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E-Administration and Organizational Performance: Theoretical Foundations

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ABSTRACT

This paper explores the theoretical underpinnings of e-administration and its implications for organizational performance in contemporary public and private sector management. E-administration, broadly understood as the use of digital technologies to enhance administrative processes, has emerged as a key driver of efficiency, transparency and responsiveness in organizational operations. The paper examines foundational theories such as Public Value Management Theory, Technology Acceptance Theory (TAT), Communications Theory, Diffusion of Innovation Theory and the Theory of Change Games to elucidate how digital administrative tools influence organizational structures, decision-making processes and service delivery. It also critically analyzes challenges associated with the adoption of e-administration, including infrastructural limitations, digital literacy gaps and resistance to change. By integrating these theoretical perspectives, the study provides a conceptual framework for understanding the dynamic relationship between technology-enabled administration and organizational outcomes.

Keywords: *E-administration, Organizational performance, Digital transformation, Administrative processes, Change management*

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INTRODUCTION

In an era increasingly defined by digital transformation, the integration of electronic technologies into administrative processes, commonly referred to as e-administration, has emerged as a pivotal development in organizational management and public sector reform (Heuberger, 2022; Viana, 2021). E-administration involves the application of information and communication technologies (ICTs) to support, streamline, and enhance administrative functions such as record-keeping, communication, service delivery, human resource management, and decision-making (Obike, 2022). It represents a paradigm shift from traditional, paper-based bureaucratic procedures to more agile, transparent, and data-driven systems. As organizations, both public and private, grapple with demands for greater efficiency, accountability, and responsiveness, e-administration has been widely adopted as a strategic tool to improve organizational performance (Obike, 2022; Onwunyi, & Okoli, 2017). Organizational performance, encompassing measures such as productivity, service quality, operational efficiency,

and stakeholder satisfaction, is increasingly being influenced by the quality and sophistication of administrative systems (Raza, 2014). In this regard, e-administration is posited to not only automate routine tasks but also to foster innovation, enable real-time communication, and support evidence-based decision-making. However, despite its growing importance, the theoretical underpinnings of the relationship between e-administration and organizational performance remain underdeveloped and fragmented across disciplines. While empirical studies often affirm the positive impact of ICT-enabled administration, the theoretical frameworks that explain *how* and *why* this impact occurs are varied and, at times, inconsistent. This paper seeks to explore the theoretical issues surrounding e-administration and its implications for organizational performance. It aims to unpack the conceptual foundations of e-administration, while also clarifying the dimensions of performance it seeks to influence. The paper reviews and analyzes the key theoretical frameworks that address the interface between technology and administration including public value management theory, technology acceptance theory (TAT), communications theory, diffusion of innovation theory and the theory of change games. Each of these perspectives offers distinct insights into the drivers, mechanisms and constraints of e-administration's effectiveness. In doing so, the paper identifies areas of theoretical convergence, divergence and gaps, with particular attention to context-sensitive variables such as organizational culture, digital literacy, policy environment and infrastructure capacity. By grounding the analysis in theory, this study provides a specific understanding of how e-administration can be strategically deployed to enhance performance, while also acknowledging the risks of technocratic reductionism and the socio-political dynamics that mediate technology adoption. Ultimately, the paper contributes to the growing body of literature on digital transformation in administration by emphasizing the need for a robust theoretical foundation to guide both research and practice. It argues for a multidimensional, interdisciplinary approach that recognizes the complexity of administrative systems in the digital age and supports the development of more adaptive, inclusive and performance-oriented organizations.

