

# Introducing an Entrepreneurial Project Management Model

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**Abstract:** Recently, the fundamental assumptions underpinning project management process models have been criticized as being insufficient to support the proactiveness, innovation and creativity needed by organizations competing in dynamic markets. To address this, this paper undertakes an extensive review of the project management and corporate entrepreneurship literature to construct a theoretical Entrepreneurial Project Management model. The model presented seeks to provide a basis for practitioners to incorporate entrepreneurial elements into their projects more effectively and efficiently, as well as a basis for future academic research to explore its validity and machinations across a range of industry and organizational contexts.

**Keywords:** Project management, corporate entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial project management

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Project management burgeoned as theoretical construct guiding managerial decision-making and organisational development since the onset of industrial revolution in the late 19<sup>th</sup> Century (Kloppenborg & Opfer, 2000). Whilst not a theory in its own right, the project management concept (and the process models that have been developed in this regard) represent a combination of a range of theories relating to managerial planning, organising, leadership and control (Johnston & Brennan, 1996). The assumptions and priorities underpinning extant project management models necessarily, therefore, reflect the external environmental forces, competitive dynamics and organisational needs prevalent at the time of their development (Bygstad & Lanestedt, 2009). Recently, there has been recognition that these assumptions and priorities (i.e. their inherent bias towards standards, policies and adherence to guidelines etc.) serve to undermine the role of project management in delivering the proactiveness, innovation and creativity needed by organisations competing in contemporary dynamic markets (Görög, 2016; Walker, 2015). Nguyen, Killen, Kok and Gemünden (2016), for example, explicitly state that the changes in the logic that supports project management processes have been extensive in the past two decades, yet have barely been considered fully in the literature. Varajao (2018)

and Sanchez, Micaelli, Bonjour and Monticolo (2019) are representative of a movement calling for the inclusion of entrepreneurial concepts into the project management literature to better represent its operations in unpredictable environmental settings. Di Muro and Turner (2018) similarly identify a need to incorporate the notion of ‘opportunity’ into project management process models (in what they term an ‘opportunity project’ mindset) through the combination of the currently segregated communities of project management and entrepreneurship. To this end, the corporate entrepreneurship (CE) literature has emerged to providing academic and practitioners alike with a basis for incorporating entrepreneurial actions, orientations and decisions into ‘traditional’ organisational and managerial processes (Anderson, Coffey & Dixon-Fowler, 2013). The incorporation of CE elements into extant project management processes is deemed an appropriate mechanism by which to transform traditional project management into an entrepreneurial project management process (Frederiksen & Davies, 2008).

There have been similar calls in the practitioner literature for the development of an entrepreneurial project management model; these calls have emphasised as need for traditional project management concepts, methods and applications to more effectively foster innovation and creativity in the organisational context (Kuura, 2012; Trokic, 2016). Gedzun (2016, p. 1), for example, calls for an exploration of how the project management process can be augmented to assist organisations “... to manage, mitigate and minimize risks... [and] to improve business effectiveness and streamline the life-cycle” in order to increase their innovative capacity. In order to address this research opportunity, therefore, this paper presents review of the ‘project management’ and ‘corporate entrepreneurship’ literature for the purposes of introducing a theoretical Entrepreneurship Project Management (EPM) framework.

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Project management is a subfield of management and organisational studies based on a set of models and techniques used for the planning and control of complex undertakings in similarly complex environments (Papillion, 2016). The Project Management Institute (PMI) define project management as a process comprising three distinct elements: (a) the project entry-phase (b) the project life-cycle, and (c) the project exit-phase (PMI, 2017). The project entry-phase requires the project initiator to take charge of work processes including *inter alia*, conceptual development, feasibility study, design, prototype, and concept testing (Pasian, Sankaran & Boydell, 2012). According Innes, Hemmelgarn and Gargiulo (2004), the project entry-phase is handled externally to the project boundaries and is characterised by three components: the project’s business case, the project agreements, and the project’s statement of work. A project’s business case developed prior to initiating a project, serves to define the problem or opportunity in detail and identifies strategic recommendations for implementation (Westland, 2006). The project’s business case document is used to establish the validity of the project and lists its objectives (Meredith & Mantel, 2011). The project’s business case often results from carrying out a needs assessment to understand the business goals and objectives, opportunities and provides for recommendations to their implementation (Kerzner, 2017). The project life-cycle represents the type of development undertaken from the project’s entry phase through to its

exit phase (Westland, 2006); it is generally associated with the actions relating to project initiation, project organisation and preparation, project work execution, and phaseout (Cooke-Davies, 2001; Meredith & Mantel, 2011). Project phases are time bound, logically related activities that culminates in the completion of one or more project deliverables, and may be sequential, iterative, or interdependent (Williams, 2005). According to Meredith and Mantel (2011), the iterative nature of project phases suggests that project deliverables evolve from concept through delivery, growth, maturity and to exit. The project exit-phase seeks to ensure that project deliverables are passed on to the end users, and that project records (e.g. policies, knowledge bases, procedures etc.) are appropriately managed (Tereso, Ribeiro, Fernandes, Loureiro & Ferreira, 2018). In addition, the exit-phase aims to recognise three important activities (i.e. documented approvals, completed documents, and completed deliverables) that culminates into organisation substantiality (Fangel, 2018).

