A POLICY FOR DEVELOPMENT OF PROJECT MANAGEMENT

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Abstract

The share of temporary tasks and activities organised through projects and/or programmes is increasing in modern societies and also in businesses, non-profit and public organisations. To manage an increasing load of projects and programmes, the majority of organisations employ more skilled project management professionals and develop their project management capabilities. Against that background, most governments globally have not paid much attention to the development of project management. In other words, the project management capability (or maturity) has not been a macro-level or policy concern. The article explores the importance of project management capabilities and the need for suitable policies, and outlines a policy for the development of project management.

Keywords: economic policy, entrepreneurship, project management, projectification and programmification, project orientation, entrepreneurial orientation

JEL Classification: D78, E61, G38, I28, L26, L53

Introduction

In contemporary societies we can observe an increasing share of temporary tasks and activities which are – or at least should be – organised and managed through projects and/or programmes. It means that projectification (or projectization, project orientation, etc.) is taking place everywhere – in businesses as well as in non-profit and public organisations, influencing all levels from a single individual to society as a whole. The increasing load of projects and/or programmes forces organisations to employ more skilled project management professionals and to develop their project management capabilities. Against that background it should be acknowledged that the overwhelming majority of governments globally have not paid much attention to the development of project management. In other words – the project management capability (or maturity) has not been recognised as a macro-level or policy concern.

The article has a dual objective: to explore the importance of project management capabilities and the need for suitable policies; and secondly, to outline a policy for the development of project management. The first section provides a brief overview of the essence and development of project management (as a practice field and an academic discipline). The second section relates project management to coherent disciplines. The third section unfolds the relevancy of project management and advocates the need for a suitable policy. The fourth section reviews entrepreneurship policy from the viewpoint of using it as a basis for project management policy. The last (fifth) section outlines a policy for the development of project management and presents main common points of these two policies.

1. The Essence and Development of Project Management

Project Management (hereinafter PM) is an 'ancient' phenomenon, used throughout the recorded human history and even before it. Understandably, there is not much evidence from pre-historic period, but Cleland and Ireland (2006) see three types of evidence – artefacts (like the Great Pyramids), cultural strategies (like the *Magna Carta*), and literature and documents. Moreover, they (*Ibid.*) rely on a widely used example of a pre-historic project – the building of the Ark by Noah.

Perhaps nobody doubts that the mankind has used PM for a very long time, but as (academic) discipline and profession, PM is surprisingly young. For instance, cited before Cleland and Ireland (2006) pointed out that only in 1950s PM was formally recognized as a discipline and in even early 1970s PM was regarded as 'accidental profession'. In spite of that, the new profession was defined in the late 20th century.

As projects and PM have been used for thousands of years, it must not be surprising that common understandings and definitions have also changed. At the time, it may be surprising that up to now a variety of definitions is used both for project and PM. In-depth look and comparison of definitions does not fit the scope of this paper, but Cleland and Ireland (2006) point out that PM (in whatever form, even rudimentary) has been used to create change or deal with change in societies. The prior statement is important because it links PM to innovation since ancient times. Most scholars agree that contemporary PM came into being in 1950s. During these 50-60 years the discipline has evolved noticeably and is defined in PM literature.

Within the last decades PM has been promoted by professional associations. The leading global PM organisations are the Project Management Institute (PMI)[1] and the International Project Management Association (IPMA). There are also regional organisations (like the Australian Institute of Project Management – AIPM) and national professional bodies in most countries. Professional organisations define PM in specific documents, called Bodies of Knowledge (PMI) or Competence Baselines (IPMA) or just Competency Standards (like AIPM). These competency standards are valid for the members of particular association, especially for those who apply for professional certification.

It is generally accepted that the PM discipline has appreciably evolved and (despite a lack of solid evidence) it is often claimed that the use of projects as a form of work has increased (Cicmil *et al.* 2009). This process is also called 'project orientation' or 'projectization' and/or 'projectification'.

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[1] Both PMI and IPMA are acting worldwide, but are different anyhow.
PMI (www.pmi.org) is more unified, consisting of chapters (currently more than 250 chapters in more than 70 countries/states), the headquarters are in Pennsylvania, USA.
IPMA (www.ipma.ch) is an 'umbrella' for national associations (currently 50 associations in all continents), started in Europe and has spread to Americas, Asia, Africa and the Middle East. Direct membership of IPMA is possible only when there is no national association.
AIPM (www.aipm.com.au) was independent until September 2009, when it joined IPMA.

The concept of project orientation by Gareis (2004) considers that companies are becoming more project-oriented. Gareis (2002) expanded this concept as well for societies[2], because more projects and programmes are performed also in new social areas, such as (small) municipalities, associations, schools and even families. Gareis (2002, 2004) has also developed maturity models for project-oriented companies (or organisations) and societies and used these maturity models for benchmarking and assessment of the PM competences of various societies and companies.

Projectization is a relatively older phenomenon. Since the mid-1960s it has been often claimed that our society is becoming increasingly projecticised, i.e. organised in terms of time-limited sequences of (inter)action. This development, which has affected even personal lives of people, was caused by increased use of the project work form; and also by increasing tendency to view ongoing processes (or "business-as-usual") as limited in time and scope. (Packendorff 2002) According to Ekstedt *et al.* (2005), projectization is a typical trend for neo-industrial organisations, which is playing a crucial role in many interesting developments – including the labour market, which might be affected by increasing projectization.

The term projectification appeared in the middle of 1990s in the article of C. Midler (1995), examining Renault's journey towards project orientation. The concept of project orientation was taken from Gareis earlier (1989) publication 'Management by project: the management approach for the future'. This heading indicates that this domain (project orientation, projectization / projectification) appears under different labels – 'management by projects' has (nearly) the same meaning.

Maylor *et al.* (2006) reviewed the evolution of projectification and introduced a new phenomenon 'programmification', standing for implementation of programmes and programme[3] portfolios as management mechanisms in organisations. They claimed that projectification has considerably extended the definition of project and noted that projectification has not been a panacea for individuals or organisations and its cost-benefit balance has to be critically assessed. Besides that, they adjusted the understanding of projectification, eliciting that its novelty was not in the trend of organising work through projects but in the organisational changes that accompanied this trend. Finally, they suggested that "… whilst project-level analysis is important and still has plenty of potential to explore, the multi-project level presents an area of great interest for both practitioners and scholars." (*Ibid.*) Consequently, it represents a promising research agenda and this idea has already been developed further – like in the concept of "project business" by Artto & Kujala (2008).

[2] Gareis (2002) uses a construct 'project-oriented society' (POS) for a society, which applies frequently projects and programmes, and provides project management-related education, research and marketing services.

[3] The cited source speaks about programme portfolios, but more customary term is project portfolios. By widely used definitions, programmes consist of projects, but it is not obligatory to combine (all) projects into programmes – some projects may be stand-alone, but these should be also counted into the project portfolio of an organization.

