CHAPTER II
PROJECT MANAGEMENT AND
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2.1. INTRODUCTION:

The criteria for investment decision making at macro and micro level is an exercise in synchronising project formulation at the micro level with the achievement of national objectives. While the aggregation of projects gives a sum total of investment decisions at the national level, the latter itself is dependent upon the objectives of the economy, availability of resources and a planned economy's preference of present over the future. In the process of project appraisal, the guidelines for investment criteria at the micro (project) and the macro-level (national) should be rationalised. Economic development is not specific but aggregative. It is the function of specific use of inputs to derive outputs. The project planner's problem is to make the best use of inputs which have alternative uses. In the free market economy, prices of inputs determine their most efficient allocation. But the market forces may not lead to desirable social economic objectives such as equitable distribution of income etc. The planner's investment decision may be value loaded i.e. he may preemptively consider the achievement of social and economic objectives, equitable distribution of income, rural development as the prime factors in project investment decisions and allocation of resources. This however, may or may not lead to the most efficient use of resources. In the case of a project planner, the project and aggregate investment has to take into account its economic and social effects. In the case of private economy, projects and investments, may individually end up in the desired economic and social effects. For the former, the desired economic and social effects of
projects is a pre-determined factor whereas in the latter case it is only consequential. It is in this context that project appraisal, evaluation and analysis techniques have a special significance in investment decisions.  

2.2. INDIAN PARADOX:  

The painful paradox in India is its very low growth rate in spite of increase in the saving ratio from about 5 percent in early 50s to about 30 percent in the late 90s. The reason frequently advanced for this is that Indian economy has experienced almost a continuous increase in capital-output ratio. The latter when measured in incremental terms, reflects the degree of efficiency of our new investment projects to produce additional output. In a developing economy committed to achieve multiple goals such as growth, equity, and self-reliance, within a specified time horizons major development projects involving huge investments are considered essential and inevitable. Such projects would typically include investments on major infrastructural projects such as irrigation, power, transport, communication, steel plants and fertilisers. These projects would accelerate the economic growth in the system, if they utilise available scarce resources with expected efficiency. On the other hand, if the resources invested in such projects are not efficiently utilised, they may end up slowing the growth rate of economy. This is because the flow of income generated from such big projects in relation to new investments in them determines, to a large extent, the overall incremental capital output ratio in the economy. Increasing incremental capital output ratio implies higher capital intensity and lower efficiency of the new capital resources in the economy. Our past performance, clearly
suggests that resources invested in big projects have not been efficiently utilised negating the desired growth rate.

Broadly, there are two reasons for the inefficient utilisation of resources:

i. the projects have the potential to deliver the goods ex-ante, but serious 'inefficiency in their implementation' and related matters may cause poor performance in ex-post terms.

ii. the projects themselves may not have the required potential for generating desired level of growth in the system irrespective of how they are implemented.

The first category includes implementation delays resulting in severe cost escalations, structural imbalances due to lack of integration and co-ordination efforts, and shortage of critical inputs in time, for implementation in other segments of economy and consequent under utilisation of capacity, culminating in the shortfall of actual performance as compared to the ideally achievable performance. However, the projects per se are not inferior, and corrective measures can be undertaken by way of planning, implementing and co-ordinating the projects with other segments in the economy. Therefore, the issue of appropriateness of the very choice of the project with all its technical specifications does not arise in this case.

In the second category however, some definite corrective actions can be taken right at the stage of project formulation and appraisal. Either make the project more attractive or reject an inferior project. Early detection of an inferior project may reduce unwarranted strains on the system and wastage of scarce resources. Our primary focus,
however, is on examining the potential of the project rather than explaining its actual performance.

2.3. NON-ECONOMIC FACTORS IN APPRAISAL:

Achieving the desired rate of growth through new investments projects, which is very crucial for a poor state like Orissa, is not incorporated explicitly in the project appraisal exercises by setting definite norms for minimum internal rate of return or the benefit cost ratio of the project. Unless such norms are fixed and strictly adhered to in practice while selecting new projects, the economy cannot be expected to automatically achieve the targeted growth rate.

In a poor and underdeveloped state like Orissa having a democratic set up, numerous socio-political factors outweigh pure economic considerations in the choice of big investment projects undertaken specially by the Government. In such cases, the projects expected rate of return either does not get calculated or, if calculated gets ignored in the target setting exercises carried out in the Planning Commission. This is a matter of concern as it is only through these projects that the country can aspire to achieve the desired rate of growth.

