLI*	*RPO*	*P*	*U*	*L*	*S*	*C*	*SRV*	*ORV*
1. *QLI*	*r*	—								
	ULCI	—								
	LLCI	—								
2. *RPO*	*r*	0.124	—							
	ULCI	0.292	—							
	LLCI	-0.057	—							
3. *P*	*r*	-0.086	-0.067	—						
	ULCI	0.094	0.112	—						
	LLCI	-0.256	-0.239	—						
4. *U*	*r*	0.026	0.086	0.543	—					
	ULCI	0.201	0.257	0.651	—					
	LLCI	-0.152	-0.094	0.394	—					
5. *L*	*r*	-0.097	0.179	0.415	0.411	—				
	ULCI	0.083	0.341	0.546	0.542	—				
	LLCI	-0.267	-0.001	0.248	0.243	—				
6. *S*	*r*	-0.061	0.082	0.814	0.832	0.748	—			
	ULCI	0.118	0.253	0.863	0.876	0.812	—			
	LLCI	-0.234	-0.097	0.735	0.758	0.647	—			
7. *C*	*r*	-0.009	0.111	0.495	0.456	0.586	0.638	—		
	ULCI	0.168	0.280	0.612	0.579	0.685	0.726	—		
	LLCI	-0.185	-0.069	0.338	0.293	0.444	0.507	—		
8. *SRV*	*r*	-0.097	0.191	0.133	0.173	0.231	0.223	0.088	—	
	ULCI	0.084	0.352	0.300	0.335	0.388	0.380	0.259	—	
	LLCI	-0.266	0.011	-0.047	-0.008	0.052	0.043	-0.092	—	
9. *ORV*	*r*	-0.104	0.045	0.095	0.168	0.317	0.239	0.238	0.61	—
	ULCI	0.076	0.219	0.265	0.331	0.462	0.394	0.394	0.704	—
	LLCI	-0.274	-0.134	-0.085	-0.013	0.141	0.060	0.059	0.473	—

Note. Own elaboration. *r* = Pearson's R Coefficient. ULCI = Upper Limit of 90% Credible Interval. LLCI = Lower Limit of 90% Credible Interval. *QLI* = Quality of Life Index. *RPO* = Right Political Orientation. *P* = Power. *U* = Urgency. *L* = Legitimacy. *S* = Stakeholder Salience. *C* = Cooperation. *SRV* = Self-Regarding Values. *ORV* = Other-Regarding Values.

In order to analyze the *effect size* (ES) of the Pearson's regression coefficients, I considered the widely known Cohen's guidelines (Cohen, 1988), in which:

- Ignored ($0 \leq ES < 0.2$);
- Small ($0.2 \leq ES < 0.5$);
- Medium ($0.5 \leq ES < 0.8$);
- Large ($0.8 \leq ES < 1.3$); and
- Very large ($1.3 \leq ES$).

The correlation results are aligned with two positive relationships hypothesized in the research model (which were italicized in this paragraph). In sum, these results revealed that: (1) *there is anecdotal evidence supporting a positive relationship between other-regarding values and stakeholder salience* (H1a); (2) there is no evidence supporting a positive relationship between self-regarding values and power (H1b); (3) there is no evidence supporting a positive relationship between other-regarding values and urgency (H1c); (4) there is no evidence supporting a positive relationship between self-regarding values and urgency (H1d); (5) *there is moderate evidence supporting a positive relationship between other-regarding values and legitimacy* (H1e); (6) there is no evidence supporting that stakeholder salience is positively related to urban quality of life (H2).

It is noteworthy to highlight that legitimacy is one of the three attributes of stakeholder salience, and for this reason, stakeholder salience has anecdotal evidence for H1a since legitimacy has moderate evidence for H1e. In other words, other-regarding values are potentially relevant for the managerial perception of stakeholder legitimacy. In turn, as legitimacy is one of the three stakeholder salience attributes, it is also potentially relevant for explaining why other-regarding values are also relevant for the managerial perception of stakeholder salience.

4.5.8 BAYESIAN REGRESSION MODELS

In this subsection, I present the results of the Bayesian Regression Models. Table 4.66 (covering all the next page) shows the results of the mean ($\bar{x}$) and the CI 90% of the four regression models used for hypothesis testing. As previously explained in subsection

4.8.6: Model 1 is based on the power attribute of stakeholder salience; Model 2 is based on the urgency attribute of stakeholder salience; Model 3 is based on the legitimacy attribute of stakeholder salience; and finally, Model 4 is based on stakeholder salience with its all three attributes.