2. The Relations of Project Management

An important aspect regarding PM (including the relevancy of PM) has already been explored in the overview presented before. As Cleland and Ireland (2006) revealed, PM is used to create or deal with change in societies. This links PM to innovation since ancient times. The importance of innovation is definitely acknowledged in academic literature, as well as in policy documents (like CIP 2005), therefore longer discussion could be omitted here. Entrepreneurship and innovation, as well as pertinent policies are also tightly linked: this is evident in policy documents (CIP 2005) and in academic literature, for instance Drucker (1985) and Acs *et al.* (2009).

As there are inherent links between project management (PM) and innovation, and between innovation and entrepreneurship, one can assume that there is also a link between PM and entrepreneurship, but when looking at academic literature, these two fields seem to be not linked at all. However, there have been some essential developments during the recent years. Precisely, a new subtopic has emerged within the past years – PM in small and medium enterprises (hereinafter SMEs[4]). Until the very recent years, the PM literature almost entirely[5] focused on large organisations. The breakthrough was made by Rodney Turner, Ann Ledwith and John Kelly (2009) stating that "*SMEs do require less-bureaucratic versions of project management…*" and pointing out that there is a "*… need for further research into the nature of those 'lite' versions of project management designed for SMEs*" (*Ibid.*). Therefore we can say that PM and small business management are linked – somehow already during decades (a proof is the book (1984) of Kerzner and Thamhain), but considerable development is probable in the near future.

The link between PM and entrepreneurship may seem still open. So the question is – are small business management and entrepreneurship (exactly or at least nearly) the same or not? The mainstream answer could be yes (see Acs *et al.* 2009), even though some aspects are not yet unambiguously clear for small business management and entrepreneurship scholars. Furthermore, the situation is changing. The specificity of small organisations has not interested the researchers for a long time in the past, but developments can be seen in most fields in the last decades. For instance, strategic management, which was considered relevant only to large enterprises, has acquired a considerable position in small business literature (Birley 1994). In order to obviate long discussion, let us just elicit that only small (and perhaps also medium) business can be the really entrepreneurial ones; big organisations (even if they are fully private) are usually tangling in bureaucracy (Acs *et al.* 2009). In literature there are concepts like intrapreneurship, which could help to turn bigger organisations more entrepreneurial, but there are certain limits to apply them in practice.

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[4] The European Commission (2005) defines SMEs in following subcategories: medium – up to 250, small – up to 50 and micro – up to 10 employees. These subcategories have only upper limits: smalls can be counted into mediums, micros into smalls and mediums.
[5] A notable exception should be mentioned here – a book by Harold Kerzner and Hans Thamhain 'Project Management for Small and Medium Sized Businesses' (Wiley 1984).

Preceding brief discussion of interrelations of innovation, entrepreneurship and PM is shown (in a more visual way) in Figure 1. As seen on the figure, the role of a link between entrepreneurship and PM is (at least so far) realised by innovation.

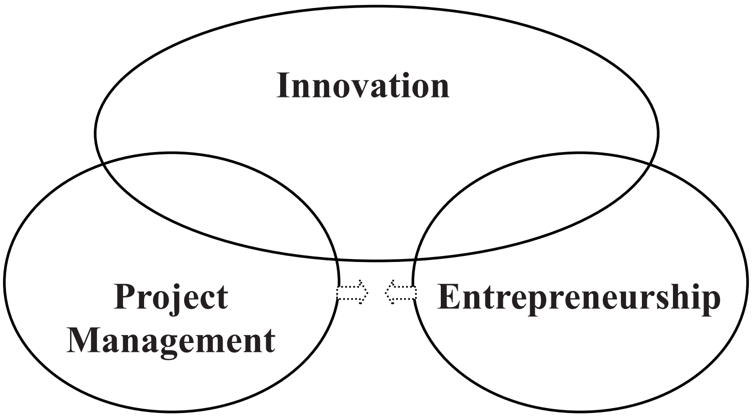

Figure 1. Mutual Relations of Innovation, Entrepreneurship and Project Management.

Although there is not (yet) direct link between entrepreneurship and PM, the dashed arrows allude to possible rapprochement. However, there is still a distance (or empty space) between these professional fields, as well as between academic disciplines. The relations of entrepreneurship and PM deserve a special treatment, which does not fit into the scope of a conference paper; however, some parallels will appear in the brief survey of entrepreneurship policy and entrepreneurship, following later.

3. The Relevancy of Project Management

In cited before article Turner *et al.* (2009) also emended the existing understandings of the relevance of PM. Relying on (actually commonly known) realities that SMEs play an important role in all national economies[6], they claimed that PM can play a significant role in facilitating SMEs and their contribution. This claim is based on their finding that in average projects account for one third of the turnover of SMEs. Thus, projects in SME sector account for about one fifth of the economy. This is more than Western economies spend on large infrastructure projects, but regrettably, projects in SME sector deserved almost no attention in PM literature. In parallel, the topic of large infrastructure projects is quite popular in PM literature. (*Ibid.*) As their statement is based on a rather small sample – 280 companies, the generalisation of their results may be a somewhat doubtful, but nevertheless, their statement sounds credible – especially in contemporary projectified society.

[6] For instance, in EU the SMEs generate 56% of GDP and 70% of private sector employment.

An important contribution of Turner *et al.* (2008) is concretisation of total share of project-based activities in world economy. Taking into account the share of projects in SME sector and the share of new capital formation[7] (large infrastructure projects) they claimed that about one third (1/3) of the world economy is done via projects. It could be said even at least one third, because only SME sector projects give one fifth and adding another (even more than) one fifth by new capital formation, the sum is forty percent. Nevertheless, as the data about the share SME sector projects are from developed economies, it is correct to summarise them with the share of new capital formation in developed countries. In developing countries, where the share of new capital formation is bigger, the share SME sector projects may be lower.

Perceiving that the total share of project-based activities in the world economy is (at least) one third, it is astonishing that governments do not give much credit to PM. Turner *et al.* (2008) give also positive (in some measures) examples like China, UK and Australia, but most of countries do not really care much about PM. Besides the governments, the academic (management) community does not treat PM seriously. For example, no department in business schools in US has PM in its name and Journal of Management does not include PM in its list of key words. Because of all afore-mentioned, Turner *et al.* (*Ibid.*) called PM as 'Cinderella subject'.

Despite of its 'Cinderella-status' regarding academic (management) community and governments, the popularity of PM as a practice field has grown at exponential rates during the recent decades. The exponential growth could be seen mainly in the membership of leading professional associations like PMI (see Figure 2).