Public value management theory

The Public value theory was first introduced by Mark Moore (1995) in his seminal work “Creating Public Value: Strategic Management in Governance”, in which he suggested that the aim of managerial work in the public sector is to create public value. Moore introduced public value management as an alternative to New Public Management (NPM). According to Bozeman (2007 in Strathoff 2016:17), NPM “to some extent codified and prescribed governance approaches based on economic individualism and market mechanisms”. Drawing on the private sector management modus operandi, NPM focused on ensuring that government became more effective and resourceful as well as elevating the individual rather than the collective. Elements of the NPM approach included outsourcing by the public sector; considering the public as government’s customers; and the establishment of regulating processes to be utilized as key performance indicators (Strathoff 2016:17). Public value is rooted in the concept of the public being the appropriate mediator of public value, emphasizing the societal component in public management instead of economic individualism (Benington & Moore 2011:10; Strathoff 2016:17). The public value theory puts forward a public administration theory that is democratic, cooperative and underscores governance (Turkel & Turkel 2016:7). It places the onus on the public sector to broaden its focus and create values that stakeholders and the public require rather than merely ensuring efficiency (GilGarcia, Zhang & Puron-Cid 2016:527). While public value acknowledges public administration’s preoccupation with efficiency at the time, it also focuses on other principles such as objectivity, equality, democracy and justice (Bryson, Crosby & Bloomberg 2015:5). Collaboration and engagement emerge as an important aspect of public value management. At the very heart of public value management is the aspiration to attain public value and determine what it constitutes as a process that requires collaboration from public managers and eminent stakeholders. The public value management approach is concerned with understanding what the public considers of significance and as such, stakeholders form an important part of this approach. With this approach, a decision is considered to be legitimate only when the relevant stakeholders have had a say in. Turkel and Turkel (2016:3) argue that with democracy and citizens as its focal point, public value aims to meet objectives resourcefully by reaching out to citizens and ensuring communication among citizens, public managers and professionals. The major shortfall of this theory lies on its inability to aptly capture how the deployment and use of ICT could possibly increase public value management as it concerns the aspiration to attain public value and determine what it constitutes as a process that requires collaboration from public managers and eminent stakeholders. This is solely because the public value management approach is concerned with understanding what the public considers of significance and as such, stakeholders form an important part of this approach.

Technology acceptance theory (TAT)

The Technology Acceptance theory (TAT) originated by Fred Davis (1989) in his work “Technology and Administration in the Digital age”. The Technology Acceptance Theory is an organizational philosophy centered on the performance and improvement of employees in organizations in service delivery and process quality to meet and surpass the expectations of the masses. This indicates that everyone in an

organization, from the top down, plays a part in providing high-quality service to the general public. The technology acceptance theory is an information systems theory model that describes how users come to accept and use technology in an organization, as well as how accepting technology leads to the development, performance, and improvement that are generally deserved for both individuals and organizations. It's worth noting that Joseph Juran, a legendary pioneer in quality management who died in February 2008 at the age of 103, did more than teach the Japanese about the subject.

The theory also emphasize that no quality management system works unless people are empowered and dedicated to taking on duties as a continuous process in order for quality to become ingrained in people's behavior and attitudes toward technology (ICT). When performing research on poor service delivery and non-performance of a department due to a lack of equipment that would improve their performance, the theory would be an acceptable frame. The degree to which a person feels that utilizing a certain system would improve his or her job performance is the focus of the technology acceptance theory. It implies that if a person feels that technology is beneficial and that utilizing ICT is simple and straightforward, it will inspire civil servants to do their tasks. The following are some of the key aspects of the technology acceptance theory: 1. perceived usefulness and 2. Perceived ease of use."(Figure 1).

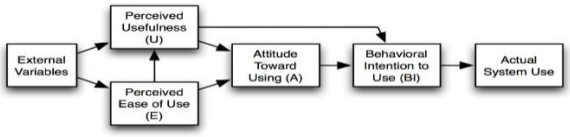

Figure 1: Diagram of Technology Acceptance Theory (TAT)

According to Fred Davis, the degree to which a person feels that utilizing ICT would improve his or her job performance will lead them to agree that the system is appropriate for their needs. In the same vein, Davis (1989) defined perceived ease of use as the degree to which a person believes that utilizing a specific system would be painless, and if the system is difficult to use and operate, one's attitude toward it will change. This theory has been criticized by scholars such as Zahid et al. (2013) and Bashange, (2015).

