

Value-creation and networking in coopetition and public value management – The two challenging complementing frameworks of management studies

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Abstract: Managerialism, emphasising on competition, is a leading penetrable practice or method in public and business management. However, managerialism is not a unique principle to manage public and private organisations. In this study we introduce, in addition to managerialism and its backgrounds, the challenging contemporary practices or paradigms of public and business management, such as cooperation, or simultaneous cooperation and competition, that is coopetition, and public value management (PVM), and show their practical and theoretical significance in the management discussions. Regardless of the possibility to dispute the existence of both coopetition paradigm because of the contemporary dominating competition and cooperation paradigms, and PVM because of the different versions of post NPM viewpoints, we introduce the complementary roles of coopetition and PVM frameworks for the management studies and practices.

Keywords: Value-creation, networking, coopetition, public value management, post-new public management

1. Introduction

Contemporary business life is highly turbulent and multifaceted entirety (Himanen, 2003). The significance of projects, services and public sector have grown. Also, the business environment and the role of stakeholders in business have become more important. The public sector is one of the most important stakeholders and participants in the modern

project-based business environment (See, e.g. Crawford & Helm, 2009). This tendency will justify the viewpoints of business and public management. This paper is concentrated to show the new contributions coming from the simultaneous consideration of public and private sectors in management studies.

In the literature and theory of management the border between public and business management is ambiguous. These two

branches have followed the same frameworks and paradigms of management, not necessarily simultaneously, however. Thus, the theoretical discrepancy between public and business management is only apparent: the field of public management has followed the same theoretical frameworks and viewpoints as business management. Taylor (1911), Ford, Fayol and Weber (1911/1946) are remarkable masters both in the branches of business and public management presenting scientific and bureaucratic management or "traditional public administration" in the specific applications for public sector (see, e.g. Lynn 2001, 155; Stoker, 2006; O'Flynn, 2007). Thus the tendency for generic management theory is obvious, which has also similar generic reflections to public and private sector practices.

Also, a contemporary dominating approach or paradigm, managerialism, and in the context of public sector, new public management (NPM), is leaning on the viewpoints or practices of business management. There was in the public management and practices some kinds of "counterblow" for the traditional public administration and its weaknesses, such as uncontrolled increasing public sector, in the 1980's in Great Britain, USA and e.g. New Zealand with the leader figures Margaret Thatcher and Ronald Reagan (See, e.g. Hood, 1995; Rusko, 2009). The concept NPM was invented later on. Perhaps, Christopher Hood coined first 1991 the term NPM in his article "A Public Management for All Seasons?". Initially this movement was called "thatcherism", "reaganism" or "monetarism" and in 1993 Osborne & Gaebler used as "Reinventing". Later on, Andrew Dunsire 1995 also used notation NPM, in other words "New Public Management" (Gruening 1998).

Actually, the transition from traditional public administration to NPM was beginning in Great Britain, already late 1970's, after two oil shocks. Before that, traditional public administration or bureaucracy was leading tendency in public management over half a century. However, it is possible to even open the question whether there has been any traditional public administration as a paradigm (See, e.g. Lynn, 2001). NPM has been now in Great Britain about 30 years prevailing tendency or paradigm in public management, in other countries NPM has been about 20 years dominating practice and paradigm in public management. The previous paradigm shift in public management was happened because of the 1970's economic crisis based on oil shocks and expanded public sector. Interesting hypothetic question is whether it already time for new paradigm shift: namely mid-2000's became a new paradigm, public value management, which have not still get established status as a paradigm. However, a contemporary global economic crisis resembles the situation in the 1970's providing reasons for "reinventions" again, also in the field of public sector.

In the literature of business management is manifested a couple of simultaneous paradigms: traditional competition paradigm is based on the traditional assumption of competing firms in the market. The task of the managers is to act efficiently maximizing profits of the firms in competing markets. During resent decades has been also alternative paradigm, which is based on cooperation and networks of the firms. (See, e.g. Padula & Dagnino, 2007). In the public management the dominating paradigm, new public management, emphasises managerialism and efficiency of public units. Actually, NPM is

based rather on competition paradigm than cooperation paradigm (Rusko, 2009).

