Project Management and National Culture:

Arab and British Project Planning

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Project Management and National Culture:
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<u>Abstract</u>

This dissertation examines the effect of Arab National Culture (NC) and British NC on the planning phase of the project. A structured survey method was used to investigate NC, the integrity of Planning processes, and Project Success. The NC section measured Activity, Environment, Time (past, present, future) orientations, Polychronic/Monochronic orientations and Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance variables. A Project Management Planning Quality model was reviewed and new planning variables included.

Differences between the Arab and British planning ratings were analysed using Mann-Whitney U tests and Independent t-tests. Spearman's rho and Pearson's r correlations then investigated relationships between the planning variables (Scope, Time planning, Cost, Risk, Quality, Integration, Innovation/ Technology, and Communication) and NC. Ratings in Scope, Time planning, Innovation/Technology, Integration, and Communication variables significantly differed between both groups [$p<0.001$], with the Arab group rating Communication higher and the British group rating the remaining variables higher. Principal Components Factor Analysis found that the eight planning variables loaded onto three factors (Initial Planning and Scheduling, Cost and Communication, Quality and Risk). Further research is required on the link between NC and Project Management since some variables were not measured in this study. Recommendations are made for improved cross-cultural understanding and planning.

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Glossary of Terms

Arab: A person who identifies as an Arab and Arabic is their first language (Based on Feghali, 1997).

British: A person who identifies as British and English is their first language (Based on Feghali, 1997).

Factor Analysis: A collection of statistical techniques that assists - reducing a number of variables into a smaller set, helps identification and the measurement of such factors (Remenyi et al, 2000).

Factor: "The variables that group and cluster together can be combined into a weighted linear combination" (Remenyi et al, 2000).

Interval Data: Data has no absolute zero and is measured with precise values where the distance between any two points is equal (Keyton, 2006).

Nominal Data: Also referred to as categorical or discrete data and concerns the presence or absence of a certain characteristic/attribute (Keyton, 2006).

Ordinal Data: Rank-order of data where ranks do not have to be equal (Keyton, 2006).

Variable: An element that is explicitly acknowledged in research hypotheses or questions, which should be stated in various categories (Keyton, 2006).

Abbreviations

Gulf Cooperation Council **(GCC)**

Individualism-Collectivism **(I-C)**

Joint Venture **(JV)**

National Culture **(NC)**

New Zealand **(NZ)**

Objective **(Obj)**

Organisational Culture **(OC)**

Power Distance **(PD)**

Power, Uncertainty, Time-order **(PUT)**

Principal Components Analysis **(PCA)**

Project Management **(PM)**

Project Management Planning Quality Model **(PMPQ)**

Research Question **(RQ)**

Total Quality Management **(TQM)**

Uncertainty Avoidance **(UA)**

United Arab Emirates **(UAE)**

United Kingdom **(UK)**

United States of America **(US)**

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<u>Introduction</u>

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) is discussed in terms of globalisation and Project Management (PM). In particular, the relations between the UAE and the United Kingdom (UK) are outlined. The importance of National Culture (NC) and PM research is introduced, which leads on to this dissertation's problem statement, research questions (RQ), and objectives (Obj).

1.1 Background

When oil was found in the Persian Gulf in the 1930s, the once destitute desert rapidly began to change. The changes brought with them a wealthy and modern lifestyle. The Gulf is an important business partner for the West, which provides international firms with enhanced worldwide trade (Enshassi and Burgess, 1990). The Gulf region includes Bahrain, Iraq, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the UAE. These are all Arab countries and belong to the GCC. The Gulf however continues to suffer from a shortage of local skills and materials (Ali et al, 1995), in various ways opening the doors to an external helping hand. Yet, misunderstandings often occur between the Arab world and those from outside due to cultural and religious distinctions (Ali and Al-Kazemi, 2005). The region has encountered immense social change because many international firms have been established there (Feghali, 1997). Moreover there has been an increase in mergers, acquisitions and joint-ventures (JVs) in the Arab world (Metwalli and Tang, 2003). This includes companies coming from the Middle East,

Europe, North America and Asia, increasing the importance of understanding possible cultural differences.

Globalisation is predominant in the Gulf but it may come into conflict with the traditional culture (Feghali, 1997; Al-Ali, 2008). By focusing this dissertation study on one Gulf country, the importance of international and cultural research can be highlighted. Al-Ali (2008) indicates that the UAE experienced both rapid growth and economic success following the discovery of oil (Neal et al, 2005). Nevertheless, the UAE depends on expatriate workers (Al-Jafary and Hollingsworth, 1983; Enshassi and Burgess, 1990) and many Arab expatriates have moved to work in the UAE due to political or economic circumstances in their native countries (Al-Ali, 2008). Behery (2009) observes that there is likewise a shortage of fully qualified UAE nationals, and although there are many Emiratis in superior job positions, the majority of UAE nationals are not employed in their own country (Al-Ali, 2008). This phenomenon in part can be attributed to the fact that half of the Emirati population are classified a "below 20 years old" (UAE Interact, 2006).

The UAE's construction boom has been extensively documented (El-Sayegh, 2008). The risks of this industry vary among countries since the economic, political, social and cultural conditions differ (El-Sayegh, 2008). Construction project managers from different countries are likely to translate and respond differently to problems as they have different perceptions of various life events (Ochieng and Price, 2009). The UAE market is open to both local and foreign companies but large and complex projects

are often taken on by international companies in collaboration with local partners (El-Sayegh, 2008). There are likely to be cultural differences between these foreign and local companies, which are important for cultural researchers to investigate. A number of British companies operate in the UAE, employing over 120,000 British expatriate workers (Mishra, 2006). British brands are also highly reputable within the UAE (Mishra, 2006). In part this is due to the close relationship that exists between the UAE and the UK, and is maintained through institutions and groups such as the British Business Group which was initiated to promote the development of British businesses in the UAE (Nag, 2008; Salian, 2008). Furthermore the UK is often perceived as an innovative and influential nation, which has encouraged many organisations to seek British expertise (Salian, 2008).

Many of the construction projects carried out in the UAE are extremely complex buildings and infrastructure, such as Dubai's Metro, Atlantis, Burj Khalifa and Abu Dhabi's Emirates Palace, Yas Island and Sheikh Zayed Mosque. PM is therefore important to the success of these initiatives and project managers face numerous unique challenges (Thomas and Pinto, 1999), some of which include cultural factors such as managing multicultural teams (Enshassi and Burgess, 1990; Schneider, 1995; Milosevic, 1999; Ochieng and Price, 2009). Dubai has been described as a cosmopolitan city (Randeree and Chaudhry, 2007), with many organisations consisting of multi-cultural teams. Multicultural teams have the capacity to out-perform mono-cultural teams (Eriksson et al, 2000; Ochieng and Price, 2009), due to superior decision-making (Shachaf, 2008) arising from the diversity and variety of

values, experience and expertise. Nevertheless, communication problems often will occur (Shachaf, 2008). Project managers from different cultural backgrounds run similar kinds of projects, yet they manage them in different ways (Zwikael et al, 2005; Ochieng and Price, 2009; Zwikael, 2009). This is interesting since the British are involved in many of the UAE's projects, for example, British Petroleum, Rolls Royce (Salian, 2008) and similarly the UAE has significant investments in the UK (e.g. London Property; Travelodge; London Stock Exchange - a 21% shareholding in December 2009); Southampton Containers; Tilbury Container Services, etc). Cultural research in PM is important as European investments have no reached projects abroad (Ochieng and Price, 2009).

1.2 Problem Statement

The Gulf and more specifically the UAE is crucial to international business. As noted the UAE relies on many expatriate workers, including hired labour from other Arab countries (Yasin and Zimmerer, 1995). It is therefore important to study the UAE due to this increasing attention but it is also necessary to study the culture of Arab "hired labour" to investigate whether this has an impact on project work. Likewise, the British culture should also be taken into consideration since the number of British expatriates (well over 100,000) working in the UAE is high (Scott and Johnson, 2008). It is worthwhile investigating any differences that may arise between the way in which projects are run by the British and Arab hired labour. Several researchers have suggested that global businesses will need to improve on their tactics if they are

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to be successful in the Arab world (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999; Milosevic, 2002; El-Sayegh, 2007).

Unfortunately there continues to be a lack of research examining the Arab business environment, which is to some extent unexpected considering the increasing commercial influence of the Middle East (Yasin, 1996). This knowledge would be useful to business relations and more specifically to relationships within projects. Feghali (1997) suggests that this shortage of research may be due to travel restrictions and/or a lack of Arabic skills. Since the researcher of this dissertation was brought up in the UK, UAE and Oman, she not only has first-hand experience of Arab and UK societies but an indigenous knowledge and familiarity with social norms and cultural practices in both the UAE and the UK.

In terms of PM, Rees (2008) discusses the culture-bound factors illustrating how it varies across different societies. Interestingly, Hodgson (2007: 224) argues that there are many PM associations "which are nationally embedded and with hugely varying memberships and levels of activity and influence." The PMI has an extensive global reach, yet numbers fall short in Europe, Africa and the Middle East (Hodgson, 2007). He further notes that professionalism is nationally and culturally circumscribed. Therefore, if such associations such as the PMI continue to pursue professional status, national cultural research seems even more relevant. A number of authors have called for more attention to be paid to the impact of NC on PM processes (Shore and Cross, 2005; Zwikael et al, 2005; Dvir et al, 2006; Ochieng and Price, 2009). Globerson and

Zwikael (2002) observed that much has been written about project execution and control, yet less relates specifically to planning and control due to measurement difficulties. Zwikael et al.'s (2005) study of cultural differences in PM capabilities found that there were differences in the intensity of planning processes and proposed that more research be carried out on PM planning in other countries. This dissertation will therefore address this limited area of research by considering the Arab NC and British NC whilst investigating the planning phase of the project.

1.3 Research Questions

As globalisation becomes an increasingly significant factor within the Gulf, any conflict that exists between traditional cultures develops progressively more in relevance. The relationship between the UK and the UAE is one case in point. Zwikael et al (2005) have applied their Project Management Planning Quality (PMPQ) model (Zwikael and Globerson, 2004) to isolate PM planning differences between different NCs, however, Arab and British cultures were not included in their study. Research, therefore, should identify both the similarities and disparity between these NCs to identify aspects which could impact positively or negatively on PM since both cultures operate alongside each other in many of the UAE's projects. Consequently, the following questions were created to facilitate such investigation.

> **RQ1.** Do Arab and British project managers carry out work differently in the planning phase of the project?

RQ2. How adequately does the PMPQ model explain project planning?

RQ3. What can be done to mitigate cultural misunderstandings in the planning stage of the project?

1.4 Objectives

a) Develop a theoretical understanding of NC.

b) Examine the Arab and British NC.

c) Investigate prior research on the link between NC and PM.

d) Connect NC variables with PM concepts and techniques.

e) Explore the ways in which Arab project managers differ to British project managers while planning the project.

f) Critique the PMPQ model for accuracy.

g) Search for additional planning processes (Not included in the PMPQ model).

h) Develop a survey to assess the integrity of such planning processes.

i) Analyse similarities and differences between Arab and British Planning ratings.

j) Discuss variations between Arab and British Project Success answers.

k) Statistically analyse differences between Arab and British NC responses.

l) Make recommendations that reduce the adverse affect of cultural differences on project success.

2. Literature Review

This chapter summarises the managerial schools of thought before concentrating on the NC perspective. A theoretical review of NC is presented, which defines NC through past research, NC variables, and NC measures. Literature focusing on the Arab NC and British NC is provided and similarities/differences are acknowledged. NC is then linked to PM research, techniques and concepts, where emphasis is placed on the planning phase of the project and the Project Management Planning Quality (PMPQ) model (Zwikael and Globerson, 2004). Research propositions and hypotheses are made accordingly.

2.1 Schools of Thought

PM concerns the management of human activity. In comparison to Management Science publications, PM journals are comparatively new. Thus, the general management literature was examined in addition to research articles drawn from PM sources. It is apparent that several schools of thought exist, each attempting to explain differences in managerial behaviours, tendencies, techniques, and outcomes. According to Enshassi and Burgess (1990) and Milosevic (2002), three main perspectives are prevalent−Universal, Economic, and Cultural. Each school offers different explanations (Table 1), which generally are either based on individual/organisational behaviour; or the economic situation; or cultural values and beliefs. The cultural viewpoint includes the psychological and sociological schools and some researchers have argued (e.g. Ajiferuke and Boddewyn, 1970) that they are an extension of cultural explanations, since a range of characteristics and social

activities such as personality traits or education are culturally shaped. Other theorists have also discussed the psychological and social aspects of culture (Kluckhohn, 1954; Cohen, 2009). However, the cultural analysis remains complex and problematic since psychology is subdivided into many different schools of thought including evolutionary, cognitive, biological or developmental perspectives.

Table 1. Managerial Schools of Thought.

School of Thought	Argument	Reference	Critique
Universal	Management styles do not differ across nations or cultures. Any difference relates to the individual or organisation, i.e. personal view.	Haire et al (1966) cited in Milosevic (2002); Blake and Mouton (1981); Budde et al (1982).	Cultural differences have been illustrated in various studies, (e.g. Hofstede, 1983; House et al, 2004).
Economic	Although cultural differences are recognised, economic theorists suggest that behaviour is influenced more by a country's economic and industrial development. Thus management acts in accordance with the economy. As the	Neghandi and Estafen (1965); Danis (2003).	Styles varied across countries, regardless of the economic situation (Hofstede, 1983). This proposition is also difficult to grasp since the workforce may be drawn from several countries (like in the UAE).Since economies will differ, Enshassi and Burgess

	economy in each country develops, management differences begin to fade away.		(1990) question which situation does the manager act in accordance with?
Cultural	Different cultures have different values, beliefs, and traditions. Behaviour such as business procedures vary based on these. Therefore, culture independently affects one's actions/manners.	Hall (1960); Nowotny (1964); Hofstede (1983); Shaw (1990); Toren et al (1997); Hartog et al (1997); Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998).	After extensive research, the question of whether or not management differences are linked to NC, still continues (Budde et al, 1982). They suggest that this is due to the controversy that surrounds definitions and measures of culture.

Although the cultural perspective is not without its shortcomings, its significance has been supported by many theorists and investigations. The cultural school includes socioeconomic, organisational, religious, and national perspectives. The latter argues that human behaviour is influenced by distinctive country cultures. For example, Yasin et al (1997) found that managers from different countries did not always share the same preferences for management structure, geographic distribution of work, budgetary commitment, family and education, and pay equity issues.

Organisational and societal cultures should be distinguished whenever feasible, given that they will possess shared and distinctive characteristics, and constitute different levels of conceptual analysis (Pinnington, 2003). Some may argue that work differences involve the organisational culture, yet NC has been shown in some studies to be more influential on behaviour than other kinds of cultures (Pizam et al, 1997). Research for this dissertation concentrates on the NC viewpoint as it coincides with the study's aims and objectives.

2.2 National Culture Theory

2.2.1 Definition

The significance of cultural differences when engaging in business abroad is often traced back to the work of Hall (1960). He argued that businessmen travelling abroad depend on cues as a basis to act upon. However, cues differ between countries, i.e. differences in relations of time, space, possessions, friendship and negotiations exist (Hall, 1960). The similarity perceived between one's problems and the history of experiencing or solving these difficulties collectively can be said to form the basis of a culture (Schein, 1992 cited in Wang 2001). Differences between such categories can lead to complications and even culture shock (Hall, 1960; Hofstede, 1983).

In the early 1980s, certain categories of culture began to become more defined and distinguished in the literature (Burchell and Gilden, 2008). Hofstede (1983) argued that understanding culture is crucial for management and multinational companies. Nationality is important due to political (laws), societal (identity) and psychological (family and educational) influences (Hofstede, 1983). One should therefore appreciate variations that occur between working in a native or an overseas country (Shaw, 1990; Tayeb, 2005; Hurn, 2007). Grinbergs and Rubenstein (1993) found that alliances often fail to deal adequately with the socio-cultural factors affecting decision-making. They found that even when an organisation recognised their

importance, most managers were unable to deal effectively with dissimilarities related to culture.

A review of the literature shows that one of the most cited definitions of culture derives from Hofstede. Culture is a:

> …collective mental programming….our conditioning that we share with other members of our nation, region, or group but not with members of other nations, regions or groups.

(Hofstede, 1983:42).

It takes time for cultural aspects to change since values and beliefs tend to be maintained through a self-fulfilling prophecy (Hofstede, 1983). In his early research, he suggests that these cultural attributes are far more noticeable to foreigners than to nationals. The term cultural sensitivity refers to an awareness of the mentality of others, as well as an awareness of how others view one's own mentality (Hofstede, 1983).

Culture represents mutual values, ideas, objectives, and insight that result in customary mindsets (Fisher, 1997). This may guide behaviour and influence the interpretation of messages. Culture, perception and communication are all related (Fisher, 1997; Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999). When people visit different countries, it is more than the spoken language that differentiates them (Milosevic, 2002). As new situations arise, foreigners are forced to search through their past experiences (stored in schemata) for relevant ideas so that they can react. A script, a

type of schema, culturally guides one's actions (Bartlett, 1932; Milosevic, 2002). Milosevic (2002) argues that members of multi-cultural teams will often have different scripts, which may clash. Disagreements often will occur since people from different cultures will "collect, process, store, and use information" differently (Shaw, 1990: 626).

It has been found that cultural diversity positively affects decision-making in teams, yet can negatively influence communication (Shachaf, 2008). Hall and Hall (1990) propose that communication may be subdivided into words, materials and behaviour. Words are a medium of business, materials indicate status/power and behaviour illustrates feelings (Hall and Hall, 1990). Hall (1960) gave examples demonstrating a "silent language." As mentioned, this language refers to differences in the appreciation of Time (e.g. a delay to an American could infer low priority/interest, yet time in the Arab world is based on relationships), Space (e.g. the acceptable distance between people in the Arab world is a lot closer than in the UK), Material Possessions (e.g. Americans associate class with physical belongings, the British associate class with their traditions and Arabs focus on connections), Friendship (e.g. Friendships are short-term in America but long-term in the Middle East), and Agreements (e.g. UK negotiations are based on laws, whereas morals and/or informal traditions play a greater role in the Middle East). Business negotiations are important to consider since different cultures create distinctive business practices (Hurn, 2007) and this process of inter-personal persuasion will involve different cultural norms (Phatak and Habib, 1996).

In order to understand any language, people must overcome their relative ignorance by realising that cues exist inside and outside of the local culture (Hall, 1960). Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) suggest that cross-cultural research will help individuals to understand their own culture but just as men and women will never fully understand each other, individuals will not fully assimilate with other cultures. Interestingly, one study demonstrated that culture played a greater role than did gender in determining leadership (Toren et al, 1997).

In Hofstede's (1983) pioneering study, the work attitudes of fifty countries and three multi-country regions were highlighted. He advanced four cultural dimensions, which are Individualism-Collectivism (I-C), Masculinity, Uncertainty Avoidance (UA), and Power Distance (PD). A fifth dimension of Short-term/Long-term Orientation was added later (Hofstede, 2001). Hofstede's dimensions are extensively used (Burchell and Gilden, 2008) but his work has been comprehensively criticised. His framework is unable to accommodate the complexity of socio-cultural relationships and does not reflect the multiple ethnicities that exist within nations (Baskerville-Morley, 2005). Shore and Cross (2005) suggest that these dimensions do not account for all cultural differences. Nonetheless, the complexity of culture was highlighted by Hofstede (1983) and both Nowotny (1964) and Hofstede (1983) have cautioned that there is always the possibility of being too subjective or even insincere about one's cultural beliefs and values.

Another weakness refers to a discrepancy over the definition of culture (Ajiferuke and Boddewyn, 1970; Wang, 2001; Shweder, 2002; Tayeb, 2005; Cohen, 2009). Over 50 years ago, at least 164 definitions of culture existed (Cohen, 2009). Culture is difficult to define because it is a concept that may only be implicitly observed via behaviour (Shore and Cross, 2005). Unfortunately, culture has been associated with stereotyping, sexism, and racism (Shweder, 2002). Cohen (2009) notes that countries are not single or uniform cultures but are composed of varying socioeconomic, religious and regional cultures. It is important therefore for researchers to specify what form of culture they are concentrating on (Cohen, 2009), which is why this dissertation has defined and stated its preferred focus on NC.

2.2.2 Dimensions

Cultural factors that have been emphasised include Religion, Language (verbal/non-verbal), Technology, and Values (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999; Downes et al, 2002). Ali et al (1995) assert that managerial decisions are often related to values and draw attention to a number of studies demonstrating the significance of value systems since they may influence job satisfaction, leadership effectiveness, and business achievements. Cultural differences are also relevant since there is a relationship between cultural dimensions and work values (White, 2006). Pizam et al (1997:144) state that "values affect attitudes which in turn affect behaviour." Hence, differences in values are manifested in a worker's punctuality, authority, non-verbal behaviour, and work ethic (Ramaprasad and Prakash, 2003). The writers explained how

behaviours and expressions concerning feet (e.g. feet facing the direction of other people or the phrase "kick-off) can have varied meanings to workers from different cultures.

One of the most recent cultural studies is Project GLOBE (House et al, 2004). This ten-year cultural project compared more than 17,000 middle managers from 62 societies (House et al, 2004). Nine cultural dimensions were studied, two (Future Orientation and Humane Orientation) derived from Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) one (Performance Orientation) from McClelland (1961, cited in House and Javidan, 2004) and the remaining six originated from Hofstede's (1983) dimensions. House et al (2004) used the PD and UA dimensions and altered the Masculine dimension to form two dimensions, namely Gender Egalitarianism and Assertiveness. Assertiveness refers to relationships with others, whereas Gender Egalitarianism refers to the extent to which gender inequality is minimised. The remaining two dimensions researched by the GLOBE project were formed using Hofstede's I-C dimension. This was altered to In-group Collectivism and Institutional Collectivism. The latter concerns whether the organisation encourages group actions and rewards, whereas In-group collectivism refers to the level of organisational/familial loyalty. This study was initiated due to the lack of comparative international research on leadership and culture. Some of the past research may be somewhat dated and less relevant to the contemporary global economy, nevertheless, it is important to have at least a basic understanding of other proposed dimensions since several of them have been the focus of PM research (e.g. Milosevic, 1999; 2002). Recent studies (e.g.

Zwikael, 2009) have indicated that NC is frequently investigated (e.g. Hofstede, 2001; House et al, 2004) and various dimensions have been advanced. Thus, given this conceptual diversity within NC research, it is unlikely that there will be a definitive list of culture dimensions that can be universally agreed upon.

As was mentioned, Hofstede created five cultural dimensions whereas Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) described seven dimensions presented under three main categories, Relationships with others, Time, and the Environment. Within the Relationship category, there are five dimensions, Universalism/Particularism, Individualism/ Communitarianism, Emotional/Neutral, Specific/Diffuse, and Achievement/Ascription. The time category concerns a Sequential/Synchronic dimension, and the Environment category concerns the Internal/External Control dimension. These seven dimensions are used extensively in management training (Lane et al, 2005). According to Milosevic (1999), all cultures face six variables that were originally proposed by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961). These concern "Relationship to the Environment," "Time Orientation," "Nature of People," "Activity Orientation," Focus on Responsibility," and "Orientation to Space" (Milosevic, 1999). Later, Milosevic (2002) included Hofstede's (1983) PD and UA dimensions, along with Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's (1998) Universalism/Particularism, Affectivity/Neutrality, and Specific/Diffuse dimensions.

Environment

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's (1998) environmental dimension refers to internal-control cultures (focus on their own functions) and external-control cultures (flexible and work in harmony with the world). The former is found in countries such as the UK, US, New Zealand and Australia whereas the latter includes Egypt, Russia, Saudi Arabia, and the UAE (Binder, 2007). According to Milosevic (1999), cultures can be categorised into subjugation to nature, harmony with nature or mastery over nature (Milosevic, 1999). In some Middle Eastern countries, people emphasise the role of fate and destiny. Everything happens by God's will and as a consequence people are subjugated to nature (Milosevic, 1999). On the other hand, the belief that nature can be dominated by man is often found in American or British cultures (Lane et al, 2005). As a result, they often will want to control and change nature's forces when needed (Milosevic, 1999). A harmony with nature classification would tend to be in the middle of these two positions. They view the environment and people in it as a systemic whole, which they try to keep in balance (Lane et al, 2005).

Time

Differences in the assessment of time have been divided into Monochronic or Polychronic cultures (Hall and Hall, 1990). Monochronic cultures such as the US encourage a time-ordered approach to life based on preparation and planning, whereas polychronic cultures such as France encourage simultaneous working,

spontaneity, and a number of working relationships (Hall and Hall, 1990; Ramaprasad and Prakash, 2003). Research shows that frustration can arise between people of Monochronic and Polychronic cultures (Feghali, 1997; Zhang et al, 2005; Hurn, 2007; Shachaf, 2008) particularly during negotiations (Hall, 1960; Hurn, 2007). Time has also been divided into Sequential (do things one at time) and Synchronic (the present, past and future moving in a circle) by Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's (1998) and Hofstede referred to Long-term orientation (valuing self-discipline, learning, and long-term profits) and Short-term orientation (valuing freedom, leisure time and the present year's profits).

According to Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), cultures tend to either focus on the past, present or future. Past cultures uphold their historic practices and use such traditions to learn and solve challenges (e.g. Mediterranean countries). Future cultures (e.g. Japan) prefer to look at long-term performance (Milosevic, 1999). A present-time orientation will look at the immediate effects of an action, for example, the US (Milosevic, 1999).

Human Nature

This involves changing or unchanging behaviour and whether human nature is good, bad or neutral (Lane et al 2005). Lane et al (2005) refer to theory X for the bad category since strict control is assumed necessary, whereas collaboration is preferred

by advocates of theory Y. In many African and Arab cultures, people are seen to a large extent as "good", yet some Mediterranean cultures believe people are essentially "evil" (Milosevic, 1999; Lane et al, 2005). In the middle are those who generally view people as good but remain cautious when making a judgement (Milosevic, 1999); such as the British (Lane et al, 2005). This is in-line with NC and trust research. Trust was examined by Downes et al (2002) using several trust-related dimensions of culture. NC was shown to affect trust-building processes. For example, a similarity in culture between alliance partners led to trust for Japanese firms (Johnson et al, 1996; Downes et al, 2002). This therefore demonstrates the significance of culture in building trust within a business relationship or project team. However, Downes et al (2002) cautioned that trust and NC is a problematic area of research and researchers can experience greater task difficulties when collecting data from different countries.

Activity

In a "Being" culture, people focus on the present day, attempt to live their lives to the fullest, and respond to their feelings straight away, for example, in Latin America (Lane et al, 2005). A "Doing" culture is quite the opposite and considers work a fundamental aspect of life as for example in the US (Milosevic, 1999). Doing cultures strive and persevere to achieve their goals (Lane et al, 2005). In addition, there is the "Controlling" culture or what Lane et al (2005) refer to as the Thinking culture. This

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type of culture attempts to create a balance between the mind and body, such as in France (Milosevic, 1999) where people will tend to value thinking carefully and logically before they act (Lane et al, 2005).

Responsibility

This dimension is similar to Hofstede's (1983) I-C or Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's (1998) Individualism-Communitarianism dimension. It refers to the relationship between an individual and others. Highly individualist countries such as the US tend to take care of themselves and their immediate family, whilst group cultures such as Pakistan are collectivist and focus on harmony, unity, loyalty, and the extended family (Hofstede, 1983; Milosevic, 1999). A Hierarchical viewpoint was also proposed to account for the variance that is found in between these two positions (Hunt, 1981, Lane et al, 2005). Here groups are used and tend to be ranked in a set order, yet practice is less collectivist than is found in a Group culture. The loyalty and ties between people are much stronger in collectivist societies. Teamwork is likely to be arranged for a specific reason in hierarchical cultures and members will have precise positions, with each reporting to a clear leader (Lane et al, 2005), e.g. the UK (Milosevic, 1999). According to Lane et al (2005), hierarchical cultures base status on certain details such as age, seniority, family, etc, whereas individualistic cultures derive status from personal achievements.

Space

This dimension concerns the proximity of space such as the socially acceptable distance that should be maintained between people. It also includes the ownership of information and resources in one's space (Lane et al, 2005). Some prefer to keep things private (e.g. UK) and consider information and resources as privately owned (Lane et al, 2005). The other extreme in contrast are very public with their matters (Milosevic, 2002). One example applies to the public orientation of people from Italy since they generally situate themselves close together and express their feelings/opinions openly (Milosevic, 2002). The distance between people during social interactions will be greater in private cultures than in those that have more public orientations. Located between the private and public cultures is the mixed orientation, which is more open than the private culture but people are still selective with whom they share information with (Milosevic, 1999; Lane et al, 2005). The space between people in the mixed orientation is intermediate. Lane et al (2005) exemplifies that offices within the mixed orientation are likely to be formal similar to those in the private culture, yet they contain a space reserved for casual or simple furniture and more informal communication. Another example may refer to the use of common rooms in schools and universities.

Power Distance (PD)

PD considers the perceptions and preferences of leadership styles and the freedom to express oneself. Small PD countries (e.g. UK) prefer interdependence between a leader and subordinate and members are not afraid to express their opinions (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). Members from large PD countries (e.g. Russia and the Arab region) are more unlikely to question the boss and leadership styles are often autocratic (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). The values belonging to the person in charge often determine all of the rules (Shore and Cross, 2005). Both the PD and I-C dimensions may contribute to explaining why some cultures opt for a certain management structure over another. They propose that management structure, management styles and NC are all linked (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999).

