

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

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I. INTRODUCTION

Public procurement continues to evolve both conceptually and organizationally. That evolution accelerated during the 1990s as governments at all levels experienced increasing pressures to “do more with less.” Indeed, all governmental entities of both rich and poor countries struggle in the face of unrelenting budget constraints; government downsizing; public demand for increased transparency in public procurement; and greater concerns about efficiency, fairness and equity. Additionally, public procurement professionals face a constantly changing environment typified by rapidly emerging technologies, increasing product choices, environmental concerns, and the complexities of international and regional trading agreements. Further, policy makers have increasingly used public procurement as a tool to achieve socioeconomic goals (Thai, 2007; Albano, Snider & Thai, 2013).

In this environment, public procurement has become much more complex than ever before, and public procurement officials must deal with a broad range of issues. They have been walking on a tight rope in:

- Balancing the dynamic tension between (a) competing socioeconomic objectives, and (b) national economic interests; and global competition as required by regional and international trade agreements;
- Satisfying the requirements of fairness, equity and transparency;
- Maintaining an overarching focus on maximizing competition; and

- Utilizing new technology to enhance procurement efficiency, including e-procurement.

Established in 2004, the International Public Procurement Conference (IPPC) has become a unique forum for exchange of knowledge and information in public procurement among international experts in this field. Through the four previous conferences, many experts from various backgrounds shared their views and experiences on critical issues of public procurement. The fertile mixture of experiences, interests and contributions that emerged in the last six conferences represents an important basis upon which to build the 8th International Public Procurement Conference (IPPC8).

Similar to previous conferences, IPPC8, held in Arusha, Tanzania, August 8-10, 2018, has the following unique characteristics. It will deepen the interdisciplinary research on public procurement. Public procurement research can be accessed from various academic fields, including law, economics, public administration, business administration, and construction management, to name a few. It is the tradition of IPPC that experts from various academic backgrounds share their views, thus crossing barriers between academic fields. This tradition has been continued and broadened in IPPC8. In addition, IPPC8 strengthens the link between the practitioners and scholars by finding solutions to harmonize various objectives in public procurement. Public procurement has many objectives, including transparency, competition, efficiency, value for money, socioeconomic objectives, among others. Because these objectives sometimes conflict with each other, it is necessary to harmonize them. To cope with this challenge, it is important for practitioners and scholars to cooperate with each other. Practitioners should give explanations of actual problems in their harmonizing efforts, and scholars should make every effort to address these problems with sound theory and analysis.

In this chapter, the author addresses two issues that have been concerns in his public procurement research in the last two decades:

1. What constitutes a public procurement system? Public procurement reforms have occurred in all countries, including the United States.

2. Do all governments report accurately how much they spend annually on procurement?

The remaining section of this chapter provides brief summaries of twelve chapters. As mentioned in the book's preface, through a rigorous peer review process, these chapters were selected from a pool of seventy papers that were submitted to the 8th International Public Procurement Conference co-hosted by these editors.