Further political interventions in certain matters like location, technical specifications and scale of operation of the project are sometimes justified by bringing in other objectives of planning in the country. Since, the Planning Commission does not mention explicit trade-offs among various objectives, any such justification can both be accepted or objected to in principle. However, if we recognise that the achievement of the
targeted growth rate is one of the most important objectives of planning, then economic viability becomes a pre-condition for the choice of the project. The Government has to be concerned about the economic rate of return of the project as it significantly influences the expected overall productivity of capital, which in turn, determines the growth rate of economy.

2.4. PROJECT MANAGEMENT PROBLEMS IN A DEVELOPING COUNTRY:

The implementation of the latest technological and managerial skills is a challenging task in developing countries. Frequently, there exists different levels of economic development, economic structure, and national economic planning. Other factors, in many cases not easily recognised, which affect progress in developing countries may include protection of national sovereignty, conflict between traditionalism and modernisation, memories of past (and present) abuses, and environmental conservation issues.

A common feature in developing countries is that they have an inconsistent and extremely bureaucratic system of regulatory powers with long chains of command in decision making. Power, often resides in a new decision makers who have limited access to facts, thus leading to considerable subjectivity in the decision making process.

Short-term perspectives, as a global phenomenon have a greater impact on developing country than on a developed one. The economics of developing countries may range from poverty to affluence, and each poses its own problems. Rich countries, sources from oil or agriculture may devise their own self-funded development plans, aiming at
producing self-sustained growth. The poorer nations on the other hand can obtain loans, for development projects. In both cases, however, the role of the government is pre-eminent when large scale projects are needed to drive the development process, since only governments can procure the financial and other resources needed to generate and support such projects.

Developing countries throughout the world share many common problems,⁶

i. Very high population growth, often far outstretching increases in productivity and financial growth

ii. The time required to create an "Industrial State" and the need to inject large amounts of private capital for it to be maintained when once begun. Industrialisation is a common goal for most developing countries, but it carries with it many social and cultural problems that need addressing.

iii. The need to develop human resources quickly so that the country can continue to develop everything else. This often leads to a conflict between education and training, since a government will undertake education programs and some training, but private industry must also carry a large proportion of the training needs on its shoulders.

iv. Government administration and public administration, because of size and often rapid and unco-ordinated growth, is not the best vehicle for managing the development of projects unless comprehensive training and updating is undertaken.
v. An impatience to have national take over in managerial and technical roles. This often leads to premature transfers which in turn create problems for project development.

vi. "Good Management" techniques may be at odds with tradition and socio-cultural background, which play a very important part in the lives of managers and determine much of their behaviour. Conflict often results.

2.5. PROJECT CATEGORISATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES:

The activities involved with the production of projects in a developing country must address the issues raised above, and more. The project categorisation in developing countries will have the following features:

a. The projects are often complex and large requiring co-operation and co-ordination between many government agencies, and other national and international agencies.

b. The technological and scientific aspects may be emphasised, often at the expense of management.

c. Experience gained, particularly in project management field, is not readily transferred to subsequent projects for their benefit.

d. Errors in estimating the time and cost may be large due to non-availability of standards or precedents to follow.

e. The need for parallel transfer of skills to local employees is considered essential in most projects.
f. Very often much work has to be completed in as short a time as possible, the front-end time on projects gets restricted.

g. Products and service suppliers are often from different countries and they use differing standards, fittings etc.

h. Projects Organisations are often formed for specific projects, and then disbanded on completion.

i. In certain cases, the main control centre of the project lies outside the country, thus causing delays in decision making.

In general, projects in developing countries rank as very important elements in their growth, and the construction sector may contribute anywhere from 7 to 35 percent of the Gross National Product (GNP) in developing countries.