Uncertainty Avoidance (UA)

UA assesses the degree to which people feel anxious when experiencing ambiguity (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). This concept is particularly relevant to projects due to their uncertainty. It concerns the need for formal or informal rules. High UA scores, like in the Arab culture, indicate higher levels of anxiety in contexts when people express verbal/non-verbal emotion and reveal a tendency to seek for more structure in the organisation to reduce ambiguous circumstances (Hofstede, 1983). However, Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) point out that people from such cultures are likely to engage in risky behaviour if this reduces ambiguity. Weak UA countries such as the UK are low in expressiveness and feel more comfortable when faced with ambiguous

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situations (Hofstede, 1983). According to Hofstede (1983) religion makes uncertainty acceptable to some degree. Accordingly, uncertainty should be more bearable in societies with stronger religious roots. Prima facie, this does not though seem to be the case in Arab countries which have high UA.

Universalism-Particularism

Universalist people feel morally bound to follow regulations or commitments, whereas particularist cultures are more concerned with circumstances or obligations (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998). Therefore, Universalist cultures such as the British culture (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998) are likely to stick to the rules, whereas particularist cultures such as the Arab culture (Hale and Whitlam, 1999) will bend them for "friends."

Affectivty-Neutrality

According to Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998), emotional cultures see business as a human affair which involves anger or humour, yet neutral cultures hide feelings to be productive. High affectivity cultures are highly expressive, so "Italians…use a lot of body language" whereas more neutral cultures such as "the English… talk without facial expressions" (Milosevic, 2002:496).

Specific-Diffuse

Specific cultures such as the US easily form open relationships (Milosevic, 2002) but the relationship is prescribed by the contract (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998). Specific cultures have a large public but small private area of life. They will therefore separate work from other parts of their lives. Diffuse cultures take longer to form relationships, such as in Russia (Milosevic, 2002) because they are understood accordingly to be more personal in their relationships. In such cultures, members are not easily admitted, yet once in, the friendship is not separated from other parts of life (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998).

The eleven variables described demonstrate how countries differ along them; even in Europe differences were found. For instance, Italy would rank high on the Affectivity end of the scale, whilst the UK would appear towards the Neutrality end. In summary, NC variables relate to the points given below. Definitions and some examples of questionnaire items used by the various authors are presented in Table 2.

- Relaxed or controlled approach to the environment;

- Simultaneous or sequentially one at a time

- Importance is placed on the past or present or future;

- Good, bad or mixed human nature;

- Attitudes towards activities;

- Responsibility is based on independence, the group or is transitional;

- Confidentiality or openness;

- Leadership and interaction with employees;

- Reaction to ambiguity;

- Rule compliant or exception based

- Emotional or cold;

- Open/single or personal/multiple relationships.

Table 2. National Culture Variables' Definitions and Items

Concept	Definition	Example Questionnaire Item
Environment	What is the modality of man's relationship to other men….The three-point range of variation in the man-nature orientation-Subjugation-to-Nature, Harmony-with-Nature, and Mastery-over-Nature. (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961:11-13) Relationship to nature refers to a general orientation of people to the contextual and spiritual nature of their environment. (Earley, 1997:158)	When I get sick I believe: A - Doctors will be able to find a way to cure it B - I should live properly so I don't get sick C - I cannot do much and just have to accept it (Hills, 2002)
Time	**Past, Present, Future** The possible culture interpretations of the temporal focus of human life break easily into the three-point range of Past, Present and Future…every society must deal will all three time problems; all have their conceptions of the Past, the Present and the Future. Where they differ is in the preferential ordering of the alternatives… (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961:13).	When I send money for use overseas I think it should be spent to A – make a better life for the future B – make a better life for now C – keep the old ways and customs alive (Hills, 2002)

	Monochronic/Polychronic: Monochronic time means paying attention to and doing only one thing at a time. Polychronic time means being involved with many things at once. (Hall and Hall, 1990:13).	1. I do not like to juggle several activities at the same time. 2. People should not try to do many things at once. 3. When I sit down at my desk I work on one project at a time. 4. I am comfortable doing several things at the same time (Kaufman et al, 1991)
Human Nature	To the question of what the innate goodness or badness of human nature is, there are the three logical divisions of Evil, Good-and-Evil, and Good. (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961:11).	Most people when they can do something wrong and get away with it will: A- usually do it B - sometimes do it C - hardly ever do it (Hills, 2002)
Activity	The modality of human activity is the fourth of the common human problems…The range of variation in solutions suggested for it is the threefold one of Being, Being-in-Becoming, and Doing. (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961: 15) An Activity orientation refers to self-expression in activity (Earley, 1993:47)	Two men spend their time in different ways when they have no work to do. (This means when they are not actually on the job.) A-One man spends most of his time learning or trying out things which will help him in his work. B-One man spends most of his time talking, telling stories, singing, and so on with his friends. Which of these men has the better way of living? Which of these men do you think you are more like? Which of these men do you think most other _____ think had the better way of living? (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961) *N.B Only Doing and Being orientations were tested*
Responsibility	The last of the common human problems to be treated is the definition of man's relation to other	When our group sends a delegate to a meeting I think it best A – to let everyone discuss it until

	men. This orientation has three subdivisions: the Lineal, the Collateral, and the Individualistic. (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961:17) This refers to an individual's relation to his or her collective. (Earley, 1993:47)	everyone agrees on the person B – to let the important leaders decide. They have more experience C – for a vote to be taken and the one with the most votes goes even if some people disagree (Hills, 2002)
Space	A sixth common human problem which is considered to be necessary to the value-orientation schema is that of man's conception of space and his place in it. (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961:10)	Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) did not create any questionnaire item for this variable.
Power Distance	The extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally. (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005:45)	Subordinates are expected to obey their leaders without question (GLOBE, 2004)
Uncertainty Avoidance	The extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations. (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005:167)	Most people live highly structured lives with few unexpected events (GLOBE, 2004)
Universalism-Particularism	The universalist approach is roughly: What is good and right can be defined and always applies. In particularist cultures far great	Particularism – My friend would have a definite right as a friend to expect me to shade the doubts in his favour…

	attention is given to the obligations of relationships and unique circumstances. (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998:8).	Intermediate - He would have some right as a friend to expect me to shade the doubts in his favour Universalism - He would have no right as a friend to expect me to shade the doubts in his favour (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998)
Affectivity-Neutrality	Should the nature of our interactions be objective and detached, or is expressing emotion acceptable? (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998:9).	In retrospect I very often think I have given away too much in my enthusiasm (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998)
Specific-Diffuse	The degree to which we engage others in specific areas of life and single levels of personality or diffusely is multiple areas of our lives and several levels of personality at the same time (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998:83).	Specific – The colleague argues: You don't have to paint if you don't feel like it. He is your boss in the company but outside the company he has little authority Diffuse– The subordinate argues: Despite the fact that I don't feel like it, I will paint anyway. He is my boss and you cannot ignore it outside your work either (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998)

Given that the topic of this dissertation concentrates on Arab and British cultures, literature concerning these two countries has been examined in more detail than other country clusters. Previous findings in comparative research studies indicate that there are some major differences between the Arab culture (i.e. External-control environment, Subjugation, Polychronic, Good nature of people, Being-orientated, Collectivist, high UA, and Particularist) and the British culture (i.e. Internal-control, Mastery-oriented, Monochronic, Mixed nature of people, Hierarchical, small PD, low UA and Universalist). The following section discusses cultural research findings within the Arab and British contexts. It then assesses these findings against the eleven identified cultural variables.

2.2.3 The UAE and the Arab Culture

2.2.3.1 Employment in the UAE

The UAE is comprised of seven emirates, Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Sharjah, Ajman, Umm al-Quwain, Ras al-Khaimah and Fujairah. Research looking at employment in the Gulf has suggested that many Gulf Arabs are unwilling to be engaged in salaried employment (Ali and Al-Kazemi, 2005; Al-Ali, 2008). This has been attributed to a general lack of knowledge, skills, and/or interest plus personal factors such as an unrealistic expectation of rewards/workplace conditions (Al-Ali, 2008). However, Ali and Al-Owaihan (2008) suggest that work in the Gulf region is thought of as a way to

further oneself religiously, economically, socially, politically and psychologically. Therefore there are more intangible issues to consider.

Emiratisation was introduced in the 1990s to promote training, career prospects, and employment for UAE nationals (Al-Ali, 2008). Al-Ali (2008) indicates that this process has a cultural aim of shifting from a traditionalist Arab culture to a culture that is more supportive of the UAE's major economic changes. The government, the market economy, globalisation, advanced technology/communication, and national programs such as Emiratisation, are all factors that influence HRM (Ali et al, 1995; Ali and Al-Kazemi, 2005; Behery, 2009). Although Emiratisation has been successful in the public sector, the private sector has experienced several problems with its implementation, including influencing young Emiratis to value work (Al-Ali, 2008). The private sector's working conditions differ from those of the public sector. This is perceived by the majority as unacceptable because business hours are extended, holiday time is reduced and regulations are stricter (Al-Ali, 2008). This problem has also arisen in other Gulf countries, for instance Ali and Al-Kazemi (2005) found in their research that there is also a negative attitude towards work in Kuwait.

As was mentioned in the introduction, the UAE labour market is predominantly composed of expatriate workers, and this is especially evident within the private sector (Ahmed, 2008). It may be due to factors mentioned above or due to pessimistic opinions towards physically demanding work such as building or nursing (Al-Ali, 2008). The UAE uses workers from Asia for manual and semi-skilled work and

Filipinas for domestic work (Al-Ali, 2008). Most UAE construction projects have multi-cultural teams such as workers from Pakistan, India, and the Philippines, etc (Enshassi and Burgess, 1990). In these diverse work environments, often there will be dissimilarities in language, religion, morals, schooling and so forth. Enshassi and Burgess (1990) stated that such differences are likely to be more severe for Western managers since their work skills and know-how will have been learnt in developed countries. Within the UAE, there are many Western expatriates in managerial positions (Ali et al, 1995; Al-Ali, 2008), which highlights the importance of the current study. However, Enshassi and Burgess (1990) imply that many site managers are unaware of the role cultural differences play. They argue that this matter should be taken seriously. There are often misunderstandings between people of the Arab world and those from outside which occur due to cultural and religious differences (Ali and Al-Kazemi, 2005).

The UAE government discourages permanent residency for expatriates due to their large numbers and also for cultural and religious reasons (Al-Ali, 2008). Instead expatriates are granted short-term renewable work visas up until the age of 60 years old. Al-Ali suggests that this can hinder the creation of a supportive work atmosphere. It is also likely that workers will feel insecure in their new environment (Ali et al, 1995; Ali and Al-Kazemi, 2005). Past research shows that an expatriates' NC influences their perceptions and reactions to new environments (Ali et al, 1995; Selmer, 2002). Yasin et al (1997) suggested that the Arab workforce can feel vulnerable due to governmental concerns and rigorous laws.

A study by Ali et al (1995) examined whether expatriates and UAE managers share similar values. This is crucial since values affect work attitudes and behaviours (Ali and Al-Kazemi, 2005). The expatriate group was divided into Foreign (UK and India) and Arab expatriates. In comparison to UAE managers, both groups of expatriates scored higher on all values. Foreign expatriates scored higher on Manipulative and Egocentric values, possibly because these are individualistic countries (Ali et al, 1995). Conformist values were rated higher by the Arab expatriates, which Ali et al (1995) suggest is influenced by the political uncertainty in their home country. It was also found that both Arab groups (expatriates and UAE managers) were more loyal on an organisational level, whereas foreign expatriates were loyal on a personal level. The term "Isabya" is an Arabic phrase referring to loyalty to a group (Weisfeld, 1990; Ali and Al-Kazemi, 2005), which may partly explain why Hofstede (1983) found the Arab region to be collectivist. Although there were variations between local UAE managers and Arab expatriates, it has been argued that Arabs share many commonalities in their cultural characteristics despite any differences in their governmental or financial systems (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005).

2.2.3.2 Type of Culture

In general terms of NC, the UAE is a traditional tribal Islamic society (Ali et al, 1995; Ali and Al-Kazemi, 2005). Hofstede (1983) argued that the Arab region, of which the

UAE belongs to, has diverse attributes that can influence the business at either individual or organisational levels. According to his argument, the culture is collectivist and masculine and high on both the PD and UA dimensions. Arab data has not been published for Hofstede's time dimension because data was only collected from 39 countries. Nevertheless, findings from GLOBE's Middle East cluster (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002) indicate that it is low on future orientation, is group-oriented, hierarchical, and masculine (See Figure 1). Gupta and Hanges (2004) also indicate that the cluster scores low on UA and is mid-range for the remaining dimensions (PD, Institutional Collectivism, Humane Orientation, Assertiveness and Performance Orientation). The differences in the findings for the two studies on the UA and PD dimensions may be interpreted as implying that the NC has changed over time or it may be attributed to other explanations such as research design and sampling differences. Nevertheless, PD scores for this cluster were higher than found in any other region (Carl et al, 2004).

It is significant that the GLOBE's Middle East cluster (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002) only included Egypt, Morocco, Turkey, Kuwait, and Qatar, which compromises the relevance and validity of the results, for example, Arabic is not the main language of Turkey. Furthermore, some of the data in Hofstede's research does not disaggregate to the country level, i.e. the Arab region, East Africa and West Africa, yet the focus of his theory is on national differences. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) however point out that only Arabic speaking countries were included in the Arab group. Research involving the Arab world has been contradictory (Feghali, 1997). Feghali explains

how Arab definitions vary, which can cause misleading conclusions to be drawn, e.g. the interchange of referring to the Middle East and the Arab world, yet not all Middle Eastern countries are Arab. To overcome these weaknesses, she points to a sensible definition that refers to whether or not Arabic is one's first language and whether or not a person identifies themselves as an Arab.
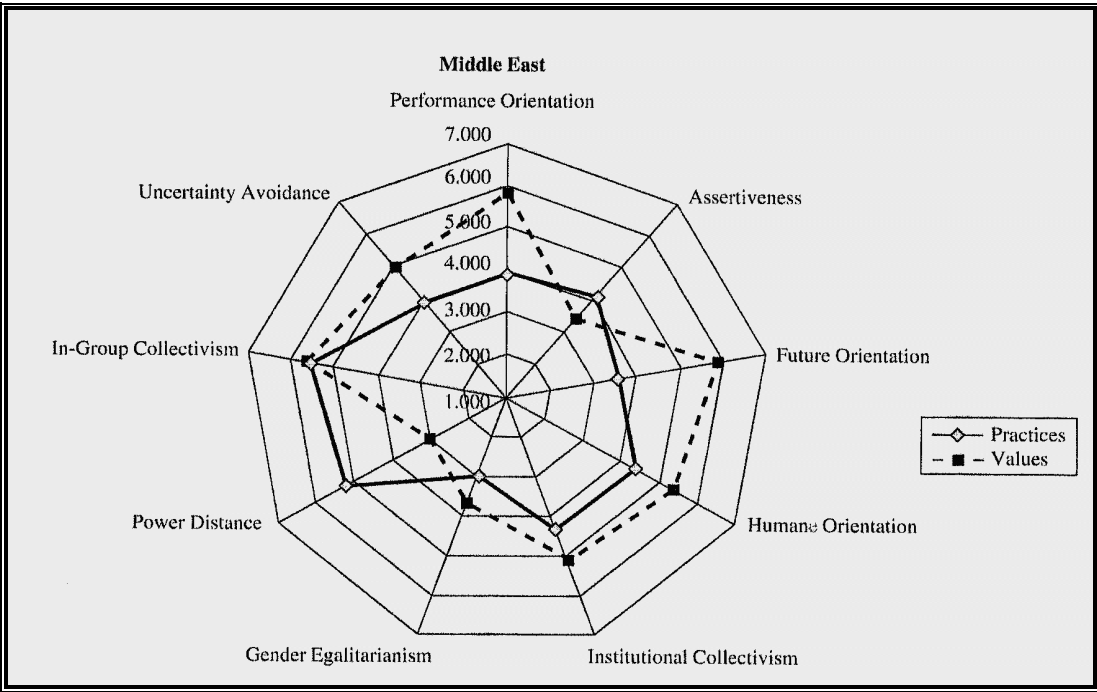
Figure 1. GLOBE's Middle East Cultural Findings (Source: Javidan et al, 2004: 34).

Arabic and Islam play a crucial role in the Arab culture (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999; Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002; Hesselgrave and Rommen, 2003;

Haleem, 2006). Religion has a huge impact on everyday behaviour and may be seen as having a greater current influence than in many of the countries of the West (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999; Hesselgrave and Rommen, 2003; Ali and Al-Owaihan, 2008). Islam has influenced standards, procedures and laws (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002). Contracts within the Gulf have a religious aspect since any violation is considered to be a sin (Hall, 1960; Ali and Al-Owaihan, 2008). Most contracts are written in Arabic first (Haleem, 2006). The Arabic language is also important to one's identity (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002). English is used to a great extent within the UAE (second language) but fluency levels nevertheless fluctuate. Since religion and language are crucial aspects of the culture, expatriates should have an appreciation of them.

In connection with language and culture, Loosemore and Al-Muslmani (1999) indicate that the Arab culture is high-context. Many non-verbal cues exist within the culture, e.g. close contact/touch (Feghali, 1997). Westerners often like to be direct, whereas the opposite is true for Arabs since they are more likely to ignore something than disagree with it (Feghali, 1997; Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999). They are also likely to conduct business in busy/noisy atmospheres, which may confuse or even irritate an outsider (Nydell, 2006). Feghali (1997) indicates that communication research has characterised Arab communication as repetitive, indirect, elaborate, loud, exaggerated and praiseful. There is also a high degree of "code switching" in Arab societies, with many Arabic speakers alternating between Arabic, French and English (Feghali, 1997). Loosemore and Al-Muslmani (1999) asked British project

managers with experience of working within the Arab region about Arab cultural values. They concluded that these project managers did not realise the significance of the Arabic language.

Expressions such as "In-Sh-Allah" and "Maktoob," meaning "God willing" or "it is written" are often spoken within the Arab community (Yasin et al, 1997). These concern beliefs that one's fate is in the hands of Allah (Yasin and Zimmerer, 1995). Thus, people have limited control over daily events. As mentioned, cultures vary in the way they view time, technology and uncertainty. The Arab culture is placed in the Subjugation and Polychronic category since Islam encourages a determinist view where the environment is seen as difficult to control (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999). Within the business world, these beliefs may reduce responsibility or accountability because it is believed that people have no control over time in the first place (Gray and Larson, 2002). Deadlines are seen more as a guide (Hurn, 2007) and project success is rated differently (Yasin et al, 1997). When Arab project managers were asked about the factors that contributed to project failure they attached failure towards fate (Yasin et al, 1997). It is not surprising then that other common Arabic expressions are "Bukra-Tomorrow," "Mumkin-Maybe," "Ma'alesh-Never mind" (Feghali, 1997). The research conducted by Loosemore and Al-Muslmani (1999) provides further empirical support for noting this cultural difference in so far as they found that British project managers had a low awareness of time and uncertainty variations between the two cultures.

Families are very close in the Arab world (Weisfeld, 1990; Ali and Al-Owaihan, 2008) since family loyalty is extremely important (Feghali, 1997; Hesselgrave and Rommen, 2003; Nydell, 2006; Hurn, 2007). It is also common to hire people based on family or friendship connections (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002; Nydell, 2006; Hurn, 2007; El-Said and Harrigan, 2009). This obligation can obviously have an impact on business relations. Yasin et al (1997) argue that the Arab culture represents an affiliation culture due to the prominence of family and religious factors. Another Arabic phrase often used within Arab society is "Wasta." This refers to knowing someone in the right place (an influencer) and is considered a survival strategy (Feghali, 1997). Today, wasta is still seen as significant within Arab society (Feghali, 1997; El-Said and Harrigan, 2009).

The importance of four Arab values, namely Honour, Hospitality, Group Welfare and Religion has been documented (Feghali, 1997; Hesselgrave and Rommen, 2003). The meaning of work differs between cultures and Islamic beliefs differ to other religions in terms of the attitude to work (Ali and Al-Owaihan, 2008). They state that "work is situated in the core of faith and considered as an integral part of life" (Ali and Al-Owaihan, 2008) and therefore, work has both an essential and moral aspect attached to it. Dress code is also notable since women should not wear revealing clothes (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999; Omair, 2009) as this is a sign of dishonour (Feghali, 1997). Attire also illustrates a difference in opinions between cultures since Omair (2009) found that Western women perceive the hijab (Arab

women's dress) as unfair, whereas Arab women in general see it as a virtuous strength and an item of clothing to be worn with pride.

Arab managers have been found in some research studies to hold values that are inherent to their culture (Ali et al, 1995; Ali and Al-Kazemi, 2005). Al-Jafary and Hollingsworth (1983) indicate that early studies showed that traditional cultures opt for authoritarian management styles. However, their research and Ali et al's (1995) study shows to the contrary that there is a preference for participative styles. This change in cultural preference may be due to the strong influence from the West (Al-Jafary and Hollingsworth, 1983). Recently, Kabasakal and Bodur (2002) revealed a preference for charismatic and team-oriented leadership. Whilst modern leadership preferences do refer to a more participative nature, authority remains a highly respected value amongst the workforce (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999; Becker, 2004). Findings illustrate an extended hierarchical structure (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005) and Dorfman and House (2004) suggest that a strong leadership style is likely in the Arab region since consideration is a sign of weakness.

The social-cultural context can make an important contribution to one's understanding of business operations (Elbanna, 2008). For example, asking employees for opinions in Egypt is considered a symbol of weak management (Elbanna, 2008) and Arab managers are less likely to talk about their work problems (Pines, 2003). Studies investigating the influence of the Arab culture on commercial

deals have not been forthcoming, even though the Arab world plays an immense role in today's global industry (Yasin and Zimmerer, 1995; Ali and Al-Kazemi, 2005; Ali and Al-Owaiham, 2008). They point out that most research has been based more upon stereotypes or generalisations rather than factual information. Attention needs to be given to NC because this relates to matching employees to appropriate jobs and thus business success (Behery, 2009).

Foreign employees should understand the UAE's traditions and customs if they are to fruitfully live and work in the country. Nonetheless, cultural risks were found to be of low significance in El-Sayegh's (2008) study. El-Sayegh suggested that this is because the UAE is a modern country with the majority of its population composed of foreign expatriates. However, with a great variety of cultural backgrounds operating in the UAE, such cultural risks might be even higher than elsewhere. It is possible that respondents do not rank these risks as being high since they are unaware of their implications. Cultural sensitivity is important to prevent potential problems occurring in the UAE; consequently Ali et al (1995) recommend that researchers give more attention to studying the specifics of each culture.

2.2.4 The UK and the British Culture

2.2.4.1 Employment in the UK

The UK consists of England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. It is a European country that is governed by a parliamentary system and is one of thirteen countries across the globe to retain a constitutional monarchy. The majority of the UK population are "White" (National Statistics, 2004) and "Christian" (National Statistics, 2005). The UK's largest ethnic minority group is Indians, followed by Pakistanis, Mixed, Black Caribbeans, Black Africans and Bangladeshis (National Statistics, 2004).

Population estimates in the UK escalated in 2008 (National Statistics, 2009a), with immigration contributing to this increase (Muenz, 2006; The London Evening Standard, 2008). In comparison to the UAE, British citizenship is more readily granted through applications that are supported by certain sponsorships/recommendations made, for example, Ghurkhas who have served in the British Army. Finch (2009) however reports that many immigrants have now left the UK. Reasons for migrating to the UK were often connected with economic advantages, yet migrants often leave later for personal or family reasons (Finch, 2008). The rate of emigration is also high, with many British citizens opting to live abroad (Sriskandarajah and Drew, 2006; National Statistics, 2009a).

The World Fact Book (2009) states that before the UK went into recession in late 2008, the UK's economy grew faster than most of Western Europe. It further shows that the Service sector (Banking, Insurance) is responsible for the largest proportion of GDP, whilst resources such as coal, natural gas, and oil are all declining. Nevertheless, coal reserves are expected to last for at least another 400 years (BBC, 2007). National Statistics (2009b) declare a decrease in business services, government services and motor trades but they confirm that tourism grew with an increase in hotels/restaurants. Tourism is a crucial industry for the UK and London became the top world destination in 2007 (Bremner, 2007).

Education differs among each of the UK's four countries; in general though England, Wales, and Ireland have relatively similar systems, the Scottish system remains somewhat more distinctive. Education is valued in the UK (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005) but importance is often placed on where the qualification was obtained from (Weinshall, 1993). Weinshall indicates that rather than focusing on the subject studied, emphasis is placed on the university awarding institution and the number of qualifications achieved. In spite of the increased importance of higher education, earlier studies show that many UK organisations had a preference for high-school graduates (Burrage, 1969). A major reason for this was that the graduate output from the traditional and polytechnic universities was well under 20% of all young people, but it most likely also relates to an ambivalence held deep within the British culture which is suspicious of people becoming "over-educated". Hence emphasis tends to be placed on a combination of scholastic and sporting achievement. Hofstede and

Hofstede (2005) show that competiveness is an important feature of the UK where competitive sport in schools and mottos such as "may the best man win" are highly valued. This British determination suggests that hard-work is important, which is true but Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) state that leisure time is also highly valued.

Interestingly, individualistic values have always been apparent in the UK (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). According to Pizam et al (1997) individualistic and autonomous cultures, like the UK, base reward systems on pay. British people tend to be motivated by salary and the social status it can bring, yet they also attend to intrinsic motivators and will seek to implement training and development for employees (Groschl and Doherty, 2006). They also observe that the structure within the majority of British companies is relatively flat. Power is said to be based on expertise and people value individual freedom (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). The UK culture is found to be highly goal-oriented and rewards people based on merit, which is of greater magnitude than kinship (Gupta and Hanges, 2004). However, other researchers disagree with this portrayal and Milosevic (1999) claims that the UK has a hierarchical nature, which according to Lane et al (2005) attributes status to personal and ascriptive characteristics such as age, seniority, and family, etc.

An illustration by Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) demonstrated how the British army were more capable of dealing with unplanned requests due to a low UA culture. In one intriguing article, Bailey (2005) applies PM notions to the 1914 British army during the Great War. From examining the history of the British Expeditionary Force

during 1914-1918, Bailey highlights several PM examples to show how Britain achieved victory over Germany through gathering and transferring intelligence on previous failures (Knowledge Management) and employing officers from various backgrounds (Transferable and Situational Leadership). In terms of leadership, Edwardian Britain expected leaders to be in shape, well-mannered, and well-informed (Dorfman and House, 2004). Today, visionary leadership is rated strongly in many countries (Ashkanasy et al, 2004; Booth, 2008) and British employees have been found to be more satisfied when the boss uses a consultative and democratic style of leadership (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005).

2.2.4.2 Type of Culture

The main language spoken in the UK is English which has become the world's most common second language (Hurn, 2007). In addition, five Celtic languages are spoken within the region. English as a common language may become a drawback due to an inability to truly communicate with other cultures (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). A reaction against the hegemonic role played by the English language partly explains why education authorities in Wales made Welsh a compulsory subject in primary and secondary schools.

Traditionally, Christianity provided the value system behind the British culture but people began to experiment with a wider range of religious institutions and secular

concepts and church activities diminished over time (Christopher, 1999). Western families have also altered in the extent of their family connections and family size sharply decreased (Neal et al, 2005). The British culture nowadays is more concerned with the individual and immediate family. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) further indicate that families in collectivist cultures have more children and it is not surprising then that families in Oman often have 10 children, whereas the average number of children in the UK is 1.64 (Neal et al, 2005).

The UK is Individualistic, Masculine, Short-term oriented, and low on both PD and UA dimensions (Hofstede, 1983; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). The main distinctions with the Arab region include PD, UA, and I-C. Leadership is generally informal in the UK as people are more flexible and calm; nonetheless individuals are actively driven through the focus on personal growth and accomplishments (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). Dickson et al (2003) conveyed the British culture as confident, determined, forward and forceful. Although British people tend to prefer social directness during interpersonal communication (Groschl and Doherty, 2006; Hurn, 2007), they also like to use humour in business (Hurn, 2007). According to Booth (2008), it has probably become more acceptable in the UK to display emotions in public after the death of Princess Diana. However, personal space is still valued and handshaking is more common in the UK (Feghali, 1997), which differs to the close interpersonal distance or cheek kissing of the Middle East culture.

More recent cultural research demonstrated that the Anglo cluster, which the UK

belongs to, scores high on Performance Orientation, scores low on In-group

Collectivism, and medium on all other dimensions (Gupta and Hanges, 2004).

Therefore, differences between both regions still include I-C and UA (See Figure 2).