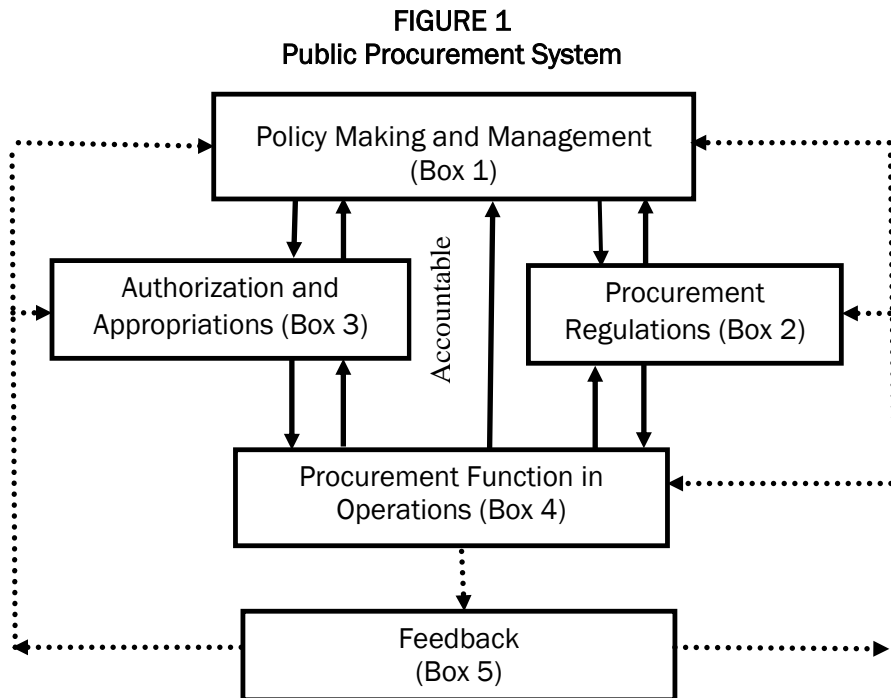
II. TOWARD A SOUND PUBLIC PROCUREMENT SYSTEM

Tania Ghossein, Asif Mohammed Islam and Federica Saliola (2019) affirmed that the quality of the public procurement system of an economy can have far reaching effects on the co-hosted private sector. Unfortunately, it seems that there still does not exist a general acceptance of what constitutes a sound public procurement system to facilitate the purchase of services, supplies and construction in support of essential public functions; and to show responsibility for taxpayer dollars in a manner that is transparent, efficient, accountable and fair. We need a sound public procurement system. Researchers may not agree with the use of the word "sound." Unfortunately, this author cannot find a more appropriate word to indicate what constitutes the procurement system.

While the public procurement function of government has become more and more complex, it is still a somewhat neglected area of academic research and education. In the early 21st Century coping with problems in government contracting – from inefficiency, mismanagement to corruption – governments in many countries tried to improve public procurement systems by reforming public procurement laws and regulations, and organizational structures; issuing procurement guidelines, and improving public procurement professionals.

In a 2001 article to inaugurate the new Journal of Public Procurement, Thai proposed a framework for a sound public procurement system, which consists of five core elements as shown in Figure 1: Policy making and management (Box 1), procurement regulations (Box 2), procurement authorization and appropriations (Box 3), public procurement function in operations (Box 4), and feedback (Box 5). The "procurement regulations" element (Box 2), established by policy makers and management executives (Box 1),

became the institutional framework within which public procurement professionals (be it contract officers, buyers, or procurement officers), and program managers (Box 4) implement their authorized and funded procurement programs or projects (Box 3), and also are accountable to policy makers and management executives (Box 1). Relationships between these four elements are depicted by respective arrows. Finally, feedback (Box 5) will be reviewed by policy makers and management for possible adjustments or improvements in both Boxes 2 and 3, and by procurement professionals and managers (Box 4) for adjustments or improvements in procurement operations (Thai, 2001).



Legend:

—→ direct relationship

.....→ feedback and reforms/adjustments

The most significant step in public procurement was the issuance of “Methodology for Assessing Procurement Systems (MAPS)” in 2004 by the joint World Bank and OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC). Interestingly enough, the U. S. General Accountability Office issued in 2005 “Framework for Assessing the Acquisition Function at Federal Agencies” (GAO, 2005). These two frameworks consist of four key “pillars” (OECD-DAC), or four “cornerstones” (GAO) as follows:

OECD-DAC’s Four Pillars (2004)	GAO’s Four Cornerstones (2005)
Legislative and regulatory framework	Policies and processes
Institutional framework and management capacity	Organizational alignment and leadership
Procurement operations and market practices	Human capital
Integrity and transparency of the public procurement system	Knowledge and information management

Although these pillars or cornerstones are not identical, all pillars or cornerstones recommended many similar indicators for procurement system assessment. The OECD-DAC and GAO frameworks provide numerous indicators that help assess and improve public procurement systems.