Business management consist of also viewpoints, such as co-evolution or coepetition, combining elements of competition and cooperation. Furthermore, especially coepetition viewpoint emphasises also value net and value creation in the same way as public value management and some other post-NPM viewpoints in the literature of public administration. The main aim of this article is to compare these two frameworks, coepetition and networking based or/and value based post-NPM viewpoints, such as public value management and establish linkages between these two frameworks for the discussions of management literature and for the needs of practical management.

The structure of the article is following. First we introduce Public Value Management and some other Post-NPM viewpoints and compare their main characteristics. Then we consider theoretical background of value creation in the management studies considering particularly studies of coepetition and of public value management. After that we compare the most important characteristics of coepetition concept and public value management paradigm. We noticed one environment especially fruitful for comparison between these two approaches. Namely, in contemporary business environment the roles of projects and public sector in them are important characteristics. We call these projects as "semi-public" projects. We will consider these in more detail in fourth section because they provide the research base which makes possible to find similarities of networking characteristic between PVM and coepetition. Finally, we have discussion about the general importance of public value

management and its connections to coepetition concept.

2. Public Value Management and other Post-NPM viewpoints

2.1. Public value management

Although the viewpoints of public value management have been called as a "paradigm", there are only view scientific articles of reports focused on public value management. Mark Moore invented Public Value Management -concept in the 1980's and wrote 1995 a book *Creating Public Value*. In this section we introduces most of literature focused on public value (management) and their main findings, especially the launch for "public value management" concept, which was a report, also named *Creating Public Value* written by Kelly, Mulgan and Muers (2002) for the needs of reforming public services in Great Britain. Report was part of the conversations, background of the preparing the public service reform, it was not the official attitude of the government of that time. This ambitious report concentrated to determine concept of "public value" in many ways. In this report they made suggestions to re-organise the public management practices and structures.

According to Kelly et al. (2002), public value is created by government, through services, laws regulation and other actions. "Value is determined by citizens' preferences, expressed through a variety of means and refracted through the decisions of elected politicians". Their starting point is that public sector is really adding value and the legitimacy of government depends on how well it creates value. By using input-output framework to interpret their ideas, we can say that

the outputs must be higher than the inputs to the public sector. Their consideration is not based only on monetary terms, e.g. sacrifices "can also involve granting coercive powers to the state (e.g. in return for security), disclosing private information (e.g. in return for more personalised information/services), giving time (e.g. as a school governor or a member of the territorial army) or other personal resources...". They emphasise the role of opportunity cost and value creating in three forms: better outcomes, services and trust.

There are many practical problems involved in this value creation logics of public sector: how to calculate value creation, costs and benefits of public sector, if there are also non-monetary characters involved in the framework. Also, the structure and order of importance in public values will change gradually and each stakeholder has different opinions about values of e.g. a particular public service. Kelly et al. (2002) admit these problems and notices that "public value is best maximised neither by competitive private markets nor by monopoly public provision." In other words, public value management provides alternative to unilateral cost reduction of public services, i.e. tendency for "buying rather than making", both of them typical for New Public Management, or authoritarian traditional public management (see, also O'Flynn, 2005).

Stoker (2006) included the concept of public value management in the networked governance discussions. According to Stoker, people have motivational force for networks, involvement and successful relationships. However, also public value management meets the question of metagovernance, influencing processes of self-governance (see, e.g. Bogason & Musso, 2006). In other words,

public management is not able to lean on only voluntary networking activities of people. There must also be interaction between governors and governed (Bogason & Musso, 2006).

Generally, public value management is focused on the assumption of national state: "public" in these discussions means public actions in a national state. There are not any international or cross-border extensions for this concept. This is natural, because public value management is some kind of counter-blow for the popularity of new public management, which is also based on the public administration especially in the national state. However, this extension towards international and cross-border arenas should be possible and topical in these discussions: the economic areas, such as European Union, have today more public power as earlier. Also, multinational companies have effects on several countries at the same time. Thus, globalisation and international institutions are important contemporary actors (see, e.g. Djelic & Quack, 2003).