They also differ on Gender and Performance, with the Anglo group promoting

performance excellence and gender equality. Performance-oriented leadership was

considered significantly more effective by the Anglo cluster and least effective by the

Middle East cluster. Future orientation scores also differed with the Anglo cluster

scoring slightly higher, yet there were measurement problems (Ashkanasy et al,

2004).
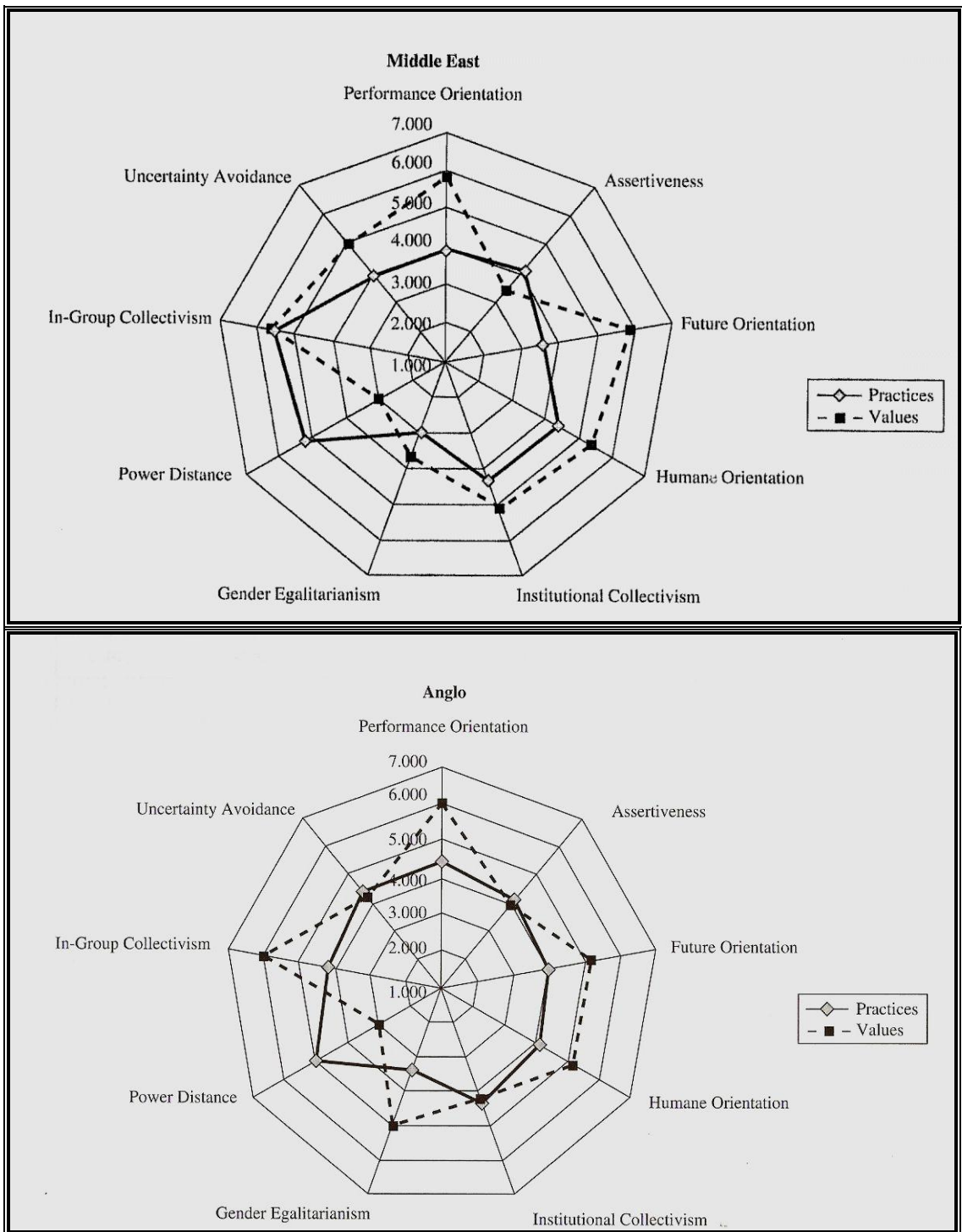
Figure 2. GLOBE's Anglo and Middle East Cultural Findings

(Source: Javidan et al, 2004: 32 and 34).

Since the 1950s, the UK's culture has altered (Christopher, 1999; Booth, 2008). Both researchers allude to globalisation, the rise in immigration, women's movements, the post-war baby boom and a less formal royal family as reasons for the cultural change. Christopher (1999) refers to several cultural changes including women in the workforce, a younger society, and an increase in divorce, job competition, and crime. The rise in employed women may explain why cultural findings have altered to some extent away from a masculine culture (e.g. Hofstede, 1983) to improved gender equality (e.g. House et al, 2004). Interestingly, commonalities can also be interpreted between the two cultures, for example, it has been claimed that the "The old English way of life had so much in common with the Arab dignity of life" (Al Gurg, UAE Ambassador to UK, cited in Nag 2008). Booth (2008) affirms that immense cultural changes that occurred in England after World War II, where England became far more cosmopolitan and multicultural than it was prior to the 1950s.

British management has changed partly due to the changing economy (Weinshall, 1993). Burrage (1969) indicated that many viewed the UK's conservatism as a factor responsible for its declining economy. Transformation occurred in managerial values, attitudes, and ambitions (Booth, 2008). According to Gordon Brown (1997), qualities behind British culture include, openness, fairness, a love of learning, hard work and adaptability, yet his speech implied a decline in these very same attributes. Nevertheless, a more recent study demonstrated that flexibility and adaptability are still preferred by British firms (Groschl and Doherty, 2006). According to Burrage (1969), British workers in general do not fear abuse of power, which may relate to a

low PD or the importance given to equality and performance rewards (Booth, 2008). Loyalty was once important in England, yet it is said that now it cannot be so readily presumed and has to be earned (Booth, 2008).

Short-term oriented cultures, like the UK, favour leisure time, current profits, meritocracy, freedom and achievement (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). Since the UK is of low UA, formal rules are disliked but conformity is often superior (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). Feghali (1997) indicated that British people automatically form a queue when waiting, even in foreign countries, which at times, from personal experience can prove controversial and inappropriate in relation to the customs of locals.

Strategic planning is said to be very efficient in the UK and problem-solving is often informal (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). They classify this as a feature of low PD cultures which can instil greater confidence in employees. British managers also stress the importance of trust, loyalty, security and continuity (Weinshall, 1993). Several values of the British culture include a preference for facts or written information, analytical thinking, making decisions autonomously and risk-taking (Groschl and Doherty, 2006). This is not surprising since low-context cultures often opt for more information (Hall and Hall, 1990), low UA cultures are risk-seekers, and individualistic countries prefer independence (Hofstede, 1983). Other elements of the British culture in contrast refer to "a respect for opinion" and "closed offices" (Burrage, 1969).

Table 3. Arab and British Cultural Variables

Environment	Subjugation Arab (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999; Lane et al, 2005)	Harmony	Mastery British (Lane et al, 2005).
Time	Past Arab (Feghali, 1997; Hurn, 2007) British (Galanti, 2008)	Future	Present
	Monochronic British (Ball et al, 1998; Shachaf, 2008)	Polychronic Arab (Hall, 1960; Lane et al, 2005)	
Human Nature	Good Arab (Lane et al, 2005)	Evil	Mixed British (Lane et al, 2005)
Activity	Being Arab (Walker et al, 2003; Lane et al, 2005)	Controlling British (Walker et al, 2003)	Doing British (Lane et al, 2005)
Responsibility	Hierarchical British (Hunt, 1981; Milosevic, 1999)	Group Arab (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005)	Individualistic
Space	Public Arab (Hall, 1960)	Mixed	Private British (Lane et al, 2005)
Power Distance	High Arab (Hofstede, 1983)	Medium Arab and British (Gupta and Hanges, 2004). British have a smaller PD (Carl et al, 2004)	Low British (Hofstede, 1983)
Uncertainty Avoidance	High Arab (Hofstede, 1983)		Low Arab, yet British is lower (Gupta and Hanges, 2004)
Universalism-Particularism	Universalist British (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998)		Particularist Arab (Hale and Whitlam, 1999)
Affectivity-Neutrality	Neutrality British (Milosevic, 2002)		Affectivity Arab (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999; Nydell, 2006).
Specific-Diffuse	Specific British (Binder, 2007)		Diffuse Arab (Hale and Whitlam, 1999)

2.3 Project Management

2.3.1 Overview

Projects have existed throughout time and are historically evident in such artefacts as the building of the Great Wall of China or the construction of the Egyptian Pyramids (Carmichael, 2003). Some researchers and PM practitioners have argued (Bailey, 2005) that Britain adopted a PM attitude following its victory in the Great War. The military principles and lessons learnt Bailey (2005) claims have been applied to today's commercial firms. PM evolved into a separate discipline in the late 1950s (Morris et al, 2006) and since then has been used increasingly in a growing range of industry sectors (Civil, Petrochemical, IT, Pharmaceutical, Education, Banking, etc.). Project usage has simultaneously increased globally (Kippenberger, 2000).

PM has been applied worldwide and has a long tradition in Saudi Arabia and other Arab countries (Gray and Larson, 2002), but the US is considered the main home of PM (Hofstede, 1983). The first PM Body of Knowledge (PMBOK) guide was created in the 1970s by the American Project Management Institute (PMI) (Morris et al, 2006). The two main sources of PM professional knowledge are the PMI's PMBOK and the Association of Project Management (APM) Body of Knowledge. The APM is the UK based association, yet the accreditation program was not launched until the 1990s (Morris et al, 2006). The APM's (2006) and PMI's (2004) guide have several distinctions, such as the US PMBOK guide is close to 400 pages, whereas the UK

APM guide is 200 pages and deals with a broader range of knowledge bases (Morris et al, 2006). These major differences in the depth and coverage of the subject may reflect NC differences in the need for information.

Kerzner (2009:2) defines a project as "any series of activities and tasks that…Have a specific objective to be completed within certain specifications, Have defined start and end dates, Have funding limits…Consume human and non-human resources…Are multifunctional…" Since it usually involves dealing with a unique entity, the level of uncertainty is high (Zwikael, 2009). Essential factors to project success have been identified as top management support, well-defined goals, planning, communication, client involvement, project teams, and efficient change management (Zwikael, 2009). Several of the researchers in the NC comparative research literature have addressed such factors. For example, many projects have international stakeholders, multi-cultural teams, and/or foreign managers. Project managers around the globe run similar types of projects and yet manage them in different ways (Zwikael et al, 2005; Zwikael, 2009). PM is a means of managing behaviour, which incorporates a wide range of activities, notably, achieving a Customer focus, Ownership, Teamwork, and Planning, Leading, and Controlling systems (Johns, 1995). These all can be affected by cultural perceptions, such as the choice made between individual or group ownership (Johns, 1995). The planning of the project, the defining of the goals, and the conveying of the message, therefore may all vary in their interpretation and utilisation due to different cultural values.

2.3.2 Project Management and National Culture

The field of NC is prevalent within general management research (Shore and Cross, 2005; Camprieu et al, 2007). Many cultural school theorists have studied such relations (e.g. Hall, 1960; Hofstede, 1983; Hartog et al, 1997; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998; House et al, 2004). However, insufficient attention has been given to the relationship between PM and NC (Kippenberger, 2000; Kruglianskas and Thamhain, 2000; Zwikael et al, 2005; Ochieng and Price, 2009). According to Kippenberger (2000), cultural fit is rarely considered within the field of PM. Several authors have called for more attention to be given to investigations of the impact of NC on PM processes (Zwikael et al, 2005; Shore and Cross, 2005; Dvir et al, 2006). For instance, Keil et al (2000) found that culture is related to the willingness to continue a project, yet they point out that research knowledge is limited within this field.

Henrie and Sousa-Poza (2005) investigated whether or not specific PM journals (e.g. *The International Journal of Project Management*) account for culture. A review of journals published in the publication period 1993-2004 indicated that culture was not a widespread topic, in effect forcing the busy project manager to look elsewhere (Henrie and Sousa-Poza, 2005). Other researchers found that even when NC is noted in PM research, it is less often thoroughly investigated (Milosevic, 1999; Dvir et al, 2006). Kippenberger (2000) also argued that culture was an unwarranted omission within PM and notes with regret that it is not listed in either of the main PM BOKs.

In Morris et al's (2006) research on updating the APM BOK, respondents indicated that the knowledge area of people and behaviours should be extended. Possible reasons for the lack of research may relate to complications of definition (Wang, 2001; Shweder, 2002) and/or assessment (Kluckhohn, 1954; Budde et al, 1987; Cohen, 2009). It is problematic when linking culture to project outcomes since there are numerous factors concerned (Yasin et al, 1997). The intangibility of both concepts seems to challenge its investigators (Kippenberger, 2000).

Due to the increasing number of global collaborative projects, research on NC and PM is becoming of increasingly greater relevance. The number of international strategic alliances has grown (Fisher, 1997; Danis, 2003) and so has the number of intercontinental teams (Johns, 1995; Eriksson et al, 2002; Ochieng and Price, 2009). Findings on NC and PM will be useful for organisations using JVs in their international projects (Johnson et al, 1996; Yasin et al, 1997; Camprieu et al, 2007; Ochieng and Price, 2009). On a positive note, an improved understanding of culture could increase competitive advantage through making improvements in speed, knowledge management, and innovation (Eriksson et al, 2002; Zwikael et al, 2005; Zwikael, 2009). Various cultural perspectives can be brought to the project, which could lead to more effective, creative and innovative solutions (Yasin et al, 1997). Nevertheless, this wide variety of views will have to be managed effectively and in a manner that is sensitive to cultural differences.

Culture is based on cognitions and the formation of schemas overtime (Shaw, 1990), which is likely to influence PM thinking and behaviour. Milosevic (2002) revealed that project members have different PM schemas/scripts which are shaped by their own culture. For instance, leadership schemas (a good or a bad leader) and behaviour scripts (greetings) vary between cultures (Shaw, 1990). Cultural differences in PM should be identified since cross-cultural research indicates that different countries vary in their actions, assessments, problem-solving, and in their organisational performance (Zwikael et al, 2005; Shore, 2008; Zwikael, 2009).

There are "visible and invisible ways that culture impacts on organizations…. they will certainly play a very important role in the success of an international organization" (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998:6). Project managers working globally would likely agree that culture has an influence on PM work (Shore and Cross, 2005). Hofstede (1983) noted that the differences found between countries affects the approach needed for successful PM. He claimed that PM is individualistic since the temporary task is the main focus. Therefore, a person from a collectivist culture may experience problems created by cultural incompatibility and "lose their work identity" (Hofstede, 1983:46).

The Western thinking behind PM notions have been mentioned by several authors (e.g. Hofstede, 1983; Wang, 2001; Devine, 2007; Burchell and Gilden, 2008), each questioning the effectiveness of applying "Western thinking" to international projects. A Western project manager is often employed overseas where s/he must

manage numerous nationalities (Shore and Cross, 2005). Cultural differences may affect the performance of a project manager (Milosevic, 1999). Wang and Liu (2007) illustrate that because PM has Western roots, it conflicts with traditional Chinese culture.

In one interesting examination, Wang (2001) attempted to verify universal cultural dimensions for the PM profession. He "defined project management culture as a set of work-related values and beliefs shared by project management professionals" (Wang, 2001:5). It is argued that PM should be studied at the professional level, rather than as a type of organisational culture because PM experts behave in a way that the profession requires and hold customary work values and beliefs on best practice (Wang, 2001). A model was created for the PM culture, which consists of four dimensions, namely "Professional Commitment, Project Team Integration, Work Flexibility, and Work Performance" (Wang, 2001: 10). In a more recent study, Wang and Liu (2007) went further in testing their model. They discuss the following dimensions.

1. Integration Management – When any conflict occurs, members should be honest, straightforward, and open so that all opinions are known.

2. Horizontal Management – Employment positions concern experience and knowledge and not "who you know." Project managers are often described as coaches/motivators (Johns, 1995; Thomas and Pinto, 1999) and a low PD is

the norm (Hofstede, 1983). Matrix or Project hierarchies are common, where people may be working on more than one project.

3. Team Consciousness – Members are encouraged to work in teams. The topic of Teamwork is apparent in the PM literature and Kerzner (2009) notes the importance of cooperation, trust, and communication in teams.

4. Task Orientation –Members tend to focus on their activities. Hofstede (1983:46) states that PM "is task-oriented and… relationships are peripheral and fluctuating."

Wang and Liu (2007) showed that the Chinese culture differs to the PM culture since the Chinese place emphasis on a large PD, "making the boss happy" and family relationships, and they prefer hierarchies. One intriguing finding from the study suggests that a qualification in PM such as a PMP certification helps one overcome cultural barriers. The organisation's culture was found to be more supportive of PM when there were high numbers of qualified project managers. Wang (2001) suggests that PM experts should now look closer at the possibilities and potential of global PM. Perhaps a critic of this study is that they looked at the PM culture at the professional level. Yet, Hodgson (2007) points out that PM is yet to be classified as a profession. According to Hodgson (2007: 224), "the recognition of project management as a specific career with proprietary body of knowledge, tools, and techniques remains very low, as is the demand for individuals with specific project

management qualifications or professional affiliations." For now, Hodgson refers to the term of "semi-profession" since PM continues to pursue professional status.

According to Milosevic (2002; 1999), there is a silent language of PM. This refers to the difficulty project managers' face in comprehending their own culture, as well as comprehending the values, practices and beliefs of all of the other project stakeholders. Differences should not be ignored since team performance and overall productivity can decrease, which could result in the worst scenario of all - "project failure" (Kruglianskas and Thamhain, 2000; Milosevic, 2002; Henrie and Souza-Poza, 2005). Johnson et al (1996) proposed that projects fall short because people do not adjust culturally and leave conflicts unresolved. The terminology used by multicultural team members can also differ and prove time-consuming since people fail to admit whenever they do not understand the currently used jargon (Lester, 2007). On the other hand, projects often succeed when people are culturally sensitive (Eriksson et al, 2002), and are able to "appreciate the foreign partner's culture and behave accordingly" (Johnson et al, 1996:985), suggesting a culturally aware and informed role is most appropriate for project managers.

2.3.3 Arab and British Project Management

From investigating both Arab and British cultures, several distinctions can be made and identified (See Table 3). These cultural differences may play a role in the project

environment since expectations would likely differ. A British project manager is accustomed to a small PD, yet Arab project managers may not assume such close relationships with subordinates. They are also likely to expect people to go along with what they say. The emphasis placed on being on-time may also frustrate the Arab project manager or conversely a British project manager may get frustrated with a more relaxed approach to time management. Moreover, the individualistic nature of the British environment can be insensitive to Arab project stakeholders. There again, the high UA of the Arab culture may restrict innovation, while the British risk-taking might alarm the Arab project team.

Interestingly, British project managers perceived Arabs as controlling (Mastery), yet Loosemore and Al-Muslmani (1999) point out that the literature indicates that they fall into the subjugation category. They describe the dissatisfaction that may occur between British and Arab nationals when planning. British project managers are likely to spend a significant amount of time planning, whereas this can be going against fate for the Arab project manager (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999). According to Gray and Larson (2002), Arab plans are less detailed and only take account of only the next week or even less since other situations may take priority. Deadlines are more likely to be perceived as too demanding and may even be seen as rude in the Arab culture (Hall, 1960). Although lack of planning has been attributed as characteristic of the Arab culture (e.g. Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002), Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) suggested that high UA cultures do plan but prefer to leave it up to the experts. Similarly, Hall and Hall (1990) explain how polychronic cultures expect

less information because they have already built wide social networks that convey multiple sources of information. Relationships are very close in the Arab world and a promise is binding (Hall, 1960). However, the British prefer to be very specific when stating and agreeing terms in the contract (Hurn, 2007). Another distinction concerns organising as the British prefer a systematic approach (Monochronic), yet Arabs (Polychronic) often are willing to deal with multiple issues at once (Feghali, 1997; Hurn, 2007).

Risk management within the UAE has been investigated by El-Sayegh (2008). Findings indicated that the highest rated risks were delays/shortages of resources, lack of necessary planning and heavy regulations (El-Sayegh, 2008). This may explain why external sources of problems were emphasised in Yasin et al's (1997) study. Yasin et al found that Arab project managers relied on their personal networks and focused on external sources of problems (i.e. government red tape, regulations, client changes, cost changes and availability of resources). The Arab sample also recorded deficiencies in planning and goal definitions. Client Communication Logs and Work Breakdown Structures (WBS) were rated positively (Yasin et al, 1997), which is probably due to the weight attached to relationships (e.g. Hall, 1960) and/or that high UA cultures are likely to prefer the clarity that a WBS and written documentation offers. Many projects in the UAE are now using various formats of electronic communication systems (El-Saboni et al, 2009).

Both cultures seem to appreciate a past orientation since traditions are mutually important (Galanti, 2008). Nonetheless, research is not consistent along all cultural dimensions. The Arab and British cultures have been referenced more than once in several of the cultural variables (See Table 3). This may refer to a cultural change, as shown in the differences in the results between Hofstede (1983) and Globe (2004). However, it may refer to contradictory beliefs, so that Lane et al (2005) contends that the British have more of a "Doing" culture because they value work, but as Walker et al (2003) notes British employees can get annoyed when Americans portray themselves by describing their job. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) also indicated that the British like to work and play, suggesting more of a "Controlling" orientation. Again, this may be attributed to one of the major drawbacks of cultural research of making simple generalisations about diverse groups within any one NC.

2.3.4 Project Implications

Many of today's slogans concern multicultural/multinational teams, projects, and PM (e.g. Milosevic, 1999; Kruglianskas and Thamhain, 2000; Eriksson et al, 2002; Binder, 2007). Globalisation has increased the number of different cultures operating within a single project (Milosevic, 1999; Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999; Chiesa, 2000; Henrie and Sousa-Poza, 2005; Hurn, 2007). As each project player potentially brings a different culture to the project, it is likely to create new managerial

challenges, communication barriers, and team conflicts (Eriksson et al, 2002; Tayeb, 2005).

Culture can cause problems in virtual teams and influence the communication medium selected (Shachaf, 2008). Social exchange problems will occur in multicultural projects (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999; Ochieng and Price, 2009) but effective communication is essential to project success (El-Saboni et al, 2009; Ochieng and Price, 2009). Ochieng and Price (2009) contend that cross-cultural communication in project teams requires greater examination by researchers since this can determine project success. They found that both African and British project managers noted that importance of communication. Organisations should help project managers to realise that everyday issues will be interpreted differently by different NCs (Ochieng and Price, 2009). Zwikael et al (2005) also note that low-context countries such as the US prioritise the role of verbal communication, whereas high-context countries such as Japan depend more on non-verbal communication. The exchange of implicit information also depends on this context since knowledge-sharing is said to be more apparent in Japan than, for instance, Israel (Zwikael et al, 2005). In addition, Japan focuses on teamwork, while independence is more important in Israel (Zwikael et al, 2005).

Both Milosevic (1999) and Kippenberger (2000) contend that there is a high likelihood in diverse cultural settings of disagreements, cost and schedule overruns; and even project failure (Henrie and Sousa-Poza, 2005). This is to some extent

unnecessary because researchers generally agree that cultural sensitivity allows people to appreciate that the world is perceived differently (e.g. Fisher, 1997). Problems that may arise in international projects involve multicultural teams, foreign legal systems, importation of ideas, products and services, and local traditions and different lifestyles (Enshassi and Burgess, 1990). Management must appreciate these so that project goals can be successfully achieved and with a minimal amount of conflict (Enshassi and Burgess, 1990). The authors recommend cross-cultural training, which means presenting managers of multicultural teams with new information and new behavioural skills so that possible clashes, misinterpretations and "culture shocks" can be dealt with effectively (Enshassi and Burgess, 1990). However, they found that such training and cross-cultural development was absent from construction firms in the Middle East.

In order to increase their competiveness, companies must operate internationally (Schneider, 1995) and more strategically than was necessary in the past. One successful approach to international business is to use the strengths of various cultures which require working with more complexity than previously was the case. The way anyone thinks and behaves is influenced by their specific cultural background; and any differences in values and behaviours may cause misinterpretations and as a result create dissonance (Schneider, 1995). If the organisation cannot deal with cultural variations, then employee or company problems are more likely to occur (Schneider, 1995). The use of PM may overcome some of the cultural difficulties since tasks can be carried out according to a "best

practice" standard (Schneider, 1995), accordingly a qualification in PM could be beneficial for improved project working, team collaboration and communication.

It is still likely though that project members working overseas will require local knowledge. Ramaprasad and Prakash (2003) demonstrated how a lack of local knowledge inhibits effective PM. The issue of time was highlighted with regards to the existence of numerous calendars. Project events are generally marked on the Gregorian calendar, yet there are events associated with local calendars that may affect the schedule, such as the lunar calendar. One requires local knowledge to respect and accommodate to these important events (Ramaprasad and Prakash, 2003).

The above research on different calendar times demonstrates the significance of NC in PM. One must be acquainted with the background and culture of all international stakeholders in the project, particularly the customers, suppliers and partners (Zwikael, 2009). In comparison to managing more conventional business matters, managing international projects is challenging due to the complexity of procedures (Kruglianskas and Thamhain, 2000; Eriksson et al, 2002). Problem-solving differs between cultures as some prefer to look at the whole problem before acting, whilst others prefer trial and error (Eriksson et al, 2002). Yasin et al (1997) assert that it is beneficial for project managers to possess those competencies that are specific to the culture in which the project is undertaken. What is more "…project management is culture-bound, which means … members with different cultural backgrounds interpret the same project management practices differently" (Milosevic, 1999:27).

Chen and Partington (2004) found that this was true for Chinese project managers, e.g. relationships are of greater relevance than contractual issues. They went on to argue that PM is not "universal" but sensitive to culture. Turner (1999) has also argued that PM applications vary with the culture.

According to Milosevic (1999), project managers should learn the "silent language" of culture to avoid the problems that may be encountered in international projects. A project manager can review the cultures of those operating within the project and identify areas where conflicts are more likely to occur. Eriksson et al (2002) recommend achieving an early awareness of these potential conflicts to prevent them from happening. It can often help simply to watch, listen or ask for advice (Milosevic, 2002). As noted, cross-cultural training programs are one common method that has been adopted to overcome cultural misunderstandings (Enshassi and Burgess, 1990) but these are not without fault. Milosevic (1999) argues that these training techniques are based on a belief that one PM approach fits all cultures. Cultural maps are proposed instead as these provide an explanatory framework of cultural values "and the choice of a culturally responsive project management strategy" (Milosevic, 2002:494).

The eleven variables highlighted by Milosevic (1999; 2002) have been linked to PM methods (See Table 4). The following literature demonstrates the relevance of attributing managerial differences to variations in NCs variations (Shore and Cross, 2005), thus providing empirical support for the cultural school of thought. Milosevic

(1999) proposes that Environmental variables will influence project scope and budgeting; Time will influence planning, scheduling and quality; Activity orientations will impact resource management and project metrics; Human Nature differences will relate to procurement; Responsibility variables impact on teams and structure; and Space relates to communication and layout (Milosevic, 1999). Unfortunately, Milosevic did not refer to any PM practices for the remaining dimensions. Nevertheless, it is suggested that PD relates to leadership (Chen and Partington, 2004; Binder, 2007), communication (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005), value management (Overby, 2005), and technology (Hofstede, 2001; Steers et al, 2008); UA to risk management (Keil et al, 2000; Chen and Partington, 2004;), innovation (Hofstede, 2001; Binder, 2007), and communication (Overby, 2005); Universalism-Particularism to structure and policies (Binder, 2007), Affectivity-Neutrality to teams (Binder, 2007); and Specific-Diffuse to contractual relationships (Hale and Whitlam, 1999) and managing value (Overby, 2005).

Table 4. Cultural Variables alongside PM Methodologies.

Environment	Subjugation (Everything is preordained)	Harmony (Appropriate contingencies)	Mastery (Control environment)
	Scope/Task definition: Vague and meaningless (Lane et al, 2005). **Budgeting:** May be done (Lane et al, 2005) but contradicts fate (Milosevic, 1999). **Control:** Lenient due to acts of God (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999). **Technology:** Neutral perspective but does not facilitate control (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999).	**Scope/Task definition:** Goals are provisional (Lane et al, 2005) and so are packages in WBS (Milosevic, 2002). **Budgeting**: Focus on concrete targets and actual costs (Milosevic, 1999). **Control:** Reasonable/Average (Lane et al, 2005). **Technology:** Negatively viewed since it creates imbalance in the environment (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999).	**Scope/Task definition:** Very specific, precise and large-scale (Lane et al, 2005). **Budgeting:** Leads to results. Guides behaviour to monitor and control projects (Lane et al, 2005). **Control:** Strict (Milosevic, 1999). **Technology:** Leads to effective control (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999).

Time	Past (History and Traditions important)	Future (Long-term focus)	Present (Nearby events)
	Planning: Present situations are evaluated by looking at the past and any change should be loyal to traditions (Walker et al, 2003). Learn from the past (Milosevic, 1999). **Schedules:** Deadline importance is low (Milosevic, 1999). Significant changes require long time frames (Walker et al, 2003) **Quality:** Look at previous quality problems (Milosevic, 1999).	**Planning:** Extensive plans (Grinbergs and Rubenstein, 1993) for long-term results (Lane et al, 2005). **Scheduling**: Precise milestones and clear start and finish dates (Milosevic, 2002). **Quality**: Kaizen (Milosevic, 1999).	**Planning:** Sound immediate plans (Walker et al, 2003) for short term results (Lane et al, 2005). **Scheduling:** Precise for close-by events, detail added over time (Milosevic, 1999) **Quality:** Corrective action rather than preventive action (Milosevic, 1999).