Table 4.66
Bayesian Regression Models

Variable	**Models**			
	Model 1 (Power)	***Model 2 (Urgency)***	***Model 3 (Legitimacy)***	***Model 4: (Salience)***
Intercept (VM)	4.21[3.09, 5.33]	3.13[1.96, 4.28]	2.58[1.58, 3.59]	9.97[7.42, 12.56]
Intercept (QLI)	137.6[85.5 187.7]	122.7[76.1, 169.27]	138.7[89.45, 186.4]	134.03[78.1, 189.6]
SRV (VM)	.12[-0.084, 0.32]	.08[-0.15, 0.30]	.01[-0.17, 0.20]	.23[-0.27, 0.72]
ORV (VM)	.016[-0.188, 0.214]	.11[-0.12, 0.32]	.26[0.07, 0.45]	.37[-0.13, 0.87]
RPO (VM)	-0.056[-0.16, 0.05]	.04[-0.07, 0.15]	.09[-0.01, 0.18]	.07[-0.17, 0.31]
VM (QLI)	-1.614[-7.22, 4.18]	.86[-4.21, 5.93]	-2.67[-8.74, 3.42]	-0.53[-3.01, 1.84]
Age (QLI)	-0.074[-4.15, 3.94]	.18[-3.58, 4.08]	.35[-3.72, 4.46]	.11[-3.96, 4.21]
GM (QLI)	1.24[-7.64, 10.34]	1.67[-7.24, 10.61]	2.46[-6.48, 11.68]	1.46[-7.55, 10.6]
Educ. (QLI)	3.6[-4.99, 12.06]	3.47[-5.48, 12.39]	2.92[-6.02, 11.57]	3.05[-5.99, 12.29]

Note. Own elaboration. Data presentation of the Bayes Factor: Mean[90% CI: 5%, 95%]. *QLI* = Quality of Life Index. *SRV* = Self-Regarding Values. *ORV* = Other-Regarding Values. *RPO* = Right Political Orientation. *GM* = Gender Male. *Educ.* = Educational Level. *MV* = Variable-based Model. Power is the VM of Model 1. Urgency is the VM of Model 2. Legitimacy is the VM of model 3. Stakeholder Salience is the VM of Model 4.

In the first model, self-regarding values have a considerable positive relationship with power (90% CI [-0.084, 0.319], $\bar{x}$ = 0.120, *Mdn* = 0.122, *SD* = 0.121), thus *supporting H1b*. In other words, self-regarding values are positively related to the stakeholder salience attribute of power as perceived by urban managers.

However, the data did not reveal any possible association among the tested variables in the second and fourth models because the 90% credible interval captures a null effect, i.e., the interval of all coefficients overlaps zero in these two models. As the second model uses urgency as a mediator, only this model was able to test *H1c* and *H1d*, which in turn, were *not supported*. In this way, the results revealed that the perception of stakeholder urgency by urban managers did not reveal a relationship between either other-regarding values (H1c) or self-regarding values (H1d).

Furthermore, since the fourth model uses stakeholder salience as a mediator, only this model was able to test *H1a*, *H2*, and *H3*, which in turn, were *not supported*. In this way, the results revealed that: first, other-regarding values did reveal a relationship among the set of the three attributes of stakeholder salience altogether; second, stakeholder salience did not reveal a relationship with urban quality of life; and third, as perceived by urban managers, stakeholder cooperation did not reveal moderation between stakeholder salience and urban quality of life.

Finally, other-regarding values have a positive association with legitimacy in the third model (90% CI [0.071, 0.451], $\bar{x}$ = 0.256, *Mdn* = 0.255, *SD* = 0.115), thus *supporting H1e*. This regression result is also endorsed by the correlation result for the relationship between these two variables, *r*(0.317), BF_{10} = 9.92. Thus, other-regarding values are positively related to the stakeholder salience attribute of legitimacy. Furthermore, the control variable RPO has a weak positive relation to legitimacy (90% CI [-0.005, 0.183], $\bar{x}$ = 0.086, *Mdn* = 0.085, *SD* = 0.057), which is also possibly a spurious relationship.

Table 4.67 summarizes the results of testing the model hypotheses presented in this section.

Table 4.67
Results of testing the Model Hypotheses

Hypotheses	***Result***
H1a	Not Supported
H1b	Supported (Model 1)
H1c	Not Supported
H1d	Not Supported
H1e	Supported (Model 3)
H2	Not Supported
H3	Not Supported

Note. Own elaboration.