## **2.1 The Project Management Environment**

Project management actions take place in various environments exclusively characterised with complex societal structures, values, and systems (Engwall, 2003), and as such, understanding and gathering information concerning the environment is critical in order to identify promising opportunities for project success (Howell & Sheab, 2001). Azarov, Yaroshenko and Bushuyev (2012) identified a list of events that influence projects including economic, political, seasonal, environmental, unhealthy competition, venture capital, force majeure, and management factors. Extant literature differentiates project environmental influences into two broad categories: internal environmental factors, and external environmental factors (see Engwall, 2003). Internal environmental factors are conditions within the project's environment largely under the control of the project team (e.g. plans, processes, policies, procedures, and organisational knowledge bases etc.) that influence, constrain, and direct the project outcomes (Wideman, 2001). Similarly, the physical infrastructure (e.g. available project facilities, equipment and information technology hardware) also have an influence on how projects are implemented (Ives, 2005). External environmental factors are conditions not under the control of the project team, that influence, constrain, or direct the project (Wideman, 2001). Project managers are, therefore, responsible for integrating elements of the external environment that influence project success (Ives, 2005). The integration of the environmental factors with the project management processes is discussed in the sections below.

## **2.2 Integration of Project Management Processes**

The integration of project management processes and environmental influences comprises the unification, consolidation, communication, and interrelating the processes through coordinated activities (e.g. development of the project charter, development of project management plans, etc.) (Tereso, Ribeiro, Fernandes, Loureiro & Ferreira, 2018). These project management integration processes are concerned with describing and organising project work for effective project delivery via processes relating to initiation, planning, execution, monitoring and controlling, and closing activities.

### ***2.2.1 Initiation process***

The project initiation process is performed to either define a new project or a new phase of the existing project through obtaining authorisation from the project initiating entity (e.g. project sponsor, customers, performing organisation etc.) (Lientz & Rea, 2016; Meredith & Mantel, 2011). The initiation process involves making decisions concerning how a project will deliver results and reconciling these with the customer's budget (Ursula, 2010). The initiation process is also important in the alignment of stakeholders' expectations and the project's purpose (Caron, 2014). The 'project charter' represents a statement of objectives that details project goals, roles and responsibilities; identifies the main stakeholders, and the level of authority of project managers (Kappelman, McKeeman & Zhang, 2006). The project charter can operate as a strategic summary of the project's key success factors (Macheridis, 2009). The project charter development detail the project major objectives, scope boundaries and reciprocal agreements between the project's implementation team and key stakeholders (Tereso, Ribeiro, Fernandes, Loureiro & Ferreira, 2018). Stakeholder identification refers to the process of regularly documenting appropriate information concerning their interests, involvement, interdependencies, influence and potential impact on project success (Davis, 2014). Effective stakeholder identification enables project teams to effectively engage each stakeholder or stakeholder cohorts (Jaafar & Yusof, 2019).

### ***2.2.2 Planning process***

The planning process establishes the project's specific course of action to accomplish predetermined objectives stipulated in the project charter (Badiru, 1991). Planning starts by considering the information needed to satisfy the project requirements (Denker, Steward & Browing, 2001). Similarly, Hayes (2000) and Srivannaboon (2009) argued that the planning processes establish the total scope of the project, define and refine the project objectives, as well as develop the project course of action to deliver results. Pre-planning performed at the project initial stages also provides a foundation for more detailed future planning activities (Hayes, 2000).

### ***2.2.3 Execution process***

The execution process describes how the project tasks are completed and relies on effective leadership abilities (Ursula, 2010). The execution process administers the work defined in the project management plan to satisfy the project requirements (Taylor, 2008). The project manager and team members are involved in coordinating resources, managing stakeholder relationships, and integrating and performing the activities defined in the project management plan (Meredith & Mantel, 2011). In addition, deviations from the project management plan may be dictated by factors not previously identified by the project team. Extant literature identifies (a) direct and manage project work, and (b) manage project knowledge as important components that comprise the project execution process (Kerzner, 2017; PMI, 2017). Direct and manage project work demonstrate the process of leading and performing project work as prescribed in the project management plan (Kerzner, 2017). The execution process also allows the performance of change and/or configuration management processes to achieve the project objectives; the planned project activities are executed to achieve complete project deliverables