Bashange (2015), suggests that a great deal of the relevant available literature which refers to the TAM tends to regard it as a dependent variable, rather than a means of determining the factors which influence behavior. The criticism which is advanced by Zahid et al. (2013) suggests that the TAM does not consider factors such as age and education as external variables which could influence acceptance of and willingness to use technology. Conversely, it could be contended that it is extremely problematic to measure behavior, as hidden personality traits often motivate behavior. Accordingly, potential users of technology may not necessarily base their acceptance of and willingness to use new technology on their perceptions of the usefulness of IT and how easy it is to use, although the model does suggest that there may be other external factors which could be responsible for their acceptance of the technology.

Communications theory

This theory was propounded by Karl Deutsch and later expanded by other scholars such as Morton R. Davies, James Charles worth, Vaughan A. Lewis, David H. Everson, and Joan Papard Paine. Communications theory is based on cybernetics, which is the science of communication as the major source of system control. Cybernetics is likened to information machines or tools like computers and other ICT gargets that controls the flow of information in a system. According to Ojukwu, Ukatu, Ohuoha & Nnakwue (2016) Communication deals with the production, dissemination, procession and effects of information, both through media and interpersonally in the society. Pivotal to the definition is the requirement that 'the message has a significant effect on the thinking, beliefs, and behaviours of individuals, groups, institutions, and whole societies and the environments in which they exist". The key idea of communication theory as argued by Nwachukwu & Pepple (2015) is that communication is the basics of all the political activities. When communications flow from top to bottom in a political system would fast-track the implementation of government policies and improves the political life. Communication theory is one of the ingredients that make a system effective. Some of the major aspects of the theory are: 1. Human beings play an important role in steering and coordinating information flow in a system by using several channels to transmit information.

This implies that without the efforts of humans, information cannot be communicated in and out of a system. 2. Political goals can be achieved through co-ordination and co-operation among people of society which is affected by communication. 3. Deutsch is also of the opinion that human habits of the citizens determine the success of political decisions and habit is development through information gathered 26 from communication. A good system maintains good communication and relationship among the agencies. 4. Another aspect of the communication theory is the feedback mechanism; Deutsch believes that feedback in a crucial stage in communication. Information is originated and transmitted to other systems or environment and then converted into decisions which are them disseminated around the system. These decisions are implemented and transmitted back through feedback mechanism. The theory explains how information delivery in a political system determines its success. This is important because information is the major component of any system network. Making decisions in any system is a function of the quality of

information available to the leaders. This theory advocates the use of communication variables to enhance service delivery. Communication process is vital in any organization as it provides the avenues for transmitting vital information on organizational activities. To achieve productivity in the public sector, employees should be able to communicate effectively among themselves and to the citizens; this can be achieved through effective e-governance system. One important shortcoming of the communications theory is it speaks a lot about the inflow and outflow of information. He believes that the inflow/outflow determine the process of decision-making. But the real situation teaches us different thing. Decision-making, of course, depends on information but at the same time more on the nature of information.

Diffusion of innovation theory

The diffusion of innovation theory was propounded by Everett M. Rogers (1962) and according to him the adoption is a decision of "full use of an innovation as the best course of action available" and rejection is a decision "not to adopt an innovation". Rogers defines diffusion as "the process in which an innovation is communicated thorough certain channels over time among the members of a social system" (pg. 5). As expressed in this definition, innovation, communication channels, time, and social system are the four key components of the diffusion of innovations. According to Rogers there are four main elements in the diffusion of innovations and they are as follow:

Innovation

Rogers offered the following description of an innovation: "An innovation is an idea, practice, or project that is perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption" (Rogers, 2003, p; 12). An innovation may have been invented a long time ago, but if individuals perceive it as new, then it may still be an innovation for them. The newness characteristic of an adoption is more related to the three steps (knowledge, persuasion, and decision) of the innovation-decision process that will be discussed later. In addition, Rogers claimed there is a lack of diffusion research on technology clusters. For Rogers (2003), "a technology cluster consists of one or more distinguishable elements of technology that are perceived as being closely interrelated". Uncertainty is an important obstacle to the adoption of innovations. An innovation's consequences may create uncertainty: "Consequences are the changes that occur in an individual or a social system as a result of the adoption or rejection of an innovation" (Rogers, 2003, p; 436). To reduce the uncertainty of adopting the innovation, individuals should be informed about its advantages and disadvantages to make them aware of all its consequences. Moreover, Rogers claimed that consequences can be classified as desirable versus undesirable (functional or dysfunctional), direct versus indirect (immediate result or result of the immediate result), and anticipated versus unanticipated (recognized and intended or not).

Communication channels

The second element of the diffusion of innovations process is communication channels. For Rogers (2003), communication is "a process in which participants create and share information with one another in order to reach a mutual understanding" (p. 5). This communication occurs through channels between sources. Rogers states that "a source is an individual or an institution that originates a message. A channel is the means by which a message gets from the source to the receiver" (p; 204). Rogers states that diffusion is a specific kind of communication and includes these communication elements: an innovation, two individuals or other units of adoption, and a communication channel. Mass media and interpersonal communication are two communication channels. While mass media channels include a mass medium such as TV, radio, or newspaper, interpersonal channels consist of a two-way communication between two and more individuals. On the other hand, "diffusion is a very social process that involves interpersonal communication relationships" (Rogers, 2003, p. 19). Thus, interpersonal channels are more powerful to create or change strong attitudes held by an individual. In interpersonal channels, the communication may have a characteristic of homophily, that is, "the degree to which two or more individuals who interact are similar in certain attributes, such as beliefs, education, socioeconomic status, and the like," but the diffusion of innovations requires at least some degree of heterophily, which is "the degree to which two or more individuals who interact are different in certain attributes." In fact, "one of the most distinctive problems in the diffusion of innovations is that the participants are usually quite heterophilous" (Rogers, 2003, p. 19).

Communication channels also can be categorized as localite channels and cosmopolite channels that communicate between an individual of the social system and outside sources. While interpersonal channels can be local or cosmopolite, almost all mass media channels are cosmopolite. Because of these communication channels' characteristics, mass media channels and cosmopolite channels are more significant at the knowledge stage and localite channels and interpersonal channels are more important at the persuasion stage of the innovation-decision process (Rogers, 2003).

Time

According to Rogers (2003), the time aspect is ignored in most behavioral research. He argues that including the time dimension in diffusion research illustrates one of its strengths. The innovation-diffusion process, adopter categorization, and rate of adoptions all include a time

dimension. These aspects of Rogers' theory will be discussed later in more detail.

Social system

The social system is the last element in the diffusion process. Rogers (2003) defined the social system as "a set of interrelated units engaged in joint problem solving to accomplish a common goal" (p. 23). Since diffusion of innovations takes place in the social system, it is influenced by the social structure of the social system. For Rogers (2003), structure is "the patterned arrangements of the units in a system" (p. 24). He further claimed that the nature of the social system affects individuals' innovativeness, which is the main criterion for categorizing adopters.

Roger further stresses that there is the Knowledge Stage. He argued that the innovation-decision process starts with the knowledge stage. In this step, an individual learns about the existence of innovation and seeks information about the innovation. "What?" "how?," and "why?" are the critical questions in the knowledge phase. During this phase, the individual attempts to determine "what the innovation is and how and why it works" (Rogers, 2003, p. 21). According to Rogers, the questions form three types of knowledge: (1) awareness-knowledge, (2) how-to-knowledge, and (3) principles-knowledge.

Awareness-knowledge

Awareness-knowledge represents the knowledge of the innovation's existence. This type of knowledge can motivate the individual to learn more about the innovation and, eventually, to adopt it. Also, it may encourage an individual to learn about other two types of knowledge.

How-to-knowledge

The other type of knowledge, how-to-knowledge, contains information about how to use an innovation correctly.