Comparing and contrasting the above three frameworks, the author finds five basic pillars, cornerstones or core elements: (1) national legal framework and public policy-making process, (2) public procurement regulations and laws, (3) procurement organizational structure, (4) public procurement workforce, and (5) public procurement operations and process. Although not all of these five “pillars,” “cornerstones” or “core elements” are highlighted in all three frameworks, there are major foci in these publications. A sound public procurement system has to have appropriate public procurement regulations and laws, an appropriate procurement organizational structure, a professional public procurement workforce, and (5) a well-structured public procurement operations and processes.

Many studies on procurement indicators and benchmarks have been conducted. The most recent studies include the World Bank’s

Benchmarking Public Procurement (2015, 2016), US Agency for International Aid's *Key Performance Indicators Strengthen Procurement in Latin America* (2013).

In addition to institutional research as briefly mentioned above, since the early 2000s numerous studies have been conducted by researchers. Also the "International Research study on Public Procurement", first carried out in 2003 by several scholars around the world, and the "International Public Procurement Conference," first initiated in 2004, greatly contributed to public procurement research, as it was able to compare international differences and similarities on tools and models for managing procurement in the public sector, also exploring in role in supporting economies and local enterprises (Harland et al., 2003; Knight et al., 2012). We can find many research contributions touching different "pillars" of the public procurement systems, such as:

- How to design a sound procurement strategy and set relevant goals (e.g., Caldwell & Howard, 2014; Erridge, 2007; Buxton & Radnor, 2012; Murray et al., 2012);
- How to organize resources and manage the activities of the procurement process (e.g., Fearon & Busch, 2006; Scothanaus & Telgen, 2007; Kamann, 2007; Arlbjørn & Freytag, 2012); and
- How to use general and specific procurement tools to support the execution of activities such as e-procurement (e.g., Malta & Gilbert, 2006), collaborative procurement, and public-private partnership (e.g., Essig & Bartran, 2005).

Despite this growing trend, public procurement still reveals high research fragmentation, most likely due to 1) an extensive and multi-faceted domain, which led authors to concentrate their efforts on specific aspects (e.g., centralization vs decentralization decisions, transparency, role of technology, sustainable public procurement), and 2) the relatively low status of the procurement department in the public sector (Murray, 2009; Pitzer & McCue, 2007).

III. USING PURCHASE POWER TO ACHIEVE POLICY OBJECTIVES

Another research issue in public procurement is how to get accurate procurement spend data. Recently, there has been an emerging spend analysis. But, a major problem for spend analysis is

how to get accurate procurement data. This author has spent about twenty years on public procurement research and teaching and has tried to figure out how to determine correct and reliable public procurement expenditures or “spends” in the United States and other countries. According to his findings, many organizations and many researchers reported different public procurement spends in terms of a percentage of GDP or government budgets and spend amounts. Inconsistent dollar amounts and/or percentages of procurement spends have been published or reported. In general, governments deliver goods and services in two ways: in-house (or direct delivery), and purchasing or by acquisition. When governments deliver directly services and goods, is there any procurement? Of course, government agencies that deliver goods and services needs to purchase supplies and materials at least for their office operations, if not materials needed for their services (such as road repairs and cleaning, for example). Of course, for many major projects, it is more efficient for governments to contract out. When we try to make this distinction in governments’ goods and services delivery, public procurement expenditures, (or “expenditures” a term widely used in the field of public finance) will be expressed in the following equation:

$$Y = \text{direct procurement spends} + \text{contracting spends}$$

Where Y = total expenditures that a government spends in public procurement spends.

In general, all governments in the world spend a large sum of their annual budgets in public procurement. While it is difficult to account for public procurement spends in many countries, particularly developing countries, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation Development (OECD) has provided reports on annual public procurement spends of all country members. As shown in Table 1, no single member country spent less than US \$1 billion on general public procurement in 2018, and there is a variety of levels of public procurement spends as a percentage of gross national products (GDP) from the lowest level at 5.15% of GDP in Mexico, to the highest level at 20.18% in The Netherlands. The average public procurement spends in OECD is 13.18% of GDP among OECD countries. The US government had the largest annual public procurement expenditures at \$1,694.29 billion despite a lower level of percentage at 9.35% of GDP.