Compared to NPM, PVM provides broader measure than NPM covering outcomes, "the means used to deliver them as well as trust and legitimacy" (Kelly et al., 2002). In the NPM - in spite of its macroeconomic starting-points - has a tendency for narrow micro-management and lack of attention given to democratic engagement citizens and stakeholder groups (Kelly et al., 2002).

Although public value is more complicated to measure than private value, Kelly et al. (2002) emphasise some characteristics in public value creation, which are common also in business value creation, such as co-production between producer (public sector) and consumer (citizen). Relationship between customer and producer have been

emphasised also in the discussions of value co-creation (Ordanini and Pasini, 2008; Vargo et al., 2008) or coopetition (Brandenburger & Nalebuff, 1996; Walley, 2007).

2.2. The relationship between PVM and other Post-NPM viewpoints.

It is possible to link public value management up the post-NPM viewpoints, such as new governance, new public administration or new public service, for example. These viewpoints have several similar aspects with each other. Furthermore, all these viewpoints have some characteristics similar to NPM or to managerialism. NPM or managerialism is

based on economic efficiency in public activities and services. All these viewpoints are aiming to attach efficiency. The differences between them are, however, based on the way how efficiency is understood and possible to achieve according to different viewpoints.

In table 1 is compared post-NPM viewpoints, mentioned above. The characteristics, which we use in this comparison, are *public interest, performance objective and associated models of human behaviour, accountability, background or characterisation, To whom are public servants responsible, Role for public participation and Goal of managers.*

Table 1. The comparison between the characteristics of NPM, PVM and other post-NPM viewpoints (See, e.g. Kelly et al., 2002; Bogason & Musso, 2006; Frederickson, 1996; Denhardt & Denhardt, 2000)

Characteristics	NPM	PVM	New governance	New Public Administration	New public Service
Public interest	Aggregation of individual preferences, demonstrated by customer choice	Individual and public preferences (resulting from public deliberation)	To encourage citizens to participate in decisions that affect their lives	Social equity, the common or shared interests of citizens.	Results of dialogue about shared values
Performance objective and associated models of human behavior	Managing inputs and outputs "economic" man.	Multiple objectives - Service outputs - Satisfaction - Outcomes - Maintaining trust/ legitimacy Cooperation/networking	The expansion of citizen participation or engagement (the "franchise") and the scope and authenticity of democracy.	Value being served through administrative action Citizens are member of a social and political community including rights and responsibilities.	Strategic rationality, multiple tests of rationality (political, economic, organisational)

Characteristics	NPM	PVM	New governance	New Public Administration	New public Service
Accountability	Upwards through performance contracts; sometimes outwards to customers through market mechanisms	Multiple - citizens as overseers of government - customers as users - taxpayers as funders	Accountability for collective decisions; advance political equality while educating citizens. Contributing to citizens' moral development.	Democratic citizenship.	Multifaceted-public servants must attend to law, community values, political norms, professional standards, and citizen interests
Background/characterisation	Post-Bureaucratic, Competitive Government, Economic theory	Post-competitive	Networking, participation.	Change in administration, process orientation.	Democratic theory, varied approaches to knowledge including positive, interpretive, and postmodern
To whom are public servants responsible	Customers	Citizens as taxpayers	The public as interest group (pluralist), consumer (public choice), re-presented voter, client, and citizens.	Citizens	Citizens
Role for public participation	Limited – apart from use of customer satisfaction surveys	Crucial – multi-faceted (customers, citizens)	Multifaceted: citizens and stakeholders	Synergy between the public and private sectors	Multifaceted-Focused on democracy and citizens
Goal of managers	Meet agreed performance targets	Respond to citizen/user preferences, renew mandate and trust through guaranteeing quality services.	Negotiation and persuasion, collaboration, and enablement, which includes activation, orchestration, and modulation skills.	Positive, proactive and responsive administrators	Public service, desire to contribute to society