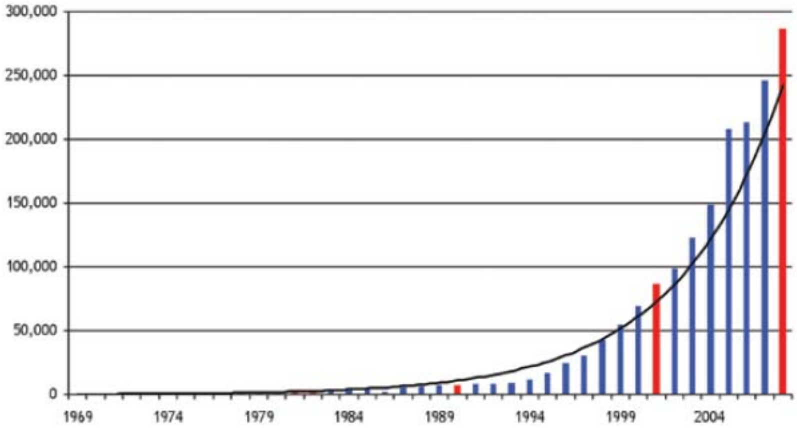

Figure 2. PMI Membership Growth in 1969-2008. (PMI 2009)

[7] Turner et al. (2008) stated that 22% of the global economy is spent on new capital formation, but there are differences by countries – in US & UK 16%, in India 24%, in China 38%.

Nearly the same (but more linear) trend could be seen in the total number of issued PMP[8] credentials, presented in Figure 3.

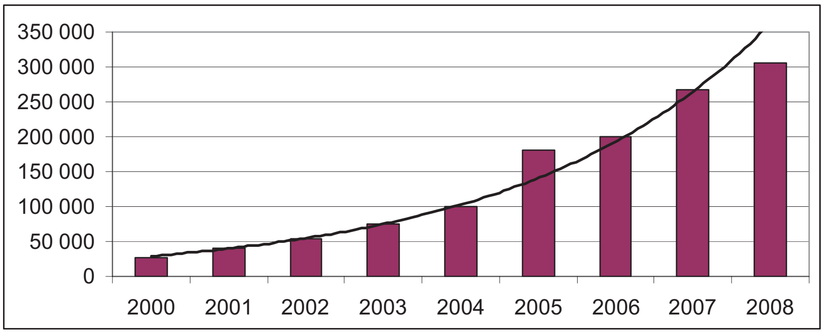

Figure 3. Total number of issued PMP credentials (2000-2008). (PMI 2009)

Spectacular growth of PM as a practice field can be explained by overall demand for workforce in project-oriented occupations, which have been growing faster than in other occupations. According to PMI (2009) this trend is continuous – in U.S from 2006 to 2016, employment in project-oriented occupations across all industries will grow an average of 1.5% while the average across all other occupations will be 1%. It is reasonable that even greater demand of project-oriented workers is expected in projectised industries, which account for nearly one-fourth of GDP of US. Besides, these industries are growing faster than the overall economy. From 2006 to 2016 in US the GDP of projectised industries will grow about 5.6%, compared to 3% for total GDP growth. The most remarkable tenor of PMI is probably in the statement that "… the current global economic situation (the global crisis or decline – AK) will not affect this long-range growth" (*Ibid.*).

Another proof for the increasing popularity of PM is the development of education and training. A perfect example could be China, where more than 100 master-level curricula in PM have been opened recently (PMI 2009). Similar developments are taking place globally, but despite of that, PMI is worried about the situation. Nearly any large company in US has already had difficulties in recruiting and retaining PM professionals. The situation will probably become worse because of the retirement of currently working PM professionals. It means that much more people should be educated and trained to overcome the critical shortage of PM professionals. (*Ibid.*)

Perhaps the presented reality is convincing that the governments all over the world should start paying attention to the development of PM or – in other words – there is a need for appropriate policy.

[8] PMP (Project Management Professional) is the most popular credential (or qualification), issued by PMI (Project Management Institute) (PMP Credential Handbook 2009).

4. Entrepreneurship Policy as a Basis for Project Management Policy

Like PM, the term entrepreneurship is also standing for a phenomenon and/or for an academic discipline. Characterising entrepreneurship in academic literature, we can see word(ing)s like eclectic (Verheul *et al.* 2001) or lacking a conceptual framework (Shane and Venkataraman 2000). This is certainly not usual for a 'solid' academic discipline and relying on that parallelism we can say that entrepreneurship is another 'Cinderella subject'. Continuing with drafting parallels, it should be pointed out that entrepreneurship (or entrepreneurial behaviour) is also probably as old as mankind. At the time, some scholars are more positive about entrepreneurship. For instance, Davidsson (2003) perceives significant progress in entrepreneurship research and the 'emerging field' is promising, as Shane and Venkataraman (2000) pronounced.

The (new) entrepreneurship policy (or E-policy[9]) has grown out of traditional SME policy, but differs from its precursor by two important distinctions. Firstly, it focuses on enabling, rather than constraining of economic actors. Secondly, its orientation has changed, following the changed role of entrepreneurship in society. During the post-World War II era, the importance of entrepreneurship seemed to be fading, but nowadays entrepreneurship has been recognised as the driver of economic and social development. (Audretsch 2002) Compared to (traditional) SME policies, E-policies have a much broader focus. Whereas SME policies are mostly targeted at existing enterprises, E-policies include also potential entrepreneurs. It means that E-policies are more process-oriented, while SME policies are focused on organisational units on the enterprise-level. E-policies encompass multiple organisation units, ranging from individuals to enterprises, as well as clusters or networks, which might involve a sectoral and/or spatial dimension – a city or region, or even country. Nevertheless, Audretsch (*Ibid.*) considers it important to emphasise that SME policy still remains at the core of E-policy, but the latter tends to be more systematic.

Audretsch (2002) points out another distinguishing aspect. Traditional SME policies were implemented by ministries or specific government agencies, which exist in (almost) every country and by now there are well established policy instruments to promote SMEs, but there are no institutions for the promotion of entrepreneurship. E-policies cover a broad spectrum and belong to a number of ministries/agencies, from education to immigration, trade, etc. Thus, no agency exists (and probably can not exist) for a real E-policy.

Lundström and Stevenson (2001) also speak about evolution from SME policy to entrepreneurship policy and underline that the move to E-policy is quite recent. They also provide a historical overview on SME policies and point out that the forerunner of E-policy was born in the beginning of 1950s. It is noticeable that we can observe concurrences with the chronology of first courses in the field of entrepreneurship (eWeb 2006). These coincidences are probably not accidental and so we can say that entrepreneurship policy is as old as entrepreneurship (as academic discipline).

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[9] Abbreviation 'E-policy' was introduced by Lundström and Stevenson (2001), but because prefix E (or e) is widely used for 'electronic' (mail etc), this clarification is probably necessary.

In the path to E-policy, Lundström and Stevenson (2001) point out its basis – the efforts to increase the supply of entrepreneurs in the economy, what should lead to the creation of new firms. According to their view, governments develop the SME sector using a set of policies – Policy Mix, which change in content over time.

A traditional (SME policy) policy mix consists of four elements (*Ibid.*):

1) Ensuring efficient functioning of markets and institutions through the adjustment of legislation and regulations;
2) Provision of information and advice;
3) Provision of debt and equity financing;
4) Provision of tax incentives.

Moving to E-policy, the mix broadens to encompass another four elements (*Ibid.*):

5) Elimination of barriers to entry;
6) Promotion of entrepreneurship;
7) Entrepreneurship education;
8) Creation of new structures, products and services to meet the needs of new starters and under-represented target groups.