In short, findings revealed that self-regarding values are positively related to the perception of stakeholder power and other-regarding values are positively related to legitimacy. These results endorse two main points highlighted by the study of Boesso and Kumar (2016): power as a relevant attribute of stakeholder salience in egoistic-stakeholder-organizational culture (self-regarding values); and legitimacy as a relevant attribute in moralist-stakeholder-organizational culture (other-regarding values). The following section discusses in-depth the research findings with the literature.

4.6. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This section discusses and presents the theoretical, practical, and social implications and research contributions, as well as concludes this chapter, which was divided into three subsections. The first subsection advances the field of Urban Studies and Political Science. The second one advances the field of Strategic Management. Finally, the last one concludes this chapter, exposes the limitations, and proposes an agenda for future studies.

4.6.1 URBAN STUDIES AND POLITICAL SCIENCE: URBAN MANAGEMENT AND GOVERNANCE

First, the fact that stakeholder salience, power, urgency, and legitimacy of the urban stakeholders are not related to urban quality of life (i.e., H2 not supported) provides many implications for urban management and governance. Urban governance is a complex system in which different urban-stakeholder types have distinct degrees of salience, power, urgency, and legitimacy, but these factors are not relevant to fostering the quality of life in cities. Although stakeholder salience can be useful in municipal

strategic management for identifying and prioritizing urban stakeholders (Freeman et al., 2010; Beck & Storopoli, 2021a), it is an inappropriate tool for urban managers aiming to improve urban quality of life.

Second, most respondents (urban managers) agree that: (1) the government and the civil society are the most powerful urban-stakeholder types; (2) the civil society and citizens are the urban-stakeholder types with the most urgency and legitimacy. Also, there is considerable divergence among the respondents about: (1) the power of Industry and citizens; and (2) the urgency and legitimacy of government and Industry. By applying the stakeholder typologies developed by Mitchell et al. (1997) to the findings of this doctoral dissertation, it is possible to define (also see Figure 4.31): (1) *Government as a Dormant Stakeholder*; (2) *Civil Society as a Definitive Stakeholder*; and (3) *Citizens as a Dependent Stakeholder*. As there was divergence about all these attributes of the *Industry*, this urban-stakeholder type is considered a non-salient-stakeholder type. The following paragraphs dive into these findings by discussing the literature.

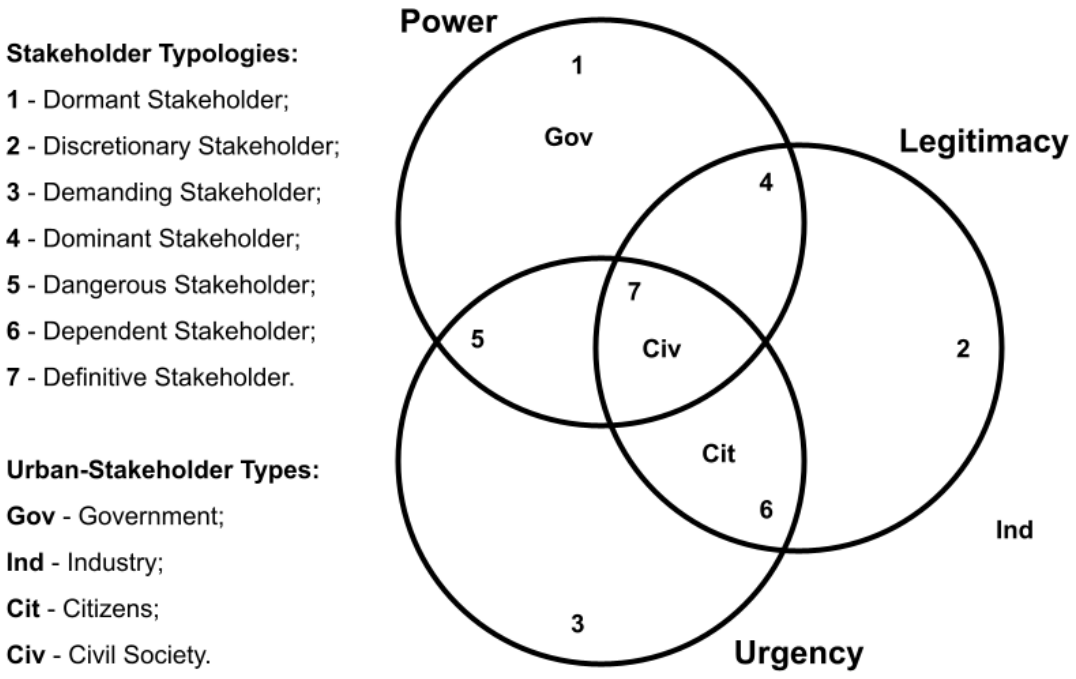

Figure 4.31. The Urban-Stakeholder Types allocated to their respective typologies.