TABLE 1
General Government Procurement as a Percentage of GDP

Country	% of GDP ¹	GDP ² (In US\$ Billion)	Public Procurement Expenditure (In US\$ Billion) ³
Australia	13.15	1,349.03	177.40
Austria	13.51	382.07	51.62
Belgium	14.43	455.04	65.66
Canada	13.44	1,559.62	209.61
Czech Republic	14.52	186.83	27.13
Denmark	14.16	301.30	42.66
Estonia	14.06	22.57	3.17
Finland	17.54	232.46	40.77
France	14.58	2,438.21	355.49
Germany	15.05	3,375.61	508.29
Greece	11.10	195.54	21.70
Hungary	16.02	122.88	19.69
Iceland	13.81	16.94	2.34
Ireland	7.30	290.61	21.21
Israel	14.23	299.09	42.56
Italy	10.36	1,832.87	189.89
Japan	16.22	4,394.98	712.87
Korea	12.54	1,382.77	173.40
Latvia	12.02	26.98	3.24
Luxembourg	11.96	57.78	6.91
Mexico	5.15	1,169.62	60.24
Netherlands	20.18	758.00	152.96
New Zealand	14.69	177.62	26.09
Norway	13.85	386.66	53.55
Poland	12.17	477.36	58.09
Portugal	9.83	199.42	19.60
Slovak Republic	17.28	87.50	15.12
Slovenia	13.38	43.07	5.76
Spain	10.46	1,197.79	125.29
Sweden	16.00	497.92	79.67
Switzerland	8.76	679.29	59.51
Turkey	10.85	859.80	93.29
United Kingdom	13.70	2,885.57	395.32
United States	9.35	18,120.71	1,694.29
Total	13.16	46,463.51	5,514.39

Source: ¹ OECD (2018). ² World Bank (2018). ³ Author's calculation, based on OECD and the World Bank data in Columns 2 and 3 of the table.

This author assumes that the data reported by OECD in Table 1 above are for Y of the above equation when OECD used the terms “general (author’s emphasis) public procurement”, which include both direct purchasing and contracting spends.¹ From the above equation, the author also assumes that the amounts and percentages of procurement spends on contracts must be smaller than the data in Table 1. Also deriving from the above equation, the terms “public procurement” should not imply only “contracting”, but should mean “purchasing” or “acquisition.”

IV. CONTENTS OF THE BOOK

Twelve papers (hereafter called “chapters”) were selected via a rigorous peer review process, on the basis of scholarship, not on any specific themes. Thus, it is expected that the chapters cover a variety of research issues. However, these chapters cover three major themes: public procurement systems (three chapters), procurement methods and strategies (six chapters), and using literature reviews to explore procurement issues of interest to the authors

By no means do the above identified themes reflect scientifically the current trends of research interests. Actually, there are a good number of papers presented at the conference which focus on many critical procurement concerns, including procurement reforms, transparency concerns, e-procurement, and procurement approaches or techniques.

4.1. Public Procurement System

In “Public Procurement and the Private Business Sector: Evidence from Firm-Level Data,” Tania Ghossein, Asif Mohammed Islam and Federica Saliola found that the quality of the public procurement system of an economy can have far reaching effects on the private sector. We empirically explore several of these effects using two rich datasets. An overall indicator of public procurement quality is created from the World Bank’s Benchmarking Public Procurement project that is then combined with firm-level data from the World Bank Enterprise Surveys. The analysis includes over 59,000 firms spanning over 109 economies. We find that firms in economies with good public procurement systems are more likely to participate in public procurement, face lower losses from shipping to domestic markets, and experience a lower incidence of bribery than economies with poor

public procurement systems. Similarly, better public procurement systems are positively correlated with more engagement in innovation, R&D, international certification, foreign technology adoption, and online connectivity.