In addition they (*Ibid.*) mention that movement towards entrepreneurship policy will be associated with promotion of entrepreneurial culture.

Lundström and Stevenson (2001) also provide a typology of E-policy, but they have not built their on "an empty place". For instance, they refer to Verheul *et al.* (2001), who outlined five types of policy intervention influencing entrepreneurial activity. The most important contribution of Lundström and Stevenson (2001) is unfolding a set of different E-policy orientations and organising them into a set of Entrepreneurship Policy Typologies. Briefly these typologies are (*Ibid.*):

- **SME Policy 'Extension'** – new elements figure as 'add-on' to existing SME programmes and services, but entrepreneurship education and promotion of an entrepreneurship culture are not normally strategically addressed.
- **'Niche' Entrepreneurship Policy** – entrepreneurship efforts are formulated around specified population groups. There are two types of 'niche' policies:
  1) targeted on groups those are under-represented as business owners – women, youth, ethnic minorities, unemployed, etc;
  2) targeted on people with the highest potential for starting high-growth firms – researchers, etc., named also 'techno-entrepreneurship policy', because the focus is on R&D support, venture capital support, university-based incubators and incentives for graduates and researchers to build technology-based firms.
- **New Firm Creation Policy** – focusing on facilitating the business creation; could be devoted to encouraging start-ups among specific target groups like women, etc.
- **Holistic Entrepreneurship Policy** — cohesive approach, encompassing all of the policy objectives and measures and integrating other E-policy types.

Authoring this typology, Lundström and Stevenson (2001) point out a quite common problem related to such typologies – the real objects (the countries or governments or policies) do not always fit in these types. In other words, in real life we may not find any country with purely one or another type of policy and rather we can find certain combinations and the situation (or “picture”) is probably changing over time.

According to Lundström and Stevenson (2001), all SME and E-policy measures are designed and implemented through different structures. It means that the architecture of these structures (or institutions) is also important. As Audretsch (2002) argued, there are no single institutions able to promote entrepreneurship or implement real E-policies, because they cover a wide spectrum, which should belong to a number of ministries or agencies. The findings of Lundström and Stevenson (2001) show that units, responsible for small business or entrepreneurship agenda, exist everywhere[10], but differ in name, size, affiliation, mandate, responsibility scope, influence, etc. Irrespective the structural diversity, they (*Ibid.*) noted three prevailing structural approaches, each with its strengths, problems and challenges. Briefly, these three structural approaches are (*Ibid.*):

- ***Umbrella agencies with special authorities***. Can effectively influence activities of other departments and target their actions on the SME sector, but (because the responsible agency has own programmes to manage) the management may take a lot of time. Over time, this could result in a more vertical than horizontal focus.
- ***Horizontal, multi-ministerial models***. One ministry co-ordinates E-policy, but has a plenty of consensus and co-operation. The policy agenda tends to be transparent and coherent; usually is presented in one document that combines the objectives and measures being pursued by each co-operating ministry, but programme and service delivery is very much devolved to the regional or local level.
- ***Vertical or ‘silo’ models***. Responsibility for different parts of E-policy is split among several departments, each responsible for its sector, region or objective, with minimal collaboration in an integrated manner. Policy objectives are crushed along bureaucracy and buried in documents of several government departments. Each department focuses on its own agenda, which does not support a coherent and integrated policy. Any entrepreneurship development activity tends to take place at the local or regional level with minimal national guiding frameworks.

It is easy to agree with Lundström and Stevenson (2001) that the vertical model has more disadvantages and the umbrella and horizontal models aim to overcome them. In addition they (*Ibid.*) note that there is still a lot of experimentation in search of the optimal structure, frequent attempts at restructuring and rationalizing, but structures are difficult to change and often governments end up with ‘more of the same’. Because a cohesive E-Policy is impacted by a number of policy areas, a horizontal approach makes sense, but strong central leadership is also needed. They noted that the more integrated E-policy becomes in agenda, the more horizontal is its approach.

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[10] Their research covered ten countries.

Regardless of structure, there are a series of challenges to overcome (*Ibid.*):

- managing the horizontality of policy issues across many government departments,
- coordinating the activity of different levels of government (from central to local),
- maintaining links between policymakers and entrepreneurs,
- maintaining links between research and policy and between policy development and local, programme delivery,
- maintaining linkages with the network of non-profit and private sector actors.

Last but not least, Lundström and Stevenson (2001) outline six major categories of action in an E-policy agenda:

1) regulatory environment for start-ups,
2) promotion of entrepreneurship,
3) entrepreneurship education,
4) small business support infrastructure,
5) target group strategies,
6) access to financing and seed capital.

For some categories (areas) they provide more detailed subdivisions. For instance, a comprehensive entrepreneurship education programme requires (*Ibid.*):

- inclusion of entrepreneurship as a component in national curriculum guidelines;
- development of curricula, teaching resources and teaching models that emphasize student-centred learning and 'hands-on' project-oriented activities;
- professional development of teachers;
- building of resource centres and networks for the exchange of best practice;
- business-education partnerships;
- entrepreneurial orientation of schools and administrations;
- building of community support;
- opportunities for students to experiment with venture projects and activities;
- student venture programmes and student business loans;
- significant budget allocations;
- commitment from both ministries (economic affairs and education).

Under the small business support infrastructure they point out some of the emerging innovations and approaches geared to reducing the barriers of new entrepreneurs to information, know-how, networks, expertise, advice on quality, etc. These are (*Ibid.*):

- one-stop shops;
- online portals;
- mentoring;
- incubators;
- target group enterprise centres;
- professional development for business advisers;
- orientation for all professional actors (beyond the business advising community);
- networks (some governments have specifically made this an E-policy issue).

In order to remain within the scope of a conference paper, in-depth examination of all these major categories (areas) will be omitted, but particular examination will go on in the next section, drafting a policy for Project Management.

5. Drafting a Policy for Project Management

This section will present the draft principles for the development of the Project Management Policy (hereinafter PM policy). It could be useful to start by examining the relevancy and applicability of six major categories of action in an E-policy agenda for the PM policy. This is presented in Table 1 and discussed afterwards.

Table 1. Relevance of major categories of E-policy for PM-policy

E-policy categories	Relevance and applicability for PM-policy
1) regulatory environment for start-ups	Low relevance. Advocates the need for less-bureaucratic versions of project management, suitable for SMEs, including for start-ups.
2) promotion of entrepreneurship	High relevance. Category of E-policy can be taken over to a full extent, but renaming it into “promotion of project management”.
3) entrepreneurship education	High relevance. It can be taken over to a full extent. It is related to previous item (also in E-policy). E-policy and PM-policy have a lot of common here, so can support each other and save resources.
4) small business support infrastructure	Medium-high relevance. Some innovations/approaches could be incorporated into PM-policy directly, but some should be adapted. Existing enterprise centres should also function as “PM Centres”.
5) target group strategies	Medium-low (but possibly growing) relevance: most E-policy target groups (youth, new graduates, women, minorities, immigrants, unemployed and people with disabilities, and fast-growth technology entrepreneurs) could be relevant for PM-policy.
6) access to financing and seed capital	Low relevance. Also advocates the need for ‘lite” versions of project management, suitable for SMEs, including for start-ups.