Note. Own elaboration.

The *Government as a dormant stakeholder type.* The result regarding governmental power could be expected since urban managers work for municipal

governments and need to cooperate with higher governmental levels (e.g., national government or state government). The divergence about the government's legitimacy could also be expected because urban managers can politically disagree with the governmental administration at the time of the survey application.

Before discussing why the government is a dormant stakeholder type, there is a *comparison* in the managerial field between business management and urban management. In business studies, customers have been identified as dormant stakeholders because "they possess considerable latent power, as they can choose to use or not use the services," impacting thus the business sale and contracts (Smith & Fischbacher, 2005, p. 1041). In the case of this study, the Governments (Municipal or National in some cases) can choose whether or not to make urban policies and then create value for local and urban stakeholders. For this, in modern democracies, governments depend much on the role of civil service employees in the whole policy process as well as the support of other stakeholders.

In this way, it is important to highlight that governments are *de jure* legitimate since they are grounded in solid socially recognized institutions in modern democracies. However, this study uses urban managers' *perceptions* of salience attributes of urban-stakeholder types, thus implicating a *de facto* absence of convergence among urban managers about the legitimacy of governments. Therefore, governments are at least *de jure dominant stakeholders*, but if the urban managers do not perceive governmental legitimacy, which is the case of this study's considerable number of respondents, governments are *de facto dormant stakeholders*.

Furthermore, urgency is an attribute sensitive to time and short-term issues. When governments have urgency, they are a *de jure definitive stakeholder type*. However, in the case of this study, Governments were perceived by a considerable number of the urban managers' respondents as not having urgency due to different times and contexts. I pointed out the limitation on urgency managerial perception in the conclusion section. It is noteworthy to highlight that studies using other methodologies, such as the document analysis and in-depth qualitative analysis of a specific public policy used by Yu et al. (2012), can provide different results than the survey used in this doctoral dissertation. Yu et al. (2012) found, in the Chinese Island of Taiwan, and Wang et al. (2013), in the Chinese city of Shenzhen, that government is not only a *de jure* but also a *de facto* definitive stakeholder type.

There would be two possible situations as there is no convergence among the governments' legitimacy by urban managers. First, governments are dormant stakeholders for those whose Governments are not legitimate. However, some urban managers respondents consider Governments legitimate; for these urban managers, governments are *dominant stakeholders*. Therefore, as dormant stakeholders, governments can face many challenges during the whole policy-making cycle (e.g., a civil service agent or urban manager can not properly consider policies made by a governor of a certain political party or containing controversial cultural aspects for this particular individual), thus being crucial to developing strategies to be *de facto* a dominant stakeholder type.

The Civil Society as a definitive stakeholder type. It could also be expected that civil society is a powerful stakeholder type because it usually has an organized and highly mobilized agenda and lobby activities (i.e., power of mobilization), which play a different role in urban governance and policymaking processes than ordinary citizens and the industry. On the one hand, the finding of this study of classifying civil society as a definitive stakeholder is also aligned with the results of other studies (Paloviita & Luoma-aho, 2010). On the other hand, the findings of this doctoral dissertation are contrary to the study of Yu et al. (2012), which split civil society in the theme of their agendas and considered some organizations of civil society as dangerous stakeholders (e.g., environmental activists), dependent stakeholders (e.g., unions and commercial/industrial associations), or dormant stakeholders (e.g., academic organizations and scholars). Accordingly, Civil Society organizations, such as NGOs, constantly claim socioeconomic and environmental issues to urban managers (i.e., urgency). Also, civil society has succeeded in implementing its agendas, which are usually considered legitimate and socially accepted (i.e., legitimacy). Therefore, urban managers should consider and prior the claims of civil society in urban strategic plans and policymaking processes.

The Citizens as a dependent stakeholder type. The findings of this doctoral dissertation positioned citizens as a *de facto* dependent stakeholder type. Citizens are the *raison d'être* of modern democracies. They are the main basis for grounding stable and solid democracies. In democracies, citizens have the right (legitimacy) and the power and can elect their governmental representatives and urgently claim their demands when necessary. Thus, citizens are *de jure* a *definitive stakeholder type*. However, other studies using other methodologies and samples identified citizens as discretionary stakeholders

(Yu et al., 2012) and definitive stakeholders (Tanaka, 2006). Thus, there still is no consensus in the literature about the typology of the citizens as a stakeholder type.