In “Public Procurement Systems: A Comparative Study of Ireland and Saudi Arabia,” Dhafer Al Ahmari and Paul Davis review and compare public procurement systems in two countries: Ireland and Saudi Arabia in terms of the similarities and differences in regulations, procedures and supplier evaluation methods. They state that the public procurement system of any country revolves around the principle of achieving better value for money. They also focus on the award criteria of the most economically advantageous tender (MEAT) and the lowest priced bid processes that are currently implemented in Ireland and Saudi Arabia, respectively. In Ireland, MEAT is used to evaluate the tender, and in the KSA, the focus is on the lowest price. The Irish system emphasises environmental considerations, quality, innovation and social aspects while taking into account the costs associated with the entire life cycle of product, service or work.

Given that Saudi Arabia uses the traditional procurement system that stresses purchasing at the lowest price contrasting this system with that of Ireland will allow us to comprehensively draw a comparison between the two systems. This leads to making a proper inference regarding which system functions better to ensure economic growth and, at the same time, attains value for money. The procurement system in Saudi Arabia will have to be changed to incorporate additional elements, such as quality consideration and easing regulations—especially for international companies who wish to gain access to the Saudi market.

Instead of focusing on the general procurement system, Andreas H. Glas, Julian Gaus, and Michael Essig examine how public buyers involve their suppliers into their sustainability practices. In “Effects of Governance Structures on Sustainability-Oriented Supplier Behavior: Analysis of National Action Plans and their Effects in Public Procurement,” they state that overarching governance structures, such as national action plans, are often not in the core focus, but they play a significant role in promoting sustainable practices. This contribution examines sustainability governance structures with data from a survey on European public buying authorities with 4,008

participants from 30 countries. The findings on the basis of multivariate statistical analysis show that better tendering and policy effects are achieved when national action plans are in place (cost, risk, time, number of offers). This study does not neglect the existence of other motives for sustainable supplier behavior, but explains the success of sustainability initiatives in the European Union with the existence of a distinct supply chain governance structure and national action plans.

4.2. Methods and Strategies

As mentioned above, public procurement is very a very complicated function of government; it requires a variety of methods and strategies to deal with specific cases. In this section, the authors offer a variety of methods or strategies. In “Detecting Bid-Rigging in the ‘Big Data Era,’” Paolo Buccirossi, Giulia Di Pierro and Luca Giangregorio discuss how to use data to detect bid-rigging. They believe that cartels conviction requires the collection of evidence that meets a high standard of proof. According to EU case law, to prove an infringement, the existence of an anticompetitive agreement must be the only plausible explanation of the observed behavior. Therefore, competition authorities look for documentary evidence to prove their allegations. However, firms have become very smart in concealing evidence of their misbehavior, making cartel prosecution quite difficult. So far, the majority of competition authorities have heavily relied on reactive detection methods by adopting leniency programs and by fostering buyers/suppliers to report suspicious cases of collusion through complaints or whistle-blowing channels. Thanks to the increasing adoption of e-procurement platforms worldwide, procurement data are becoming more available in an “open data” format. Public procurement authorities could therefore switch to more proactive strategies for cartel detection by exploiting the data availability and using economics to perform so-called “screening tests”. Indeed, economic analysis can be used to look for the presence of structural features in the market or in the procurement auction format in which a cartel is more likely to happen. Economics can also be used to identify cases in which illegal collusion is the most likely explanation of the observed outcome and participants’ conduct. The chapter describes screening tools that have been developed in the economic literature and discusses their effectiveness and reliability.