The aim of regulatory environment for start-ups is to reduce the disproportionate administrative burden on small firms, and mainly in the start-up phase. Its relevance for PM policy is considered low but not zero. According to Turner *et al.* (2009), SMEs require less bureaucratic versions of project management (PM) and this matches the main idea of this E-policy category. There is a significant difference, however. E-policy is targeted at the administrative burden prescribed by legislation. The existing PM methodologies have been developed for large organisations and are quite bureaucratic but their application is not obligatory. For instance, start-up of a SME is a project but most entrepreneurs probably do not use sophisticated PM methodologies for the planning and implementation of the start-up process. On the other hand, if there were a PM methodology suitable for them, the start-ups would probably use it and this would decrease the failure rate. Underestimating the start-up time is a common reason for failure of newly established small businesses (see Barrow 1998) and also a typical problem in project planning.

The aim of promotion of entrepreneurship is mainly to create widespread awareness in society and to increase legitimacy of entrepreneurship. As stated before, PM is a ‘Cinderella subject’, the governments, and also the academic community do not treat

PM seriously. Because companies and societies are becoming more project-oriented, the development of PM should be a macroeconomic concern.

Reminding that PMI (2009) is worried about the lack of young PM professionals, the conclusion is that there is an essential need to (start to) promote PM. So this category of E-policy can be taken over to a full extent and introduced in PM policy as "promotion of project management". This will be a wide and important category; its implementation will require coordinated efforts from public authorities (who are the main policymakers), professional and business associations, etc.

Entrepreneurship education was specified in Section 3. It should be recognised that education and promotion are related, both in E-policy and in PM policy. It is also relevant here to remind of the worry of PMI about the lack of young PM professionals. As the previous category of E-policy, it can be taken over to a full extent under the name "project management education". We should note that E-policy and PM policy have a lot in common and so they can support each other. As seen before, in this E-policy category projects and project-oriented activities are mentioned directly and also indirectly in some issues. It is appropriate to cite Christophe Bredillet[11] here: "Project Management is the entrepreneurial side of business" (PMI Teach 2010). Considering this, it would be possible to combine two policies (E-policy and PM policy) in many aspects. Such combination will allow achieving more with fewer resources. Combination would be possible in including entrepreneurship in national curriculum guidelines, developing curricula, teaching resources, teachers, etc.

The aim of the small business support infrastructure is to reduce the barriers of new entrepreneurs to information, also networks, etc. This E-policy category includes some emerging innovations and approaches and some of them could be taken over and incorporated into PM policy. A good example is web portals. They could be used for providing information and services for PM professionals, also for top managers of permanent organisations (in private, public and voluntary sectors), for clients of PM services and other interested parties. Certainly mentoring could be used also for PM professionals, especially for people who manage projects in SMEs (probably most of them have started to work with projects without any preparation). Business incubation is a project-based activity by its nature. The idea of target group enterprise centres could be adapted indirectly. In E-policy, they are mostly targeted at underrepresented groups among entrepreneurs – women and national minorities. As this issue has already arisen in PM literature (see Duong & Skitmore 2003), the corresponding issue in PM policy should take into consideration specific needs of female and non-native PM professionals but probably not establish special centres. Also, in general, there is no need to create duplicate support systems for PM because enterprise or (small) business centres (SME support systems) already cover most regions and the existing centres should also function as "PM Centres". But this leads

[11] Dr. Christophe N. Bredillet is a professor and dean of postgraduate programs of ESC Lille School of Management (France) and editor of a leading journal "Project Management Journal", published by PMI and Wiley.

to other subtopics – development of business advisers and orientation for all actors. If the existing enterprise centres will also function as project management centres, their personnel has to be trained in project management.

Target group strategies are for focusing on specific groups. The prevalent target groups in E-policy are young entrepreneurs and new graduates, women, ethnic minorities and immigrants, also unemployed and people with disabilities, and fast-growth technology entrepreneurs. In E-policy we can see some overlapping – this topic appeared already before, in relation to support infrastructure – and this could be (at least partially) taken over to PM policy. Its relevance to PM policy is not very high at the beginning, but will probably grow in the near future, because the importance of creation of equal opportunities is growing.

Access to financing and seed capital is one of the oldest issues in SME policy (the forerunner of more developed E-policy). It persists in E-policy, but its relevance for PM policy is not high. At the moment, there is a parallel regulatory environment (for start-ups) because both have to reduce the entry barriers that entrepreneurs face, especially in start-up phase. It is commonly known that businesses need additional financing (loans, equity or venture capital, etc) in revolutionary phases of development, such as starting a business or introduction of new products, services, markets, etc. This links entrepreneurship and PM, because revolutionary phases are normally treated as projects (Bredillet 2005). So these E-policy and PM policy categories could also be linked (similar to the first category in Table 1), expecting that better planning of projects (especially using PM methodology suitable for SMEs) will help small entrepreneurs to access external financing.

For the conclusion of the discussion, it is possible to point out the key categories of PM policy. These have been presented and briefly commented in Table 2.

Table 2. Key categories of PM-policy

PM-policy categories	Importance	Comments and affinity with E-policy
1) promotion of project management	High	Corresponding category of E-policy can be taken over to a full extent.
2) project management education	High	Also can be taken over to a full extent. E-policy and PM-policy have a lot in common here, can support each other and save resources.
3) support infrastructure for PM (combined with existing small business infrastructure)	Medium-high	Some innovations/approaches in E-policy could be directly incorporated into PM policy and some indirectly adapted. Existing enterprise centres can also function as "PM Centres".
4) target group strategies (particularly a strategy for SMEs and suitable for them PM toolset)	Medium (possibly growing)	E-policy target groups are relevant, but PM-policy should accure SMEs as specific target group. The priority in this should be a 'lite', less-bureaucratic project management toolset, suitable for SMEs.

As seen in Table 2, there are two highly important categories: 1) promotion of PM and 2) PM education. Fortunately, in these categories PM policy can easily learn and take over from E-policy. Promotion of PM is probably the only (almost) ‘pure’ PM policy element. In education, there are more possibilities for combination and co-operation between PM-policy and E-policy and even more in support infrastructure.

The support infrastructure could be (mostly) common for small business and project management. Because of no need for the development of a specific infrastructure for PM (the existing enterprise centres can also function as “PM Centres” and resources are certainly limited), the importance of this category is considered as medium-high.

The most comprehensive category in PM policy is target group strategies, because it involves three categories of E-policy – in addition to its corresponding category it involves regulatory environment for start-ups, and access to financing and seed capital. As the last two advocate the need for less bureaucratic (‘light’) versions of project management, suitable for SMEs, including for start-ups, there is a need for a strategy for SMEs. In this strategy, a priority should be elaboration of a PM ‘toolset’ suitable for SMEs. This will increase the importance of this category from medium-low (as estimated relevance in Table 1) to medium. The importance of this category will probably grow, as the importance of creation of equal opportunities is growing.