2.6. SOCIAL AND CULTURAL FACTORS IN PROJECT MANAGEMENT:

It is essential to recognise those aspects of national culture which may affect the project management process and then take them into account when establishing a project management approach. In the early stages of the development of project management it is fair to say that tools and techniques pre-dominated and were quickly followed by the information systems movement, which led to computer-dominated project management systems. This was particularly evident in the 1960s, and continued into the mid 1970s before the large gap between the system and the people - and the consequent problems that it generated - became evident. The fundamental problem lies in the clash between the culture of the overseas nations that are designing/constructing/maintaining...
projects and the culture of the developing country itself. The development of ethnocentrism, the belief that one's own culture is the best, is a central issue in cross-cultural management activities. There is a need to exercise self-control when managing in different cultures. Strong views of cultural stereotypes held by many managers, which are often based on little or no real exposure to these cultures need to be contained. Hendon and Hundon have given a list of components arising out of culture which determine the approach of an individual to project management. It comprises of the following:

i. **Emotions:**
   - Are they easily changed?
   - Are they kept hidden?
   - Are they important?

ii. **Time:**
   - Is it considered equivalent to money?
   - Is it a strict controller of actions?
   - Is it highly valued?

iii. **Power:**
   - Is personal power important?
   - Where is the power base?

iv. **Social Behaviour:**
   - Are rituals important?
   - Is frankness preferred?
   - Is formality rated highly?

v. **Conflict Resolution**
   - Is direct confrontation acceptable?
   - Does compromise figure highly in the culture?
   - Is aggression or gentleness the norm?
vi. Personal Achievement
Are individuals clearly personally goal oriented?

vii. Decision making
Is centralisation or dispassion common?
Are committees prevalent?
Are decisions taken objectively or subjectively?

viii. Group Dynamics
Are groups important in management?
Are groups self-determined or pre-determined?
How are they usually structured?

ix. Risk
Is risk an acceptable part of management?
How is risk assessed?
Are risk and uncertainty clearly separated?

x. Bureaucracy
Does it prevail?
Is it clear or confused?
Can it be circumvented easily?

xi. Trust
Are relationships built on trusts?
Is trust openly exercised?
How much trust can be exercised?

These are just some of the components, a more complete cultural awareness matrix can be found in the literature on negotiating skills. Project managers and top management agree that there is nothing more important to a host country than the foreign manager's respect for its social and cultural values, particularly in developing countries.
2.7. **THE CLIENT FACTOR**

Over the recent years, the type of clients and their expectations have changed considerably, therefore it is necessary to understand the nature of client. Sharp\textsuperscript{11} classifies the clients as

i. those who spend their own money and occupy the building,

ii. private companies,

iii. public liability companies or large corporate organisations,

iv. Government bodies

This useful classification is further extended by Head\textsuperscript{12} who employs the main headings of public, private and others. When these approaches are applied to a developing country, the breakdown could approach that shown in Fig. 2.1.

In a developing country, the major client is public, with the government exerting a great influence on the socio-economic environment through its origination and control of projects.

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Fig.2.1. Client classification
The Public client (Government) plays a key role in industrialisation because it commands the financial and other resources needed to handle the large scale projects. As development proceeds, certain areas of investment may be reserved by government for the private client to encourage the private sector. The project management activity must maintain great flexibility, since the client often does not have a well-defined organisation structure and policy is not clearly defined. The instability of political and economic situation in a developing country is a serious problem, since change of key personnel without notice can drastically affect plan formation and implementation. The central authorities must also develop appropriate supporting policies such as educational, fiscal and trade policies to match the development.

Further, nearly all client types in developing countries exhibit the major problems of deficiency of management skills in the staff and weakness of administrative systems. This has been supported by many studies carried out by the United Nations. A report states "On the whole, experience has shown that much progress in plan implementation could be achieved through the improvements in public administration such as (a) The setting up of well-staffed agencies or units for the preparation of feasibility studies, and for the planning and follow-up of project implementation, on the other hand, (b) The streamlining of administrative procedures to accelerate payments, facilitate the issue of import licences and speed up decisions regarding expatriate labour, and the making of advance preparations, including the training of project personnel."
2.8. THE CONTRACTOR FACTOR:

Large Contractors, both foreign and local are used to the contractual framework, although the local firm may rely heavily on sub-contract labour. The small contractor in developing countries is accorded a very low status in comparison to the large counterpart. The small contractor may be seen as "an unpatriotic, dishonest businessman who, given half a chance, would either use shoddy materials, leave out some parts or structure, make unjustified claims or abscond with advances or loans paid to him, or influence consultants to certify unjustified payments to him". The consent of competitive bidding is widely practised in developing countries, leaving the small contractor little room for manoeuvre in tendering. The design is established and material and equipment prices are almost set for all tenders, so the small contractor is left with only a few areas on which to make a profit. These are (i) reduce overhead, (ii) improve labour productivity, (iii) improve the management, (iv) clever purchasing, and (v) use bidding and risk assessment theory to improve chances. Of these only (iii), (iv) and (v) are really viable in a developing country, and yet these are the areas where the small local contractor is very often least qualified.