Principles-knowledge

The last knowledge type is principles-knowledge. This knowledge includes the functioning principles describing how and why an innovation works.

An innovation can be adopted without this knowledge, but the misuse of the innovation may cause its discontinuance. In fact, an individual may have all the necessary knowledge, but this does not mean that the individual will adopt the innovation because the individual's attitudes also shape the adoption or rejection of the innovation. Again, is the Persuasion Stage? The persuasion step occurs when the individual has a negative or positive attitude toward the innovation, but "the formation of a favorable or unfavorable attitude toward an innovation does not always lead directly or indirectly to an adoption or rejection" (Rogers, 2003, p. 176). The individual shapes his or her attitude after he or she knows about the innovation, so the persuasion stage follows the knowledge stage in the innovation-decision process. Furthermore, Rogers states that while the knowledge stage is more cognitive- (or knowing-) centered, the persuasion stage is more affective- (or feeling-) centered. Thus, the individual is involved more sensitively with the innovation at the persuasion stage. The degree of uncertainty about the innovation's functioning and the social reinforcement from others (colleagues, peers, etc.) affect the individual's opinions and beliefs about the innovation. Close peers' subjective evaluations of the innovation that reduce uncertainty about the innovation outcomes are usually more credible to the individual: "While information about a new innovation is usually available from outside experts and scientific evaluations, teachers usually seek it from trusted friends and colleagues whose subjective opinions of a new innovation are most convincing" (Sherry, 1997, p. 70). Individuals continue to search for innovation evaluation information and messages through the decision stage.

The decision stage

At the decision stage in the innovation-decision process, the individual chooses to adopt or reject the innovation. While adoption refers to "full use of an innovation as the best course of action available," rejection means "not to adopt an innovation" (Rogers, 2003, p. 177). If an innovation has a partial trial basis, it is usually adopted more quickly, since most individuals first want to try the innovation in their own situation and then come to an adoption decision. The vicarious trial can speed up the innovation-decision process. However, rejection is possible in every stage of the innovation-decision process. Rogers expressed two types of rejection: active rejection and passive rejection. In an active rejection situation, an individual tries an innovation and thinks about adopting it, but later he or she decides not to adopt it. A discontinuance decision, which is to reject an innovation after adopting it earlier, may be considered as an active type of rejection. In a passive rejection (or non-adoption) position, the individual does not think about adopting the innovation at all. Rogers stated that these two types of rejection have not been distinguished and studied enough in past diffusion research. In some cases, the order of the knowledge-persuasion-decision stages can be knowledge-decision-persuasion. Especially in collectivistic cultures such as those in Eastern countries, this order takes place and group influence on adoption of an innovation can transform the personal innovation decision into a collective innovation decision (Rogers, 2003).

The implementation stage

At the implementation stage, an innovation is put into practice. However, an innovation brings the newness in

which "some degree of uncertainty is involved in diffusion" (p. 6). Uncertainty about the outcomes of the innovation still can be a problem at this stage. Thus, the implementer may need technical assistance from change agents and others to reduce the degree of uncertainty about the consequences. Moreover, the innovation-decision process will end, since "the innovation loses its distinctive quality as the separate identity of the new idea disappears" (Rogers, 2003, p. 180). Reinvention usually happens at the implementation stage, so it is an important part of this stage. Reinvention is "the degree to which an innovation is changed or modified by a user in the process of its adoption and implementation" (Rogers, 2003, p. 180). Also, Rogers (2003) explained the difference between invention and innovation. While "invention is the process by which a new idea is discovered or created," the adoption of an innovation is the process of using an existing idea" (Rogers, 2003, p. 181). Rogers further discussed that the more reinvention takes place, the more rapidly an innovation is adopted and becomes institutionalized. As innovations, computers are the tools that consist of many possible opportunities and applications, so computer technologies are more open to reinvention.