The implementation of PM policies will need appropriate structures. As discussed before, there is no need for the development of specific infrastructure, because the existing enterprise centres (names are different) can also function as “PM Centres”. Bearing this in mind and considering that existing E-policies have a lot in common with the drafted PM policy it is possible to conclude that separate structures are not needed also for the design and implementation of PM policies. But at the same time, I would like to remind of (cited before) Audretsch (2002) and also Lundström and Stevenson (2001). According to them, E-policies cover a broad spectrum which belongs to a number of ministries/agencies and thus single institutions cannot implement a real E-policy. According to my opinion, this could be even more valid for PM policy because its spectrum is even broader.

Conclusion

The first parts of the article explored the importance of project management (and teh respective capabilities) and the need for adequate policies. Project Management is an ‘ancient’ phenomenon, but as an academic discipline, relatively young and emerging. So project management is called ‘Cinderella subject’ because the governments and also the academic community do not treat it seriously. Under such circumstances it is understandable that up to now project management has not been a macro-level or policy concern. But, perceiving that the total share of project-based activities is (according to a modest estimate) one-third of the world economy, it is obvious that governments should give much more credit to project management. In other words, there is a need for a suitable policy (i.e. PM policy). Examining the relations of project management has demonstrated that although there is (as yet) no direct link to entrepreneurship, these disciplines are linked through innovation (Figure 1) and possible convergence can be observed. Although there is still a distance between these professional fields, as well as between academic disciplines, entrepreneurship policies (which have been developed everywhere, also called E-policy) could serve as a basis for PM policies.

The last section of the article outlines a policy for the development of project management, presented briefly in Table 2. It is somehow surprising that E-policies and PM policies have a number of (more or less) common issues and even the respective structures could be combined. Certainly this will allow efficient use of resources.

The main limitation is the insufficiently thorough examination of relations of entrepreneurship and project management but this would be too wide a subject for the scope of a conference paper. This topic deserves special treatment in future.

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PROJEKTIJUHTIMISE ARENDAMISE POLIITIKA

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Sissejuhatus

Kaasajal suureneb ajutiste ülesannete ja tegevuste, mida korraldatakse ja juhitakse projektide ja programmide kaudu, osakaal. Selline trend on iseloomulik igasugustele organisatsioonidele, nii era- kui ka avalikku ja mittetulundussektorisse kuluvatele. Seetõttu vajab enamik organisatsioone kogu maailmas üha enam oskajaid projektijuhte ning on sunnitud ka arendama üldist projektijuhtimise alast võimekust. Selle taustal võib tunduda üllatav, et ühiskonna (ehk riiklikul) tasandil ei ole pööratud projektijuhtimise arendamisele üldse tähelepanu ja seda kogu maailmas, sh arenenud tööstusriikides. Teisisõnu, projektijuhtimise alase võimekuse (või ka küpsuse) tase ei ole teadvustunud kui makrotasandi (majandus)poliitiline probleem. Antud artikkel püüab seda vajakajäämist ületada, tehes seda läbi kahe eesmärgi. Esiteks – selgitada projektijuhtimise alase võimekuse arendamise ja vastavate poliitikate olulisust ning teiseks – visandada põhijoontes projektijuhtimise arendamisele suunatud poliitika.

1. Projektijuhtimise olemus ja areng

Projektijuhtimise (edaspidi ka PJ) kui nähtuse vanus on ilmselt võrreldav inimkonna vanusega, kuid vastav akadeemiline distsipliin on üllatavalt noor – rääkida saab vaid umbkaudu poolest sajandist. Võib lisada, et veel 1970-ndate lõpul peeti projektijuhi ametit juhuslikuks ning omaette kutsena kinnistus see alles 20. sajandi lõpus. Kuna tegu on vana nähtusega, on aegade jooksul muutunud selle sisu ja ka määratlused kuid ühtsust veel märgata ei ole, kasutusel on hulk erinevaid määratlusi. Cleland ja Ireland (2006) toovad välja olulise üldise tunnuse: projektijuhtimist on (ja seda juba rudimentaarsetes ehk eelajaloolistes vormides) rakendatud innovatsioonide esilekutsumisel ja juhtimisel ühiskonnas. Viimastel aastakümnetel on PJ kui eriala areng olnud märkimisväärne ja selles on oluline roll globaalsetel erialaorganisatsioonidel. Suurimad ja mõjukaimad neist on PMI (*Project Management Institute*) ning IPMA (*International Project Management Association*). Need on välja töötanud ka omad kutsestandardid ning korraldavad üle maailma aktsepteeritavate kutsete omistamist.

Üldiselt on teada (nt Cicmil *et al.* 2009), et projektide ja ka projektipõhist juhtimist rakendatakse tänapäeval üha rohkem. Seetõttu on hakatud rääkima üha süvenevast projektiorientatsioonist (*project orientation*) ja/või projektistumisest (*projectization* / *projectification*), seda organisatsioonide (sh nii era-, avalikku kui mittetulunduslikku sektorisse kuuluvate), samuti regioonide ja riikide ning isegi üksikisikute tasandil. Analüüsides projektistumise arengut rõhutavad Maylor *et al.* (2006), et asi ei ole mitte niivõrd projektipõhiste tegevuste osakaalus, vaid muutustes, mis organisatsioonides selle tõttu toimuvad. Lisaks pakuvad (*Ibid.*) uue termini – programmistumine, mis tähendab programmide ja projektiportfellide rakendamist juhtimismehhanismidena.

2. Projektijuhtimise suhted sidusaladega

Lisaks sissejuhatavas osas välja toodud seosele innovatsiooniga on projektijuhtimine seotud ka ettevõtlusega. Seos projektijuhtimise ja ettevõtluse vahel on seni toiminud eeskätt innovatsiooni kaudu; nö otseseos nende vahel oli minimaalne isegi veel paar aastat tagasi. Kui seni keskendus PJ alane kirjandus (peaaegu eranditult[1]) suurtele organisatsioonidele (ja ka suurtele projektidele), siis mõne viimase aasta jooksul on toimunud märgatav areng. Tõsiseimaks läbimurdeks võib pidada möödunud (2009) aastal ilmunud artiklit[2], milles R. Turner, A. Ledwith ja J. Kelly tõdevad: „Väikesed ja keskmised ettevõtted vajavad vähem bürokraatlikke projektijuhtimise versioone... (st metoodikaid ehk 'tööriistu' – AK)". Seega võib öelda, et PJ on juba seostunud väikeettevõtete juhtimisega (*small business management*), kuid seos ettevõtlusega jääb lahtiseks, õigemini sõltuma sellest, kuivõrd seostuvad väikeettevõtete juhtimine ning ettevõtlus. Kuigi enamuse arvates need seostuvad (mõnede arvates peaaegu samastuvad), on ka erinevaid seisukohti, kuid selle, samuti PJ ja ettevõtluse suhete põhjalikum selgitamine ei mahu antud konverentsiartikli raamesse. Tõdeda võib, et PJ ja ettevõtlus lähenevad; kuigi otsest seost nende vahel on täna veel vähe märgata, ilmnevad mõned paralleelid ka järgnevas ettevõtluse ja ettevõtluspoliitika käsitluses.