The historically developed system in contracting i.e. design separated from production causes many serious problems and inefficiencies even in a developed country. In a developing country these are further aggravated by cross-cultural issues. It can be seen that the peculiarities of developing countries impinge greatly on the production of civil engineering projects, particularly in the client and contractor fields. Another ominous
portent gradually raising its head specially in the backward areas of developing country like India is the nexus between criminals, technical small contractors and politicians. They form a consortium and prevent genuine bidders from contracting. With their clout in government and flagrant use of muscle power they have made mockery of small scale contracting.

Foreign large and medium-sized contractors always play a major part in the early development stages of a country, but the time eventually comes when the indigenous contractors will have to take over much of the construction work and obviously the ongoing maintenance programmes. This calls for a conscious training and education programmes by the country for its local contractors, particularly the large number of small ones that arise as development proceeds. Besides training the other areas where the government support is essential are

i. Risk allocation:

In developed countries, contractors carry nearly all the risk associated with the projects, and have developed sophisticated ways of risk assessment together with adequate resources to offset losses with gains elsewhere. However, for the embryonic indigenous contracting industry of a developing country, such a one-sided risk allocation can be fatal for the contractors and harmful to the developing country's growth. It is possible to restructure the traditional risk allocation model, and the World Bank indeed suggested the following changes as a possible starting point.
a Damage to the works resulting from natural causes should be repaired at the client's (contractee's) expense

b The client should take responsibility for providing data on subground conditions and then compensate the contractor if the data prove incorrect

c The contractor should not be required to be responsible for checking the drawings for errors

d Penalties for late completion should be relatively small

ii. Modification of Contract-Letting Procedure:

The nature of contract documentation and estimating procedures expected by clients militates against the local small contractors' systems, leaving them disadvantaged against foreign, well-experienced competitors. The government can support the local contracting industry by

a Using tender documents that relate to the local contractor's method of pricing, rather than to an international, design-oriented set of documents

b Considering alternative design approaches from the contractor which are based upon a greater knowledge of practical construction methods

c Relaxing of requirements for guarantees and bonds in certain areas, or provision for such bonds through the government.

d Limiting the use of imported materials with their associated financial exchange rate problems
iii  **Provision of contractor Registration Procedures:**

A contractor classification or grading system is used in many developing countries, but unfortunately the standards required to qualify for approved lists are not known to the contractors, who respond with a 'short in the dark' approach to application for approval. In Orissa the contractors are graded as under:

- Special Class Contractors
- 'A' Class Contractors
- 'B' Class Contractors etc

Such a registration must be continually monitored and upgraded to ensure that the new applicants are not discouraged and that existing approval organisations have not slipped below the required standards.

iv  **Efficient compensation Programmes:**

Poor cash flow is the main reason that indigenous contractors either cannot obtain work or fail to complete that which they gain. An unsteady cash flow may well result from the contractor's own poor organisation, but quite often in developing countries it derives from erratic cumbersome payment procedures by the client.

v  **The Level of Project Generation:**

Peaks and troughs in the supply of projects present a severe strain on the local small contractor, who can ill afford to resource-up for a project with little or no guarantee that another will be forthcoming in the near future. Governments can consider their development plans with a view to providing more smaller projects within one large
one, thus providing a chance for the local contractor to participate in what otherwise would be beyond its capabilities. The small local contractor has to deal with the mass of government bureaucracy alone with no buffer or support.

For the local contracting industry to undertake a major portion of new or maintenance projects, it must find competent project managers.

2.9. PROJECT MANAGEMENT TOOLS IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES:

During the conceptual, planning, production and shutdown stages of projects, there are various tools of project management that are particularly valuable in developing countries. These are fully explained in detail in the vast literature on project management. Some of these are discussed below in relation to their importance for a developing country.