Nonetheless, the absence of consensus in the literature on the stakeholder typology of citizens is not an obstacle to discussing and providing solutions for the contra sens of citizens as dependent stakeholders. The literature has revealed that trustworthiness has been a vital element for stakeholders to powerful stakeholders (Greenwood & Van Buren III, 2010) and that sharing power and increasing involvement promotes fairness in these unbalanced power relations (Van Buren III, 2010). Since citizens are the most important stakeholder in modern democracies, the results of this doctoral dissertation highlight the widely discussed *need to empower citizens in urban governance in this paradoxical paradigm*. It is a paradoxical paradigm because it would be supposed that citizens have power, but according to the considerable number of urban managers (respondents), the citizens do not have power in relationship with urban management.

Therefore, there is a need to strengthen the trust in the relationship between citizens and urban managers, and the municipal and national governments need to find ways to share their power with citizens (which was given to governments by citizens in direct or indirect democracies). A possible way to tackle this paradox would be exploiting and improving the tools from *Communicative Planning*, also known as *Collaborative Planning* (Healey, 1998; Healey, 2003; Innes & Booher, 1999a; Innes & Booher, 1999b; Booher & Innes, 2002), and integrating it to the multiple constructs from the *Stakeholder Theory* (Freeman et al., 2010; Beck & Storopoli, 2021a).

The Industry as an urban-stakeholder type without stakeholder salience. Although the industry is an urban-stakeholder type, which is affected by regulations and urban policies made by urban managers as well as affects the urban-policy-making processes through lobbying, the results of this study revealed that the industry does not have salience according to the perception of urban managers. Further studies should explore why the industry is not salient in its relationship with urban management and how to improve this relationship since the industry is critical for socioeconomic development.

Also, the theoretical advancements discussed in the following subsection are worthy not only of urban management but also of urban governance. As Stakeholder Theory explains the phenomenon of organizational networks, and the strategic management of organizations, this research also contributes to improving and flourishing

the strategic management of municipalities, in which urban stakeholders need to be embraced and their needs met by urban managers and policymakers.

4.6.2 STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT: STAKEHOLDER THEORY AND MANAGERIAL VALUES

There are two main implications of this study to Stakeholder Theory: (1) the first one is that our study converges with the findings of Boesso and Kumar (2016) on the relationship between power and egoistic culture (self-regarding values) and the relationship between legitimacy and moralist/altruistic cultures (other-regarding values); (2) the second one is that our study converges with the findings of Agle et al. (1999) on the data not supporting the relationship between stakeholder salience and performance. The following paragraphs discuss these two implications and provide this study's contribution to Stakeholder Theory.

The first implication of this study to Stakeholder Theory is in endorsing the rationale developed by Boesso and Kumar (2016) regarding stakeholder salience and organizational culture. While the study of Boesso and Kumar (2016) was in the firm context, my study is in the urban management context (i.e., municipality context). Boesso and Kumar (2016) found in businesses that the perception of business managers on stakeholder power is high in egoistic cultures (similar to self-regarding values in my study) and legitimacy in moralist cultures (similar to other-regarding values in my study). Here, I found in urban management that urban managers' perception of stakeholder power is positively related to self-regarding values (H1b), and stakeholder legitimacy is positively related to other-regarding values (H1e).

In this way, one theoretical contribution of this study is revealing that there were found strong evidence of the relationship between the two attributes of stakeholder salience (power and legitimacy) and managerial values (other and self-regarding values) in two different managerial contexts (business and urban management), which can be properly explained in two assertions: *(1) the managerial perception of stakeholder power is strongly related to egoistic cultures and self-regarding values of managers in most; (2) the managerial perception of stakeholder legitimacy is strongly related to moralistic cultures and other-regarding values of managers*.

However, more research is needed to be done in order to confirm in other managerial contexts, levels, and units of analysis, if there would be similar results.

Therefore, although Boesso and Kumar (2016) and my study converge on this phenomenon in two different contexts, further studies are necessary to confirm the universality of these two relationships in other (and the same) managerial scenarios.

As for the second implication of Stakeholder Theory, this study also converges with the findings of Agle et al. (1999) on the data not supporting the relationship between stakeholder salience and organizational performance. Although there is a theoretical rationale grounded in Organizational Theory that supports the possible relationship between stakeholder salience and organizational performance as presented in the theoretical background section, Agle et al. (1999) and this doctoral dissertation did not support this relationship (H1a).