The comparison shows that the differences between PVM and NPM are greater than the differences between PVM and other post-NPM approaches. PVM and other post-NPM viewpoints emphasise the importance of citizens, networking and multifaceted role for public participation. Democracy is more important guiding principle in PVM and in other post-NPM viewpoints than in NPM. There are also other similar characteristics between PVM and other post-NPM viewpoints e.g. in the case of servicing. Both new public service and PVM emphasise services as an important function of public sector. In NPM the aim is to provide services as efficiently as possible. The main difference between NPM and post-NPM viewpoints (including PVM) is in the way how the efficiency is defined. In NPM efficiency is based on only cost reduction, but post-NPM viewpoints define efficiency in more multifaceted way, the way of stakeholders and citizens.

We have noticed that PVM is a reasonable representative framework for several post-NPM frameworks because of their several similar characteristics. It is impossible to say which one of these several viewpoints are the most challenging for NPM paradigm. However, in this study we emphasise especially the characteristics of PVM.

3. Theoretical background for value creation in the management studies

In contemporary management studies win-win framework is very popular. In win-win situation both of the counterparts gains because of the value creation process of cooperation. There are dozens of ways, concepts or theories, in the management literature, to consider win-win processes and structures. In this section we introduce some of them,

which have connections to coopetition concept and public value management.

The most important target for cooperation is to get higher common benefit via cooperation. In the traditional neoclassical economics, cartels are an illegal way to organise competitive market in order to attach monopoly power and higher joint profits. Different forms of cartels were usual forms of cooperation already in the 19th century. In the 20th century competition legislation and antitrust laws were established to prevent economics from harmful cartels, which raises market prices and reduces production, i.e. cartels have decreasing effect on consumer surplus.

Gradually, also other cooperation forms as illegal cartels or collusions gained ground in the management literature and practices. For instance, alliances or strategic alliances, which are especially popular contemporary ways to organise cooperation between entities, was mentioned already in 1955 by M.S. Estey (1955), *The Strategic Alliance as a Factor in Union Growth*. In this paper the focus was semi-public environment, in labour market institutions. In business management strategic alliances was used not until late 1980's for example by Darrough and Stoughton (1989) and the use of concept "strategic alliance" stabilized by Jorde and Teece (1990, 85). (See, e.g. Rusko, 2008). According to definition of Jorde and Teece (1990) strategic alliance is an interfirm agreement, "which can be defined as a bilateral or multilateral relationship characterized by commitment of two or more partner firms to a common goal". Already this definition consists of the idea for common value creation of the firms. This value creation character of strategic alliances were especially emphasised later on by Doz & Hamel (1998). They focused not only

on value creation but also value capturing in the context of strategic alliances.

Value creation in the form of “competitive advantage” or especially “competitive advantage of nations” has been on the background of the literature of many management scholars, such as Michael Porter. Especially cluster or “diamond model”, introduced by Porter (1990), is based on intentional or unintentional (local) cooperation of firms. Via this cooperation the products of cluster will achieve also international competitive advantage.

Value creation connected with cooperation is the main character also in many other conversations of management. For instance, in co-evolution (e.g. Lamberg and Laurila, 2005; Zetting and Benson-Rea, 2008) the focus is on the long-term beneficial collaboration and evolution between firms and sometimes also public sector is involved in these considerations. Furthermore, the studies of service co-creation or value co-creation (e.g. Ordanini and Pasini, 2008; Vargo et al., 2008) emphasise the value creation between supplier-purchaser relationships in Business-to-Business or Business-to-Consumer transactions. In these considerations customers are producing and providing together with the producers the meanings for the product. In other words, customers are in the role of “prosumer” (See, e.g. Toffler, 1980).