While Buccirossi, Pierro and Giangregorio discuss how to deal with bid rigging, Matias Huhtilainen explores an alternative procurement approach to deal with collusion, corruption and other problems in public procurement. According to him, previous research provides evidence of predatory bidding, collusive tendering, regulatory burden, corruption and discrimination in public procurement. In “Alternative Approach to Public Procurement: Selling-Put Options via Electronic Auction,” he proposes an alternative approach to supplement current competitive tendering methods with a specific focus on said issues. A theoretical auction framework is provided where the procurement unit sells a put-option contract with the desired goods, service or work as the underlying asset. The mechanism is a mixture of forward and reserve auctions with resemblance to a treasury auction where primary dealers competitively bid for newly issued government debt. Suggested managerial implications include improved fair price discovery as well as better protection against predatory bidding, collusive tendering and corruption in public procurement.

Recently, there has been interest in using spend analysis for procurement efficiency. In “The Numbers Tell the Tale: A Spend Analysis in Five Government Procuring and Disposing Entities in Uganda,” Charles Ndandiko, David Nyimbwa Kiyangi, Francis Ssenoga and Roel van Weert present how five entities in Uganda used spend analysis for fiscal years (FY) 2013-2014 and 2014-2015. The objective was to assess the design of public procurement policy in Uganda; well aware that spend analysis forms a solid foundation for strategic sourcing initiatives, understanding of a Procuring and Disposal Entity’s (PDE) spend structure and ultimately enables procurement decisions to be based on facts rather than on intuition. The analysis was conducted based on invoice analysis, supplier analysis and procurement category analysis. The numbers show that on average over 80% of total spend arose from less than 10% of invoices and of suppliers for FYs 2013-2014 and 2014-2015; implying that significant effort is spent managing a very small portion of PDE spend. This, we noted, increases transaction costs and processing time. When frequent transactions are being made for a relatively small amount of spend, opportunities for process automation arise. The numbers also reveal that over 30% of these many small value transactions do not go through established procurement channels; the procurement unit (PU) is not involved,

largely due to inadequate communication and information exchange between the finance function and the procurement function. The findings in this spend analysis should form a basis for enlightened discussion with regulators, suppliers and stakeholders, to influence and change behavior, and to deliver savings and efficiencies in public procurement management.

It seems that the government of Uganda has been willing to implement new strategies or methods for its public procurement. In “Adoption of Force Account Mechanism in Road Maintenance Works’ Procurements: Stakeholders’ Opinions in Uganda,” Faith Mbabazi and Godfrey Mugurusi present Uganda’s experiences in implementing the force account mechanism within the current public procurement framework. In Uganda, the authors hoped that the implementation of the force account mechanism would benefit procuring organizations through efficiency gains in terms of time, cost savings and enhancement of internal capacity. However, on review of procurement audit reports issued by the public procurement oversight body, the Public Procurement and Disposal Authority, in 2015-2016 alone, revealed unsatisfactory performance of procurements conducted using force account mechanism. This paper presents results from a mini-survey of stakeholders’ opinions on the effectiveness of implementation of the mechanism in road maintenance works in local governments. Findings from this study suggest a mechanism that has little legitimacy among its targeted implementers and users, and whose adoption is still enshrouded in policy implementation challenges. Most of the challenges identified were external to the procuring organizations considered in the study. The conclusion offers avenues for redress of the current implementation challenges.

Edward Schwerin, Eric Prier and Clifford McCue in “The Desirability and Feasibility of Developing Sustainability Index for Public Procurement,” present another strategy for evaluating suppliers in the areas of economic, social, and environmental sustainability. The purpose of their study is to evaluate the state of sustainable public procurement in the U.S. public sector by identifying governmental sustainable purchasing practices and determining if a sustainability index would enable both governments and suppliers to create a cost-effective mechanism for evaluating suppliers’ “sustainability” performance. They use a survey instrument that

baselines and maps some behavioral and attitudinal patterns of sustainability conditions across government work settings and practitioners themselves. The exploratory design of the research is intended to gain a better understanding of the state of government purchasing covering sustainability concerns and issues.