	Monochronic		Polychronic
	Schedules: Being on-time is critical (Lane et al, 2005). **Integration:** Time-ordered preparation (Hall and Hall, 1990).		**Schedules:** Closing dates can be extended (Lane et al, 2005) **Integration:** Flexible preparation and likely to arrange several timelines (Hall and Hall, 1990; Lane et al, 2005).

Human Nature	Good (Trust people)	Mixed (People good but remain wary)	Evil (Very doubtful of people)
	Procurement: Partnering seen as a win-win situation (Milosevic, 1999).	**Procurement:** Cautious and often through prior relationships/experience (Milosevic, 1999).	**Procurement:** Thorough background checks and more likely to reject (Milosevic, 1999).
Activity	Being (Live for today)	Controlling (Balance feelings and thoughts)	Doing (Go-getters)
	Resources: Resources often allocated using vague criteria. **Metrics:** More qualitative, but likely to continuously change. (Milosevic, 1999)	**Resources:** Logically allocate resources using well-structured criteria. **Metrics:** Regular and Efficient. (Milosevic, 1999)	**Resources:** Take into account time and constraints when allocating resources (Milosevic, 1999). **Metrics:** Few, but clear-cut (Milosevic, 1999). Performance is measured against a set of standards (Walker et al, 2003).
Responsibility	Hierarchical (Try to balance individuals and groups)	Group (Unity)	Individualistic (Solitary)
	Teams: Orderly and formal (Lane et al, 2005). Team exercises are controlled (Grinbergs and Rubenstein, 1993). **Structure**: Strong attention to vertical differentiation (Lane et al, 2005), yet can be decentralised (Hunt, 1981).	**Teams:** Customary - A regular activity to carry out work (Milosevic, 2002). Group harmony is a way to resolve conflict (Chen and Partington, 2004). **Structure:** Horizontally differentiated (Lane et al, 2005) due to intimate networks (Milosevic, 1999).	**Teams:** Task loyalty is more important (Lane et al, 2005) **Structure:** Clear person in charge (Milosevic, 1999), yet are flexible, informal and may adopt a matrix arrangement (Chen and Partington, 2004; Lane et al, 2005).

Space	**Public** (Open)	**Mixed** (Selective)	**Private** (Personal)
	Communication: Wide interfaces **Layout:** Open plan, few private offices, and doors are left open. (Lane et al, 2005)	**Communication:** Selective information-sharing. **Layout:** Semi-closed to the public. (Lane et al, 2005)	**Communication:** On a one-to-one basis. **Layout:** Private and formal space. (Lane et al, 2005)
Power Distance	**High** (Authoritarian)	**Medium** (Advice given but leader makes final decision)	**Low** (First-name basis)
	Leader: Autocratic (Chen and Partington, 2004; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). **Communication:** Based on positional power (Milosevic, 1999). **Value Management:** Members will support this philosophy if it is supported by top executives (Overby, 2005). **Technology:** Less emphasis on technology development and usage (Hofstede, 2001; Steers et al, 2008).	**Leader:** Consultative (Jackson, 2004). **Communication:** Mixed since opinions can be given, yet final decision is made by the top (Lussier and Achua, 2009).	**Leader:** Participative (Chen and Partington, 2004; Jackson, 2004). **Communication:** Open to all (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). **Value Management:** Value is likely to be analysed effectively due to close relationships (Overby, 2005). **Technology:** Greater emphasis on developing and employing technology (Hofstede, 2001; Steers et al, 2008).
Uncertainty Avoidance	**High** (Anxious)		**Low** (Risk-takers)
	Risk: Avoid risks through tight control and a number of rules are established. (Chen and Partington, 2004; Binder, 2007). **Innovation:** Restricted (Hofstede, 2001; Binder, 2007). **Communication:** Information may not be shared (Overby, 2005).		**Risk:** Lower risk awareness since risk-taking and few rules are common (Keil et al, 2000). Curious with risks (Chen and Partington, 2004). **Innovation:** Strongest (Hofstede, 2001; Binder, 2007). **Communication:** Members keen to share information (Overby, 2005).

Universalism-Particularism	Universalist (Rule followers)		Particularist (Exceptions)
	Structure: Formal procedures **Policy:** Clear set of standards, practices and processes. (Binder, 2007)		**Structure:** Informal procedures **Policy:** Generic rules but project managers decide which practices to use. (Binder, 2007)
Affectivity-Neutrality	Neutrality (Cold/Distant)		Affectivity (Emotional)
	Teams: Members are distant (Binder, 2007).		**Teams:** All members closely involved (Binder, 2007).
Specific-Diffuse	Specific (Home and work are separate but easily make relationships)		Diffuse (Work and home are less distinct but long-term relationships)
	Contracts: Contractual and multiple relationships (Hale and Whitlam, 1999). **Value Management:** Specific points are analysed and decisions are verified (Overby, 2005).		**Contracts:** Relations take time, thus long-term but not as many (Hale and Whitlam, 1999). **Value Management:** Analysis is holistic and decisions intuitive (Overby, 2005).

2.3.5 Previous Research

The general lack of NC and PM research has already been noted, and several related studies are now reviewed in this section, although some are not as specific and relevant as initially was anticipated they nonetheless are informative. One study inspected the influence of Russia's history and culture on PM practices (Devine, 2007). It covered some aspects of the relatively recent history of Russia, during the Communist era which suppressed religious beliefs enforcing on the nation strict authoritarian rules, and involving detrimental internal strife, wars and famines, producing a totalitarian regime and culture whereby the system must be obeyed (Devine, 2007). Any adjustment to the regulations was made by those at the top as a way of increasing power and control, which ties in with a culture that withholds information as a means of maintaining security (Devine, 2007). Devine related these cultural points to weaknesses that occur regularly in Russian projects. Due to a fear of corrective action, complete schedules in general were not produced as this gives rise to problems of accountability for not completing tasks on time (Devine, 2007). Delays were common since it was unacceptable to act independently and teams were not supported by management. Therefore if a senior member was absent, employees continued to wait for a decision to be announced rather than take any initiative. Nevertheless, mistrust created thorough cost estimates but simultaneously inflated the same through the inherent scrutiny delays (Devine, 2007).

PM decisions will likely determine project success, yet decision-making processes

are connected to culture (Shore, 2008). More specifically, culture can produce

"systematic biases" in the project (Shore, 2008) and in connection with this,

approaches and attitudes to risk assessment are influenced by people's cultural

backgrounds (Camprieu et al, 2007). Low UA cultures accept uncertainty, take more

personal risks and are more open to listening to people who hold different opinions,

while those from high UA cultures will tend to avoid risks (Camprieu et al, 2007).

They found that Canadian and Chinese participants evaluated project risks differently,

which they proposed may influence the type of projects selected and even the

willingness to continue. People who are more comfortable with ambiguity (low UA)

may have a lower level of risk awareness (Keil et al, 2000); consequently low

awareness is associated with higher risk-seeking behaviour. A strong relationship was

found between risk inclination and risk awareness in low UA cultures, which lead to

greater commitment levels. Therefore, low UA groups seek risks to a larger extent

and are more willing to commit to continuing with a risky project.

Yasin et al (1997) explored the role culture plays in the achievement of project

success. Five managerial issues were distinguished among cultures, namely,

Management Structure and Style, Geographic Work Distributions, Budgetary

Commitment, Family and Education, and Pay. Findings were explained using several

cultural dimensions. For instance, the individualistic US were more likely to have

facilities that crossed boundaries but the collectivist Japan placed greater emphasis on

centrally coordinated units. In addition, Japan are more long-term oriented and were

more committed to budgets than the short-term profit orientation typical in the US. In spite of the cultural diversity present within the US workforce, Milosevic (1999) argues that American project managers are unaware of how to manage multicultural projects. This is risky since as was discussed earlier different cultures vary in their usage of the same PM practices (Milosevic, 1999).

In a similar vein, Zwikael et al (2005) carried out a field study investigating the cultural differences of PM capabilities in Japan and Israel. A cultural review distinguished the PM characteristics of each country. Previous literature had suggested that cost, quality, and communication areas were of more significance in Japan, and that both countries stressed the importance of Time and HR. They found several differences relating to planning processes, the project manager and project success. Both cost and schedule overruns were higher in Israel than in Japan, yet Israel placed more emphasis on customer satisfaction and technical characteristics when analysing project success. They also used planning software more and focused on Scope and Time processes. The time factor is interesting because schedule overruns were much higher in Israel, possibly implying that other factors such as quality and risk problems may extend the schedule (Zwikael et al, 2005). Japanese project managers concentrated on formal Communication and Cost processes, which may be attributed to a culture that focuses on meeting targets and collectively sharing information (Zwikael et al, 2005).

Recently, Zwikael (2009) investigated New Zealand's culture and PM through several studies. In one of the first studies considering PM in New Zealand, he identified what he found were the stronger and weaker areas of New Zealand's planning management. Weaker areas related to top management support and knowledge management whilst stronger areas included risk management and communication management. Findings could be related to NC with New Zealand ranking low on both PD and UA (Zwikael, 2009). One limitation of these research studies however may concern the lack of analysis of different ethnicities within the NZ sample.

More recently, DeBony (2010) demonstrated that PM principles and execution varied between two distinct NCs. This research highlights the importance of NC research for future JVs. The case study was based on a discrepancy between a French and Dutch JV. The Dutch held a more positive attitude towards PM but the French experienced difficulty with PM application. For example, evaluation techniques were extensively implemented by the Dutch, yet to a lesser extent by the French. DeBony (2010) refers to several explanations, i.e. agreements and decision-making are related to the politics of the country, which vary considerably between France and the Netherlands. DeBony argues that "Dutch consensus makes integration of PM easier" but "French decision process can hinder the implementation of PM" (2010:181).

The social aspects of PM refer to Leadership skills/characteristics, Decision-making, Team-building, Negotiating, and Communication (Kendra and Taplin, 2004). Since

the significance of global PM is emergent, similar studies should follow in other countries (Zwikael et al, 2005; Zwikael, 2009). An overall drawback of this area of research concerns the short supply of data collected in certain countries and industries (Zwikael, 2009). Grinbergs and Rubenstein (1993) also note that the amount of research analysing employees from two or more cultures is weak. Generally investigations either examine the effects of cultural diversity or assess how one can adapt to such differences (Ramaprasad and Prakash, 2003). Project managers however need to know the nature of these differences and be able to interpret which are likely to have the most significant impact on their projects. The literature indicates that within a project, culture can influence a wide variety of PM aspects including: Teams (Eriksson et al, 2002; Binder, 2007; Shachaf, 2008; Ochieng and Price, 2009) Leadership (Yasin et al, 1997; Debony, 2010), Trust (Johnson et al, 1996; Debony, 2010), Loyalty (Ali et al, 1995; Ali and Al-Kazemi, 2005), Communication (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999; Ochieng and Price, 2009), Performance (Eriksson et al, 2002), Risk assessment (Keil et al, 2000; Camprieu et al, 2007), Business negotiations (Phatak and Habib, 1996; Hurn, 2007) PM deployment (Bredillet et al, 2010) and Planning (Zwikael et al, 2005; Zwikael, 2009).

Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) make the general claim that when organisations become international, NC will affect planning and control systems. Interestingly, Zwikael et al (2005) and Zwikael (2009) focused on the planning stage of a project because researchers have shown that over the project's lifecycle, managerial behaviour differs (Thomas and Pinto, 1999). Thomas and Pinto (1999) suggest that

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time orientation preferences will also alter, for instance a future-focus during planning and past-focus during project termination. Concentration on one single stage may assist with accounting for project lifecycle changes. The planning stage is appropriate since planning is important to project success (Gaddis, 1959; Laufer and Tucker, 1987; Zwikael and Globerson, 2006). A relationship between the quality of planning and project success was found by Zwikael and Globerson (2006) and several researchers identified project planning as a critical success factor (Bryson, Bromiley and Jung, 1990; Johnson et al, 2001; Meredith and Mantel 2006; Kerzner, 2009). When planning processes are carried out accurately at the planning stage, a project manager is more likely to manage all of the other stages to the same degree of quality (Zwikael and Globerson, 2004). In addition, Shore (2008) reveals that failures still occur even though planning processes have significantly improved. It is possible that culture is one of the issues affecting deficiencies in planning or creating problems with planning.

2.4 The Planning Phase

2.4.1 Overview

Project planning is defined as the creation of formal plans so that the project team can accomplish the project's goals (Meredith and Mantel, 2006). Planning aims to reduce uncertainty (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). Johns (1995) insists that the five main planning tools are project objectives, work breakdown structures (WBS), project organisation, project schedules and budgets. The WBS is considered a mindset (Johns, 1995), which links in with Fisher's (1997) definition of culture as a mindset. A major area of concern for the project manager is planning as s/he is responsible for producing the project plan (Kerzner, 2009). A project will be carried out in accordance with the plan's baseline; therefore the project manager must ensure that the baseline is reliable (Zwikael and Globerson, 2004).

2.4.2 The Project Management Planning Quality Model

Notwithstanding the consensus surrounding the importance of project planning, there is a distinct lack of specific planning models and frameworks available for use in PM (Chatzoglou and Macaulay, 1996; Zwikael and Globerson, 2004). Only one commonly available measure for analysing the quality of a project's planning appears to exist, the PMPQ model (Figure 3). This was created by Zwikael and Globerson (2004) due to the short supply of existing models.

The quality of planning is broken down into two main categories, organisational

support and project know-how. These were formed using knowledge obtained from

the domains of PM, control, organisational maturity and organisational support

(Zwikael and Globerson, 2004). By reviewing several maturity models, the

researchers created the organisational support area, which concerns the activities that

should be performed by the organisation. The project know-how component,

however is based PMBOK (Zwikael and Globerson, 2004) and concerns the

processes that a project manager is directly or indirectly accountable for.
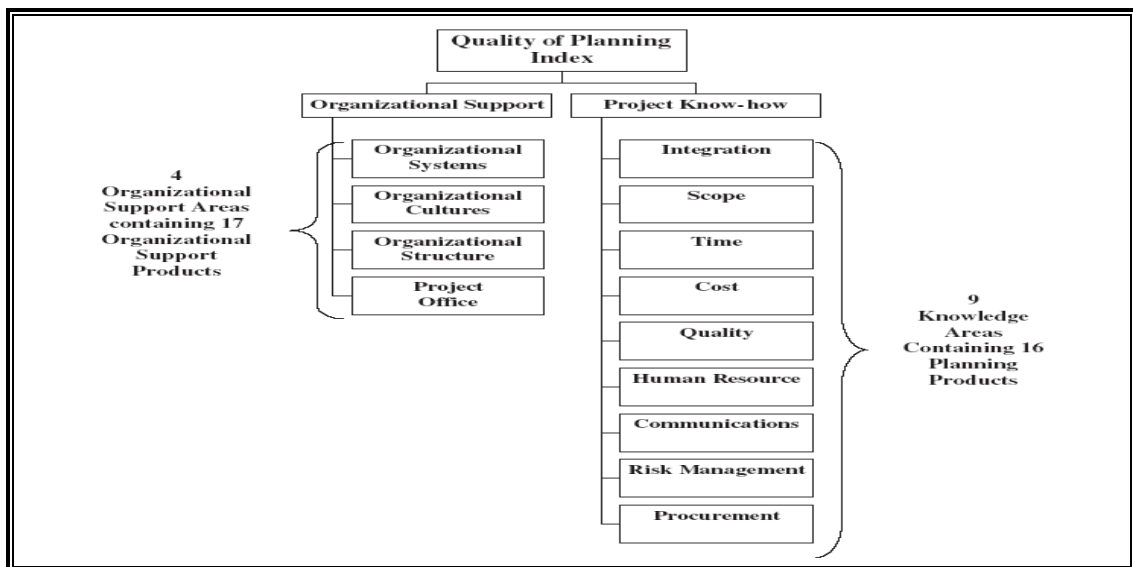
Figure 3. The Basis of the PMPQ Model

(Source: Zwikael and Globerson, 2004:1550).

The PMPQ model was derived an application of learning curve theory by Globerson and Zwikael (2002) who proposed that the quality of a process relates to the extent to which planning outputs are achieved and planning products are used. Therefore, it is assumed that high quality plans can be achieved when there is increased effort and support. In total 33 products are included in the PMPQ model, 16 of which are planning products (Figure 4) related to PMI's (2004) nine knowledge areas (Zwikael and Globerson, 2004). From PMI's 39 listed project processes, 21 relate to planning, which Zwikael and Globerson (2004) reduced to 16 based on high correlations between certain products. For example Risk Identification and Risk Quantification were pooled together into Risk Management. However, this questions whether the quality of each planning process is assessed accurately since findings will not show whether each product was utilised. Project managers could state that a risk management plan was created but this does not show whether they first identified the risks in the project or whether they quantified them or developed a risk response plan.

Each planning product is listed in Figure 4, which are of equal weight since the importance of each is assumed to be equal as no research has shown otherwise (Zwikael and Globerson, 2004). Therefore, the project know-how category weighs 50%, with each of the nine knowledge areas weighing 5.56%. Depending on the number of processes attached to that knowledge area, the weight of each planning process can be calculated. This further highlights how there may be problems with the knowledge areas of Quality, Communication, Risk and Procurement since each concerns one process and one product. For example, one project manager may not

establish quality metrics but state that a quality management plan was utilised in the project. This project manager will receive the same score as another project manager who did develop quality metrics for the project.

Knowledge area	Planning process	Planning product
Integration	project plan development	project plan
Scope	scope planning	project deliverables
	scope definition	work breakdown structure chart
Time	activity definition	project activities
	activity sequencing	Pert or Gantt chart
	activity duration estimating	activity duration estimates
	schedule development	activity start and end dates
Cost	resource planning	activity required resources
	cost estimating	resource cost
	cost budgeting	time-phased budget
Quality	quality planning	quality management plan
Human resources	organizational planning	role and responsibility assignments
	staff acquisition	project staff assignments
Communications	communications planning	communications management plan
Risk	risk management planning	risk management plan
Procurement	procurement planning	procurement management plan

Figure 4. The Planning Products of the PMPQ Model

(Source: Zwikael and Globerson, 2004:1549).

The PMPQ model includes the role of the organisation since planning efficiency also concerns the organisation (Zwikael and Globerson, 2006). Figure 5 illustrates that the Organisational Support component is composed of four supporting areas and 17 products. Zwikael and Globerson (2004) initially found hundreds of project

management processes by assessing many maturity models. These were then reduced to 17 products as the other processes did not refer to project planning.

If the planning stage is to be carried out professionally, everyone within the project should possess the relevant know-how (Globerson and Zwikael, 2002). Nevertheless, a project manager is the individual who is responsible for overcoming all difficulties in the project and s/he must ensure that all planning processes are properly executed. In an attempt to study the relationship between a project manager and the quality of planning, the researchers indicated that project performance was influenced by both the project manager's NC and the NC of all of the other stakeholders. Furthermore, the ability of the project manager to be proactive in ensuring that the project benefited from these cultural differences was considered as a critical area of responsibility. Functional managers in the study did not have the required risk management knowledge, which meant that the project manager most often had to deal with these tasks alone (Globerson and Zwikael, 2002). It was not surprising then given this lack of management capability that risk management processes in general were of low planning quality. Communication processes were also rated low since this concerns the gathering of present and future information from stakeholders. This can be a complicated task to plan and stakeholder analysis is the only major PM technique available (Globerson and Zwikael, 2002).

Supporting area	Organizational support product
Organizational systems	project-based organization
	extent of existing of projects' procedures
Organizational cultures and styles	appropriate project manager assignment
	extent of refreshing project procedures
	extent of involvement of the project manager during initiation stage
	extent of communication between the project manager and the organization during the planning phase
	extent of existence of project success measurement
Organizational structure	extent of supportive project organizational structure
	extent of existence of interactive interdepartmental project planning groups
	extent of organizational projects resource planning
	extent of organizational projects risk management
	extent of organizational projects quality management
	extent of on going project management training programmmes
Project office	extent of project office involvement
	extent of use of standard project management software (e.g. Ms-project)
	extent of use of organizational projects data warehouse
	extent of use of new project tools and techniques

Figure 5. Organisational Support Products of the PMPQ Model

(Source: Zwikael and Globerson, 2004:1550).

2.4.3 Project Planning and National Culture

A project proceeds only as well as its planning permits (Schneider, 1995). Schneider

discusses the differences between planning in high-context cultures and low-context

cultures. Those from high-context cultures attempt to gather as much detail as

possible, whereas low-context cultures are more efficient in selecting content. Both

types of cultures can be beneficial and have different strengths to offer in projects

(Schneider, 1995). Milosevic (1999) also notes that the usage of the WBS varies

across different cultures, where some cultures insist on many work packages

(Western Europeans) and others (US) form a less detailed WBS. The WBS has been

related to culture in terms of time and space (e.g. Schneider, 1995). He claims that some cultures "atomise" their time, which causes them to act in networks and multi-task, while others "divide" their time so tasks are often structured in a precise, sequential manner and broken down into subtasks. A further illustration connected to project planning and NC refers to scheduling. Milosevic (1999) revealed that African project managers view schedules as pointless since only God knows the future. Such people are more likely to be concerned with building sound relationships, which obviously differs to a Western focus on punctuality. An appreciation of these cultural variations is vital since misunderstandings could lead to the collapse of the project (Milosevic, 1999).

It is a worthwhile and potential contribution to PM knowledge for researchers to study NC differences in the planning stage since both notions have been suggested to play a role in project success or failure (e.g. Enshassi and Burgess, 1990; Johnson et al, 1996; Yasin et al, 1997; Milosevic, 1999, 2002; Kruglianskas and Thamhain, 2000; Zwikael et al, 2005; Lester, 2007; Zwikael, 2009). Furthermore, as Milosevic (1999) has argued project managers need a new frame of reference to help them understand and survive in the new environment of global projects. Zwikael and Globerson's (2004) planning processes (See Figure 4 above) are important to the current investigation since these relate to both a project manager's know-how and the nine knowledge areas of PMI's (2004) PMBOK. In order to analyse possible connections between the cultural variables in Table 4 and PMPQ model's products, a diagram was created (See Appendix 1). However, the present dissertation is primarily

concerned with the cultural differences between Arab project managers and British project managers. Since the organisational support products noted by the PMPQ model are relevant but will add too much breadth and complexity to this study, they have been omitted and only the planning processes/products are incorporated.

- **Proposition 1 – Scope** will possibly relate to the Environment (Milosevic, 2002; Lane et al, 2005). The British Mastery orientation (Lane et al, 2005) favours a specific description of goals and activities (Lane et al, 2005), whereas Arab Subjugation orientations prefer vague definitions (Lane et al, 2005).

   H1: The British sample will appraise scope planning products higher than the Arab sample.

- **Proposition 2 – Time** planning elements are expected to relate to Environment and Time (Monochronic/Polychronic) variables (Milosevic, 1999; 2002; Walker et al, 2003; Lane et al, 2005). As in Proposition one, the British culture is Mastery-oriented, whilst the Arab culture has a Subjugation orientation (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999; Lane et al, 2005). British project managers are likely to be precise and prefer orderly planning since their culture is Monochronic (Ball et al, 1998; Shachaf, 2008), whereas the

Arab culture is Polychronic which concerns a prevalence for spontaneity (Hall, 1960; Lane et al, 2005).

H2: In contrast to the Arab sample, time planning products will be rated higher by the British sample.

- **Proposition 3 – Cost** is likely to be associated with the Environment and Activity variables (Milosevic, 1999; Lane et al, 2005). As well as the British Mastery nature (Lane et al, 2005), resources should be carefully considered due to a Controlling (Walker et al, 2003) or Doing (Lane et al, 2005) activity orientation. The Arab Being orientation (Walker et al, 2003; Lane et al, 2005) in contrast favours adaptability and imprecise criteria (Milosevic, 1999).

H3: British ratings for cost planning products will be higher than Arab ratings.

2.4.4 Planning Variables

While the PMPQ model appears to be the only model available to assess the quality of project planning, numerous other planning processes have been noted in the literature. These include Value Engineering (VE), Control Procedures (Meredith and Mantel, 2006), Employee Training Plans (Turner, 1999; Meredith and Mantel, 2006)**,**

"Planning the Planning" (Laufer and Tucker, 1987), Learning from Historical Information (Gardiner and Ritchie, 1999), Information Distribution (Laufer and Tucker, 1987; Gardiner and Ritchie, 1999; Shtub et al, 2005), Establishing Evaluation Procedures (Laufer and Tucker, 1987; Meredith and Mantel, 2006), Risk Identification, Risk Analysis, Risk Response (Turner, 1999; PMI, 2004), and Establishing Quality Assurance Metrics (Shtub et al, 2005).

The PMPQ model covered certain aspects related to Risk and Quality, yet Shtub et al (2005) note the importance of establishing quality assurance metrics and the PMI (2004) brings attention to other risk aspects such as analysis and contingency planning.

- **Proposition 4 – Risk** is associated with UA (Keil et al, 2000; Binder, 2007). The Arab culture has a high UA score (Hofstede, 1983), which indicates higher risk awareness (Keil et al, 2000). The opposite is true for low UA cultures (Keil et al, 2000) such as the British culture (Gupta and Hanges, 2004).

   H4: The Arab sample will rate risk planning higher than the British sample.

- **Proposition 5 – Quality** is expected to be connected to Time (past, present, future) (Milosevic, 1999) and Activity orientations (Milosevic, 1999; Walker et al, 2003). Both British and Arab cultures consider the Past (Feghali, 1997;

Hurn, 2007; Galanti, 2008), yet the British culture is Controlling (Walker et al, 2003) or Doing (Lane et al, 2005) in its orientation which may influence the efficiency of quality measures (Milosevic, 1999). Metrics in Being orientations, such as in the Arab culture (Walker et al, 2003; Lane et al, 2005), are likely to change continuously (Milosevic, 1999).

H5: British ratings will be higher than Arab ratings for quality planning

This dissertation also notes the importance for PM planning of a large number of related areas such as Innovation, Technology, Value Planning (VP), Procurement System Selection, Contractor Selection, Performance Reporting, Project Structure, Team Planning and Leading the Planning. Some are connected to the updated 52 knowledge areas of APM's Fifth edition (2006), for example, Stakeholder management, Technology management, Learning and Development, and Project Office. In order to direct the formation of hypotheses, all of the planning items mentioned in this chapter were arranged into eleven appropriate variables (See Table 5) and then related to the noted NC variables based on the available literature (See Table 6). The planning items were arranged into variables based on the PMI's (2004) definitions of the nine PM knowledge areas. For instance, "Planning the Planning" refers to the planning stage as a whole, i.e. the level of detail, effort, time and centralisation required (Laufer and Tucker, 1987), which seems to be compatible with Project Integration Management since this "...is concerned with the identification, monitoring, and control of all interfaces..." (Shtub et al, 2005: 53). The Integration

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variable should also incorporate Evaluation Procedures and Control Procedures consistent with Meredith and Mantel's (2006) inclusion of establishing procedures to monitor, evaluate and control the project.

- **Proposition 6 - Integration** items are likely to interact with the Environment variable due to variations in project control (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999; Lane et al, 2005) and the Time variable (both scales) as a result of preparation differences (Hall and Hall, 1990; Lane et al, 2005). The British have a Monochronic (Ball et al, 1998; Shachaf, 2008) and Mastery orientation (Lane et al, 2005), suggesting strict control and clearly defined initial planning. They also appreciate "learning from the past" (Galanti, 2008). The Arab culture likewise has a Past time orientation (Feghali, 1997; Hurn, 2007), yet a flexible and lenient approach can be anticipated given that the Arab culture has been classified as Polychronic (Hall, 1960; Lane et al, 2005) and values Subjugation to nature (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999; Lane et al, 2005).

    H6: In comparison to the Arab sample, the British sample will rate integration items higher.

Value management (VM) is not covered by the PMI's knowledge areas (Morris and Pinto, 2007) although it is noted by the APM (2006) under "Planning the Strategy". Therefore VM was grouped on its own, along with Innovation and Technology. VP

and VE were categorised under the VM variable, which also included Learning from historical information as this overlaps with Value Analysis (VA). VE was mentioned by Meredith and Mantel (2006) with reference to project plans and approaches in evaluating whether there is a better/cheaper mode of accomplishing the same action. However, VP could also be of significance. According to the HM Treasury (1996), value should be planned from its inception for all to know exactly what the project entails. VP techniques refer to defining and verifying requirements, objectives, priorities, such as ranking shareholder priorities in order of importance (Kelly et al, 2004). It is therefore possible that culture will affect this activity (Norburn et al, 1990).

- **Proposition 7 - Value Management** is likely to relate to the Specific/Diffuse and PD dimensions since Overby (2005) implies that specific and diffuse cultures vary in their analyses and customer-focus philosophies such as creating value are likely to work well in low PD cultures. Both Arab and British cultures have medium PDs (Carl et al, 2004; Gupta and Hanges, 2004) but the Specific orientation of the UK (Binder, 2007) implies a greater concern to engage in detailed analysis and validate decisions (Overby, 2005). The Diffuse nature of the Arab culture (Hale and Whitlam, 1999) is spontaneous and takes more of a holistic approach (Overby, 2005).

  H7: The British sample will rate value management items higher than the Arab sample.