Also, in the case of co-competition –concept, value creation is very important. In one of the earliest text book of co-competition, Brandenburger & Nalebuff (1996) formulated a “value net”, a framework which involves in connection between several actors, or stakeholders, of the business environment of the firm. Competitors, complementors, customers and suppliers have linkages with a firm via this value net. Co-competition is defined to

be simultaneous cooperation and competition between firms. The main idea of co-competition is “to create a bigger business pie, while competing to divide it up.” (Brandenburger & Nalebuff, 1996; Luo, 2004b). Luo (2004b) has considered especially the cases where the competing multinational firms e.g. in China cooperate to establish more suitable infrastructure and education for the needs of production together with local authorities.

Co-competition studies have focused on three main themes. As mentioned, Luo (2004a, 2004b, 2005, 2006, 2007) has researched inter-firm co-competition especially in the case of multinational companies (MNCs), also e.g. Vapola et al. (2006) have considered MNC’s and co-competition. Vlaam and Jong (2002), M’Chirgui (2005), Dowling et al. (1996), Mandal and Antunes (2005), Gnyawali et al. (2006), and Bengtsson & Kock (2000) have studied inter-firm co-competition. Another popular area is co-competition in intra-organisational networks (see e.g. Tsai, 2002; Luo et al., 2006; Amburgey and Rao, 1996), for example, between subsidiaries of a company.

Co-competition has been characterized to provide win-win situation for the participating two firms, which situation is called also dyadic co-competition (Bengtsson & Kock, 2003). If there are more than two participants, co-competition is called e.g. multifaceted co-competition (Dowling et al. 1996). One particular multifaceted form of co-competition is situation in which also the consumers will gain from co-competition. These kinds of situations are called also as win-win-win game (Walley, 2007), because there are at least three entities gaining from this arrangement.

Also in the public value management, value or value creation has been noticed to be important character in the literature and in the practice. For instance, Moore (1995)

and Stoker (2006) has emphasised the idea that public managers (politicians or officials) should create public value. One of its targets is to get "officials to work more effectively with politicians" (Stoker, 2006). Opposite to the new public management, in the public value management there is not aim to commercialise public sector. Especially Stoker (2006) emphasise the importance of networked governance and the motivations of individuals by involvement in networks and partnerships in the context of public value management.

Thus, it is easy to notice some linkages between the viewpoint of cooptation in business management discussions and of public value management in public management discussions. Both of them consider value creation and cooperation networks. In next section we compare these viewpoints or paradigms and find possibilities to establish a combined viewpoint for these approaches.

4. Similarities and differences between cooptation approach and public value management approach

There are many similarities between cooptation and public value management approaches. Cooperation is one of them. Furthermore, especially the multifaceted forms of cooptation and public value management paradigm have many similar characters: both of them are based on networks and management of relationships with stakeholders. In the field of cooptation, this networking characteristic is called as "value net" and in the field of public value management there are connections with "networked governance".

In some papers both cooptation and public value management (or networked

governance) have been characterized to be emergent strategy (Mariani, 2007; Stoker, 2006; Bogason & Musso, 2006; Rhodes & Wanna, 2007) in management studies. Mariani (2007) noticed that in the case of semi-public activities and projects in the branch of opera houses the emerging strategy was cooptation.

The competing opera houses belonged to the same projects coordinated by public sector. Because of these projects, these competing opera houses learnt to cooperate with each other. In this case, the cooptation strategy comes emergent because of the affects of public management. Project-based organizing generally provides opportunities for cooperation between competing firms. Generally, many project organisations have connections to public sector, i.e. it is possible to call them as "semi-public".

For many local semi-public organisations and management, simultaneous competition and cooperation or co-evolution is a natural form of strategy (see, e.g. Kylänen, 2005; Visser & Atzema, 2008). One can ask why not also for the strategies of the public organisations and generally for public management? One reason is that the public organisations have not any competitors – at least in same way as in private or semi-public organisations. The increased importance of public sector may rise, however, according to the rate of cooperation. Also, in public value management, cooperation and networks are important, as already noticed.