Agle et al. (1999) tested this relationship in the context of firms, where organizational performance was represented by social, environmental, and financial performance. This doctoral dissertation tested this relationship in the context of municipalities, in which the organizational performance was represented by the Quality of Life Index, developed by Numbeo (2023), involving a set of social, economic, and environmental indicators. It endorses that stakeholder salience is an optimal tool for identifying stakeholders and their potential to affect or be affected by an organization (Freeman et al., 2010). Furthermore, the relationship between stakeholder salience and organizational performance is ambiguous (Peloza & Papania, 2008), and is more appropriate to stakeholder identification and building organization strategy (Freeman et al., 2010). Stakeholder-orientation would better fit organizational performance than stakeholder salience (Greenley & Foxall, 1997; Yau et al., 2007). Therefore, this study contributes to Stakeholder Theory by arguing that *stakeholder salience is an inappropriate construct to explain organizational performance; nonetheless, it still is an optimal tool in organizational strategy for identifying and prioritizing stakeholders*.

4.6.3 CONCLUDING REMARKS, LIMITATIONS, AND FUTURE STUDIES

The purpose of the study conducted in this doctoral dissertation chapter was accomplished. Here, I analyzed the salience of urban stakeholders as perceived by urban managers (respondents of the survey), urban quality of life, and managerial values in an integrative model in the urban context. In this study, I did not identify any statistical relationship between stakeholder salience and urban quality of life (RQ1), and managerial values did not moderate that relationship (RQ2). Nonetheless, two hypotheses were

supported, and findings revealed a positive relationship between self-regarding values and stakeholder power (H1b) and between other-regarding values and legitimacy (H1e).

This study contributes to advancing the field of Urban Studies and Political Science by discussing, in the urban management and governance context of 24 cities in three different countries, the stakeholder salience of the four main urban-stakeholder types, i.e., governments, industries, citizens, and civil society. Also, this study contributes to the field of Strategic Management by providing new directions on stakeholder salience and managerial values, more precisely on the possible universal relationship between power and self-regarding values and legitimacy and other-regarding values. Therefore, the main implication is that further studies are needed to test the universality of these two relationships.

The three main limitations of this study are: *First*, the constructs of stakeholder salience (urgency, legitimacy, and urgency) and stakeholder cooperation were measured by the perception of urban managers, which can be to some extent different from the actual ones. Thus, this study heavily relies on the managerial perception of these constructs and cannot reflect reality. *Second*, the sample size is small, with only 85 elements. For this reason, I applied Bayesian Statistics instead of the Frequentist one. Bayesian Statistics allows researchers to work with small samples by not relying on asymptotics when carefully designed and adjusted (McNeish, 2016). *Third*, as the urgency attribute of stakeholder salience is highly contingent on time and context (Mitchell et al., 1997; Agle et al., 1999; Freeman et al., 2010), the multiple contexts within the 24 cities (geopolitical context) and the 85 respondents (individual context) can explain the divergence of urban managers' perception of urgency of Governments and Industry.

Finally, I suggest the following agenda for further studies:

1. To explore the role of stakeholder-oriented urban management and stakeholder cooperation in fostering urban quality of life;
2. To explore how stakeholder-oriented urban management can empower citizens since they are the main urban-stakeholder type;
3. To investigate how and to what extent the internet and social media could be vehicles for urban stakeholders to exercise their power in terms of influence and social mobilization (Coombs, 1998; Wood et al., 2001);
4. To explore how governments can democratically evolve to *de facto* dominant stakeholders (governments are already *de jure* dominant

stakeholders in modern democracies) when they are only *de facto* dormant stakeholders;

5. To explore why the industry is not salient in its relationship with urban management as well as how to improve this relationship since the industry is critical for socio-economic development;
6. To investigate how the comprehensive set of stakeholder attributes (i.e., coercive power, utilitarian power, normative power, powerlessness, urgency, pragmatic legitimacy, moral legitimacy, pragmatic illegitimacy, and moral illegitimacy) proposed by Weitzner and Deutsch (2015) can be related to urban performance and value creation in urban management;
7. To investigate stakeholder relations with urban management through the lens of other approaches, such as *stakeholder value network* (Cameron et al., 2011; Hein et al., 2017), *stakeholder multiplicity* (Neville & Menguc, 2006), *stakeholder interaction* (Oliver, 1991), *stakeholder social identity* (Crane & Ruebottom, 2011), and *stakeholder accessibility* (Jawahar & McLaughlin, 2001);
8. To integrate the practice and theory of *Communicative Planning*, also known as *Collaborative Planning* (Healey, 1998; Healey, 2003; Innes & Booher, 1999a; Innes & Booher, 1999b; Booher & Innes, 2002), to *Stakeholder Theory* (Freeman et al., 2010; Beck & Storopoli, 2021a); and
9. To explore the possible advantages and disadvantages of fostering other-regarding values, altruistic culture, and moralistic culture in Urban Governance and Public Administration.