Innovation in PM has received much recent attention (e.g. Keegan and Turner, 2002; Martinsuo et al, 2006; Hobbs et al, 2008). Hobbs et al (2006) studied the nature of innovation behind the creation of project management offices (PMOs). This concerns the planning stage since the PMO may facilitate project planning. Innovation could also refer to refreshing planning techniques or revising and even scrapping particular plans replacing them with new ones, such as in searching for novel methods and approaches. Many of the planning techniques employed deploy technology (e.g. Primavera). This is obviously important, especially since planning software has increased in recent years (Gardiner and Ritchie, 1999). Gardiner and Ritchie (1999) investigated the use of virtual reality as a method of improving project planning. In this technology supported setting, the role of innovation and technology in planning is central. Hence, applications of innovative technology to PM packages (e.g. representing and sharing project information) were proposed (Gardiner and Ritchie, 1999).

- **Proposition 8 - Innovation and Technology** is connected to Mastery-oriented cultures (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999) and is greatest in low PD (Hofstede, 2001; Steers et al, 2005) and low UA cultures (Hofstede, 2001; Binder, 2007). The UK has lower PD (Carl et al, 2004) and UA (Gupta and Hanges, 2004) scores than the Arab culture.

  H8: British ratings for Innovation and Technology items will be higher than Arab ratings.

Procurement management plans were included in the PMPQ model, yet selecting the most appropriate procurement system (e.g. Traditional, Design and Build, Management Contracting) and deciding on how contractors will be selected (e.g. based on price, expertise, location) may also be considered in the planning stage. In the same way, communication management plans were included in the PMPQ model and information distribution was also noted by Shtub et al (2005), and the way in which members should report performance can be decided early on during the planning phase.

- **Proposition 9 – Procurement** items are expected to be connected to Human Nature since variations relate to an adversarial approach (Evil) or a proactive approach (Good) to procurement (Milosevic, 1999). The Good Human Nature orientation of the Arab culture (Lane et al, 2005) views partnering positively (Milosevic, 1999) but the Mixed Human Nature orientation of the British culture (Lane et al, 2005) prefers to establish relations based on prior experience (Milosevic, 1999). Additionally, Diffuse cultures such as the Arab culture are likely to place greater emphasis on long-term relationships (Hale and Whitlam, 1999), whilst the British Specific culture (Binder, 2007) opts for multiple contractual relationships (Hale and Whitlam, 1999).

  H9: Arab ratings will be higher than British ratings for procurement planning.

- **Proposition 10 – Communication** is linked to UA (Overby, 2005), PD (Lane et al, 2005) and Space (Milosevic, 1999; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005; Lussier and Achua, 2009). Due to the overlap between this planning variable and several cultural variables, both cultures may make similar appraisals of the extent communication elements are used when project planning. The Arab culture has a Public orientation (Hall, 1960) involving open communication but the British culture is low UA (Hofstede, 1983) entailing information sharing. Both cultures also have medium PDs (Carl et al, 2004; Gupta and Hanges, 2004). Therefore, a null hypothesis is expressed.

  H10: There will be no difference between Arab and British ratings for communication elements.

Project structure is critical in PM (Moore, 2002) but even more so internationally (Ghoshal and Nohria, 1993). Moore (2002) asserts that a project manager should achieve the most appropriate project structure, which should differ to the primary organisational structure seeing that projects are complex and subject to dynamic change. This may refer to the choice between formal or informal planning procedures. Table 4 has illustrated that the cultural variable of Responsibility refers to individualistic, group and hierarchical orientations. Hence the structuring of the project may concern such notions.

Additionally, the project manager's leadership style in the planning stage will likely play a role. Turner (1999) declares that during the planning phase of the project, PD should be low since a close relationship is required between those doing the work and those whom are principally accountable for its achievement. The PMPQ model includes roles/responsibilities and project staff assignments within the HR knowledge area, yet it focuses on whether tasks/resources are assigned to project members. The importance of matching people with the right assignments has been pointed out by Amabile (1998), which is a similar concept of fit to the one asserted by Fiedler (1969, cited in Sadler, 2003) in his contingency theory of leadership. This implies that when planning the project the match between a project and project manager and/or team should be considered carefully. Investigating whether or not cultures differ in the importance attributed to team planning (e.g. creating teams with appropriate members) would be intriguing.

- **Proposition 11 – HR** items are expected to be associated with PD (Jackson, 2004; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005), Affectivity/Neutrality (Binder, 2007), Activity (Milosevic, 1999), Universalism/Particularism (Binder, 2007) and Responsibility (Grinbergs and Rubenstein, 1993; Milosevic, 1999; Lane et al, 2005). The British culture is Universalist (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998) so clear procedures and practices are likely to be established. The Controlling or Doing culture of the UK also handles resources better than the Being orientation of the Arab culture (Walker et al, 2003; Lane et al, 2005). However, the Arab culture is Affective (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999;

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Nydell, 2006) and has a higher Group orientation (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005), which should facilitate close involvement between team members. Along with Proposition 10, a degree of commonality exists. Hence, the hypothesis is stated in the null form.

H11: There will be no difference between Arab and British ratings for HR planning.

Table 5. Variables in the Planning Stage of the Project

Integration	Scope	Time planning	Cost	Quality	HR	Risk	Procurement	Communication	VM	Innovation/ Technology
1. **Project Plan** (PMPQ Model).	1. **Project Deliverables** (PMPQ model).	1. **Project Activities** (PMPQ model).	1. **Resource Planning** (PMPQ model).	1. **Quality plan** (PMPQ model).	1. **Role/ Responsibility Assignments** (PMPQ model)	1. **Risk Plan** (PMPQ model).	1. **Procurement Plan** (PMPQ model).	1. **Communication Plan** (PMPQ model).	1. **VP** (Researcher).	1. **PMO** (Researcher)
2. **Control Procedures** (Meredith and Mantel, 2006).*	2. **WBS** (PMPQ model).	2. **PERT or Gantt chart** (PMPQ model).	2. **Resource Costs** (PMPQ model).	2. **Establish Quality Assurance Metrics** (Shtub et al, 2005).*	2. **Project staff Assignments** (PMPQ model).	2. **Risk Id** (PMI, 2004).*	2. **Procurement System Selection** (Researcher).	2. **Information Distribution** (Laufer and Tucker, 1987; Gardiner and Ritchie, 1999; Shtub et al, 2005).*	2. **VE** (Meredith and Mantel, 2006).*	2. **Software** (Researcher)
3. **Establish Evaluation Procedures** (Laufer and Tucker, 1987; Meredith and Mantel, 2006).*		3. **Activity Duration Estimates** (PMPQ model).	3. **Time-phased Budget** (PMPQ model).		3. **Employee Training** (Turner, 1999; Meredith and Mantel, 2006)*	3. **Risk Analysis** (PMI, 2004).*	3. **Contractor Selection** (Researcher).	3. **Reporting Performance** (Researcher).	3. **Learning from Historical Info** (Gardiner and Ritchie, 1999).*	3. **Updates** (Researcher)
4. **Planning the Planning** (Laufer and Tucker, 1987).*		4. **Schedule Developmnt** (PMPQ model).			4. **Team Formation Plan** (Researcher).	4. **Risk Response** (PMI, 2004).*				
					5. **Leading the Planning** (Researcher).					
					6. **Project Structure** (Researcher).					

*Item developed by the researcher based on ideas from other sources.

Table 6. The link between NC and Planning Variables.

Planning: / Cultural Variables:	Integration	Scope	Time planning	Cost	Quality	Risk	Procurement	HR	Communication	VM	Innovation/ Technology
Environment	Loosemore and Al-Muslmani (1999); Lane et al (2005).	Milosevic (2002); Lane et al (2005).	Milosevic (2002); Lane et al (2005).	Milosevic (1999); Lane et al (2005).							Loosemore and Al-Muslmani (1999).
Time (Both scales)	Hall and Hall (1990); Lane et al (2005).		Milosevic (1999); Walker et al (2003); Lane et al (2005).		Milosevic (1999).						
Human Nature							Milosevic (1999).				
Activity				Milosevic (1999).	Milosevic (1999); Walker et al (2003).			Milosevic (1999).			
Responsibility								Grinbergs and Rubenstein (1993); Milosevic (1999); Lane et al (2005).			
Space									Lane et al (2005).		
Power Distance								Jackson (2004); Hofstede and Hofstede (2005).	Milosevic (1999); Hofstede and Hofstede (2005); Lussier and Achua (2009);.	Overby (2005).	Hofstede (2001); Steers et al (2005).
Uncertainty Avoidance						Keil et al (2000); Binder (2007).			Overby (2005).		Hofstede (2001); Binder (2007).
Universalism/ Particularism								Binder (2007).			
Affectivity/ Neutrality								Binder (2007).			
Specific/ Diffuse							Hale and Whitlam (1999).			Overby (2005).	

2.5 Literature Summary

The previous research sections satisfied the following dissertation objectives.

a. *Develop a theoretical understanding of NC*: The topic of NC has received a great deal of attention from the management literature. Cultural differences will affect business operations abroad (Hall, 1960). In section 2.2.2, six cultural variables (Environment, Time (past, present, future), Activity, Relationship, Human Nature and Space) from Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) were examined, along with Hofstede's (1983) PD and UA dimensions, and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's (1998) Universalism-Particularism, Affectivity-Neutrality and Specific-Diffuse variables. However, NC research has been criticised (e.g. Ajiferuke and Boddewyn, 1970; Wang, 2001; Shweder, 2002; Tayeb, 2005; Cohen, 2009). These problems and limitations were also discussed.

b. *Examine the Arab and British NC*: The literature review identified numerous differences between the British NC and the Arab NC. The British NC is Individualistic, Masculine, Short-term oriented, and low on both PD and UA dimensions, yet the Arab NC is Collective, Masculine, and scores high on PD and UA dimensions ((Hofstede, 1983; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). The main distinctions with the Arab region include PD, UA, and I-C. Nevertheless, findings from Hofstede and GLOBE vary, i.e. Hofstede found

that the Arab NC scores high on the PD dimension, whereas GLOBE states a medium PD score. Interestingly, there were several similarities between both NCs (e.g. Masculinity scores) and Al Gurg (UAE Ambassador to UK, cited in Nag 2008) claimed that "The old English way of life had so much in common with the Arab dignity of life".

c. *Investigate prior research on the link between NC and PM*: An inspection of the literature suggests that this is an area requiring more research, with many researchers recommending further work (e.g. Shore and Cross, 2005). Nevertheless, studies showing that NC can play a role in PM were uncovered (e.g. Yasin et al, 1997; Zwikael et al, 2005; Devine, 2007; Ochieng and Price, 2009; Zwikael, 2009; Debony, 2010). For example, Planning, Cost, Risk, Communication may differ based on NC variables such as Time, Environment, Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance. The importance of this field of research was described in section 2.3.2.

d. *Connect NC variables with PM concepts and techniques:* Both Milosevic (1999; 2002) and Lane et al (2005) have connected NC variables with many PM concepts/methods. These were illustrated in Table 4, along with other pieces of research indicating a relationship. The NC variables of Environment, Time, Activity, Space, Relationship, Human Nature, PD, UA, Affectivity-Neutrality, Specific-Diffuse, Universalism-Particularism, were connected to

differences in Planning, Scheduling, Budgeting, Quality, Procurement, Innovation, Communication, etc.

e. *Explore the ways in which Arab project managers differ to British project managers while planning the project:* Section 2.2.3 and 2.2.4 highlighted several differences between Arab and British project managers. Arab project managers tend to form less detailed plans, focus on immediate events, and prefer to deal with multiple issues at once, whereas British project managers like to spend a great deal of time and effort planning the project and prefer a systematic approach. Differences were also linked to risk management and communication.

f. *Critique the PMPQ model for accuracy:* This seems to be the only model that exists for evaluating the quality of project planning (Zwikael and Globerson, 2004). However, the PMPQ model includes Organisational Support components, which would have added too much breadth and complexity to this dissertation study. Thus, only planning processes were incorporated. Other planning processes that were not included by the PMPQ model were also looked at since numerous planning aspects have been noted in the literature (Section 2.4.4).

g. *Search for additional planning processes (Not included in the PMPQ model):* An examination of planning management literature indicated that planning the planning, value management, technology/innovation, control and evaluation

procedures, employee training and so on are related to the planning stage of

the project. These were therefore included in the planning variables (Table 5).

3. Methodology

The methodology chapter provides information on the selected research design and the alternative design approaches considered at the outset. A research model and questionnaire were created for this dissertation research, which are described in this section. Furthermore, details on the pilot study, the sample's inclusion criteria, the research procedures and method of analyses are given.

3.1 Research Design

A structured survey method was chosen since this is an appropriate and timely approach to compare Arab and British project planning according to enduring variables on national culture and more recent planning ones created based on the literature in PM. Several questions were formed using the PMPQ model (See Appendix 2) since this is the only measure that exists for analysing the quality of a project's planning (Zwikael and Globerson, 2004; Zwikael et al, 2005). Both the reliability (α0.91 and α0.93) and the validity ($p<0.01$) of the model have been illustrated in several of the authors' papers (e.g. Zwikael and Globerson, 2004:1551; Zwikael at al, 2005: 457; Zwikael and Globerson, 2006:691).

3.2 Alternative Designs

Various research methods exist, which were considered at the initial stage of this dissertation research in the proposal. An alternative method of researching the aims and objectives would have been for Arab and British project managers to each keep a diary and then to compare recordings. However, project managers may feel anxious about logging confidential work. In addition, this qualitative method of participant diary research would take longer (Coolican, 1999) and was thought inappropriate when considering the dissertation's time constraints.

Another approach is participant observation. The researcher could have observed Arab and British project managers at work and noted any similarities and/or differences. Yet, the main limitation of this is observer bias; in particular the researcher's knowledge and existing experience of the NC may affect interpretation. Again, project managers may feel uncomfortable with this research method/design and subsequently change their usual behaviour. Furthermore, this field research is also a time-consuming method (Coolican, 1999) and the observer would not be able to observe several different project managers at the same time.

3.3 Research Model

The following research model was created for further clarification.
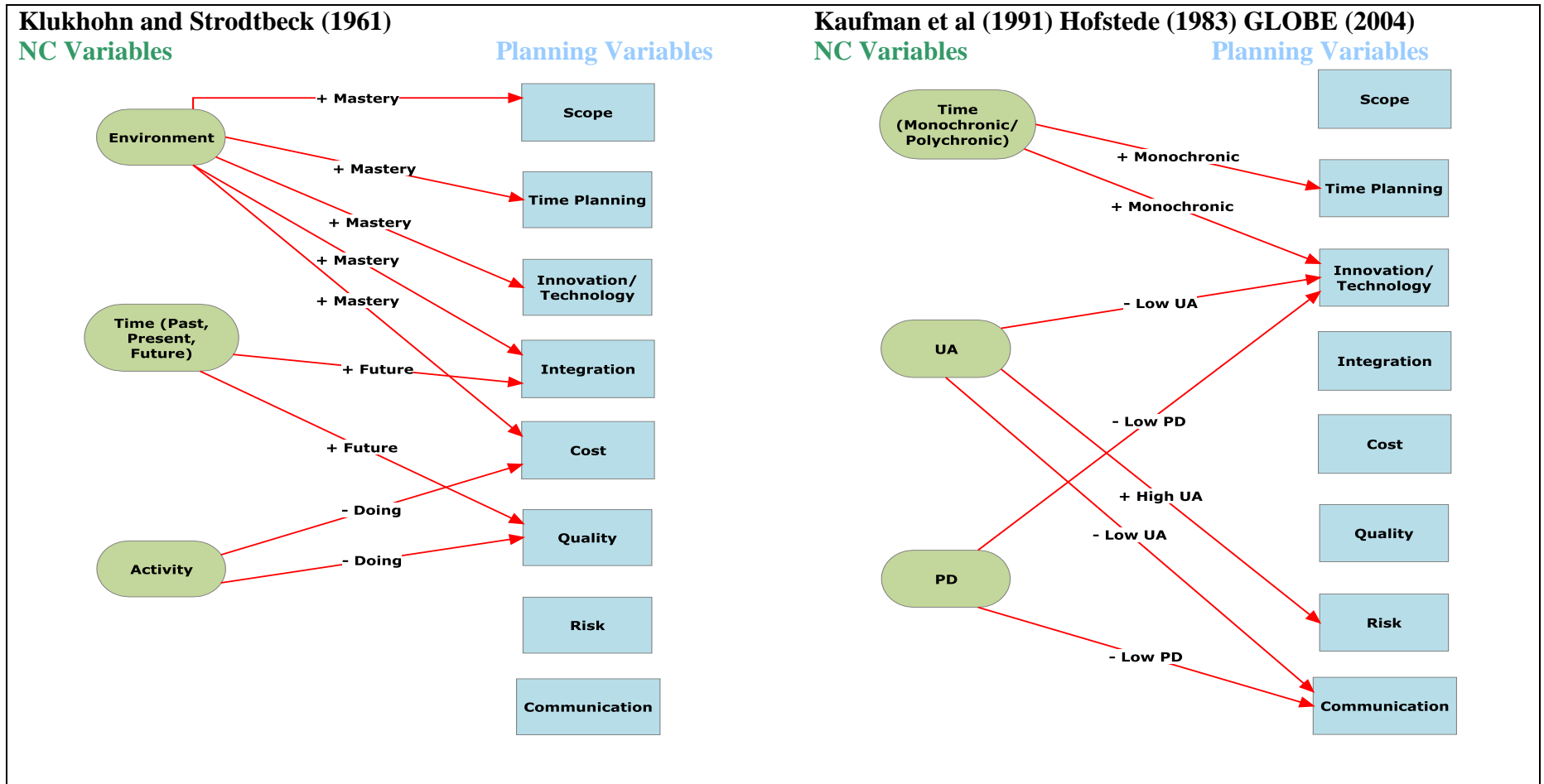
Figure 6. A Research Model of NC and Project Planning.

The figure above was created from the propositions of the previous chapter and the researchers in Table 6. It demonstrates that several planning variables (Time planning, Integration, Quality, Cost, Innovation/Technology, and Communication) could be influenced by more than one NC variable. Furthermore, the Environment variable appears to have an effect on five of the planning variables, i.e. Scope, Time planning, Integration, Cost, and Innovation/Technology.

Based on such connections and the orientations of each NC, this dissertation was able to predict in the hypotheses the planning variables likely to be rated higher by each NC. Arab participants are more likely to rate the Risk (Low UA) variable higher. British participants however are likely to rate Scope (Mastery), Time planning (Mastery and Monochronic), Integration (Mastery), Quality (Doing), Cost (Mastery and Doing), and Innovation/Technology (Mastery, Monochronic, Low UA) variables higher. No difference was predicted for Communication ratings since both NCs have a medium PD according to Gupta and Hanges (2004).

3.4 Study Sample

A convenience sample was used to collect data from the two distinct national cultures. A total number of 100 Arab employees and 100 British employees took part in the study. Feghali (1997) has noted the problems of effectively studying the Arab culture, i.e. Arabic should be the mother tongue language and one must consider themselves an Arab. Therefore, the inclusion criteria for the Arab sample were i)

Arab classification and ii) Arabic mother tongue. Similarly, the inclusion criteria for the British sample were i) British identification and ii) English first language. If data referred to any other language or nationality, it was excluded from analysis.

This will take:

> ... into consideration people outside the region who identify with and take pride in the Arabic language, customs and historical accomplishments…it accounts for native Arabic speakers…who do not identify themselves as Arab…
>
> <div align="right">(Feghali, 1997:350)</div>

3.5 Study Instrument

A research contract (See Appendix 3) was constructed to guarantee confidentiality and obtain informed consent. In the previous section, Obj f. "*Critique the PMPQ model for accuracy"* and Obj g. *"Search for additional planning processes (Not included in the PMPQ model)"* were achieved. The researcher therefore advanced onto Obj h. *"Develop a survey to assess the integrity of such planning processes".* In order to develop the questionnaire, cultural items had to be retrieved from the relevant authors. This proved quite difficult since Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) cultural items are only available in their *Value Orientation* (1961) book, which was unavailable in the UAE and could only be traced back to one UK library. The book then had to be requested from Cardiff public Library and forwarded on to the UAE.

A questionnaire (See Appendix 2) was constructed containing all questions from each of the researcher's cultural variables, i.e. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961); Kaufman et al (1991); Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998); Hofstede (1983; 2001); GLOBE (2004). However, the questionnaire was lengthy when combined with all of the planning items. Unfortunately, these researchers have constructed very long questions, particularly in the case of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) cultural items.

Due to the impracticality of retaining such a large number of items, due to the likelihood of causing respondent fatigue, a decision was made regarding the number of questions to include. The researcher decided to revisit the propositions and hypotheses to check which cultural dimensions appeared most often. Environment, Time, Activity, PD, and UA variables were more noticeable so the related planning variables of Integration, Scope, Time planning, Cost, Quality, Communication, Risk, and Innovation and Technology were included in the final questionnaire. Although the Communication variable also related to Space (See Table 5), Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) did not create any items for this cultural variable. Another approach considered was to include one question for each cultural variable; however results could be criticised for not testing the variable thoroughly. Thus, the hypothesis-directed method was chosen. Table 7 shows the eight hypotheses from the previous chapter to be tested, along with the related Planning and NC variables. Models have also been created for each the hypotheses (Appendix 4).

Table 7. Final Hypotheses.

Number	Hypothesis	Planning Variable	Cultural Variable
1	The British sample will appraise scope planning products higher than the Arab sample.	Scope	Environment
2	In contrast to the Arab sample, time planning products will be rated higher by the British sample.	Time planning	Environment Time (Monochronic/ Polychronic)
3	British ratings for cost planning products will be higher than Arab ratings.	Cost	Environment Activity
4	The Arab sample will rate risk planning higher than the British sample.	Risk	UA
5	British ratings will be higher than Arab ratings for quality planning.	Quality	Time (Past, Present, Future) Activity
6	In comparison to the Arab sample, the British sample will rate integration items higher.	Integration	Environment Time (both)
8	British ratings for Innovation and Technology items will be higher than Arab ratings.	Innovation and Technology	Environment PD UA
10 N0	There will be no difference between Arab and British ratings for communication elements.	Communication	PD UA

N.B. Eight hypotheses reflecting their number from the original hypotheses made in the Literature Review.

N0 = Null hypothesis

The final questionnaire (See Appendix 5) contained four sections, each noted below. It comprised a total number of 63 questions. The questionnaire was also translated into Arabic to prevent any confusion with the jargon/phrases used.

- Part A- **Demographic and Career variables**: Sex, Age, Nationality, Language, Work Location, Industry, Project-based organisation, and PM qualification were measured using six different scales. These ranged between two points; Sex (Male/Female) and Project-based organisation (Yes/No), to ten points; Industry (Engineering/Construction/Services/IT/Banking/ Production/Media/Aeronautics).

- Part B – **The Planning products** referred to the 8 variables noted in Table 7 (Integration, Scope, Time planning, Cost, Quality, Risk, Communication, and Innovation and Technology). All 25 items were measured using a five-point Likert scale (Never, Rarely, Sometimes, Frequently, Always). From these items, 16 were obtained from Zwikael and Globerson's (2004) PMPQ model (See Appendix 2). These were planning products, which should be generated at the end of each specific planning process, e.g. a WBS should be generated from the scope definition process. Additional items were formulated by the researcher based on other sources of information (See Table 6). These were based on the same principle behind the PMPQ model, which proposes that the magnitude of the process is calculated using the product intensity data.

- Part C – **Project Success** included four questions. The first two looked at Schedule overruns (%) and Cost overruns (%). Then, a scale of 1-10 (Low-High) was used to measure the level of Performance and Client Satisfaction.

- Part D – **Culture** contained 26 questions, relating to the NC variables in Table 7. For PD and UA variables, items were retrieved from both Hofstede (2001) and Globe (2004). However, two of the PD items belonging to Hofstede's (2001) questionnaire were omitted since they entailed a considerable amount of reading. The scales used for each item were the same as the scales used by each of the authors' in their questionnaires. Therefore, if the author used a 5-point scale, the same 5-point scale was employed, or if the author used a 7-point scale then this was utilised.

  The cultural variable of Time is measured in two ways. The first way is based on monochronic and polychronic principles so Kaufman et al's (1991) polychronic scale was used. Responses were given on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly agree) to 5 (Strongly disagree).

  The second approach refers to Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) ideas of the Past, Present and Future. This along with Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) Environment and Activity variables were measured using their

scenario-type items (Nominal data). Questions however were shortened and two of their items were altered (See Appendix 2) to items retrieved from Hills (2002). For instance, one of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) Environment items referred to God/gods, which is inappropriate to use in the Arab context. In addition, one of the Time questions was shortened by using an item from Hills (2002). The following table indicates the NC variable tested in part D of the questionnaire.

Table 8. NC Variable and Item Number on Questionnaire

NC Variable	Item Number on Questionnaire and Author
UA	1 (Hofstede, 2001), 8-9 (GLOBE, 2004), 10 and 12 (Hofstede, 2001).
Time: Polychronic scale	2-5 (Kaufman et al, 1991).
PD	6-7 (GLOBE, 2004), 11 (Hofstede, 2001).
Activity	13-16 (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961).
Time: Past, Present, Future	17-20 (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961), 21 (Hills, 2002).
Environment	22-25 (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961), 26 (Hills, 2002).

3.6 Ethical Considerations

To comply with ethical guidelines, a proposal of the study was administered to the University supervisor and only continued once approval was granted. The noted inconvenience time for participants (measured in the pilot study) was approximately 25 minutes, which was explained in the research contract before agreement. All

participants were also informed via the consent form that they were able to withdraw from the study at anytime without penalty and that any information gleaned would be kept confidential.

3.7 Pilot Study

Firstly, questionnaires were piloted on 6 acquaintances (3 Arab and 3 British project managers) to ensure the clarity of instructions and questions. This helped the investigator gain experience with research administration, testing and scoring. The time to complete the questionnaire was also noted (20-25 minutes).

Questionnaires were first piloted on British participants so that any change could be correctly translated before piloting the questionnaire on the Arab project managers. Several changes were made to both the instructions and the wording of questions. One participant questioned the project lifecycle so the sentence "ONLY the planning stage" was underlined (in both the research contract and Part B – Planning). This would clarify that answers should only reflect the planning stage of the project. In "Part D – Culture", instructions for Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) questions were also altered since two participants said that they liked two of the three possible answers. Therefore the following words were underlined "the scenario/option you most agree with" and these were repeated on each page where Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's items followed. Two other questions from Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) were also altered. In question 15, one option stated "work no more than they

have to so they have time for social events/occasions" which confused one participant so this was altered to "work the basic hours so they..." Question 21 was also changed since option B "it is man's job to find ways..." offended one participant so "man" was altered to "an individual".

When piloting the Arabic translated questionnaire, a few changes were also made since there is a difficulty of translating certain PM phrases from English to Arabic (e.g. Work Breakdown Structure, Primavera, MS-Project). The translation proved quite problematic due to the classical and modern form of the Arabic language and also many English words have various meanings. In addition, the word "overrun" in Part C (Project Success) had not been translated so Arab project managers initially reported the percentage completed on-time/budget, yet they should have reported the percentage schedule/cost overrun. This was therefore altered.

3.8 Procedure

Contact with potential participants was either made directly, via email or by phone, in which they were asked if they would be interested in completing a questionnaire about project planning. Questionnaires were attached to all emails. Standardised instructions were administered on the top of each questionnaire and the research contract commenced each survey. Once completed, questionnaires were returned in-person or via email.

Data gathering was achieved over a period of four weeks. Planning processes, Project Success and Cultural variables were individually looked at for both samples of data. Relationships between Planning variables and NC variables were then tested. Analyses also checked for any significant differences between the Arab and British samples of data.

3.9 Method of Analysis

Both descriptive and inferential analyses of the data were calculated using SPSSv16.0. Tests were based on data being at the ordinal and nominal level. The data was checked for reliability using Cronbach's Alpha and PCA were also applied to examine item loadings. Several Spearman rho correlations, Pearson product-moment correlations, and Standard Multiple Regression analyses were performed on the data to highlight any relationships between the variables. In order to check for differences, both Mann-Whitney U tests and Independent t-tests were completed. The following assumptions (cited in Pallant, 2006) were also checked before conducting analyses.

- Random sample of data
- Data independently collected
- Normal distribution
- Homogeneity of variance

4. Results

Firstly, this chapter provides demographic details of this dissertation's sample and then the statistical tests noted in 3.9 are performed. These refer to the NC orientation of the Arab and British groups and the planning ratings given by each group. Differences are investigated using several Pearson chi-square, Mann-Whitney U, and Independent t-tests. Relationships between the Planning variables and the NC variables are inspected using both Spearman's rho and Pearson's r correlations. Subsequently, the results from the standard multiple regressions are presented. Finally, PCA is performed on the initial Planning and NC variables.

4.1 Demographics

A total number of 200 participants took part in this investigation. The following table reflects the sample distribution according to the demographic variables. Table 9 indicates that there was an equal number of Arab and British respondents, yet a higher number of males than females. Nevertheless, this was similar for both Arab and British groups (Table 10).