5. Multifaceted activities, public value management and cooptation in the case of projects

We have noticed that PVM and cooptation have on the background multifaceted

networking or collaboration. In multifaceted cooperation also the importance of public sector is significant. In the contemporary economic activities, public sector is one of the most important stakeholders and participants in the modern project-based business environment (See, e.g. Crawford & Helm, 2009). When the public sector is involved in a project or activity and the rate of cooperation and networking for this reason increases, it is possible to interpret that public sector is trying to increase the value creation or benefits as a result of that project. Public sector will create cooperation situation in this kind of project by following the ideas of public value management. These kinds of findings, which emphasise the significance of public value management in the context of projects, have been noticed also in article of Crawford & Helm (2009). Also, Chaudhri & Samson (2000) considered projects in which the role of public sector is essential, which we call here as the "semi-public projects", or actually they considered business-government task forces in the context of value creation and cooperation. In this section we

concentrate the connections between cooperation and public value management paradigms as a one possible guiding principle in project management. The basic idea of public value management introduced especially by Kelly et al. (2002) was meant as a starting point for macro level public service reform in UK. However, in their reports there were several micro-level examples how to follow the idea of public value management. This paradigm is based on public services, cooperation, networks, stakeholders, value creation and emergence. All these factors, in the same way as in cooperation, are also involved in the successful semi-public projects between competing firms or entities. In this section we show that the basic ideas of public value management are suitable, for example, in semi-public activities and projects.

In Table 2 we have comparison between typical location-based activities : totally private activities with firms, semi-public activities and totally public activities using two dimensions as a measurement: private sector vs. public sector and multi-faceted vs. single-faceted.

Table 2. Public value management and cooperation in the context of private, public and semi-public activities.

	Private sector (business) based activity	Semi-public project or activity	Public sector based activity
Multi-faceted activity	Multi-faceted cooperation without any particular effects of government. Win-win-win – project (Compare Walley, 2007).	Typical semi-public project. "Perfect" multi-faceted cooperation including government. Contains many characters of public value management. Several stakeholders involved in project. Win-win-win –project (Compare Luo, 2004b)	Public sector dictates totally the content of the project. Public sector is the main producer and purchaser. Involves apparently, however, several stakeholders and nuances for public value management.

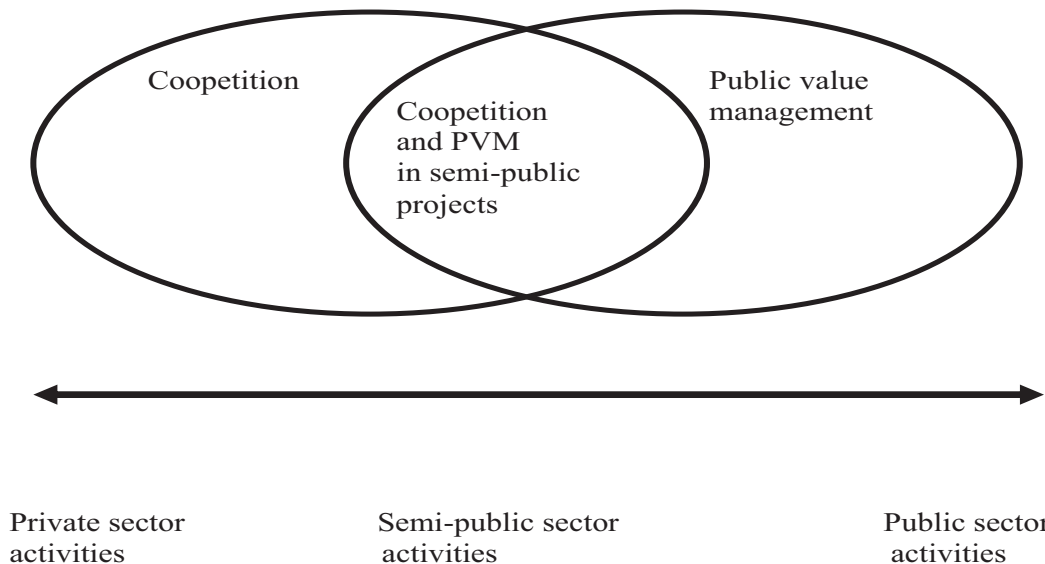
	Private sector (business) based activity	Semi-public project or activity	Public sector based activity
	Cooperation (coopetition) project between firms involving one or a couple of stakeholders without any particular effects of public sector.	Semi-public project including only a couple of actors of the private and public sectors. Have some characters of public value management and possibly of coopetition.	Public sector based project with minor cooperation with some stakeholders.
Single-faceted activity	Typical cooperation project with firms. (If two competing firms: dyadic coopetition). Even cartels are one possible outcome. Win-win (or win-win-lose) –project. (Compare Brandenburger & Nalebuff, 1996)	Semi-public project with simplifications and a very few partners, e.g. one partner from public and private sectors.	Typical project of public sector. Cooperation between units of public sector. Win-win (or win-win-lose) –project. Efficiency is not ensured.