3. Projektijuhtimise olulisus

Eelviidatud Turner *et al.* (2009) on lisanud uut teadmist ka projektipõhiste tegevuste osakaalu kohta majanduses – kui varasemalt on hinnatud nende osakaaluks kuni üks neljandik, siis eelnimetatute hinnangul on see (vähemalt) üks kolmandik. Hinnangu täpsustus toetub nende uurimistulemustele, mille järgi VKEdes (väike- ja keskmistes ettevõtetes) on keskmiselt üks kolmandik käibest projektipõhine. Arvestades VKEde osakaalu majanduses (mis üldiselt teadaolevalt on märkimisväärselt suur) teevad nad üldistuse ja väidavad, VKEde projektipõhine tegevus moodustab umbes kolmandiku kogumajandusest. Kuigi nende valim (280 VKEd) ei tundu just piisav globaalseteks üldistusteks, kõlab see (eriti üha projektistuvas tänapäeva maailmas) siiski usutavalt. Traditsiooniline osa projektipõhiseid tegevusi maailmamajanduses on uued kapitali-investeeringud. Nende keskmine osakaal on umbes üks viiendik, kuid siin on suured erinevused – kiirelt arenevates majandustes, nagu nt Hiina, on see märksa suurem.

Kuigi ühiskond (riigid) ja ka akadeemilised kogukonnad ei ole veel projektijuhtimist tõsiselt võtma hakanud, on PJ kui eriala areng viimaste kümnendite jooksul olnud eksponentsiaalne. Seda kinnitab globaalsete erialaorganisatsioonide (PMI ja IPMA) liikmeskonna ja nende väljastatud kutsekvalifikatsioonide arvu kasv. Samas on PMI väljendanud muret projektijuhtide järelkasvu üle. Kuna aastatel 2006-2016 läheb USAs pensionile arvukas projektijuhtide põlvkond ning projektipõhistes majandus-harudes on sel perioodil oodata keskmiselt 5,6% kasvu (üldise keskmiselt 3% kasvu

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[1] Siinkohal vääriks äramärkimist üks tähelepanuväärne erand: 1984. a. ilmunud raamat 'Project Management for Small and Medium Sized Businesses', autoriteks H. Kerzner ja H. Thamhain.
[2] 'Project Management in Small to Medium-sized Enterprises: a comparison between firms by size and industry' // International Journal of Managing Projects in Business 2(2) lk 282-296.

taustal), võib tõesti aimata probleemi teravnemist. Tegelikult on probleem juba täna, sest enamikul USA suureettevõtetel on olnud raskusi projektijuhtide värbamisel.

Toodud taustal peaks olema ilmne, et kogu maailma riigid (ehk kogu avalik sektor) peaks teadvustama projektijuhtimise ja sellealaste pädevuste arendamise olulisuse ning hakkama kujundama ja teostama vastavaid poliitikaid.

4. Ettevõtluspoliitika – alus projektijuhtimise arendamise poliitikale

Ettevõtluse ja projektijuhtimise vahel ilmnevad teatavad sarnasused. Kui nähtused on mõlemad väga vanad (ilmselt sama vanad kui inimkond); vastavad akadeemilised distsipliinid aga on mõlemad suhteliselt noored (saab rääkida umbes 50-60 aastast). Ettevõtluse kui distsipliini kohta on öeldud sama kriitiliselt kui PJ kohta – et see on (veel) eklektiline, kontseptuaalse raamistikuta jne. Teisalt aga on ka ettevõtluse alal viimasel ajal näha olulisi arenguid.

Poliitika vallas on 21. sajandi alguses tekkinud uus lähenemine – ettevõtluspoliitika (*entrepreneurship policy*), kuid tuleb märkida, et see ei ole sama mis traditsiooniline väikeettevõtluspoliitika (*SME policy*). Ettevõtluspoliitika (edaspidi ka E-poliitika) on küll väikeettevõtluspoliitika järglane, kuid märksa laiema sisuga ja arenenum kui eellane (Lundström & Stevenson 2001). Üleminekus muutub poliitika meetmestik.

Traditsioonilise (VE) poliitika meetmestik (*policy mix*) sisaldab neli elementi:
1) turgude jm institutsioonide efektiivse toimimise tagamine seaduste jm regulatsioonide täpsustamise kaudu;
2) informatsiooni ja nõuande pakkumine;
3) võõrkapitali ja omakapitaliga finantseerimise pakkumine;
4) maksustiimulite pakkumine.

Kui mingi riik liigub ettevõtluspoliitika suunas, siis poliitika meetmestik avardub, hõlmates lisaks veel neli elementi:
5) sisenemisbarjääride kõrvaldamine;
6) ettevõtluse (üldine) edendamine (*promotion*);
7) ettevõtlusharidus;
8) uute (tugi)struktuuride ja toodete-teenuste loomine (alaesindatud sihtrühmadele).

Lühikommentaariks: esimene on (traditsioonilises majanduspoliitika süstemaatikas) tüüpiline korrapoliitiline eesmärk, mis on ilmselt vajalik kõigi majandussubjektide, mitte ainult (väike)ettevõtjate jaoks. Sisenemisbarjääride juures on kaheldav nende kõrvaldamise võimalikkus (nt kui ettevõlusse soovijal ei piisa kapitali, võidakse teda toetada, kuid enamasti nõutakse ka arvestatavat omaosalust), kuid neid barjääre (eriti kõikvõimalikke lõive ja bürokraatlikke tõkkeid) saab märksa 'madalamaks' suruda. Ettevõtlushariduse juures tuleks rõhutada, et selles on rõhuasetus pigem üldharidusel ja inimeste üldisel harimisel, mitte niivõrd ettevõtluse kui eriala õpetamisel.

Lundström & Stevenson (2001) eristavad järgmisi ettevõtluspoliitikate tüüpe:

- Väikeettevõtluspoliitika laiendus (lisandub laiema ettevõtluspoliitika elemente);
- Nišši-ettevõtluspoliitika, mis keskendub teatud gruppidele, eristuvad kaks alaliiki:
  - alaesindatud grupid (nt naised, rahvusvähemused jne),
  - kõrgeima kasvupotentsiaaliga grupid (nt teadalased jms, mistõttu nimetatakse ka „*techno-entrepreneurship policy*")
- Uusettevõtluse poliitika (võib ka keskenduda teatud sihtrühmadele, nt naistele);
- Terviklik ettevõtluspoliitika (mida peetakse kõige täiuslikumaks).

Ettevõtluspoliitika institutsioonide hulgas eristatakse (*Ibid.*) järgmisi tüüpe:
- katusorganisatsioonid spetsiaalsete ametitega;
- horisontaalne, mitme-ministeeriumi mudel (mida peetakse kõige täiuslikumaks);
- vertikaalne mudel.