How to improve procurement performance has always been a major concern in all governments. In “Improvements in Services Contracting: The Defense Department’s Implementation of Performance-Based Services Acquisition,” William Lucyshyn and John Rigilano present the US Defense Department’s experiences implementing performance-based services acquisition. According to them, performance-based services acquisition is a proven strategy that reduces costs and improves the quality of service. Rather than specify inputs or service requirements, the Department of Defense (DoD) stipulates a level of performance that the contractor is then obligated to meet, or exceed. When used appropriately, this strategy aligns the objective of the contractor with that of the government customer, and can increase the effectiveness and efficiency of the services provided. Recognizing the benefits, the DoD has sought to increase the appropriate use of PBSA. In 2000, the Under Secretary of Defense for Acquisition and Technology directed that 50 percent of service acquisitions be performance-based (measured in dollars and actions) by the year 2005 (Gansler, 2000). Based on data from the Federal Procurement Data System (FPDS), this paper examines trends in PBSA over the last 15 years.

4.3. Use of Literature for Public Procurement Research

Instead of conducting empirical research, scholars in all disciplines sometimes examine research issues by conducting thorough literature reviews (See, Flynn, & Davis, 2014; Ke, Wang, Chan, & Cheung, 2009; Lange, Telgen, & Schotanus, 2014; Myerson, 2017; Patrucco, Luzzini, & Ronchi, 2017; Spina, Caniato, Luzzini, & Ronchi, 2013; Wynstra, 2010; Zheng et al., 2007). In this book, there are three chapters that address three issues. First, Charles Kalinzi, Joseph Ntayi, Moses Muhwezi and Levi Kabagambe explore a performance expectations gap in public works contracts. According to them, research addressing performance expectations gaps in public procurement is sparse. The studies addressing expectation gaps are predominantly in auditing (Adams & Evans, 2004; Brennan, 2006; Humphrey, Moizer, & Turley, 1993). Other studies have focused

mainly on customer value (Ancarani, 2009) and service quality (Bolton & Drew, 1991; Cronin, Taylor, & Taylor, 1992; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996), using a marketing lens. We see certain aspects of expectations gap discussed in marketing and auditing discipline that resemble what is occurring in public procurement today. This study intends to borrow this concept and use it to investigate and document the procurement performance expectations gap using a theoretical lens that could explain performance lapses in public works contracts with a conceptual model that will later be used to improve public procurement performance expectation gaps in DLGs in Uganda.

In “An Exploratory Literature Review across Scientific Silos on Public Procurement,” Timo Kivistö and Veli Matti Virolainen’s study reviews public procurement papers that were presented at international conferences and in business and management journals. Other literature reviews have focused on public-private partnerships, as presented in construction and public administration journals. Each of these literature reviews made a step forward. However, there is no comprehensive view of public procurement across disciplines. The authors conducted a literature review involving two legal journals as well as an exploratory literature review focused on health and social management journals. This literature review reveals different terminologies used for public procurement across disciplines, and identifies six scientific silos and various future research directions.

In another literature review approach, Andrea Patrucco, Christine Harland, Jane Lynch, Tunde Tatrai, and Jan Telgen focus on how and under which conditions collaborative initiatives should be implemented. They use a three-stage approach: (i) conducting an in-depth review of the literature, (ii) testing the constructs identified through survey findings, (iii) using Pearson to further test the linkages between proposed pillars.

CONCLUSION

There have been many developments in public procurement in the last two decades: there are many public procurement conferences many public procurement publications, two academic journals (Journal of Public Procurement, first published in 2001; and the International Journal of Procurement Management, first published in 2007), and some universities have started to offer courses,

certificates, and most importantly, academic degree programs in public procurement. Once again, there are numerous good papers covering a variety of theories and best practices that were presented at the 8th International Public Procurement Conference. This is evident in the following twelve chapters in this book. Despite variations among public procurement systems, there has been effort to improve public procurement theories and practices. This book is another contribution to building knowledge of public procurement.

NOTES

1. The author hopes that OECD will provide clear reporting guidelines to all country members so that all data can be reported uniformly; and that OECD will add a footnote explaining how general public procurement spends are calculated and reported by each country,

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