The confirmation stage

The innovation-decision already has been made, but at the confirmation stage the individual looks for support for his or her decision. According to Rogers (2003), this decision can be reversed if the individual is "exposed to conflicting messages about the innovation" (p. 189). However, the individual tends to stay away from these messages and seeks supportive messages that confirm his or her decision. Thus, attitudes become more crucial at the confirmation stage. Depending on the support for adoption of the innovation and the attitude of the individual, later adoption or discontinuance happens during this stage. Discontinuance may occur during this stage in two ways. First, the individual rejects the innovation to adopt a better innovation replacing it. This type of discontinuance decision is called replacement discontinuance. The other type of discontinuance decision is disenchantment discontinuance. In the latter, the individual rejects the innovation because he or she is not satisfied with its performance. Another reason for this type of discontinuance decision may be that the innovation does not meet the needs of the individual. So, it does not provide a perceived relative advantage, which is the first attribute of innovations and affects the rate of adoption. Also, Rogers (2003) noted that incomplete adoption and non-adoption do not form this adopter classification. Only adopters of successful innovations generate this curve over time. In this normal distribution, each category is defined using a standardized percentage of respondents. For instance, the area lying under the left side of the curve and two standard deviations below the mean includes innovators who adopt an innovation as the first 2.5% of the individuals in a system.

Innovators

For Rogers (2003), innovators were willing to experience new ideas. Thus, they should be prepared to cope with unprofitable and unsuccessful innovations, and a certain level of uncertainty about the innovation. Also, Rogers added that innovators are the gatekeepers bringing the innovation in from outside of the system. They may not be respected by other members of the social system because of their venturesomeness and close relationships outside the social system. Their "venturesomeness" requires innovators to have complex technical knowledge.

Early adopters

Compared to innovators, early adopters are more limited with the boundaries of the social system. Rogers (2003) argued that since early adopters are more likely to hold leadership roles in the social system, other members come to them to get advice or information about the innovation. In fact, "leaders play a central role at virtually every stage of the innovation process, from initiation to implementation, particularly in deploying the resources that carry innovation forward" (Light, 1998, p. 19). Thus, as role models, early adopters' attitudes toward innovations are more important. Their subjective evaluations about the innovation reach other members of the social system through the interpersonal networks. Early adopters' leadership in adopting the innovation decreases uncertainty about the innovation in the diffusion process. Finally, "early adopters put their stamp of approval on a new idea by adopting it" (Rogers, 2003, p. 283).

Early majority

Rogers (2003) claimed that although the early majority have a good interaction with other members of the social system, they do not have the leadership role that early adopters have. However, their interpersonal networks are still important in the innovation-diffusion process. The early majority adopts the innovation just before the other half of their peers adopts it. As Rogers stated, they are deliberate in adopting an innovation and they are neither the first nor the last to adopt it. Thus, their innovation decision usually takes more time than it takes innovators and early adopters.

Late majority

Similar to the early majority, the late majority includes one-third of all members of the social system who wait until most of their peers adopt the innovation. Although they are skeptical about the innovation and its outcomes, economic necessity and peer pressure may lead them to the adoption of the innovation. To reduce the uncertainty of the innovation, interpersonal networks of close peers should

persuade the late majority to adopt it. Then, "the late majority feel that it is safe to adopt" (Rogers, 2003, p. 284).