Ettevõtluspoliitikate põhielemendid on (*Ibid.*):
1) regulatiivne keskkond alustajale,
2) ettevõtluse üldine edendamine,
3) ettevõtlusharidus,
4) väikeettevõtlust toetav infrastruktuur,
5) sihtrühmadele suunatud strateegiad,
6) ligipääs finantseerimisele ja seemnekapital.

Ettevõtluspoliitika põhieesmärk on stimuleerida ettevõtlust – et võimalikult paljud inimesed looks oma ettevõtte. Siin aga on loogiline piir: kui kõik tööeas inimesed looksid oma ettevõtted, ei oleks võimalik leida ühtki palgatöölist ehk tulemus oleks üleüldine *self-employment*, mis ilmselt ei ole efektiivne ühiskonna jaoks. Analoogia abil võib tuletada hoiatuse projektijuhtimise poliitika jaoks – mitte taotleda totaalset projektistumist, mis tähendaks, et kogu inimtegevust hakataks korraldama ajutiste struktuuride abil. Ilmselt ei oleks seegi ühiskonna seisukohalt efektiivne, kuigi mõne paadunud projektistumise apologeedile võib see tunduda ihaldusväärsena.

5. Projektijuhtimise arendamise poliitika visand

Projektijuhtimise arendamise poliitika (edaspidi ka PJ-poliitika) visandamisel on toetutud eelnevas refereeritud ettevõtlus- ehk E-poliitika põhielementidele, kuid kõik need ei ole (vähemasti mitte võrdväärselt) relevantsed PJ-poliitika jaoks. Hinnates nende relevantsust ja rakendatavust selgus, et mõned E-poliitika elemendid (nagu nt ettevõtluse üldine edendamine ja ettevõtlusharidus) on üsna otseselt üle kantavad ka PJ-poliitikasse, kusjuures mõnes komponendis piisab sõna 'ettevõtlus' asendamisest sõnaga 'projektijuhtimine'. Selgus ka, et kõik E-poliitika elemendid on vähemasti mingil määral relevantsed ka PJ-poliitikas – seos võib olla kaudne, kuid on siiski olemas. Näiteks „regulatiivne keskkond alustajale" ja „ligipääs finantseerimisele ja seemnekapital" võivad näida nö puht-ettevõtluslikena, kuid toetavad mõlemad ka ideed (Turner *et al.* 2009), et väike- ja keskettevõtted vajavad vähem bürokraatlikke projektijuhtimise metoodikaid ehk 'tööriistu'. Seejuures tuleb muidugi möönda, et E-poliitika elemendi „regulatiivne keskkond alustajale" mõte on ettevõtjatele peale sunnitud bürokraatia vähendamisest – suurte organisatsioonide vajadustest lähtuvalt

välja töötatud (ja seetõttu bürokraatlikke) projektijuhtimise metoodikaid rakendama ei saa kedagi sundida. Teisalt aga on ikkagi tegemist peaaegu sunniolukorraga, kuna sobivamaid metoodikaid veel lihtsalt ei ole. Seos on olemas ka elemendiga „ligipääs finantseerimisele ja seemnekapital" – ilmneb asjaolus, et lisaraha vajadus ettevõtetes tekib normaalselt siis, kui on tegemist nö revolutsiooniliste arengufaasidega (nt asutamine, laiendamine jms), mis olemuselt on projektid. Seega võib järeldada, et parem projektide kavandamine ja teostamine (eriti veel sobiva metoodika abil) võib toetada väikeettevõtjate kergemat juurdepääsu välise finantseerimise allikatele, sh tugisüsteemide poolt pakutavatele, mis üldjuhul on samuti projektipõhised.
Ülevaade E-poliitika alusel sünteesitud PJ-poliitika põhielementidest on alljärgnevas tabelis 1.

Tabel 1. Projektijuhtimise poliitika põhielemendid

PJ-poliitika elemendid	Olulisus	Selgitused ja seosed E-poliitika elementidega
1) projektijuhtimise edendamine	Kõrge	Vastav element E-poliitikas sobib üle võtta täies mahus.
2) projektijuhtimise-alane haridus	Kõrge	Samuti sobib üle võtta täies mahus. E-poliitikal ja PJ-poliitikal on siin palju ühist, seega saavad need üksteist toetada ja see võimaldab säästa ressursse.
3) projektijuhtimist toetav infrastruktuur (on kombineeritav olemasoleva VE toetava infrastruktuuriga)	Keskmine-kõrge	Osa uuendusi E-poliitikas on otse üle võetavad PJ poliitikasse; osa on rakendatavad kaudselt ja tuleb kohandada. Olemasolevad ettevõtluskeskused võiks toimida ka kui 'projektijuhtimise keskused'.
4) sihtrühmadele suunatud strateegiad (sh strateegia VKEde jaoks ning neile sobiv PJ metoodika)	Keskmine (ilmselt tõusev)	E-poliitika sihtrühmad on relevantsed, kuid PJ-poliitikas peaks VKEd olema eriline sihtrühm. Prioriteet selles oleks VKEde vajadustest lähtuv, lihtsustatud ja vähem bürokraatlik PJ metoodika.

Nagu nähtub, ei pea PJ-poliitika alustama 'tühjalt kohalt' ehk võimalusi õppida ning üle võtta E-poliitikast on piisavalt, kuid ülevõtmisega ei saa ka liialdada. Positiivne on see, et E- ja PJ-poliitikal on märgatav ühisosa, mis võimaldab üksteist toetades säästa ressursse. Kuna PJ-poliitika jaoks vajalik infrastruktuur on kombineeritav olemasoleva E-poliitika infrastruktuuriga, ei ole vaja luua uut infrastruktuuri, mis on teadagi kulukas. Teisisõnu – olemasolevad ettevõtluskeskused võiks toimida ka kui 'projektijuhtimise keskused'. Mõistagi tingib see vajaduse arendada ja ka täiendada ettevõtluskeskuste personali, aga see on seotud märksa väiksemate kuludega kui uue (ja ilmselt suuresti ka dubleeriva) keskuste võrgu loomine. See argument võib saada väga oluliseks, kui otsustamisele tuleb PJ-poliitika väljatöötamine ja rakendamine. Lõpetuseks rõhutaks, et kui tõelist E-poliitikat ei suuda teostada üks ministeerium vm ametkond, siis PJ-poliitika puhul kehtib see isegi enam.

Kokkuvõtte

Artiklis esitatud ülevaade peaks veenma projektijuhtimise arendamise olulisuses ja vastava poliitika vajalikkuses. Välja pakutud projektijuhtimise poliitika visand võiks autori arvates saada aluseks vastava poliitika reaalsel kujundamisel. Esitatud visand vajaks seejuures edasi arendamist, täpsustamist ja parandamist. Täiendavat uurimist vääriks ettevõtluse ja projektijuhtimise seosed, kuid nende põhjalikum käsitlus ei mahuks antud konverentsiartikli raamidesse.