Public value management is typical for multifaceted semi-public projects, which participants both from the public and private sectors are involved in (see, e.g. Kelly, et al., 2002). These kinds of projects contain several stakeholders such as public authorities, households and local firms. Public sector is, however, remarkably involved in the project and is somehow controlling its success. These kinds of project are based on co-production, co-marketing, co-financing, co-purchasing or/and co-research and development between firms, public units and other entities. If the cooperating firms are horizontally integrated, it also contains typical multi-faceted coopetition (Compare, Luo, 2004b). If these kinds of semi-public activities are successful

for long a time, also a co-evolution of public and private entities are possible. This kinds of co-evolution has been noticed e.g. in the forest industry (Lamberg & Laurila, 2005) and tourism (Rusko et al., 2009).

Table 2 shows that difference between coopetition concept and public value management in the context of local semi-public project or other activities is actually minor. It is even possible to interpret that there is no difference between the concept of coopetition and public value management in the case of multi-faceted activity in which there are participants from the public and private sectors, that is, in the multi-faceted semi-public projects. Figure 1 also outlines the same conclusion.

Figure 1. The concepts of coepetition, public value management and their connections in multi-faceted public, private and semi-public projects.



5. Conclusions

There are some dominating paradigms in the contemporary management studies: competition and cooperation paradigms in the business management and managerialism or NPM in the public management. This paper shows that there are both theoretical and practical connections between public management and business management. NPM is based on efficiency and competition paradigm, but nearly not at all on cooperation paradigm. In spite of the dominance of these paradigms, there are also so challenging viewpoints or paradigms, such as coepetition, which combines characteristics of competition and cooperation paradigm, and post-NPM viewpoints in the field of public sector. We picked up especially one of these

post-NPM viewpoints, namely Public Value Management (PVM), which emphasises networking, citizenship and other multifaceted aspects. Also coepetition is focused on networking and other multifaceted viewpoints, such as win-win-win strategy.

Thus, finally the focus of this study was on two viewpoints: the coepetition concept and public value management paradigm. The article provides several linkages between these two viewpoints. Value creation, networks, cooperation and tendency to be emergent strategy seemed to be common characteristics of them.

The PVM literature has remarkable macro-level targets. However, it is easy to find micro-level applications to PVM efforts. One obvious application, which has several joint features with business management

concept cooptation is “semi-public project” environment. Multi-faceted forms of cooptation and public value management framework are the different sides of the same coin in the context of semi-public activities and projects –or at least they combine each other.

By using these theoretical concepts such as cooptation and PVM, and their central characteristics, we find it possible to establish a new framework for project management in the semi-public context.

It is not only coincidence that cooptation concept of business management and public value management paradigm resembles each other: they are the latest challenging contemporary management frameworks

or paradigms in the management studies. They have “invented” nearly at the same time and both of them have not so far reached significant role in the field of management. However, there are good opportunities for that: the prevailing dominating paradigms of management have not been successful recent years. The macroeconomic problems are obvious. In this context it is reasonable to remember that the current paradigm of public sector, new public management, was born because of the remarkable macroeconomic problems in USA and UK 1970’s and 1980’s. Meanwhile, we can already notice the significance of PVM and cooptation in micro-level context, such as semi-public project management.

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