Laggards

As Rogers (2003) stated, laggards have the traditional view and they are more skeptical about innovations and change agents than the late majority. As the most localized group of the social system, their interpersonal networks mainly consist of other members of the social system from the same category. Moreover, they do not have a leadership role. Because of the limited resources and the lack of awareness-knowledge of innovations, they first want to make sure that an innovation works before they adopt. Thus, laggards tend to decide after looking at whether the innovation is successfully adopted by other members of the social system in the past. Due to all these characteristics, laggards' innovation-decision period is relatively long. In addition to these five categories of adopters, Rogers (2003) further described his five categories of adopters in two main groups: earlier adopters and later adopters. Earlier adopters consist of innovators, early adopters, and early majority, while late majority and laggards comprise later adopters. Rogers identifies the differences between these two groups in terms of socioeconomic status, personality variables, and communication behaviors, which usually are positively related to innovativeness. For instance, "the individuals or other units in a system who most need the benefits of a new idea (the less educated, less wealthy, and the like) are generally the last to adopt an innovation" (Rogers, 2003, p. 295). For Rogers, there was no significant difference between the ages of earlier adopters and later adopters, but this categorization and its characteristics are beyond this study. The criticisms the pro-innovation bias implies that it's beneficial for an innovation to be diffused and adopted by all farmers. In reality though, farmers should only adopt innovations that are appropriate to their context. Another criticism to this theory is the individual-blame bias. This occurs when the blame for non-adoption is put on the farmers. Whereas sometimes it is the fault of the extension practitioner for poor or unclear communication of the innovation or just that the innovation is not appropriate. Instead of considering the whole system and the possible influence of external factors, blame is attributed to the individual. The third criticism is around the recall problem. This occurs when adopters of an innovation cannot accurately recall the exact time they adopted the innovation, let alone when they may have first heard about it. This then affects the accuracy of the adoption related data and the diffusion curve. The fourth and final major criticism, as listed by Rogers, is the issue of equality. This relates to the socio-economic benefits of an innovation not being equally distributed through a given population and the consequent widening of the socio-economic gap due to the adoption of the innovation. This is possibly the most difficult of the criticisms. Another criticism is that many people misinterpret the Diffusion of innovations theory and think that innovativeness is a personal characteristic, yet adopters will often fall into different categories for different innovations. So while being a laggard for one innovation, the same adopter may be an early adopter for a different innovation, just like Roger's father! There is also an issue with the possible negative impacts from the use of the theory, as raised by Garry Stephenson in 2003. For example, if all farmers grew the same variety of hybrid corn, this mono-culture situation could exacerbate a pest or disease, wiping out all the crops in the entire region, possibly leading to food shortages. Another challenge to the Diffusion of innovations theory comes from Geoffrey Moore who wrote the book crossing *the chasm* (2002). He suggests that the adoption curve is not continuous for discontinuous technologies, where adopters are required to substantially change their behaviour or to modify other products and services they use. Rather, there are gaps between each of the segments, and a rather large one referred to as a 'chasm' between early adopters and the early majority.

Theory of change games

Theory of Change games is subsumed under a general Meta-theory of e-government (Heeks and Bailur, 2007). The changing world occasioned by the application of ICT has brought about the need for a paradigm shift. The basic tenet of the theory of change games is that it highlights that informal culture and settings of a polity or government organization will change through the use of information technology. New technologies change 'the game' or the 'playing rules. Bovens and Zouridis (1999), has demonstrated that due to the dominant role of ICT in the handling of individual cases, street level bureaucracies have changed into system level bureaucracies. In these system level bureaucracies, the traditional discretionary power that street level bureaucrats have in tasks-oriented bureaucracies has been transferred to the people that design how ICT and the supporting ICT infrastructure is being used to take over the decision-making process of these street level bureaucracies. In doing massive public service bureaucracies look like information refineries, in which permanently information is being processed full-automatically, according to the design parameters that lay behind refinery process. In this change game we see that the playing rules have changed in bureaucracies in favour of the people who are able to determine under what conditions what kind of information and knowledge is being used, exchanged, processed and shared.

Conclusion

This paper has highlighted the theoretical foundations of e-administration and its impact on organizational performance within modern public and private sector contexts. E-administration (defined as the application of digital tools to improve administrative functions) has become a vital mechanism for promoting efficiency,

transparency and responsiveness in organizational practices. The paper draws on key theoretical models, including public value management theory, Technology Acceptance Theory (TAT), communication theory, diffusion of innovation theory, and the theory of change games, to demonstrate how digital systems can shape organizational structures, influence decision-making and enhance service delivery. By weaving together these theoretical insights, the paper constructs a conceptual ens through which to understand the evolving interaction between digital administration and organizational effectiveness.

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