Table 9. Sample Description

	Sex	Age	ID	Language	Work Location	Industry	Project Org.	PM Qualified
Male	152							
Female	48							
Less Than 25		23						
25 – 35		88						
36 – 46		47						
47 – 57		31						
58 or Above		11						
British			100					
Arab			100					
English				100				
Arabic				100				
UAE					108			
UK					92			
YES							189	
NO							11	
Engineering						90		
Construction						39		
Services						38		
IT/Software						5		
Communications						1		
Banking/Insurance						19		
Production						1		
Media						4		
Other						3		
PM Qualification								76
No PM Qualification								124
Total	200	200	200	200	200	200	200	200

The majority of participants were aged between 25-35 years old and worked in the Engineering

industry (Table 9). The other two main industries were Construction and then Services.

Table 10. The Number of Males and Females for Arab and British Data.

Identification / Sex	Arab	British	Total
Male	74	78	152
Female	26	22	48
Total	100	100	200

The following table shows that the majority of British participants were from

Engineering, yet Arab participants came from a range of industries with the highest

response rate from the IT/Software sector.

Table 11. Arab and British Industry Numbers

Identification / Industry	Arab	British	Total
Engineering	23	67	90
Construction	15	24	39
IT/Software	36	2	38
Services	3	2	5
Communications	0	1	1
Banking/Insurance	19	0	19
Production/Process	1	0	1
Media	1	3	4
Other	2	1	3
Total	100	100	200

Results also showed that in comparison to British respondents, a higher number of

Arab participants were PM qualified (Table 12).

Table 12. PM Qualification for Arab and British Participants

Identification \ Qualification	Arab	British	Total
PM Qualified	44	32	76
Not PM Qualified	56	68	124
Total	100	100	200

4.2 Cultural Orientation

This dissertation intended to *"Statistically analyse differences between Arab and British NC responses"* (Obj k.). Part D of the questionnaire considered the cultural variables, which would illustrate whether propositions were based on accurate information concerning Arab and British orientations.

The following table shows responses for each Activity item. A 2x2 cross-tabulation provided the following information. Both samples answered three out of four items with a Being orientation.

Table 13: Arab and British Responses for each Activity Item

Activity Variable Item	Arab Response Rate	British Response Rate
Activity 13	59% BEING	78% DOING
Activity 14	59% BEING	80% BEING
Activity 15	69% DOING	62% BEING
Activity 16	76% BEING	67% BEING

Proportions were further examined via a chi-square test (Appendix 6), which was non-significant ($p>0.05$). However for the Activity variable overall, Arab and British responses seem to be mixed (Table 14).

Table 14: Arab and British Overall Activity Response

Score / ID	4 Doing	5 Doing	6 Mix	7 Being	8 Being	Total
Arab	0	12	55	29	4	100
British	1	12	47	37	4	100
Total	1	24	101	66	8	200

A 2x3 cross-tabulation examined responses for the Time variable (Table 15).

Identification (Arab/British) was compared to Time responses (Past/Present/Future).

Table 15: Arab and British Responses for each Time Item

Time Variable Item	Arab Response Rate	British Response Rate
Time 17	57% PRESENT	51% FUTURE
Time 18	43% FUTURE	63% FUTURE
Time 19	52% PRESENT	57% FUTURE
Time 20	55% PRESENT	54% FUTURE
Time 21	45% FUTURE	68% PRESENT

The majority of the British group answered four out of five questions with a Future-oriented response, yet the majority of the Arab sample answered three out of five questions with a Present-oriented response. The other two items were Future-oriented. Figure 7 for the Time variable demonstrates that a greater number of British participants are found towards the future end of the scale, whereas a higher number of Arab participants are in the middle. Therefore, the majority of the British group have a Future orientation and the majority of the Arab group have a Present orientation. A Pearson chi-square test (Appendix 6) also confirms findings [X^2=31.441, p<0.001].
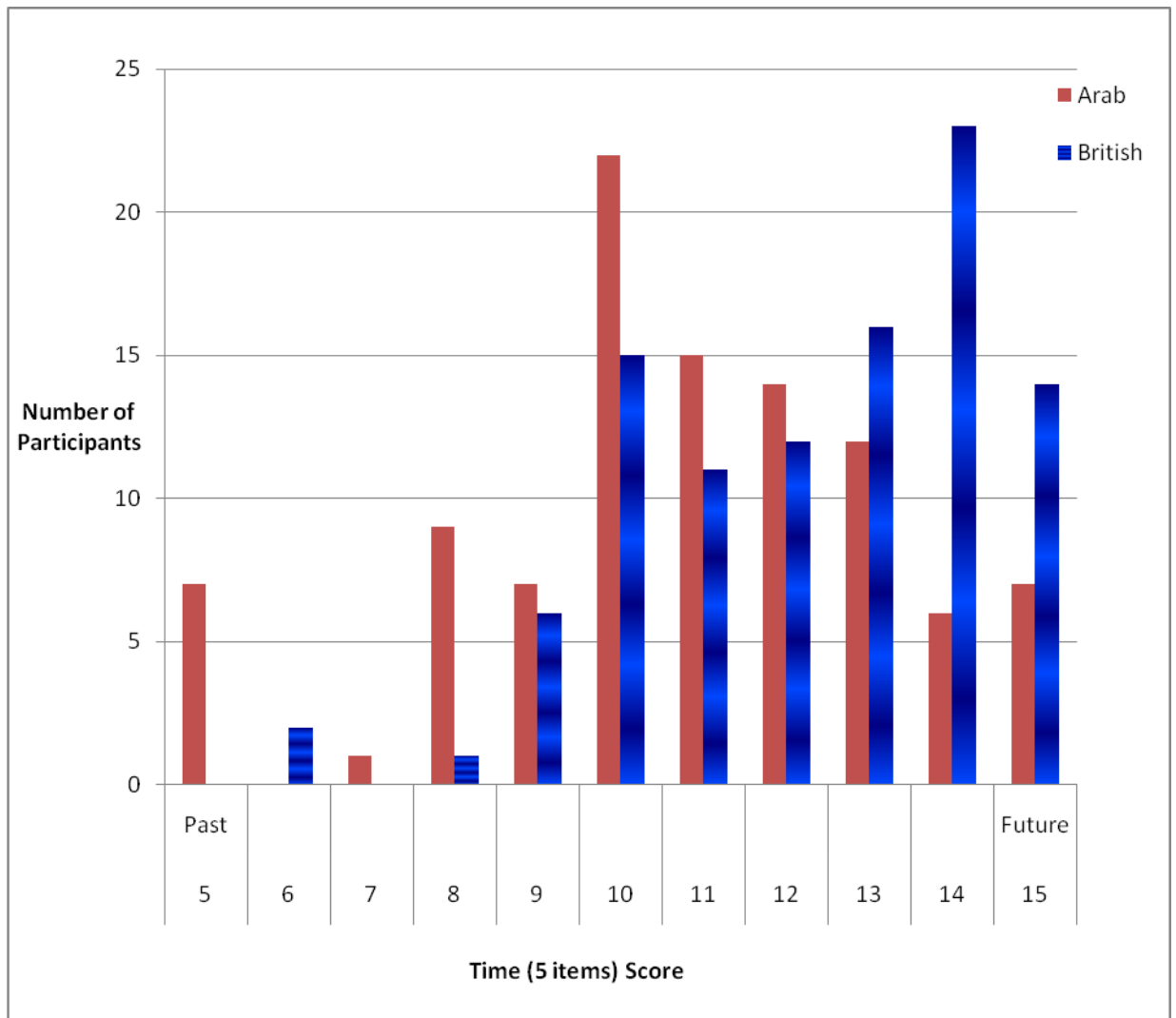
Figure 7: Arab and British Overall Time Response

Again, a 2x3 cross-tabulation was performed on Environment items (Table 16). This

considered Identification (Arab/British) with Environment

(Subjugation/Harmony/Mastery) and demonstrates that the majority of British

respondents answered all five questions with a Mastery orientation, whereas the

majority of Arab respondents answered four out of five questions with a Subjugation orientation.

Table 16: Arab and British Responses for each Environment Item

Environment Variable Item	Arab Response Rate	British Response Rate
Environment 22	57% SUBJUGATION	61% MASTERY
Environment 23	60% SUBJUGATION	51% MASTERY
Environment 24	46% SUBJUGATION	59% MASTERY
Environment 25	65% SUBJUGATION	68% MASTERY
Environment 26	36% HARMONY	69% MASTERY

Overall, Figure 8 shows that greater numbers of Arab participants are found in the Subjugation end of the scale, whereas higher numbers of British participants are found in the Mastery end of the scale. This was also found significant [$X^2 = 52.421$, $p<0.001$] by Pearson chi-square (Appendix 6). Therefore, both groups differ on Environment and Time variables.
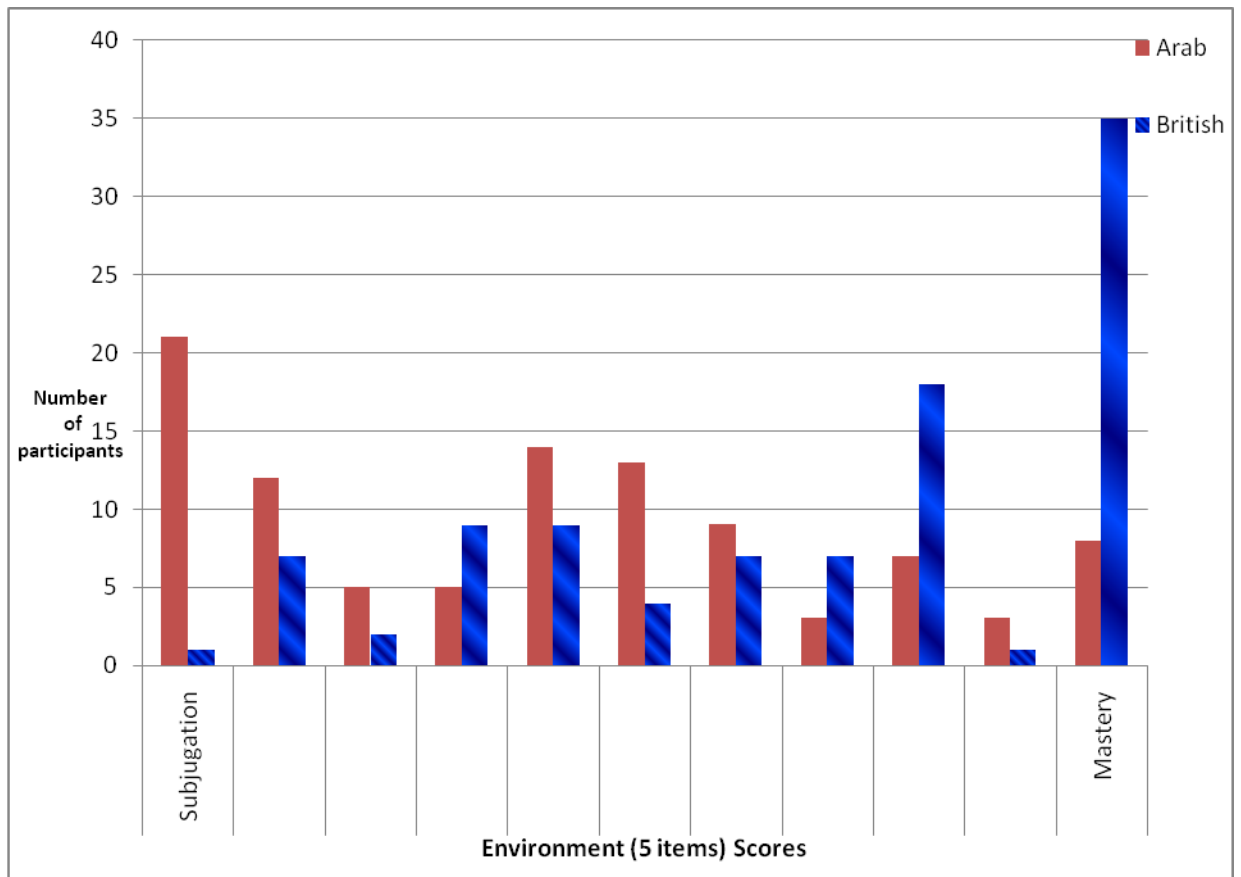
Figure 8: Arab and British Overall Environment Response

For Polychronic/Monochronic (Figure 9), PD (Figure 10), and UA (Figure 11) variables, questions provided ordinal data (Appendix 7). The Arab group scores low on the Polychronic scale, medium on the PD scale and high on the UA scale. Therefore, findings show that the majority of the Arab group have a medium PD (53%), a high UA (62%) and are Polychronic (73%).
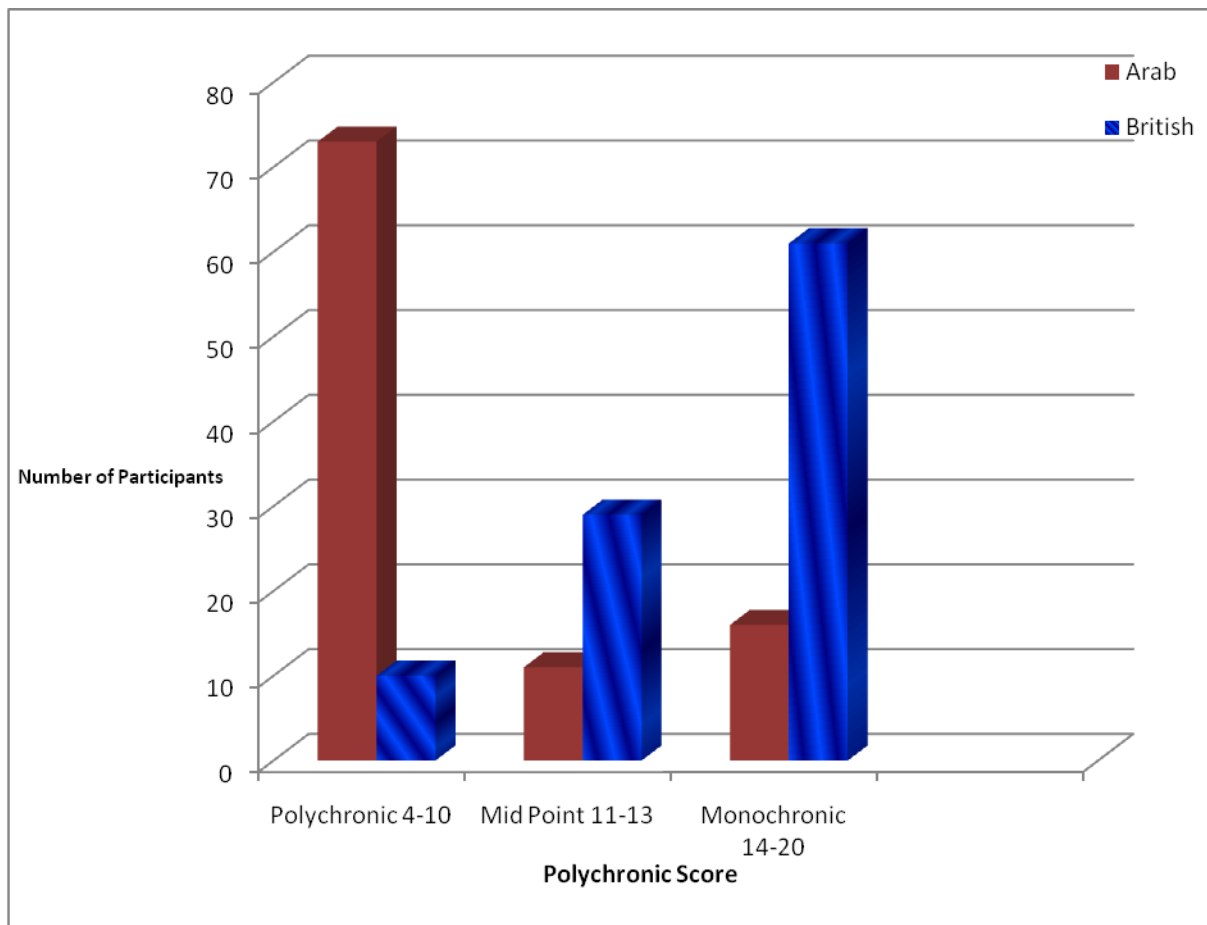
Figure 9: Arab and British Polychronic and Monochronic Orientations

On the other hand, the British group scores high on the Polychronic scale, medium on the UA scale and low on the PD scale. Hence, the British sample are Monochronic (61%), have a low PD (71%) and a medium UA (46%). Nevertheless, 42% of the British group have a low UA.
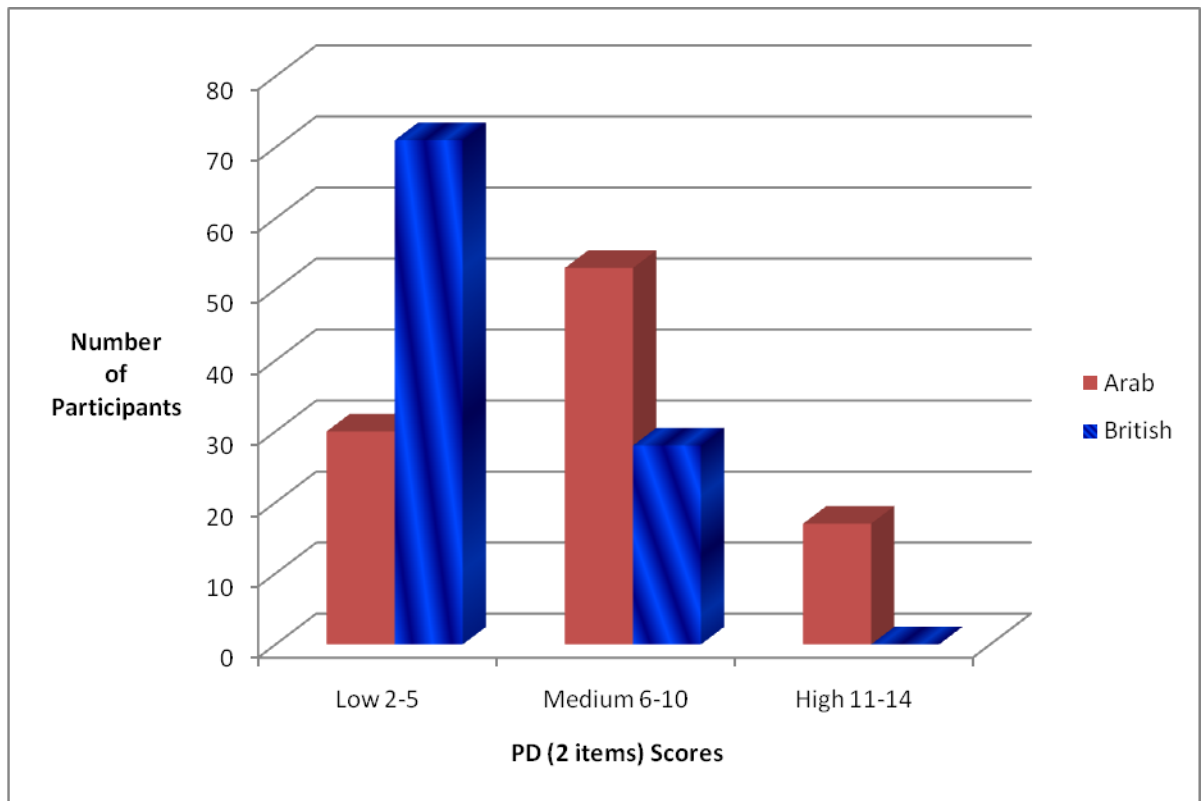
Figure 10: Arab and British Power Distance Scores

Such data was also checked by Pearson chi-squares (Appendix 7). Statistics show

significant values for Polychronic [$X^2 = 111.7$, $p<0.001$], PD [$X^2=54.295$, $p<0.001$],

and UA [$X^2=91.064$, $p<0.001$] variables. Both NCs differ on Polychronic, PD and UA

scales.
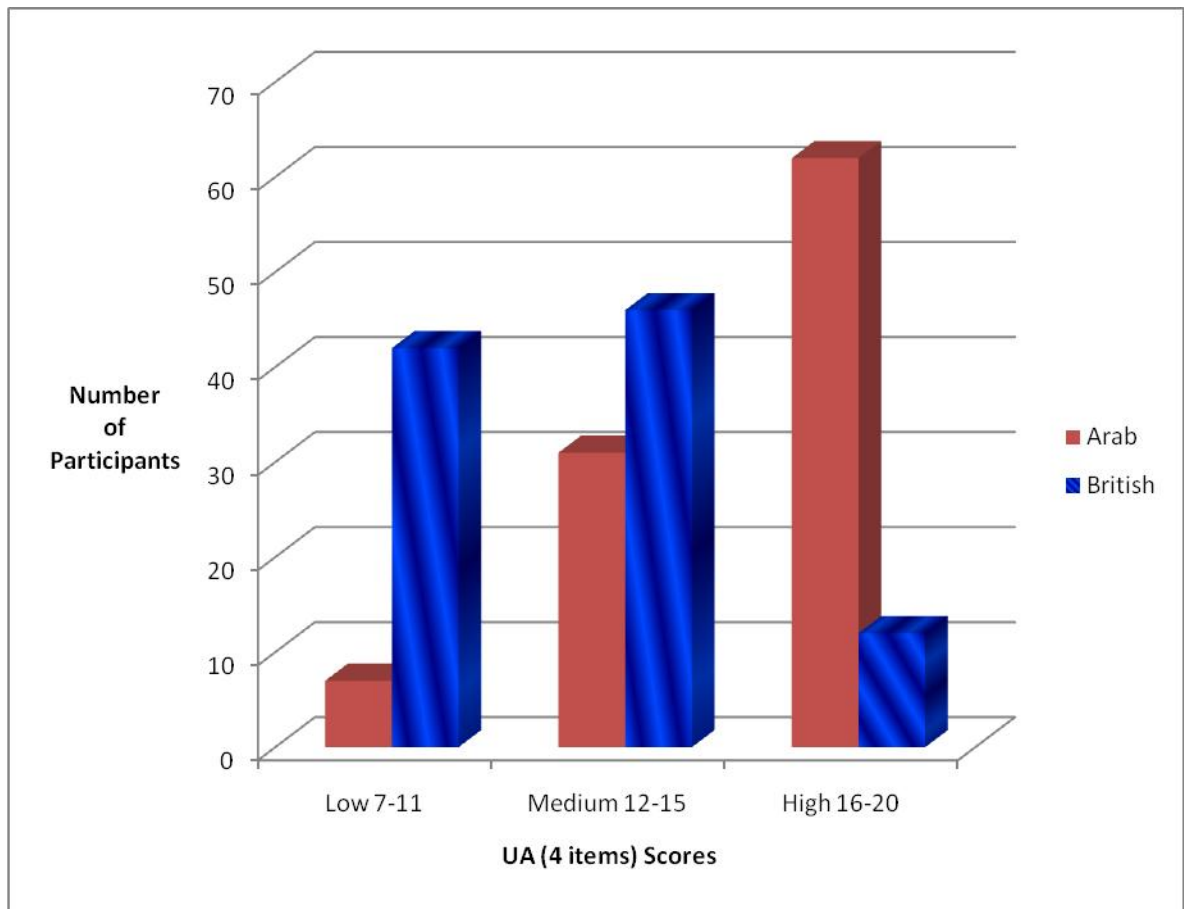
Figure 11: Arab and British Uncertainty Avoidance Scores

4.3 Planning Ratings

Primarily, this dissertation aimed to *"Analyse similarities and differences between Arab and British Planning ratings"* (Obj i.). The planning section of the survey intended to highlight the stronger and weaker areas of planning according to British and Arab responses. These can be observed from the next bar graph (Figure 12). It

exhibits that the Arab mean score (12.74) was greater than the British mean score (10.4) for the Communication variable. It was also higher for the Risk variable but scores were similar (*M*=16.33 and *M*=16.01). British mean scores were superior for all other planning variables. However, mean scores were extremely close for Cost (13.05 and 12.78) and Quality variables (8.04 and 7.84).
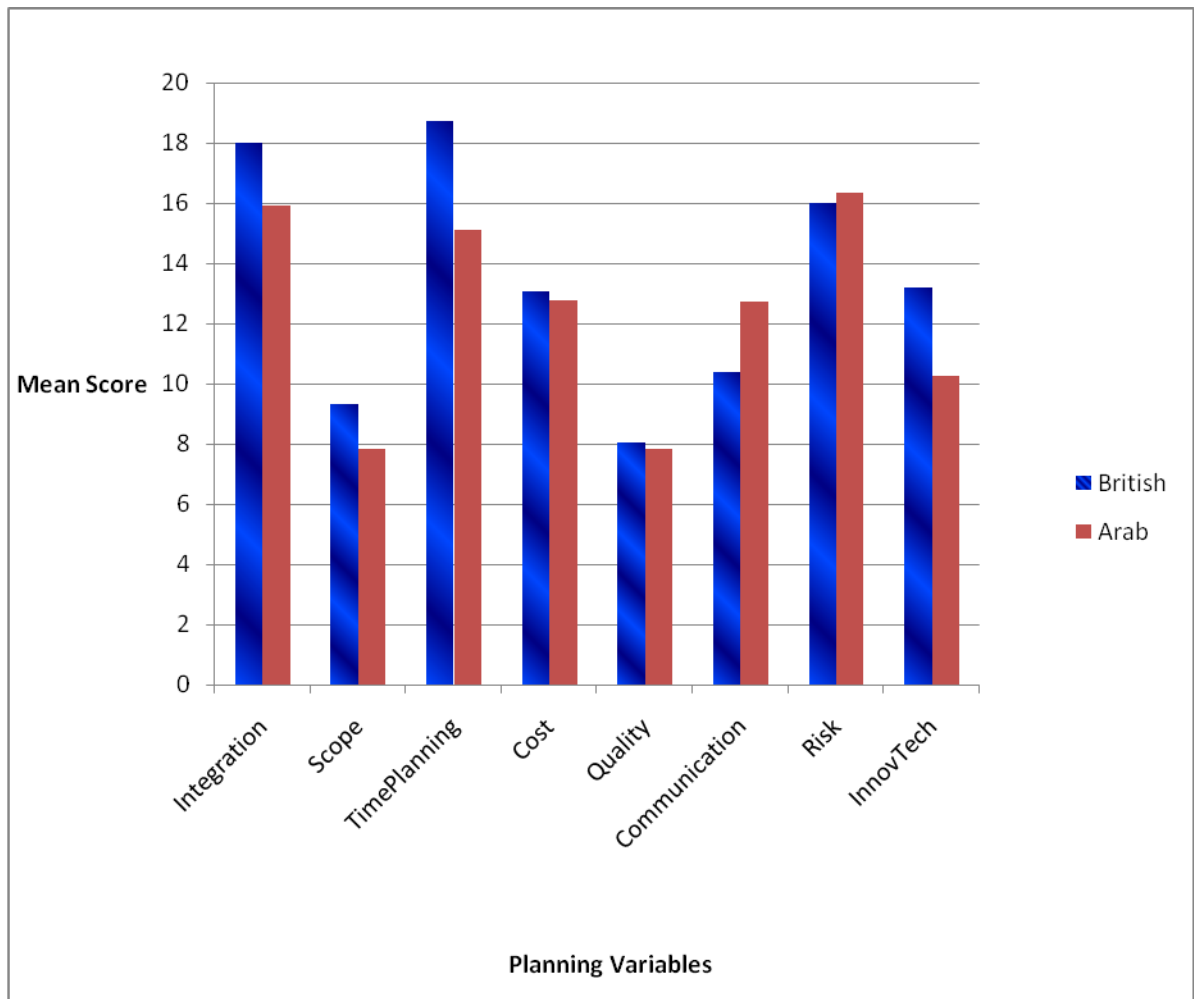
Figure 12: Means for Arab and British Planning Variables

British and Arab ratings were then compared for each planning item (Figure 13). This

demonstrates that PMO, Software, and Updates are three of the weaker planning

items. British participants rate these items considerably higher than Arab participants.