5. GENERAL CONCLUSION

The research aim of this doctoral dissertation was to understand what is the relationship between quality of life and stakeholder-orientation in urban management. In the third study of this doctoral dissertation, it was possible to conclude that there is no relationship between quality of life and stakeholder salience in urban management. Figure 5 shows the contributive matrix of this doctoral dissertation. Furthermore, the next paragraphs will concisely explain how I achieved the three research objectives of this doctoral dissertation in the three studies and the main contributions of this dissertation.

RESEARCH QUESTION: "What is the relationship between stakeholder salience and urban quality of life in urban management?"
RESEARCH AIM: "To understand what is the relationship between quality of life and stakeholder-orientation in urban management"
SYNTHESIS OF THE FINDINGS, CONTRIBUTIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES
Study I - "The Intellectual Structure and Mainstream Research on Stakeholder Theory in the Context of Urban Management": I identified and mapped the intellectual structure and mainstream research on stakeholder theory in the context of urban management. In order words, I revealed how the intellectual structure of the literature on stakeholder theory in urban management has evolved to mainstream research because it provides an overview of what has been considered relevant regarding themes and theoretical development. The main findings of the first study revealed that: (1) the intellectual structure of the literature on stakeholder theory in urban management is composed of literature on urban strategy (the most central publications) and urban marketing; (2) the intellectual structure has evolved to the mainstream research by emphasizing sustainability in urban strategy, the importance of urban networks, and urban marketing and urban branding for the improvement of urban development; (3) urban strategies have been based on social responsibility, ethics, and value creation; (4) collaborative governance has been important in urban strategy to identify, categorize, understand, and create value for stakeholders by meeting their expectations; and (5) building an attractive urban image with effective urban branding and efficient communication has been linked to the stakeholders' recognition and legitimacy of urban management.
Study II - "Identifying the Urban Stakeholders": I identified what are the types of urban stakeholders taking the construct of stakeholder proposed by Freeman (1984) into account, because it reveals what are the types of urban stakeholders to be considered in the third study. Although a semi-structured interview with urban managers would reveal the types of urban stakeholders, the literature has widely explored different types of urban stakeholders, and the systematic literature review performed in the second study provided a detailed and in-depth information not only about who are urban stakeholders, but also about how they have either been affected by or affected the urban management. In sum, the main findings of the second study lie in both typological and general approaches. I found twelve types of urban stakeholders in typological approach, which are (1) governments, (2) industry, (3) citizens, (4) civil society, (5) tourists, (6) academia, (7) union and workers, (8) media, (9) investors, (10) financial institutions, (11) suppliers, and (12) supranational and international organizations. As for the general approach, scholars have argued for highlighting urban projects and partnerships by urban managers instead of separating stakeholders in different types as commonly done in the typological approach, which can deviate urban managers from urban management goals and even misinterpret the role of urban stakeholders in projects and partnerships.
Study III - "Exploring Quality of Life, Managerial Values, Stakeholder Salience and Cooperation in Urban Governance": I analyzed the salience (mediator variable) of four urban-stakeholder types (government, industry, citizens, and civil society) as perceived by urban managers, urban quality of life (dependent variable), and managerial values (independent variable), and stakeholder collaboration (moderator variable), in an integrative model in the urban context. For this, a research model was tested through Bayesian Correlation and Bayesian Regression of 85 responses of a survey collected in 24 cities from Brazil, United States, and Israel. The main findings of the third study are: (1) there is no statistical relationship between stakeholder salience and urban quality of life, and managerial values did not moderate that relationship; and (2) there is a positive relationship between self-regarding values and stakeholder power, and between other-regarding values and legitimacy. The originality of this study is to reveal that there is a possibility of self-regarding values (egoistic culture) and power as well as other-regarding values (altruistic/moralist culture) and legitimacy are two existing relationships disregarding the organizational type. However, further studies should be done to affirm this universality. Also, I proposed a comprehensive agenda for future studies in the three studies.