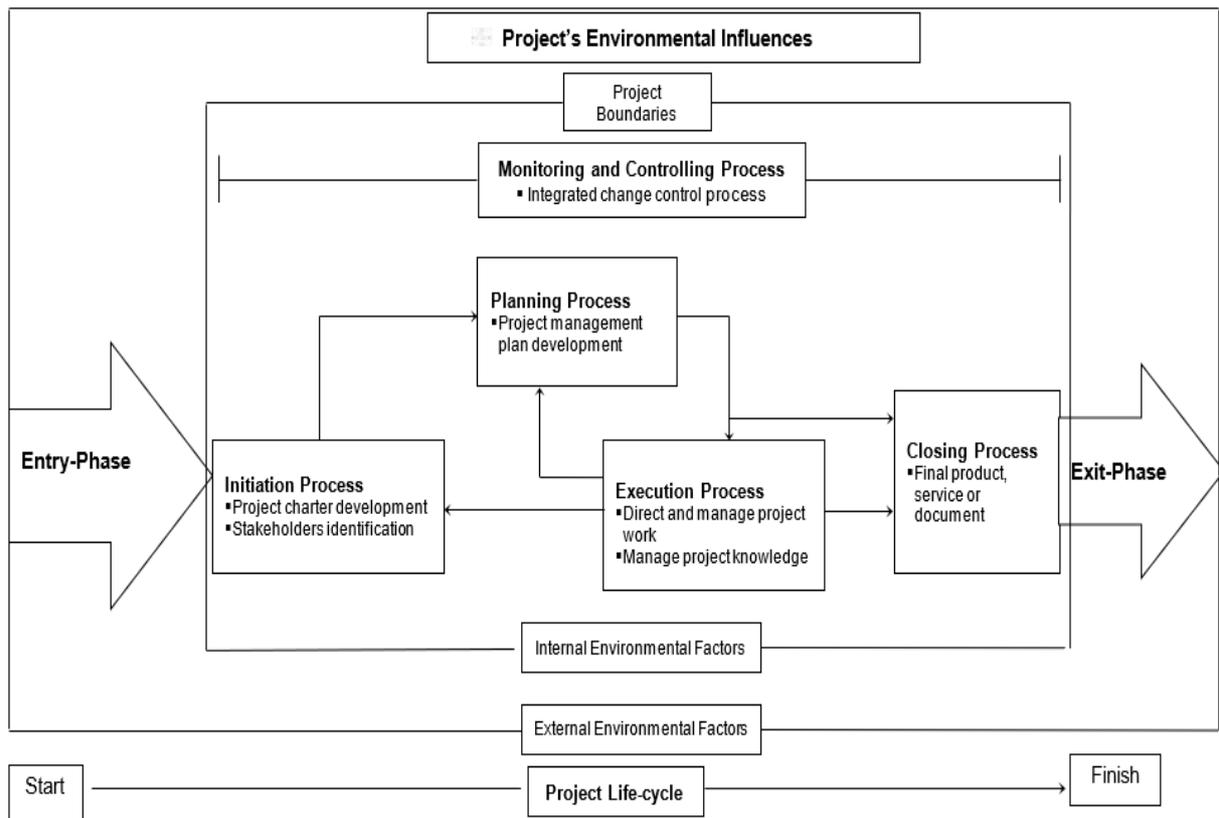
and also to accomplish established objectives (Kerzner, 2017). According to the Reich, Gemino and Sauer (2014), knowledge management seeks to ensure that the accumulated skills, experience, and expertise of the project team are used throughout ongoing projects as well as on future projects. Organisations are required to create an atmosphere of trust so that team members are motivated to share their knowledge and experiences (Desouza & Evaristo, 2004). Extant literature recognises the importance of ‘managing project knowledge’ that is implicitly embedded within the various social networks in a given project (Bresnen, Edelman, Newell, Scarbrough & Swan, 2003). Managing project knowledge is performed throughout the project life-cycle and involves active knowledge sharing and integration of the various knowledge domains (e.g. contextual knowledge, and project management knowledge) for project sustainability purposes (Ahern, Leavy & Byrne, 2014).

#### ***2.2.4 Monitoring and Controlling Process***

Monitoring and controlling project work process is concerned with tracking, reviewing, and reporting the overall project work progress to meet performance targets prescribed in the project management plan (Westland, 2006). The monitoring and controlling process enables stakeholders to keep track and understand the current state of the project (Kerzner, 2017). The monitoring and controlling process also helps project sponsors to recognise and appreciate the actions taken by the performing organisation to address performance requirements, as well as have visibility into future project costs and schedule forecasts (Tereso, Ribeiro, Fernandes, Loureiro & Ferreira, 2018). The monitoring process is a continuous process and provides the project management team insight into the project’s effectiveness and efficiency (Kerzner, 2017). The process involves reviewing all change requests to project plan, approving the changes and managing changes to project deliverables, and communicating the decisions to key stakeholders (Burke, 2014).

#### ***2.2.5 Closing process***

The closing process is performed once or at predefined points in the project involving the analysis of future projects (Ursula, 2010; Westland, 2006). The process finalises all activities for the project, project phase and/or contract (PMI, 2017). Project closing processes ensure the effective archiving of project or phase information and that planned work is completed (Westland, 2006). The closing process requires the project managers to, communicate the closure of the project to all stakeholders, release project resources to pursue new endeavours, and document reasons for premature project termination (Meredith & Mantel, 2011; Westland, 2006). The project administrative activities performed at the closure phase may include closing project accounts, confirming formal deliverable acceptance by the customer, audit project success and/or failure, and measuring stakeholder satisfaction (Collyer & Warren, 2009). The project’s final deliverables (i.e. a product, service or a document) refers to specific output(s) the project was authorised and/or intended to produce (Rad, 2003). The ‘traditional’ project management processes as described above, is presented in **Figure 1** below.