This is also the case for Planning the Planning, Control Procedures, WBS, Project

Activities, PERT/Gantt, Activity Durations, and Schedule Development items. On the

other hand, three other low items concern Communication Management Plan,

Information Distribution, and Reporting Performance, which received weaker ratings

from the British sample.
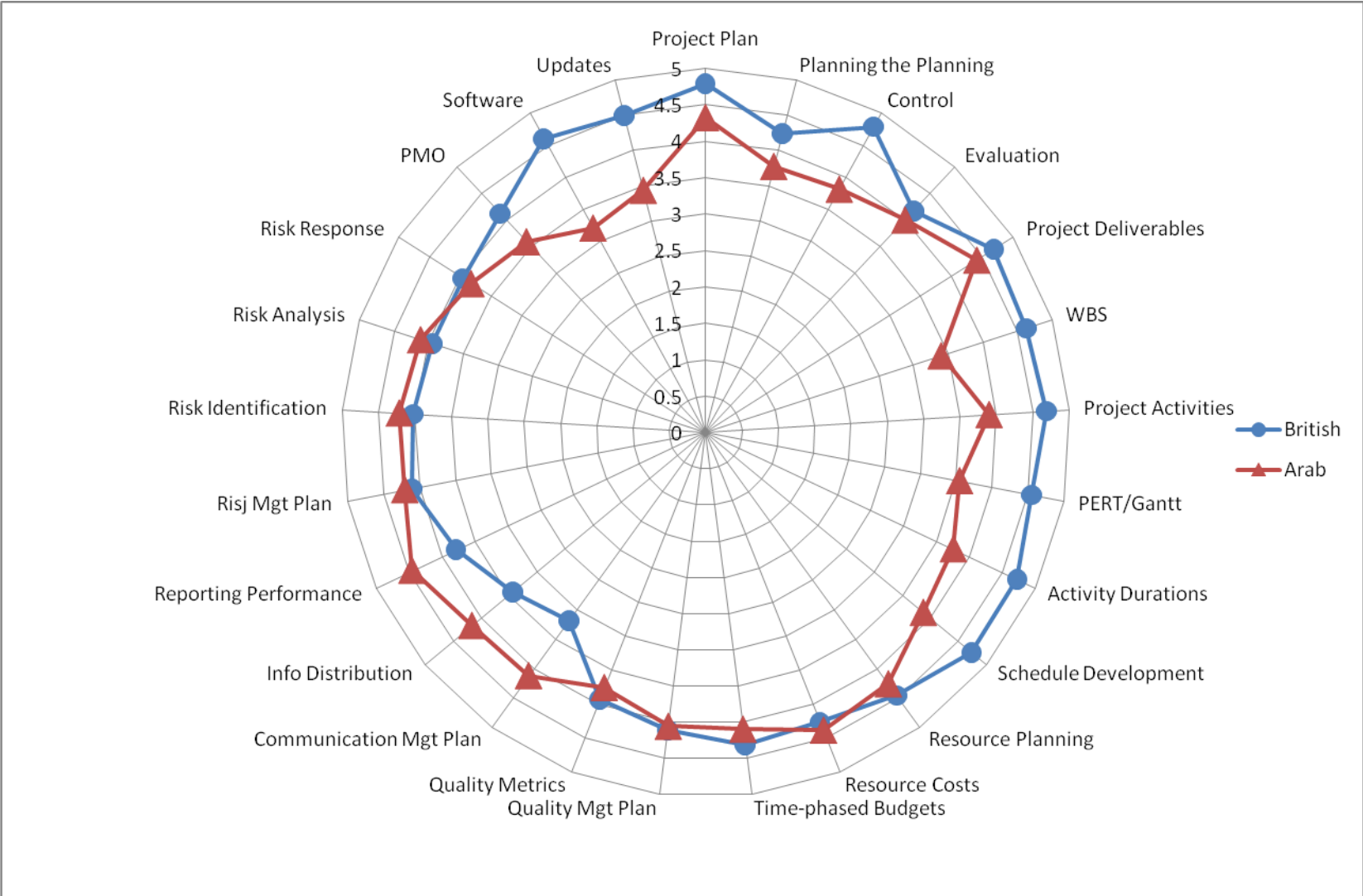
Figure 13. Arab and British Ratings for each Planning Item

4.4 Project Success

Next, Obj j *"Discuss variations between Arab and British Project Success answers"*
was considered. Project success was measured in four ways, Schedule Overrun, Cost
Overrun, Performance, and Client Satisfaction. Descriptive statistics (Appendix 8)
demonstrates that the range for "schedule overruns" was 0-50% for the British group,
yet 0-65% for the Arab sample. Nevertheless, 42% of the Arab group and 41% of the
British group expressed a 0% schedule overrun. The range for "cost overruns" was 0-
30% for the British group but 0-73% for the Arab group. Still the majority of the
Arab sample (45%) responded with a 0% cost overrun, whereas 33% of the British
sample did. Performance scores ranged between 7-10 points for the British group, yet
3-10 for the Arab sample. British participants (53%) expressed a value of 9 for
performance (objectives achieved) and 23% a value of 10. In contrast, 30% of Arab
participants gave a value of 9 and 36% a value of 10. With reference to client
satisfaction, scores were quite similar with 53% of the British sample and 51% of the
Arab sample expressing a value of 9.

4.5 Inferential Statistics

4.5.1 Normality Testing

Preliminary tests were carried out to comply with the assumptions noted in section
3.9. The 5% trimmed mean for each variable (Appendix 9) demonstrates that mean
scores are not being greatly influenced by any extreme scores. Normality tests

(Appendix 9) show that the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic has been violated (<0.05 and to satisfy normality they should be > 0.05). However, Pallant (2006) states that this is often the case for larger samples. Histograms and Normal Q-Q Plots were then inspected to check the actual shape of the distribution. Some scores appear to be reasonably normally distributed, yet several items have a skewed distribution (Appendix 10). This does not necessarily mean that there is a problem since this occurs quite often for certain social science scales (Pallant, 2006). She recommends using non-parametric statistics. Therefore, both non-parametric and parametric tests were carried out in this dissertation but emphasis is placed on non-parametric findings.

4.5.2 Reliability

Reliability was then examined using Cronbach's alpha (Appendix 11). According to Zwikael and Globerson (2004:1551), the PMPQ model has good reliability (α0.91 and α0.93). In the current dissertation study, the Planning scale employed (25 items) was also highly reliable (α0.889). For Project Success, a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.872 was found for the two items Schedule Overrun and Cost Overrun and an Alpha coefficient of 0.825 for the two items Performance and Client Satisfaction.

Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) did not report any reliability values for their scales but this dissertation found that the Alpha coefficients for the Environment scale

(5 items) was α0.818, α0.779 for their Time scale (5 items) and α0.855 for their

Activity scale (4 items).

An Alpha coefficient of 0.68 was reported by Kaufman et al (1991) and 0.76 by

Lindquisit and Kaufman-Scarborough (2007) for the Polychronic scale (4 items), yet

this dissertation found a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.832.

For the three PD items, the scale's Alpha coefficient was 0.581 and is therefore below

the acceptable level of 0.7 (Pallant, 2006). Nevertheless, this would increase to

α0.753 if item "PD 11" was deleted. Item PD11 was removed from further analyses

to increase reliability.

An Alpha value of 0.375 was found for the UA scale (5 items) and this would only

increase to α0.591 if item "UA 10" was deleted. To increase this coefficient value,

item 10 was not included in further analyses. It was also deleted since it tests for

employee tenure expectation within the organisation rather than values and

behaviours relating specifically to avoidance of uncertainty.

4.5.3 Differences between Planning Ratings

In order to statistically test differences between Arab and British planning ratings and

therefore accept/reject the hypotheses, several non-parametric Mann-Whitney U tests

and parametric Independent t-tests (Appendix 12) were carried out. Section 4.3

reveals the planning areas rated higher by the British and Arab samples. Nevertheless, the results from running Mann-Whitney U tests indicate that there was a significant difference between British (M=126.32) and Arab (M=74.68) ratings for the global variable Planning [Z=-6.315, p<0.001].

In addition, significant differences (see Table 17) were found between Arab and British groups for Scope [Z= -8.069, p<0.001]; Time planning [Z= -8.753, p<0.001]; Integration [Z= -5.269, p<0.001]; Innovation/Technology [Z= -9.274, p<0.001]; and Communication [Z= -7.509, p<0.001].

Table 17: Mean Ranks for British and Arab Planning Ratings

Planning	NC Identification	Mean Rank
Scope	British	132.46
	Arab	68.54
Time Planning	British	135.74
	Arab	65.26
Integration	British	121.84
	Arab	79.16
Innovation/ Technology	British	138.11
	Arab	62.89
Communication	British	70.10
	Arab	130.90
Planning Global	British	126.32
	Arab	74.68

As a consequence, the hypotheses for H1, H2, H6, and H8 (see Table 7) can be accepted. H10 (H0) "There will be no difference between Arab and British ratings for communication elements" cannot be accepted since a difference was found. No other significant differences were confirmed for Cost, Risk, or Quality variables [>0.05]. Parametric independent t-tests (Appendix 12) also show the same significant differences. Therefore, magnitudes of differences were calculated by hand using Eta squared equations (Appendix 13). The magnitude of the difference in the means was moderate for the global Planning variable (eta squared= 0.13), indicating that 13% of the variance in planning is explained by NC identification. Eta squared values for the remaining planning variables illustrates that Identification (Arab/British) explains 32% of the variance in Scope, 38% of the variance in Time planning, 17% of the variance in Integration, 35% of the variance in Innovation/Technology and 26% of the variance in Communication.

Since the researcher also collected data concerning whether or not the participant was PM qualified, differences in the planning ratings were also checked via Mann-Whitney U tests and independent t-tests (Appendix 14). Significant differences were only found between being PM Qualified and Non-PM Qualified in Quality ratings [$Z= -2.470$, $p<0.05$] and Risk ratings [$Z= -3.196$, $p=0.001$]. Therefore participants holding a PM qualification gave significantly higher Quality ratings ($M=113.03$) and Risk ratings ($M=117.07$) than those without a PM qualification ($M=92.82$ and $M=90.34$ respectively).

4.5.4 Planning Correlations

Relationships between the Planning variables were investigated using Spearman rho correlations (See Appendix 15 for full correlation matrix). Correlations first investigated all of the data and then they were run again for each group (Arab and British). Table 18 shows that the majority of planning variables positively correlated with each other.

The only non-significant correlations were for Cost with Innovation, and Risk, and Risk with Scope, Time planning, and Integration [all $p>0.05$]. The only variable that correlated negatively was Communication with Scope, Time planning, and Innovation/Technology. This was also revealed by Pearson correlation coefficients (Appendix 15).

However, when separately checked for the British data, Cost associated with Risk [<0.05] and the following relationships were non-significant [>0.05]:

- Scope with Cost, Quality, Integration, Innovation/Technology;
- Time planning with Cost, and Integration;
- Quality with Integration, and Innovation/Technology;
- Integration with Innovation/Technology;
- Innovation/Technology with Communication.

Moreover, for the Arab sample of data Risk associated with Scope [<0.05] and Time planning [<0.001] and the following relationships were non-significant [>0.05]:

- Communication with Scope, Time planning, Quality, Risk and Innovation/Technology;
- Integration with Innovation/Technology.

Table 18: Spearman's rho Correlations between Planning Variables.

Planning Variables		Scope	Time Planning	Cost	Quality	Risk	Integration	Innovation/ Technology	Communication
Spearman's rho	**Scope**	1.000							
	Time Planning	.723**	1.000						
	Cost	.180*	.242**	1.000					
	Quality	.250**	.331**	.449**	1.000				
	Risk	.008	.131	.138	.445**	1.000			
	Integration	.535**	.537**	.453**	.276**	.023	1.000		
	Innovation Technology	.531**	.670**	.036	.159*	.172*	.331**	1.000	
	Communication	-.216**	-.209**	.310**	.147*	.268**	.164*	-.345**	1.000
	Planning Global	.625**	.769**	.540**	.598**	.472**	.692**	.605**	.157*

Note:

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.5.5 The Link between Planning variables and Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's NC variables

At the item level, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) questions produced nominal data. However, at the variable level, scores were produced. Therefore, relationships between Planning variables and the NC variables of Activity, Time (past, present, future), and Environment were investigated using Spearman's rho correlations (Table 19 and Appendix 16).

Tests showed that Activity only negatively related to Cost [r=-0.146, p<0.05]. This suggests that Doing orientations are likely to rate the Cost planning items higher.

Time (past, present, future) positively associated with the planning variables of Scope [r=0.287, p<0.001]; Time planning [r=0.256, p<0.001]; Integration [r=0.152, p<0.05]; Innovation/Technology [r=0.243, p=0.001] and with the global variable Planning [r=0.161 p<0.05]. Future orientations are therefore likely to provide higher planning scores in these variables. A negative relationship was also found between Time and Communication [r=-0.148, p<0.05], indicating that Future orientations are associated with low Communication scores.

Environment also correlated with Scope [r=0.283, p<0.001]; Time planning [r=0.280, p<0.001]; Integration [r=0.229, p=0.001]; Innovation/Technology [r=0.301, p<0.001]; and the global variable Planning [r=0.236, p=0.001]. This implies that

higher planning ratings in Scope, Time planning, Integration, Innovation/Technology, and Global Planning are associated with Mastery orientations. A negative relationship was found between Environment and Communication [r=-0.226, p=0.001], signifying that Subjugation orientations rate Communication higher.

Table 19. Spearman's rho Correlations for Planning and NC Variables

	Activity	Time (past, present, future)	Environment	Polychronic/ Monochronic	PD	UA
Scope		0.287***	0.283***	0.368***	-0.369***	-0.413***
Time Planning		0.256***	0.280***	0.376***	-0.301***	-0.395***
Cost	-0.146*					
Risk					0.231*	
Quality						
Integration		0.152*	0.229**	0.204**	-0.204*	-0.167*
Innovation/ Technology		0.243**	0.301***	0.452***	-0.197*	-0.461***
Communication		-0.148*	-0.226**	-0.216**	0.224**	0.300***
Planning		0.161*	0.236**	0.313***	-0.206*	-.283***

Note:
*significant at 0.05
**significant at 0.01
***significant at .001

4.5.6 The link between Planning variables and the remaining NC variables

Relationships between the Planning variables and the remaining NC variables (PD, UA, Polychronic/Monochronic), were examined via Spearman rho correlations (Table 19 and Appendix 16) and Pearson r correlation coefficients (Appendix 16).

The Polychronic/Monochronic variable related to Scope [$r=0.368$, $p<0.001$]; Time planning [$r=0.376$, $p<0.001$]; Innovation/Technology [$r=0.452$, $p<0.001$]; Integration [$r=0.204$, $p<0.001$]; and the global variable Planning [$r=0.313$, $p<0.001$]. Thus, Monochronic orientations are likely to rate these variables higher. A negative relationship was also found with Communication [$r=-0.216$, $p<0.01$], indicating that Monochronic orientations rate Communication lower.

Significant positive associations were found between PD and Communication [$r=0.224$, $p=0.001$]; and Risk [$r=0.231$, $p=0.001$]. High PD scores related to higher Communication and Risk ratings. PD negatively associated with Scope [$r=-0.369$, $p<0.001$]; Time planning [$r=-0.301$, $p<0.001$]; Integration [$r=-0.204$, $p=0.01$]; Innovation/Technology [$r=-0.197$, $p=0.01$]; and Planning [$r=-0.206$, $p=0.01$] so low PD scores correlate with higher planning ratings in Scope, Time planning, Integration, Innovation/Technology and global Planning variables.

UA also negatively related to Scope [$r=-0.413$, $p<0.001$]; Time planning [$r=-0.395$, $p<0.001$]; Integration [$r=-0.167$, $p<0.05$]; Innovation/Technology [$r=-0.322$, $p<0.001$]; and Planning [$r=-0.283$, $p<0.001$]. Low UA scores are therefore expected to rate Scope, Time planning, Integration, Innovation/Technology and global Planning variables higher. Since UA positively related to Communication [$r=0.300$, $p<0.001$], high UA scores are likely to rate Communication higher.

Similar findings were obtained from carrying out Pearson *r* correlations (Table 20).

The only difference found between running Spearman's rho and Pearson *r* tests was

the correlation between global Planning and PD was non-significant *[p>0.05]*.

Interestingly, both tests show that the only planning variable that did not relate to any

of the above NC variables was Quality.

Table 20. Pearson's *r* Correlations for Planning and NC variables

	Polychronic/ Monochronic	PD	UA
Scope	0.318***	-0.303***	-0.405***
Time planning	0.359***	-0.261***	-0.401***
Cost			
Risk		0.248***	
Quality			
Integration	0.249***	-0.283***	-0.185*
Innovation/ Technology	0.359***	-0.167*	-0.437***
Communication	-0.205**	0.230**	0.266***
Planning	0.230**		-0.219*

Note:
*significant at 0.05
**significant at 0.01
***significant at .001

4.5.7 Standard Multiple Regressions

Standard multiple regression tests were performed on ordinal variables to analyse

causal relationships in the data (Table 21 and Appendix 17). These indicated that the

NC variables of PD, UA and Polychronic/Monochronic explain 17.6% of the

variance in Scope, 18.2% in Time planning, 8.8% in Integration, 21.5% in

Innovation/Technology, and 7.2% in Communication. Higher F values were found for Scope [F=15.173, *p*<0.001], Time planning [F=15.772, *p*<0.001], and Innovation/Technology [F=19.145, *p*<0.001]. From studying the Standardised Coefficients, the contributions made by these independent variables were assessed. The Beta column indicates that UA makes a stronger unique contribution to explaining the dependent variables of Scope (β= -0.285), Time planning (β= -0.281), Innovation/Technology (β= -0.396) and Communication (β= -0.170). PD makes a stronger unique contribution to explaining Integration (β= -0.225).

Multiple regressions also showed that UA and Polychronic/Monochronic variables explain 5.5% of the variance in global Planning, whereas PD explains 5.7% of the variance in Risk. The Polychronic/Monochronic variable makes a higher contribution than UA to Planning since beta values were higher (β= 0.171).

Table 21. Results of Standard Multiple Regression Tests

DV	IV	F	Sig. F	t – value	Sig. t	R	R square	Adjusted R square	Beta β	Part Correlations
Scope	PD			-1.324	0.187				-0.102	-0.085
	UA	15.173	0.000	-3.485	0.001	0.434	0.188	0.176	-0.285	-0.224
	Poly/Mono			1.757	0.081				0.133	0.113
Time Planning	PD			-0.425	0.671				-0.033	-0.027
	UA	15.772	0.000	-3.458	0.001	0.441	0.194	0.182	-0.281	-0.222
	Poly/Mono			2.694	0.008				0.204	0.173
Integration	PD			-2.791	0.006				-0.255	-0.189
	UA	7.433	0.000	0.208	0.835	0.320	0.102	0.088	-0.018	0.014
	Poly/Mono			2.105	0.037				0.168	0.142
Innovation /Technology	PD			1.626	0.106				0.122	-0.102
	UA	19.145	0.000	-4.968	0.000	0.476	0.227	0.215	-0.396	-0.312
	Poly/ Mono			2.789	0.006				0.207	0.175
Communication	PD			1.366	0.174				0.111	0.093
	UA	6.148	0.001	1.963	0.051	0.293	0.086	0.072	0.170	0.134
	Poly/ Mono			-0.923	0.357				-0.074	-0.063
Global Planning	UA			-1.856	0.065				-0.162	-0.128
	Poly/ Mono	4.870	0.003	2.106	0.036	0.263	0.069	0.055	0.171	0.145
Risk	PD	5.046	0.002	3.689	0.000	0.268	0.072	0.057	0.303	0.254

4.5.8 Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

PCA was also employed on data (Appendix 18). The 25 items of the Planning scale were subjected to principal components analysis. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of 0.3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer Oklin value was 0.85 (above 0.6) and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. PCA revealed the presence of four components with eigenvalues above 1, explaining 30.38%, 18.5%, 11.89%, and 5.45%. An inspection of the screeplot revealed a break after the third component, thus three components were retained. To aid the interpretation of these three components, Varimax rotation was performed (Table 22). The three-component solution explained a total of 60.78% of the variance, with component 1 contributing to 26.56%, component 2 contributing 17.30%, and component 3 contributing 16.92%.

From examining the item loadings, Component 1 comprised all Scope items (WBS, Project Deliverables), all Time planning items (PERT/Gantt chart, Activity Durations, Schedule Development, and Project Activities), all Innovation/Technology items (PMO, Software, Updates) and three out of the four Integration items (Project Plan, Planning the Planning, and Control Procedures). Based on this, Component 1 was renamed "Initial Planning and Scheduling" because it contains all items concerning scheduling arrangements and early planning.

Table 22: Rotated Component Matrix for Planning Items

Planning Items	Component Initial Scheduling and Planning	Cost and Communication	Quality and Risk
PERT/Gantt Chart	.861		
Activity Duration Estimates	.844		
WBS	.801		
Schedule Development	.781		
Control Procedures	.754	.391	
Updates	.748		
Project Activities	.748		
Software	.745	-.302	
Project Management Office	.529		.306
Project Plan	.523	.454	
Evaluation Procedures		.724	
Resource Planning		.693	
Information Distribution	-.412	.660	.303
Resource Costs		.613	.304
Communication Mgt Plan	-.409	.599	.308
Planning the Planning	.383	.595	
Reporting Performance	-.426	.593	
Project Deliverables	.371	.565	
Time-phased Budgets		.477	
Risk Analysis			.878
Risk Identification			.863
Risk Management Plan			.835
Risk Response			.808
Quality Metrics	.303		.570
Quality Management Plan		.443	.543
Total % of Variance	26.557	17.306	16.915

Component 2 included all Cost items (Resource Planning, Resource Costs, Time-phased Budgets), all Communication items (Communication Management Plan, Information Distribution, and Reporting Performance), and the remaining Integration item (Evaluation Procedures). The latter does concern communication since the way in which the project would be evaluated is likely to be discussed by the project team and then communicated across departments. Thus, component two was named "Cost and Communication" since the factor comprises all items referring to cost and communication during the planning stage.

The third component contained all Risk items (Risk Management Plan, Risk Identification, Risk Analysis, and Risk Response) and Quality items (Quality Management Plan and Quality Metrics). Component 3 was renamed "Risk and Quality" as all items refer to this.

The 24 reliable items of the NC scale were also subjected to PCA (Appendix 18). The correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of 0.3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer Oklin value was 0.76 (above 0.6) and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. PCA revealed the presence of six components with eigenvalues above 1, explaining 23.2%, 10.39%, 9.52%, 7.56%, 6.44% and 4.7%. From inspecting the items and loadings, 4 components were selected. Varimax rotation was used again to aid the interpretation of these four components (Table 23). The four-component solution explained a total of 51.08% of the variance, with Component 1 contributing to

16.81%, Component 2 contributing 12.92%, Component 3 contributing 11.73% and Component 4 contributing to 9.62%.

The items loadings indicates that Component 1 contains all Polychronic, PD, and UA items, Component 2 includes all Environment items, Component 3 all Time (past, present, future) items, and Component 4 all Activity items. These were therefore renamed to "Power, Uncertainty & Time-order (PUT)" "Environment," "Time," and "Activity."

Table 23: Rotated Component Matrix for NC Items

NC Items	Component			
	Power, Uncertainty, & Time-order (PUT)	Environment	Time	Activity
Polychronic2	.723			.326
Polychronic3	.714			
Polychronic4	.690			
Polychronic5	.674			
PD6	-.613			
PD7	-.590			
UA8	-.588			
UA9	-.554			
UA1	-.508		-.330	
UA12	-.399	-.303		
Environment24		.843		
Environment22		.778		
Environment25		.768		
Environment26		.703		
Environment23		.624		
Time20			.784	
Time19			.750	
Time17	.305		.705	
Time18			.669	
Time21			.597	
Activity14				.689
Activity13				-.666
Activity15				.591
Activity16				-.479
Total % of Variance	16.808	12.915	11.731	9.623

4.5.9 A Re-examination of Factors

From rerunning statistical analyses (i.e. Mann-Whitney U tests to test differences between Arab and British ratings of the new factors and Spearman's rho correlations to analyse correlations between the new Planning factors and NC factors), the following results were obtained.

Mann-Whitney U tests (Appendix 19) indicate that two significant differences were found. "Initial Planning and Scheduling" (Component 1) was rated higher by the British sample (M=137.88) than the Arab Sample (M=63.12), with a significant difference found [Z= -9.147, p<0.001]. The Arab sample (M=116.54) rated the factor "Cost and Communication" (Component 2) significantly higher than the British sample (M=84.46) [Z= - 3.935, p<0.001]. For the third component, no significant difference was found [p>0.05], yet Arab ratings (M=103.90) were higher than the British Sample (M=97.10) for "Quality and Risk" (Component 3).

Interestingly, significant differences were also found for three out of the four NC factors; "PUT" (Z= -3.766, p<0.001], "Environment" [Z= - 5.949, p<0.001, and "Time" [Z= -4.429, p<0.001]. There was no difference between Arab and British responses [p>0.05] for the "Activity" factor (Component 4), which confirms prior chi-square tests.

Spearman's rho correlations (Appendix 19) found that "Initial Planning and Scheduling" correlated negatively with "PUT" [r= -0.198, $p<0.01$], correlated positively with "Environment" [r=0.311, $p<0.001$], and "Time" [r=0.283, $p<0.001$]. A negative relationship was also found between "Cost and Communication" and the NC factor "Activity" [r=-0.167, $p<0.05$]. Lastly, the planning factor "Quality and Risk" related positively with "PUT" [r=0.216, $p<0.01$].

Correlations also investigated relationships between the planning factors. "Quality and Risk" positively related to "Initial Planning and Scheduling" [r=0.201, $p<0.01$], and "Cost and Communication" [r=0.299, $p<0.001$]. No other relationships were found.

4.5.10 Standard Multiple Regressions on New Factors

Standard multiple regressions (Table 24 and Appendix 20) could only test "Power, Uncertainty, & Time-order (PUT)" since the other factors contained nominal data. This revealed that "PUT" only explains 1.9% in "Initial Planning and Scheduling," and 2.7% in "Quality and Risk".

Table 24. Multiple Regression Tests on New Factors

DV	IV	F	Sig. F	t – value	Sig. t	R	R square	Adjusted R square	Beta β	Part Correlations
Initial Planning and Scheduling	PUT	4.905	0.028	-2.215	0.028	0.155	0.024	0.019	-0.155	-0.155
Quality and Risk	PUT	6.613	0.011	2.572	0.011	0.180	0.032	0.027	0.180	0.180

5. Discussion

In order to sufficiently examine the Arab and British NCs, the results of this dissertation were compared to the NC research previously discussed in the literature review. Results were considered in terms of this dissertation's propositions and hypotheses and differences in planning ratings were linked to Planning and NC relationships. In addition, the study limitations of this dissertation were identified.

5.1 NC Orientation

Although there were similarities between this dissertation's outcomes and those discussed in the literature, variations were also apparent. These variations may refer to cultural changes or it could relate to the measures adopted. Research has already indicated that the Gulf region has experienced immense social change due to globalisation and the establishment of many international firms (Feghali, 1997). Furthermore, the British cultural change from the 1950s was documented by Booth (2008) and considering it is now 2010, perhaps NCs are changing. Weinshall (1993) noted that changes may arise due to the changing economy, which may apply to this dissertation's findings. On the other hand, research designs and sampling differences were mentioned in the literature review as possible reasons for differences between Hofstede (1983) and GLOBE's (House et al, 2004) findings. The measurement problems of cultural scales were noted by Ashkanasy et al (2004).

5.1.1 Activity

The literature indicated that the Arab NC is Being (e.g. Walker et al, 2003; Lane et al, 2005) and that the British NC is Controlling (e.g. Walker et al, 2003) or Doing (e.g. Lane et al, 2005). However, the Controlling orientation was not measured by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) since they were unable to create appropriate items to measure it. The current dissertation study found a Being orientation for the majority of the Arab sample. Yet, the majority of the British sample was also Being-oriented, rather than the Controlling/Doing orientation initially assumed (Figure 14). Therefore, both cultures attempt to live their lives to the fullest and respond to feelings straight away (Lane et al, 2005).