Figure 5.1. Contribution Matrix.

In the **first study** (chapter two), I identified and mapped the intellectual structure and mainstream research on stakeholder theory in the context of urban management. In order words, I revealed how the intellectual structure of the **literature** on stakeholder theory in urban management has evolved to mainstream research because it provides an overview of what has been considered relevant regarding themes and theoretical development.

The main findings of the first study revealed that: (1) the intellectual structure of the literature on stakeholder theory in urban management is composed of literature on **urban strategy** (the most central publications) and **urban marketing**; (2) the intellectual structure has evolved to the mainstream research by emphasizing **sustainability in urban strategy**, the importance of **urban networks**, and **urban marketing** and **urban branding** for the improvement of **urban development**; (3) urban strategies have been based on social responsibility, ethics, and value creation; (4) **collaborative governance** has been important in urban strategy to identify, categorize, understand, and create value for stakeholders by meeting their expectations; and (5) building an **attractive urban image** with **effective urban branding** and **efficient communication** has been linked to the **stakeholders' recognition** and **legitimacy** of urban management.

In the **second study** (chapter three), I identified what are the **types of urban stakeholders** taking the construct of stakeholder proposed by Freeman (1984) into account, because it reveals what are the types of urban stakeholders to be considered in the third study. Although a semi-structured interview with urban managers would reveal the types of urban stakeholders, the literature has widely explored different types of urban stakeholders, and the systematic literature review performed in the second study provided a detailed and in-depth information not only about who are urban stakeholders, but also about how they have either been affected by or affected the urban management.

In sum, the main findings of the second study lie in both typological and general approaches. I found **twelve types of urban stakeholders in typological approach**, which are (1) **governments**, (2) **industry**, (3) **citizens**, (4) **civil society**, (5) **tourists**, (6) **academia**, (7) **union and workers**, (8) **media**, (9) **investors**, (10) **financial institutions**, (11) suppliers, and (12) supranational and international organizations. As for the general approach, scholars have argued for highlighting urban projects and partnerships by urban managers instead of separating stakeholders in different types as commonly done in the

typological approach, which can deviate urban managers from urban management goals and even misinterpret the role of urban stakeholders in projects and partnerships.

Finally, in the **third study** (chapter four), I analyzed the salience (mediator variable) of four urban-stakeholder types (government, industry, citizens, and civil society) as perceived by urban managers, urban quality of life (dependent variable), and managerial values (independent variable), and stakeholder collaboration (moderator variable), in an integrative model in the urban context. For this, a research model was tested through Bayesian Correlation and Bayesian Regression of 85 responses of a survey collected in 24 cities from Brazil, United States, and Israel.

In this study, I did not identify any statistical relationship between stakeholder salience and urban quality of life, and that managerial values did not moderate that relationship. Nonetheless, findings revealed a positive relationship between self-regarding values and stakeholder power, and between other-regarding values and legitimacy. The originality of this study is to reveal that there is a possibility of self-regarding values (egoistic culture) and power as well as other-regarding values (altruistic/moralist culture) and legitimacy are two existing relationships disregarding the organizational type. However, further studies should be done to affirm this universality. Also, I proposed a comprehensive agenda for future studies in the three studies.

Finally, this doctoral dissertation intended also to introduce Stakeholder Theory in the context of Urban Management. Here, I explored and built new significant knowledge by structuring Stakeholder Theory in Urban Studies. There has much studies not properly using the term “stakeholder.” Many publications has used the term “stakeholder” as a synonymous of actor, participant, or anyone interested in urban affairs. However, the meaning of stakeholder go far beyond this approach. Stakeholder is who is affected by or affects the achievement of an organization purpose, and so, organization here is understood as the city administration, the municipality management! Note that “affect” or “affected by” are very complex than those not rigorous uses seen in the literature. This doctoral dissertation came to challenge the field of urban management to be anchored in more rigorous constructs under the lens of Stakeholder Theory. Therefore, the constructs of stakeholder concept and stakeholder salience were introduced and explored in urban management by this doctoral dissertation. At the same time, I also conducted different projects to introduce stakeholder value creation into the field of urban

management, which are not in this doctoral dissertation but can be understood as an extension of this one.

The main social contributions of this doctoral dissertation is that Stakeholder Theory can foster democratic values and also strengthen democratic institutions at the city level. Further studies in Public Administration need to investigate also how Stakeholder Theory in governmental agencies and institutions can contribute in the regional and national levels.

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