**Figure 1: The Project Management Processes**

### 2.3 The Role of Corporate Entrepreneurship in Project Management

As noted, the CE literature has been applied in business and management domain to effectively incorporate entrepreneurial elements within established/traditional organisational operations (Burns, 2016). In relation to project management and organisational development, the value of CE is premised on its ability to identify new opportunities, and foster creativity and innovativeness within the organisational setting (see Morris, Pinto & Söderlund, 2011). Within the emerging literature, Romano (2014) represents CE as an approach related to performing new tasks independent of traditional bureaucratic organisational procedures. Antoncic and Hisrich (2003) noted that CE is related to the entrepreneurial spirit within existing organisations, and/or the act of innovativeness within organisations (Sharma & Chrisman, 2007). CE corresponds with intrapreneurship (i.e. implementation of innovative systems and practices by teams within organisations (Larson & Larson, 2015), and entrepreneurial strategy which describes the entrepreneurial posture and orientation within organisations (Li, Zhang & Chan, 2005). According to Trokic (2016) and Kuura (2012), the integration of CE literature into project management processes provides a sound theoretical foundation for the construction of an EPM model. The CE assumptions of flexibility in decision making, risk-taking, innovativeness etc. support the advancement of project management processes (Cook, 2017).

## 2.4 Imbuing Project Management Processes with CE Principles and Practices

### 2.4.1 Entrepreneurial Initiation Process

The entrepreneurial initiation process highlights the creative and innovative approach employed to define a new project or a new phase of the existing project through obtaining authorisation from the project initiating entity (e.g. project sponsor, customers, performing organisation etc.) (Reiss, 2013). High-risk projects are usually initiated out of a business need, and are quickly translated into project plans (Frederiksen & Davies, 2008). The ability to entrepreneurially initiate projects is a critical business attribute for success as organisations strategically respond to a rapid pace of change (Comminos & Frigenti, 2006). Given that projects must be aligned to the overall strategic goals and desired business performance (see Crawford, 2012), and the uncertainty involved in pursuing an opportunity, organisations should focus their energies on initiating highly innovative projects involving greater technical complexity and requiring greater diversity of skills critical for organisational survival (Frederiksen & Davies, 2008). In addition to stakeholder, issues such as (a) developing a consultative project charter, and (b) employing entrepreneurial project managers must underpin entrepreneurial initiation process (see Cook, 2017).

The consultative project charter development process is premised on the need to explicitly collaborate and discuss contextual issues amongst stakeholders' networks at the start of the project and to have a common agreement to refer to if necessary, during project implementation (Dinsmore & Treneman, 2000; Ruecker & Radzikowska, 2008). Entrepreneurial project managers are defined as people that proactively seek out business opportunities and solutions to project-based problems (Cook, 2017; Fangel, 2018). Entrepreneurial project managers, must stay abreast of project impacts to make their projects thrive and are responsible for the process of creating new value (Cook, 2017). Kuratko, Hornsby and Bishop (2005), suggest that entrepreneurial managers use organisational resources along with their aggressive attitudes towards problems to create a 'vibrant business atmosphere'. A transition to strategic and innovative project management requires, therefore, that project managers have extensive business acumen and experience (El-Sabaa, 2001). Entrepreneurial project managers are described as being highly-motivated individuals who enable organisations realise extraordinary results (Morris, Pinto & Söderlund, 2011). Kuratko, Hornsby and Bishop (2005) state that managers at all levels of management (i.e. operational, tactical and strategic) are responsible for their organisation's entrepreneurial actions and must promote entrepreneurial behaviour (e.g. including the championing of innovative ideas and providing the required resources to take entrepreneurial actions), and this has a positive impact on the organisation's entrepreneurial outcomes. The literature suggests, therefore, that traditional project initiation is developed into an entrepreneurial process through the incorporation of two CE salient elements: (a) consultative project charter, and (b) experienced and/or entrepreneurial project managers. Whilst the consultative project charter development process strengthens decision making through relying on diverse ideas from stakeholder networks, the assignment of entrepreneurial project managers establishes a proactive project management process within entrepreneurial organisations.

### ***2.4.2 Entrepreneurial Planning Process***

Entrepreneurial planning is highly beneficial to project success in conditions of uncertainty (Gruber, 2007); it also facilitates faster decision-making by identifying missing information and action steps to achieve broader goals in a timely manner (Delmar & Shane, 2003). In highly dynamic project environments, entrepreneurial project managers will achieve greatest value from planning when they focus on critical planning activities, whilst applying speed and creativity in the planning task (Shane & Delmar, 2004). Transforming traditional project planning into entrepreneurial planning process, requires project managers to adopt CE strategies that support entrepreneurial project success (Burke, 2014). In addition to the project management plan development discussed above, issues such as (a) organic management structures, (b) innovativeness, (c) autonomy, and (d) risk taking underpin entrepreneurial planning process (see Burns, 2016). These issues are discussed in turn below.

#### ***2.4.2.1 Organic Management Structures***

Organic management structures are relatively flexible in nature and capable of adapting to changes in the external environment more readily (Burns, 2016). Organic management structures are characterised by informality, network-type relationships, low levels of authority, decision-making related to knowledge/expertise rather than to position in a hierarchy, and have a wide span of control (Burns & Stalker, 2009). The idea of an organic management structure in entrepreneurial project management is to grant significant level of authority and flexibility to project managers and team members in decision-making (Burns & Stalker, 2009). An organic management structure nurtures innovation through its flexible planning approaches and ability to respond to a fast-changing and turbulent project environment (Bradley, Wiklund & Shepherd, 2011).