1. Feasibility Studies  Within the context of national planning programmes, there are a number of key feasibility issues to be addressed. Among them are:

   - The effect of funding availability on the feasibility of development plans.
   - The relationship of capital planning to identified feasible projects, and hence the need for the country to commit required resources to feasible projects.
   - Full preparatory studies are needed, often on a sectoral basis, in order that financial and technical feasibility studies can be undertaken.
   - The projects output must be defined in order to determine the level of feasibility.
Very often in developing countries, many aspects of feasibility studies are overlooked, bypassed because of time pressures or simply not considered necessary because the culture of the country does not include such "forward assessment" thinking process. This apart, there is no doubt that the full range of feasibility study tools should be used in developing countries from the overall country developmental stages to the individual project stages, and great benefits will accrue.

**Project Specification:**

At the development plan stage, the objectives are broad and general, but closely linked to capital budgetary and feasibility studies on a countrywide scale, bearing in mind the issues in (i) above.

At the project level, the specification should identify factors relating to the project site, contractual matters, commercial issues, including time scale, financial matters, design and technical standards, the organisation system and quality assurance systems.

At both levels, there is a critical project management tool for a developing country to utilise as it sets a discipline upon the government/client to consider in advance many issues which could cause bottlenecks as the project proceeds.

**Cost Estimates:**

Despite the uncertainty of some long term estimates, and the lack of faith shown in them by many in government, it is essential for cost estimates to be prepared. It is better for a developing country to adopt an existing standardised approach to cost estimating first, and then adapt it to its particular culture, rather than to attempt to develop
a new one from scratch. This way, feedback data are at least recorded in a systematic manner and can be used as a datum for future estimates.

iv. **Time-Scale Estimates:**

Project duration and milestone establishment should be based on feedback data from previous projects rather than on detailed planning at this stage. It is here, in a developing country, that the cybernetic project management approach has real benefit in generating realistic duration estimates.

v. **Cash Flow Analysis:**

This is a critical project management activity in developing countries, particularly when there is a need to balance the funding among the competing projects, often of equal importance. It is essential to understand the cultural factors affecting cash flow analysis in the developing country, particularly the issues of interest and inflation, which subsequently affect all discounted cash flow (DCF) calculations.

vi. **Work Breakdown:**

The key to successful breakdown in developing countries is to establish manageable sub-projects, or task, within the existing and proposed organisational systems. This is where the concept of project management systems is necessary.

vii. **Work Scheduling:**

This is the area where custom built or off-the-shelf computer programs for project management and control are valuable. From the early time scale bar charts, the detailed logical networks diagrams are developed. The use of precedence diagrams is very
beneficial, but still meets resistance in some developing countries. The use of probabilistic networks is necessary only on projects with a high degree of uncertainty, and they are not really trusted by the project teams. The key to the use of vast array of computerised scheduling and updating packages is in the format of the output. The manager in a developing country who is responsible for making decisions based on the original schedules and subsequent updates does not have the time and sometimes even the expertise to interpret poorly formatted, over copious computer printouts.

viii. **Budgetary Establishment**:

The basic data for preparation of budgets are derived from the work breakdown and work schedule stages. It is essential in developing countries to reconcile the new budget estimates with the original cost estimates given at the conceptual stage. This enables corrective practice steps to be taken to limit expenditure, before the projects have been taken too far.

ix. **Project Organisation System**:

Developing countries rarely have soundly established organisations structures and recognised administrative standard procedures. Therefore, it is essential that these are established from the outset of project management. Even if an organisation has an established organisation structure, there is still a need to adjust them to fit the proposed development plans and subsequent projects. Flexibility is the key, and a constant vigil should be maintained in order to reduce restrictive bureaucratic processes from limiting the project development.
x. Objectives - Review Procedures:

The concept of project management focuses on the achieving of objectives, thus one key activity is the constant review of progress against the initial objectives. Any threat to these objectives as the project develops must be acted on immediately, particularly if changes in the organisational system generate variations to the project.

xi Quality Assurance:

The concept of quality assurance is of increasing importance to the developing countries and must be incorporated into the project management systems that they establish. The literature base for this subject is expanding and even though it stems from mechanical engineering in established countries, it has much to offer in developing countries.

xii Post Project Evaluation:

This is highly critical in developing countries as it provides the much needed basis for the planning and design of future projects. Final costs, technical specifications, work scope and maintenance programmes must be carefully recorded in a format that allows them to be used at the conceptual and planning stages in the future. A developing country has a great opportunity to create an integrated data feedback system in a standardised format, and this must rank highly in the project management process.