#### ***2.4.2.2 Innovativeness***

Innovativeness refers to the extent to which project managers are able to engage in and support the development of new business ideas, experimentations, and creativity in the planning processes (Li et al., 2009). Gürbüz and Aykol (2009) argue that innovation is a key ingredient for organisations that employ entrepreneurial approaches in their projects. Innovativeness underpins entrepreneurial processes and is critical for undertaking complex projects (Azarov, Yaroshenko & Bushuyev, 2012). To promote innovativeness within project management processes, requires the support of senior management since they are individuals who often advocate for an entrepreneurial organisational strategy (Crawford, 2012). Bruyat and Julien (2001) acknowledged the importance of innovativeness in project planning whilst relating it to operational skills, and engagements to drive the project management process. The creation of an innovative environment is an essential attribute for projects striving to achieve competitiveness (Azarov, Yaroshenko & Bushuyev, 2012).

#### ***2.4.2.3 Autonomy***

Autonomy represents the ability by which project managers are able to develop effective work plans and compensate for their knowledge gaps with limited direct supervision (Browning & Ramasesh, 2015). In an entrepreneurial organisation, the project managers' autonomy is not

only limited by a contract and/or project charter, but extends to include the project ramifications (e.g. requirements from project stakeholders) (Macheridis, 2009). Autonomous project managers have the capacity and flexibility to develop fast and adaptive approaches towards decision-making during the planning process and to apply agility in an entrepreneurial project (Augustine, Payne, Sencindiver & Woodcock, 2005). In an entrepreneurial project management context, autonomy allows project managers to be proactive and responsive to uncertainty.

#### *2.4.2.4 Risk Taking*

Within the management and business literature, risk taking is closely linked with innovation, opportunity and entrepreneurship (Fangel, 2018). Risk taking involves investing significant managerial time in projects with significant possibility of failure (García-Granero, Llopis, Fernández-Mesa & Alegre, 2015). The literature suggests that traditionally successful project managers have a low aversion to risk (Macheridis, 2009; Trokic, 2016). Risk taking is a planning component which requires project managers to make large and risky resource commitments in ventures with uncertain outcomes (Antoncic & Hisrich, 2004). According to Gürbüz and Aykol (2009), the dimensions of risk taking and entrepreneurial behaviour of project managers are sometimes considered synonymous. Entrepreneurial project managers plan for project uncertainty through risk taking, which is an important process not only to manage the project process, but also as an important condition for proactiveness (Meredith & Mantel, 2011).

### **2.4.3 Entrepreneurial Execution Process**

Entrepreneurial project execution is dependent on the application of a set of core entrepreneurial competencies (e.g. organic management style, innovativeness, creativity, etc.) (Burns & Stalker, 2009). In changing project environments (see Fangel, 2018), entrepreneurial project managers achieve greatest value from execution processes when they focus on project critical path activities, whilst applying innovativeness and creativity in the execution of the activities (Shane & Delmar, 2004). The development of traditional project execution process into entrepreneurial execution process, requires project managers to adopt CE strategies that support entrepreneurial project management (Kuura, 2012; Trokic, 2016). In addition to the two processes (i.e. direct and manage work and managing project knowledge) discussed above, issues such as: (a) opportunity recognition and exploration, and (b) proactive project management (see Dinsmore & Treneman, 2000; Fangel, 2018) underpin the entrepreneurial execution process. These issues are discussed in turn below.

#### *2.4.3.1 Opportunity Recognition and Exploration*

Entrepreneurial project managers must have the ability to recognise and explore opportunities in order to add value to their operations, by systematically implementing new projects across the organisation (Dinsmore & Treneman, 2000; Trokic, 2016). Dinsmore and Treneman (2000) highlight that as organisations become more project-based, project managers must seek for opportunities of consolidating information and identify the right tools and techniques to guarantee business functionality. Such tools and techniques may include relying on expert

judgement and benchmarking organisational processes (Kerzner, 2017). Entrepreneurial organisations must excel at exploring new opportunities to foster more radical and incremental innovation that support their strategic intent. In addition, opportunity recognition and exploration remain a shared responsibility, not only for the senior management, but across all management levels (Meredith & Mantel, 2011; Miles & Covin, 2002).

#### *2.4.3.2 Proactive Project Management*

Proactive project management necessitates the conscious shifting of time spent on reactive project management towards a more proactive approach in all the project phases (Fangel, 2018). Proactive management supports the active involvement of senior executives and key stakeholders in the initial phases of the project and an early clarification of the ‘project sponsor role’ in the project processes (Burns & Stalker, 2009). Proactive project management requires that project managers focus on problems as they occur and move away from the traditional and reactive management approaches in solving problems. Proactive project management practices include *inter alia*, presenting project time schedules as independent project activities, and separating project management documents from execution documents (Fangel, 2018). Proactive project management facilitates and promotes the involvement of team members in handling management and execution tasks (Bushuyev & Jaroshenko, 2013).

#### **2.4.4 Entrepreneurial Monitoring and Controlling Process**

Entrepreneurial monitoring and controlling process support the successful execution of complex projects (Macheridis, 2009). Whilst traditional monitoring and controlling practices remain extremely difficult to achieve successful project outcomes, entrepreneurial monitoring and controlling process supports the timely completion of complex projects to their full scope, and within budget (Browning, 2019). Traditional monitoring is constrained by project managers not critically examining a project’s ‘known – unknown’ influences (e.g. shortage of resources and unexpected changes in stakeholder needs) (Flyvbjerg, 2014), which entrepreneurial monitoring and controlling seeks to explore through its proactive approach (Browning & Ramasesh, 2015). Entrepreneurial monitoring and controlling approach is beneficial to project managers when constrained with not knowing exactly what to do during the project; for instance, when the path to a project’s set goals is complex, novel, dynamic, uncertain, and ambiguous (Browning, 2019). To overcome such constraints, therefore, the paper adopts specific CE principles and practices to develop an entrepreneurial monitoring and controlling process including: (a) creating room for errors, (b) self-managed teams, and (c) soft skills maximisation (see Azim, 2010). These issues are discussed in turn below.

##### *2.4.4.1 Creating Room for Errors*

Creating room for errors is a deliberate CE strategy that provides a framework for project managers to better account for the different types of uncertainties that impact investment decisions (Avadikyan & Llerena, 2010). It also helps to minimise and/or avoid project failure, whilst capturing potential opportunities (Jahanshahi & Brem, 2017). Creating room for errors on a project is a rational strategy employed by project managers to cope with project uncertainty (Jahanshahi & Brem, 2017). The CE literature highlights the need to create room

for errors based on a set of chronological assumptions; these include: managerial state of uncertainty, the impact on project outcomes and the nature of responsiveness to such uncertainty (Love, Edwards, Irani & Walker, 2009).

#### *2.4.4.2 Self-managed Teams*

Self-managed teams may take the form of virtual teams that allow project team members to account for their individual actions (Vanaelst, Clarysse, Wright, Lockett, Moray & S'Jegers, 2006). Self-managed teams are characterised of having 'self-tailored' solutions to problems rather than following a reliable blueprint or project plan in their project operations (Alderman & Ivory, 2011). Entrepreneurial project managers must, therefore, adopt entrepreneurial management models that account for less formal, and largely open-minded project management capabilities (Vanaelst, Clarysse, Wright, Lockett, Moray & S'Jegers, 2006). Self-managed teams also have the potential to provide extensive range of information provided by individual freelancers who are embedded in collaborative relationships (Ferriani, Cattani & Baden-Fuller, 2009), and increase the development of new opportunities (DeMarie, 2004).

#### *2.4.4.3 Soft Skills Maximisation*

Soft skills are interpersonal qualities and personal attributes that project managers possess to effectively manage work relationships including *inter alia*, communication, courtesy, flexibility, integrity, and work ethic (Robles, 2012). Entrepreneurial monitoring and controlling heavily relies on the project managers' ability to maximise the use of soft or people-oriented skills, such as interpersonal communication for the achievement of project outcomes and negotiation for scarce resources (Azim, 2010). Strategic communication skills enable project managers to share project monitoring and evaluation information and give appropriate feedback to project team members (Zielinski, 2005). Employing entrepreneurial practices in project monitoring and control is a balance of organisational skills and people skills, whilst citing constructive communication, emotional intelligence, and negotiation to be the most important competencies required of an entrepreneurial manager (Larson & Larson, 2015; Van Ingen, 2007). The literature suggests, therefore, that entrepreneurial monitoring and controlling necessitates the adoption of specific CE practices (i.e. create room for errors, establish self-managed teams, and soft skills maximisation), each of which are applicable in an entrepreneurial organisation context.

#### **2.4.5 Perform Integrated Change Control Process**

The process of performing integrated change control is concerned with ensuring that proposed changes to the project performance baselines (i.e. quality, costs, schedule etc.) are effectively and efficiently managed (Ursula, 2010; PMI, 2017). The process requires entrepreneurial project managers to critically review and follow the necessary change management procedures and guidelines before making approvals to change requests (Ursula, 2010). Performing integrated change control has the potential to influence projects' success or failure as it directs the management of change requests (Burke, 2014). The CE literature highlights three important elements relevant for the performance integrated change control process: (a) alignment of project management with organisational strategy, (b) managing organisational politics, and (c)

parallel decision making (see Jaafari, 2006; Jain & Ansari, 2018; Ward & Chapman, 2003). These issues are discussed in turn below.

#### *2.4.5.1 Alignment of Project Management with Organisational Strategy*

Alignment of project management with organisational strategy is the process of adopting flexible management style to capture the complexities and uncertainties in achieving organisational strategic goals (Fangel, 2018). Alignment of project management to strategy is used to ensure that organisational activities are focused on project outcomes (Milosevic & Srivannaboon, 2006). Project management alignment helps ensure that resources are channelled into core project activities with the opportunity to directly impact on organisations' overall performance, thereby reducing inefficiencies in resource utilisation and also help improve project success rate (Jaafari, 2006). Alignment of project management and strategies allows project managers select the best alternative course of action in decision making (Milosevic & Srivannaboon, 2006). The alignment of project management with organisational strategy influences project managers to engage in entrepreneurial behaviours and strategies. These entrepreneurial behaviours and strategies support managerial flexibility and teamwork as well as provide synergistic benefits in dealing with increased project complexity and uncertainty (Ireland, Covin & Kuratko, 2009).