2.10. PROJECTS AS ELEMENTS OF A NEW INDUSTRIAL PATTERN:

After many years on the "back burner", project management appears in an unaccustomed lime light. During the second half of the past decade, the demand for
project management has increased dramatically - especially in large companies, where formerly only restrained interest had been demonstrated. It has long been a well-known fact that project management is not a simple matter and that even in the classical areas of applications, such as large scale technical projects, failures are practically a daily occurrence.  

The introduction of project work breakdowns, network techniques, project reports and any additional, possibly computer aided tools promises to solve several deficiencies in the traditional work organisation. Project Management becomes a strategic goal for the top management of a transforming enterprise. It will result into disappointments only when there is no system of proper feedback. All methods and instruments of project management were originally meant for large technical projects. The present application to tasks in the structural changes of business and markets, however, is totally different.

Hall in his book "A Methodology for Systems Engineering" focused on the problems of how complex technical forms or socio-technical systems such as entire factories, can be created on our orderly process. Its strength lies in the fact that in deterministic processes, avoidable chaos can be reduced by creating project work breakdowns, network plans, or flow charts and then executing them.

In the late 1950s operations research (OR) was used at a rapid pace with the basic idea to optimise technical and social processes by means of mathematical calculations. At numerous instances mathematicians and scientists have applied OR to
various fields and have developed an incredible amount of calculation methods. In the meantime, however, it has been established that the majority of these methods are ineffective as there exists a difference between standards of mathematical models and realities of the world.

In many cases, it has been observed that project bureaucracy, developed and produced major components of project management (such as handbooks, periodic reporting methods etc.), actually has hindered creative dynamics, or causes a slowdown in performance.

Today, the introduction of products and systems has become a complex problem for both the marketing and investment departments. Therefore, the benefits of innovations are dependent on the ability to integrate them into an already existing system. The process of systematic integration, of getting a system on its way, of overcoming obstacles and mishaps, or learning and adjusting that can only be successful in the form of a project.²⁴

Among the new and important applications of project management, one of the most important is to deal with the multinational opportunities arising in a World changed by political, economic events and technological advances. This has resulted into a departure from its classical applications, namely, integrating interrelating an organisation's project activities across its departments through the use of matrix design. Several important global trends are reshaping the competitive dimensions in the world and are also providing the opportunity for increased use of borderless project management.²⁵
• The dismantling of trade barriers within the European Community
• The U.S. and Canadian trade initiatives with Mexico
• The emergence of new markets brought about by the dismantling of the centrally planned economies of eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union
• The thrust of current GATT negotiations to bring down tariff and non-tariff barriers of trade among all nations.

Reflecting these global trends, co-operation with organisations across external boundaries is growing in importance. To avoid the uncertainties of global competition, companies are finding it necessary to build alliances with other companies to share risk, resources, and rewards. Today the soaring costs, risks, and complexities of new technologies are haunting the future of global companies that try to go it alone. Even giants such as IBM, Boeing, and Siemens are moving more and more towards joint projects to foster corporate co-operation by sharing resources and risks. The trend towards inter-company and inter-country projects have taken roots. Exactly what form of industrial structure and competition will emerge from this trend, remains uncertain. Nevertheless, the trend requires both ad-hoc project management and more strategic (long term) project management. It also requires increasing sophistication in the way projects are conceptualised and developed, and how the production, marketing and after sales service challenges are handled.
2.11. CONCLUSION:

The project management tools incorporate a plethora of financial, technical and management techniques, mostly computerised, which can provide the project management team with the necessary data on which to make the necessary decisions for project development. But they are ineffective if not build into an integrated project management system. It is the responsibility of the government in the developing countries to actively support the project management system. Industry and Commerce can give support by the creation of a project management association linked to an established professional project management organisation, which can take on some of the issues discussed.

In conclusion, the benefits outlined in this chapter are substantial for a developing country. To receive them it is necessary for the government, industry and commerce to integrate an integrated project management system - one that does not merely copy what exists elsewhere, but that reflects the needs of the country and will provide a way forward for it to grow and achieve its long term objectives.
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