#### *2.4.5.2 Managing Organisational Politics*

Organisational politics refers to the informal, unofficial, and often 'behind the scenes' efforts to sell ideas, influence an organisation, increase power or achieve specific objectives by a group and/or individual team member (Brandon & Seldman, 2004). Political behaviours and influential tactics often arise when project team members' interests are fundamentally incongruent (Jain & Ansari, 2018). Though aspects of organisational politics have potential destructive impact on organisational success, it can be an effective way to get things done within organisations (Opoku & Arthur, 2018). It is important for entrepreneurial project managers to be aware of the potential destructive aspect of organisational politics on employee job satisfaction, commitment and job performance (Schneider, 2016). In order to minimise dysfunctional political behaviour, entrepreneurial managers can provide equitable access to information, model collaborative behaviour, and demonstrate the intolerance or lack of recognition of political manoeuvring (Donald, Bertha & Lucia, 2016).

#### *2.4.5.3 Parallel Decision-Making*

Parallel decision-making is a central strategic approach and a contingent exchange between complementary decision choices that assume a variety of forms (Ward & Chapman, 2003). Parallel decision-making promotes active stakeholder involvement and participation by supporting consultative and consensus decision-making styles (Belton & Stewart, 2002). This decision-making approach allows entrepreneurial project managers to seek for input and advice from key stakeholders, which is essential for minimising potential project risks (Belton & Stewart, 2002). Parallel decision-making facilitates the availability of rationalised decision choices for project managers to resolve complex project changes (Ward & Chapman, 2003).

### ***2.4.6 Entrepreneurial Closing Process***

The entrepreneurial closing stage of a project is the flexible and comprehensive process of finalising all activities for the project or contract (Bengtson, Havila & Aberg, 2018). An entrepreneurial project closure involves releasing the final project deliverables to the customers, handing over project documents to the business, closing out supplier contracts, releasing project resources and communicating the closure to all stakeholders (Westland, 2006; Wideman, 2001). An entrepreneurial closing process requires a post-implementation review to quantify the level of project success and identify lessons and implications for future projects. This must be conducted formally so that the benefits delivered by the project are fully realised by the beneficiaries (Bengtson, Havila & Aberg, 2018). Transforming traditional project closing into entrepreneurial closing process, requires project managers to adopt CE strategies that support entrepreneurial project success (Burke, 2014). These CE strategies include the development and execution of project: (a) completion or exit criteria, (b) inclusive project audit, and (c) project impacts update (see Engwall, 2003; Westland, 2006; Wideman, 2007). These issues are discussed in turn below.

#### ***2.4.6.1 Completion or Exit Criteria***

Entrepreneurial completion or exit criteria involves detailing the extent to which the project deliverables (i.e. a product, service, or a document) are to be transferred to the care, custody and control of the relevant stakeholders (Meredith & Mantel, 2011). Entrepreneurial organisations are required to set aside resources to perform a careful and appropriate dissemination of project deliverables, conduct trainings about maintaining deliverables, and offer support for project sustainability (Wideman, 2007). The exit criteria represent the formal acceptance procedures of the project and how project closing processes will be brought to an orderly conclusion (Kwak & Ibbs, 2002). It involves the active participation of team members in ensuring that contracts are appropriately terminated, project lessons and knowledge are documented, and administrative closure processes are carefully accomplished (Wideman, 2007).

#### ***2.4.6.2 Inclusive Project Audit***

An inclusive project audit is the final activity within an entrepreneurial project closing process performed by the project team to review project success and/or failure (often with the guidance of an independent assessor – e.g. an external auditor) (Brandon, Mueller & Shepherd, 2017; Fangel, 2018). An inclusive project audit is an efficient and effective way of transferring valuable project knowledge through sharing information about the elements of specific project processes that went according to plan, and some processes that could be improved upon based on recommendations for corrective action in current and future projects (Jugdev, 2012). An inclusive project audit necessitates project managers to demonstrate flexibility and consultative tactics whilst motivating project team members to actively share and use knowledge (Van Ingen, 2007). An inclusive project audit measures project success in terms of performance against the defined objectives and conformance to the management processes, and standards outlined in the project planning phase (Rad, 2003). Pich, Loch and Meyer (2002) suggest that an inclusive project audit must determine how well the project conformed to predetermined

standards prescribed in the quality plan. The final project review must be done at the end of the project and often after a series of iterative phase reviews (also referred to as phase exit or phase gate) (PMI, 2017).

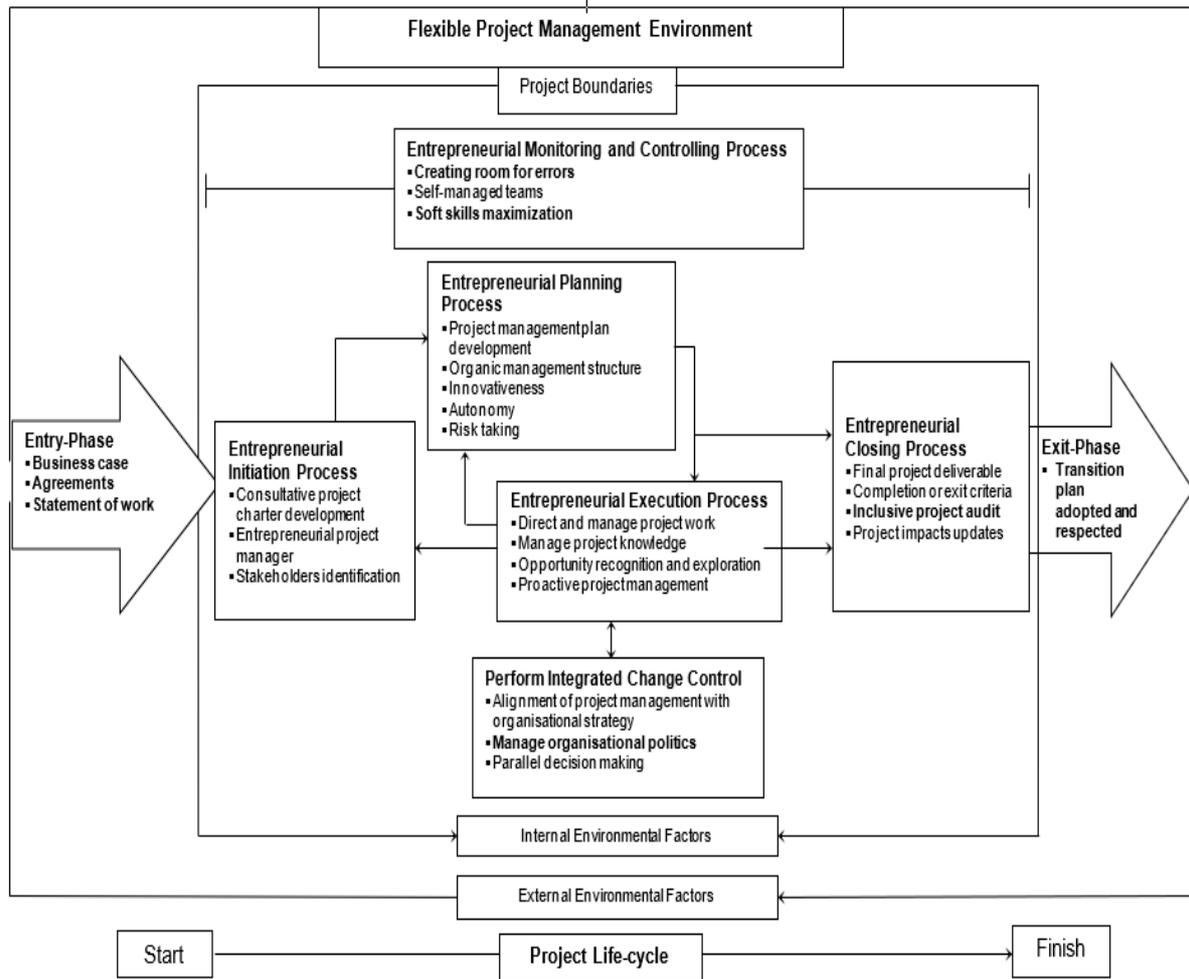
#### 2.4.6.3 Project Impacts Update

Project impacts update outlines the successes (i.e. ‘positive impacts’) and failures (i.e. ‘negative impacts’) of projects to their beneficiaries or stakeholders (Fangel, 2018). Project impacts originate from the environment in which projects operate (Engwall, 2003). Project impacts requires continuous update including *inter alia*, organisational policies, lessons learned from previous projects, operational plans, historical information, marketplace financial considerations, prevailing laws and regulations etc. (Hetling & Botein, 2010). Meredith and Mantel (2011) argue that entrepreneurial project managers need to have the creative and innovative ability to update the impacts of projects throughout the project life-cycle. Critical project impacts criteria must be established by an entity outside the project team such as the senior executive by following the appropriate organisational guidelines specifying project impacts updates (Ives, 2005). In addition, project impacts (e.g. information on performance metrics and defects) must be continuously updated throughout the entrepreneurial project life-cycle (Collyer & Warren, 2009).

### 3. CONCLUSION

In answer to calls by both academics and practitioners alike to imbue traditional project management processes with corporate entrepreneurial concepts, the review of the project management and CE literatures underpinned the introduction of a theoretical EPM framework (see **Figure 2**). We believe that the EPM framework presented here provides the following practical and theoretical contributions for both fields going forward. In terms of its practical contribution, the EPM provides guidance for practicing managers seeking to adopt entrepreneurial concepts more effectively into their project management practices; that is, it provides a sound theoretical link between the strategic planning and execution of organisational projects, whilst simultaneously incorporating the entrepreneurial notions of, *inter alia*, risk, flexibility, innovation and competitiveness. In terms of its theoretical contribution, the EPM provides process model for the detection and definition of specific dynamic capabilities which underpin best practices in entrepreneurial project management in a range of industry and organisational contexts. Lastly, and perhaps most importantly, the EPM serves as the basis for an ongoing research agenda that can unite the two domains; for the project management domain, it presents a framework to expand the conceptual basis upon which the notions of innovation and differentiation can be incorporated into project management processes; for the entrepreneurship domain, it presents an opportunity to demonstrate how its tenets are compatible with strategic management principles and the development of dynamic capabilities in a range of different industries, economic contexts and geographic locations.

**Figure 2: An Entrepreneurial Project Management Model**



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