Activity

Being	Controlling	Doing
Arab NC (Walker et al, 2003; Lane et al, 2005).	British NC (Walker et al, 2003)	British NC (Lane et al, 2005)

Arab NC (Dissertation)
British NC (Dissertation)
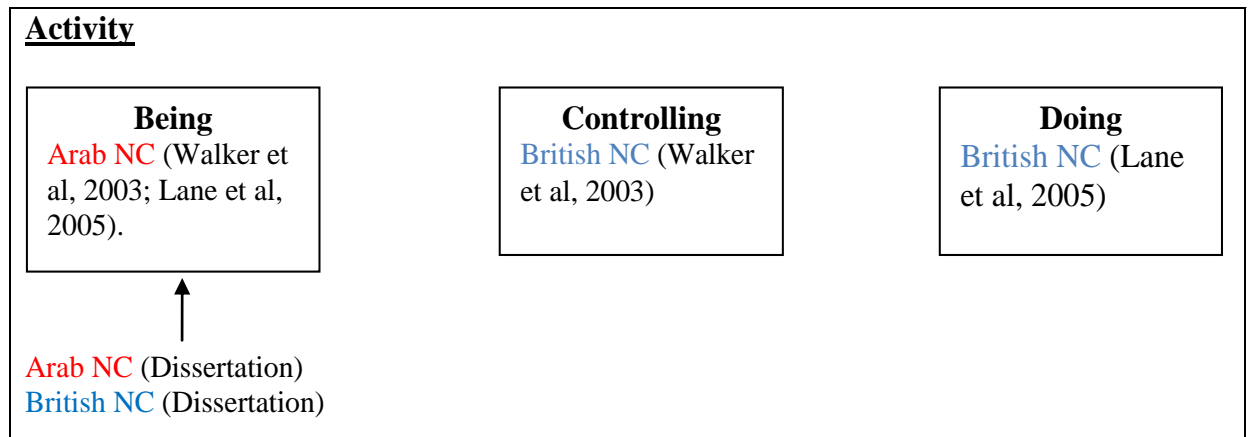
Figure 14. Arab and British Activity Orientations of Past Research and this Dissertation

5.1.2 Time (past, present, future)

Dissertation findings demonstrated that the Arab NC had a Present time orientation, whereas the British NC was Future-oriented (Figure 15). The difference between both NCs was significant but this again contradicts research that suggested both should be Past-oriented (e.g. Feghali, 1997; Hurn, 2007; Galanti, 2009). Nevertheless, the significant difference between both NCs illustrates that there is a "silent language" of time, like Hall (1960) argued. Future cultures tend to focus on long-term performance, whereas Present cultures concentrate on contemporary issues (Milosevic, 1999).
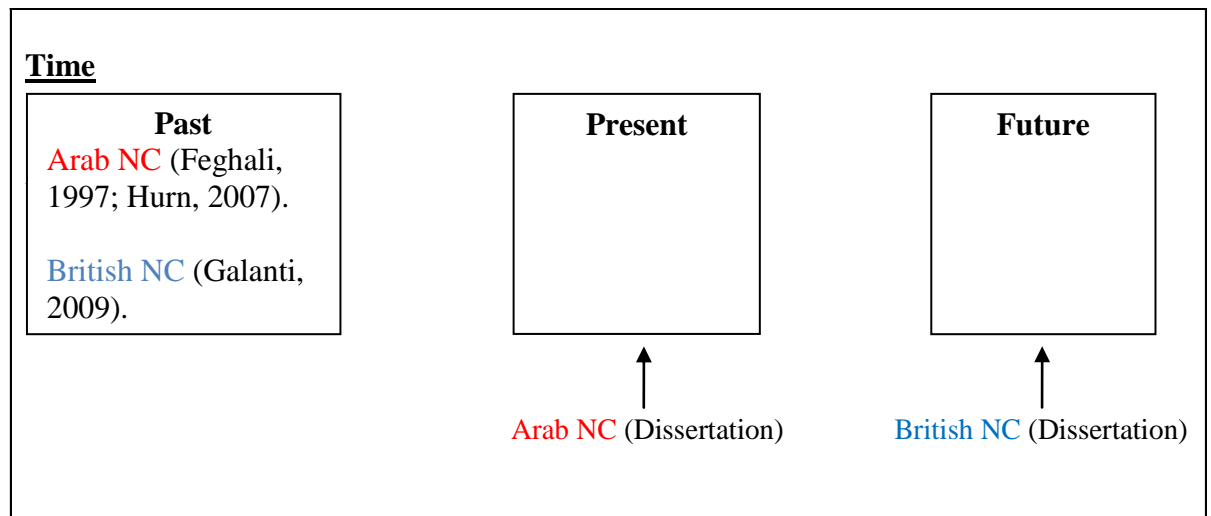
Figure 15. Arab and British Time Orientations of Past Research and this Dissertation

5.1.3 Environment

From the three variables adopted from Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), the

Environment variable was the only one to support past research (Figure 16). The

British NC was in fact Mastery-oriented and the Arab NC had a Subjugation

orientation, which supports the literature (e.g. Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999;

Lane et al, 2005). Accordingly, the Arab NC (Subjugation) emphasises the role of

fate and destiny, whereas the British NC (Mastery) believes that nature can be

dominated (Milosevic, 1999).
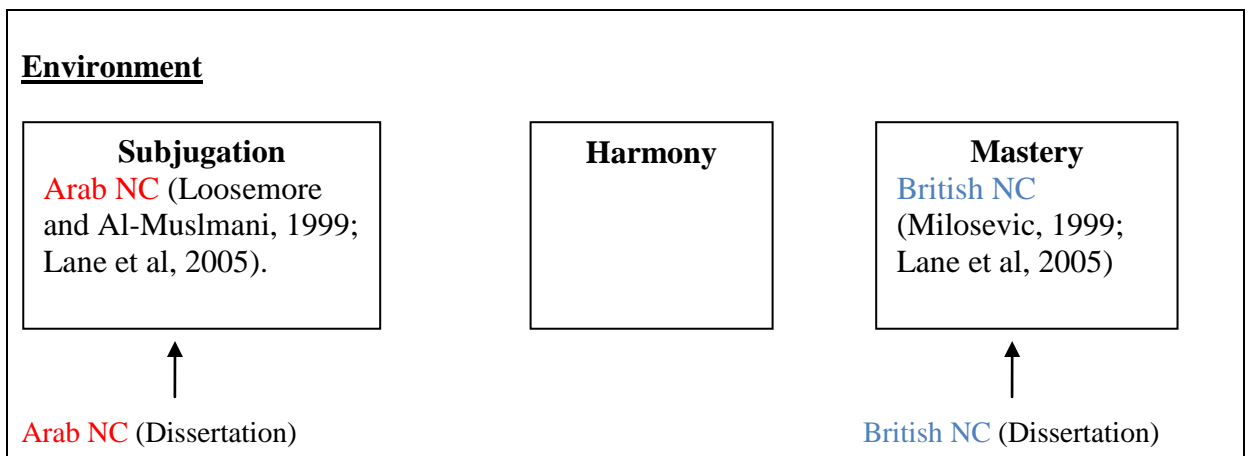
Figure 16. Arab and British Environment Orientations of Past Research and this Dissertation

5.1.4 Polychronic and Monochronic

One of the biggest differences found between the Arab NC and the British NC

concerns the Polychronic and Monochronic nature of the sample. Researchers (e.g.

Hall, 1960; Ball et al, 1998; Lane et al, 2005; Shachaf, 2008) revealed that the British

NC is Monochronic and the Arab NC is Polychronic, which corresponds to the

outcomes of this dissertation (Figure 17). According to Hall and Hall (1990) and Ramaprasad and Prakash (2003), Monochronic cultures (British NC) encourage a time-ordered approach, yet Polychronic cultures (Arab NC) prefer spontaneity and simultaneous working.
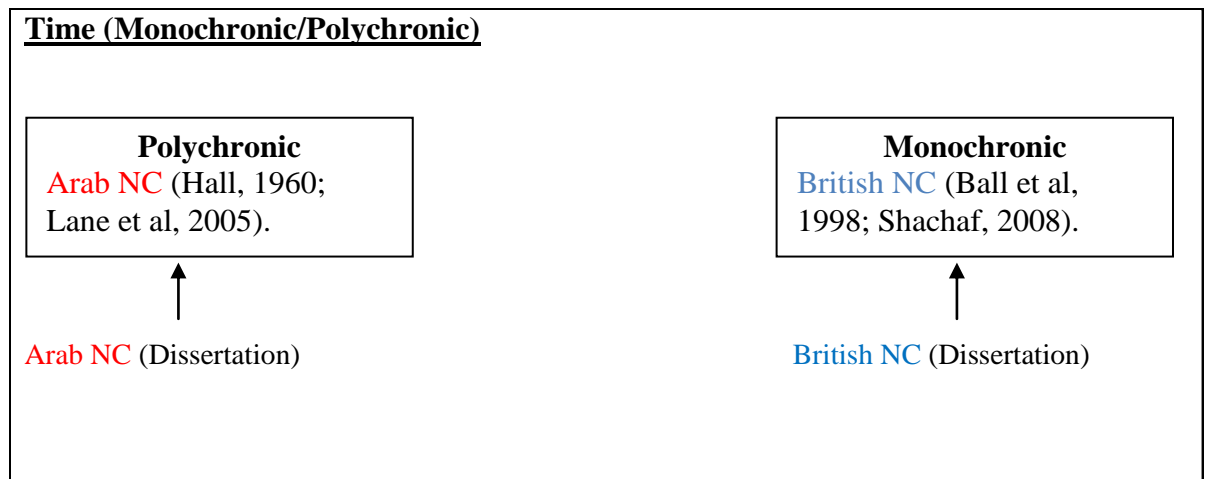
Figure 17. Polychronic/Monochronic Orientations of Past Research and this Dissertation

5.1.5 PD

In general, studies assume that the British NC has a low PD and the Arab NC has a high PD, yet they (e.g. Bredillet et al, 2010) use the results obtained from Hofstede (1983). GLOBE findings however show that even though the British score lower than the Arab sample, both cultures have a medium PD (e.g. Carl et al, 2004; Gupta and Hanges, 2004). Nevertheless, the current results show a low PD for the majority of the British sample and a medium PD for the majority of the Arab sample (Figure 18).

This therefore implies that the British NC is more likely to tolerate expressing opinions and questioning leaders than the Arab NC (Hofstede and Hofstede 2005). Research shows that authority is highly respected in the Arab NC and an extended hierarchical structure is often found (Becker, 2004; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). In addition, consideration or asking employees for opinions could be seen as a sign of weakness (Dorfman and House, 2004; Elbanna, 2008). With reference to the British NC, Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) indicate that a low PD is often found since power is based on expertise and individual freedom is valued.
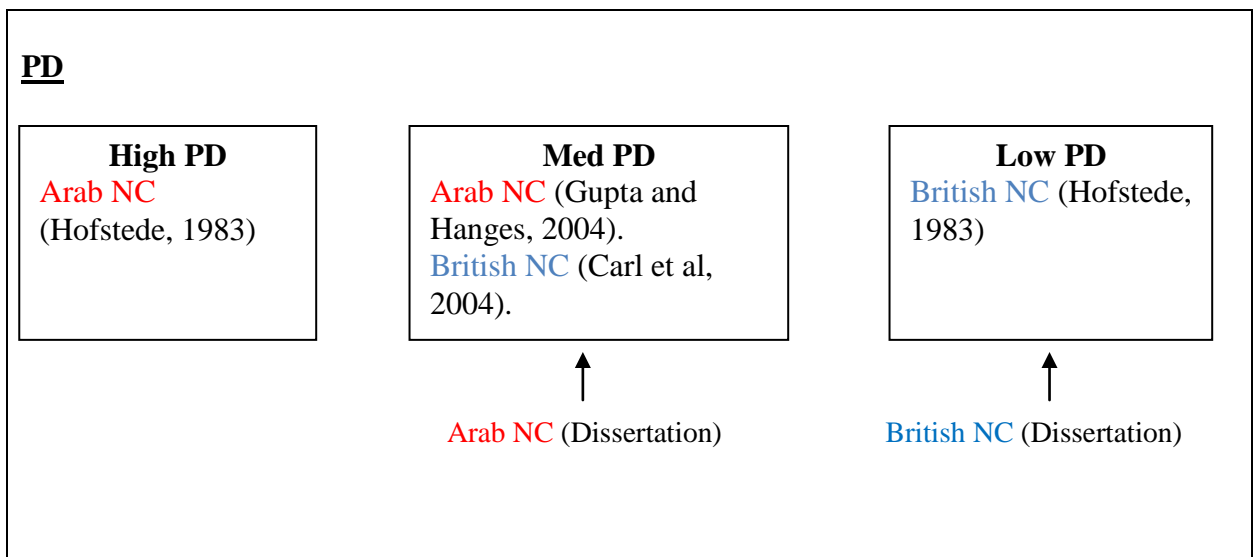
Figure 18. Arab and British PD Orientations of Past Research and this Dissertation

5.1.6 UA

It should be first noted that there were reliability problems with this scale, i.e. the Alpha coefficient was below 0.7. Nevertheless, this dissertation found that the Arab NC had a high UA, which supports Hofstede (1983). Gupta and Hanges (2004)

indicate that the UK has a low UA score but the majority of the British group (46%)

in this dissertation had a medium UA. However, 42% of the British group were found

towards the low end of the scale (Figure 19). Higher UA scores reveal that anxiety is

likely to be higher as well as the need for more structure in the organisation (Hofstede

and Hofstede, 2005). Conversely, low UA cultures are more comfortable with risk-

taking behaviour but conformity is often better (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005).
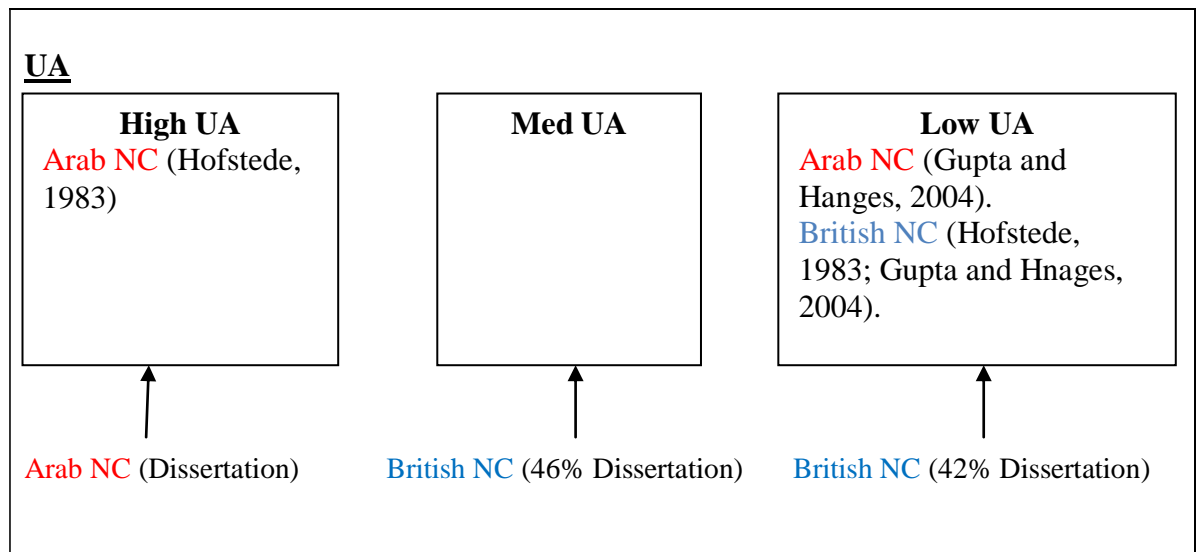
Figure 19. Arab and British UA Orientations of Past Research and this Dissertation

5.1.7 Proposition's Accuracy

The NC results of this dissertation were also compared to the original propositions

made in the literature review. Table 25 demonstrates that several hold imprecise

information according to the NC results of this dissertation.

Table 25: The Accuracy of Arab and British NC Propositions

No.	Proposition Details	Arab NC According to this Dissertation	British NC According to this Dissertation
1	The British NC is Mastery-oriented. The Arab NC has a Subjugation orientation.	Supported	Supported
2	The British NC has Mastery and Monochronic orientations. The Arab NC has Subjugation and Polychronic orientations.	Supported.	Supported
3	The British NC has a Mastery and Controlling/Doing orientation, whilst the Arab NC has Subjugation and Being orientations.	Supported	Partially supported. A Mastery orientation was found but the majority of the group were Being-oriented.
4	The Arab NC has a high UA, whereas the British NC has a low UA.	Supported	Partially supported. 46% Medium, 42% Low
5	The British NC has Past and Controlling/Doing orientations, whereas the Arab NC has Past but Being orientations.	Partially supported. The Arab NC were being-oriented but had a present orientation.	Unsupported British were Future and Being-oriented.
6	Again the British are Mastery and Monochronic, whereas the Arab NC has a Polychronic and Subjugation orientation. Both have Past orientations.	Partially supported. The Arab group were Present-oriented.	Partially supported. The British group were Future-oriented.
8	The British NC is Mastery-oriented, has a low PD and a medium UA. The Arab NC has a Subjugation orientation, a medium PD and high UA.	Supported	Partially supported 46% had a medium UA score.
10	Same as above.	Supported	Partially supported. Same as above

Note:

Numbers refer to the initial number given to the hypothesis/proposition in the Literature Review

5.2 Relationships between Planning Variables and NC Variables

In order to fully check the above propositions, the correlations of this dissertation (N=200) should be compared to the literature used to develop them. This would tackle Obj d *"Connect NC variables with PM concepts and techniques."* The below table indicates whether they are compatible. It illustrates that this dissertation has discovered several correlations that prior research is yet to find. This is not surprising considering the lack of research investigating NC and PM but it should prompt future research to continue researching such relationships.

Table 26: The Accuracy of Planning and NC Propositions

No.	Proposition Details	Correlation According to this Dissertation
1	Scope relates to Environment.	Supported. In addition, it correlated with Time (past, present, future), Polychronic/Monochronic, PD, and UA variables.
2	Time Planning relates to Environment and Time (Polychronic/Monochronic).	Supported In addition, it related to Time (past, present, future), PD and UA.
3	Cost relates to Environment and Activity variables.	Partially supported. Cost only related to Activity.
4	Risk associates with UA.	Unsupported Risk only correlated with PD.
5	Quality correlates with Time (past, present, future) and Activity.	Unsupported. Quality did not relate to any NC variable.
6	Integration interacts with Environment and Time (both scales) variables.	Supported It also related to PD and UA.
8	Innovation and Technology connects to Environment, PD and UA.	Supported. Additionally, relationships were found with Time (both scales).
10	Communication links to UA and PD.	Partially Supported Positive relationships (rather than negative) were found between Communication and UA, and PD (meaning high UA and high PD scores correlate with high Communication ratings). In addition, correlations were found with Time (both scales) and Environment variables.

Note:

Numbers refer to the initial number given to the hypothesis/proposition in the Literature Review

Although numerous correlations were uncovered by this dissertation, regressions indicated that PD, UA, and Polychronic/Monochronic variables only explained 5.5% of the variance in global Planning so it is likely that there are other variables involved. Nevertheless, regressions could not be carried out on Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) Environment, Time (past, present, future), Activity variables. Results still suggest that there are likely to be differences between working in a native country and an overseas country, like other researchers have indicated (e.g. Shaw, 1990; Tayeb, 2005; Hurn, 2007).

5.3 Differences between Arab and British Ratings for Planning Variables

The focus of this dissertation was to *"Explore the ways in which Arab project managers differ to British project managers while planning the project"* (Obj e). Overall a difference was found for the Planning variable, with the British sample giving higher ratings than the Arab group. Perhaps this may relate to the Western focus on planning (e.g. Milosevic, 1999; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005) or it may be due to PM having a longer history in the UK (e.g. Bailey, 2005; Morris et al, 2006). However, there was a higher number of Arab PM qualified participants, which to an extent should have increased the ratings made by the Arab group. In fact, only the quality and risk variables were rated significantly higher by PM qualified participants as will be explained later in sections 5.3.3 and 5.3.5.

5.3.1 Scope

Scope was rated higher by the British sample and the difference between both NCs was significant. In Proposition 1, this dissertation related Scope to Environment based on Milosevic (2002) and Lane et al (2005) and it was argued that the British have a Mastery orientation (Lane et al, 2005). Lane et al (2005) mentioned that scope and task definitions are often carried out on a larger scale by Mastery orientations. A positive relationship was found, which implies that Mastery orientations offer higher ratings to Scope. According to Lane et al (2005), Mastery orientations are very specific and precise.

Since Scope related to Time (both scales), PD and UA variables it indicates that the British NC (e.g. Future, Monochronic, low PD and Low/Med UA) matches the results. It appears from the literature that no research has been conducted linking Time, Monochronic, PD and UA variables to Scope. However, Future time orientations are said to plan for long-term results and Milosevic (2002) also points out that milestones are important for Future orientations. The two items that measured the Scope variable were "Project Deliverables" and "WBS" which concern time, i.e. project completion. Therefore, Monochronic orientations may have rated these higher since they emphasise a time-ordered approach (Lane et al, 2005). The WBS was rated higher by the British sample and this is consistent with Schneider

(1995) who refers to cultures that divide their time rather than cultures that atomise their time.

5.3.2 Time planning

A difference was found between Arab and British groups in their ratings for Time planning. Again, the British sample appear to rate these items higher than the Arab sample. This relates to the Scope points discussed above since Scope correlated with Environment, Time (both scales), PD, and UA. Hence, Mastery, Future, and Monochronic orientations such as the British are likely to give higher ratings.

Initially, Time planning was only related to Environment and Polychronic/Monochronic variables (Milosevic, 1999; Lane et al, 2005), yet it also correlated with PD, UA, and Time (past, present, future) variables. The latter variable is interesting since the British sample scored high on the future end of the scale, yet research suggests that they focus on the Past (e.g. Galanti, 2008). This seems important for PM as Hall (1960) argued that conflict may arise between cultures that have different appreciations of time, i.e. a delay may infer low interest to a British project manager, yet working too quickly or looking too much into the future may drive the Arab project manager away. Hurn (2007) states that deadlines are seen as a guide by the Arab NC, which may be due to a Present time orientation.

Negative relationships were found with PD and UA, indicating that low scores in these NC variables relate to higher Time planning scores, which again corresponds to

the British NC. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) imply that unplanned requests are usually dealt with more efficiently by low UA cultures. The Arab NC was found to have a high UA, a subjugation orientation, and is Polychronic. Subjugation orientations may not focus on time planning as this is going against fate (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999), high UA cultures also prefer to leave planning to the experts (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005), and Polychronic cultures expect less information since they have communicate within large social networks (Hall and Hall, 1990).

5.3.3 Cost

No significant difference was found between both groups for Cost ratings. This still may be explained by NC variables since Cost only related to the NC variable of Activity. Since the results of this dissertation show that both NCs have a Being orientation, it is reasonable to assume that no difference is likely to be found. Originally, Proposition 3 linked Cost to Environment and Activity (Milosevic, 1999; Lane et al, 2005), yet no relationship was found with the Environment variable. According to the researchers, budgeting contradicts fate for Subjugation orientations but this doesn't seem to be the case. Zwikael et al (2005) also found that cost ratings did not differ between Japanese and Israeli project managers. Justification for this refers to cost being an important issue for all projects across all industries (Zwikael et al, 2005).

5.3.4 Risk

Both Arab and British ratings were similar for the planning variable Risk, with the Arab group presenting slightly higher ratings. Risk did not correlate with UA like initially proposed. Nevertheless, a positive relationship was found between Risk and PD. In line with the results of this dissertation, the Arab NC has a medium PD, which is therefore higher than the British low PD. It is quite surprising that Risk did not correlate with UA as UA is often linked to Risk issues (e.g. Keil et al, 2000; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). For instance, high UA cultures may engage in risky behaviour if this reduces ambiguity (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). Since projects are uncertain, risks may be taken by Arab project managers in order to reduce the ambiguity surrounding the project. Originally, it was assumed that British project managers would rate Risk lower since Keil et al (2000) explain that low UA cultures often have a lower risk perception.

An alternative explanation for slightly higher Risk ratings by the Arab sample may refer to findings from El-Sayegh (2008). He reveals that risks are often high in the UAE due to the size and complexity of the UAE's contemporary projects and there are strict requirements in operation. Risk ratings also differed according to PM qualification, with PM qualified participants offering higher ratings. Perhaps, PM credentials sensitise people to these issues.

5.3.5 Quality

Based on ideas from Milosevic (1999) and Walker et al (2003), Proposition 5 connected Quality to Time (past, present, future) and Activity variables. This dissertation found that Quality ratings did not differ between the Arab and British groups. Since both NCs have a Being orientation, they are likely to give similar ratings. Nevertheless, Quality was the only planning variable not to relate to any of the NC variables. This may perhaps be due to the quality items measured. Participants were asked to rate the intensity of a quality management plan and quality metrics. Although both cultures gave similar ratings for these items, they may still differ in the way in which they use them. For example, Milosevic (1999) states that Present time orientations focus on corrective action (rather than preventive) and Future orientations prefer to adopt a Kaizen approach to quality.

Interestingly, differences were found between those holding a PM qualification and those who do not. Higher ratings were given by PM qualified participants. Quality management has received much attention from PM research and companies often have to focus on the quality of their products/services since customer preferences regularly change (Somasundaram and Badiru, 1992). They state that globalisation has increased the weight attached to quality requirements and as a consequence total quality management has replaced traditional quality techniques. This may therefore explain why a qualification in PM enhances quality ratings.

5.3.6 Integration

The British group rated Integration items higher than the Arab group. Integration associated with Environment, Time (both scales), PD, and UA variables, although Proposition 6 only proposed that it would relate to Environment and Time (Hall and Hall, 1990; Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999; Lane et al, 2005). These findings are compatible with the British NC since it has a low PD, a med/low UA, a Mastery, Future, and Monochronic orientation. The Arab NC however has a medium PD, a high UA, a Subjugation, Present, and Polychronic orientations.

Mastery orientations are more likely to develop strict project control, whereas Subjugation orientations are more lenient (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999). Again, a time-ordered approach is often taken by Monochronic orientations, whereas Polychronic orientations are likely to create several timelines (Hall and Hall, 1990; Lane et al, 2005). Past research has not connected PD and UA variables to Integration items as far as this dissertation is aware. Nevertheless, from an organisational perspective Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) indicate that British organisations are based on systems so the Integration items should be higher.

5.3.7 Innovation/Technology

Differences were found between the Arab and British groups for the ratings of Innovation/Technology. The British group rated this variable higher, which is

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expected since it correlated with all of the NC variables apart from Activity. Steers et al (2008) point out that technology relates to several NC variables, for example House et al (2004) found that technological development connects to future orientations and Hofstede (2001) states that it relates to low PDs and high UAs. The British group have a Future orientation and a low PD, yet the Arab group have a high UA. UA made a higher contribution to Innovation/Technology ratings in this dissertation. It could be that the Arab NC is not supportive of innovation since Hofstede (2001) states that once innovations are accepted by high UA countries, innovation is strengthened and can be higher than in low UA countries. An example of this is in Japan (Hofstede, 2001). In the future, this could therefore change if the Arab NC began to encourage innovation.

Nevertheless, a high correlation was found with the Polychronic/Monochronic scale. The relationship was positive, indicating that Monochronic orientations such as the British NC rate such items higher. However, Lindquisit and Kaufman-Scarborough (2007) argue that polychronic behaviour is more likely to accept technological innovations. Steers et al (2008) indicate that a number of factors have been found to correlate with innovation or technology, i.e. religion, labour availability, laws, technical training, etc. There were a higher number of Arab participants in the IT/Software industry, yet the British sample still rated this variable higher. This could therefore imply that NC has a greater affect than industry/sector.

5.3.8 Communication

Communication ratings differed between the Arab and British groups and was rated much higher by the Arab sample. Communication was negatively associated with Polychronic/Monochronic, Environment, and Time (past, present, future), indicating that higher ratings associated with Polychronic, Subjugation and Past orientations. It also rated positively with UA and PD and the Arab group scored higher than the British group on these NC variables.

Many projects in the UAE are now using various forms of electronic communication (El-Saboni et al, 2008), which is beneficial as cultural research demonstrates that communication problems often occur in multicultural teams (Tayeb, 2005; Shachaf, 2008). Communication ratings may have been rated higher by the Arab sample since the Arabic language is important to the Arab NC (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002). In addition, Polychronic orientations prefer to build wide social networks (Hall and Hall, 1990) and relationships are very close (Hall, 1960). Initially, Proposition 10 related Communication to only UA and PD and based on this no difference was predicted. However, the correlations show that it relates to more than just these NC variables.

Table 27: Findings relating to this Dissertation's Hypotheses

No.	Hypothesis	Differences According to this Dissertation
1	The British sample will appraise scope planning products higher than the Arab sample.	Confirmed
2	In contrast to the Arab sample, time planning products will be rated higher by the British sample.	Confirmed
3	British ratings for cost planning products will be higher than Arab ratings.	Unsupported
4	The Arab sample will rate risk planning products higher than the British sample.	Unsupported
5	British ratings will be higher than Arab ratings for quality planning.	Unsupported
6	In comparison to the Arab sample, the British sample will rate integration items higher.	Confirmed
8	British ratings for innovation and technology items will be higher than Arab ratings.	Confirmed
10 N0	There will be no difference between Arab and British ratings for communication elements.	Null hypothesis rejected.

Note:

N0 = Null Hypothesis

Numbers refer to the initial number given to the hypothesis in the Literature Review

Therefore, it appears that the way in which a project is managed/planned differs according to NC, which corresponds to findings from Zwikael et al (2005) and Zwikael (2009). It also supports Milosevic's (1999) argument that the same PM practices are interpreted differently. This calls for more attention to be given to the impact of NC on project planning and other project phases. Loosemore and Al-Muslmani (1999) found that British project managers were unaware of cultural differences in time and uncertainty between the British and Arab NCs. However, differences were found between both NCs in this dissertation, demonstrating that NC should receive more awareness from PM. Like the ideas from Shaw (1990) and Milosevic (2002), results suggest that project members may actually have different PM scripts concerning the planning stage. Zwikael (2009) points out that better project performance concerns planning and communication. The Arab NC appears to rate communication items higher, whereas the British NC seems to rate the global Planning variable higher. Thus, a deeper understanding between both NCs may lead to better performance.

5.4 Planning Variables

Relationships between the planning variables were established. However, many of these correlations disappeared when the Arab set of data and the British set of data were separately analysed. The correlations between the planning variables are not surprising since principal components analysis revealed that from these eight

variables (25 items), they loaded onto 3 factors. Furthermore, all variables concern

the planning stage of the project and refer to processes that should be carried out in

order to facilitate project performance.

5.5 New Factors

PCA revealed several interesting findings. From the eight planning variables initially

studied (25 items in total), three factors were revealed. The table below highlights the

initial variables studied against the findings from the principal components analysis.

Apart from "Evaluation procedures" (Integration), all other items corresponded with

the other items of their variable, e.g. all time items, scope items,

innovation/technology items were found in factor one; all cost items and

communications items in factor 2 and all quality items and risk items in

factor 3. The latter factor also contains the only two variables that correlated with PM

qualification.

Table 28: Planning Factors corresponding to initial Planning Variables and Items

Factor	Variable	Items
Initial Planning and Scheduling	Scope (All 2 items)	WBS, Project Deliverables
	Time planning (All 4 items)	PERT/Gantt chart, Activity Durations, Schedule Development, Project Activities
	Innovation/Technology (All 3 items)	PMO, Software, Updates
	Integration (3 from 4 items)	Project Plan, Planning the Planning, Control Procedures
Cost and Communication	Cost (All 3 items)	Resource Planning, Resource Costs, Time-phased Budgets
	Communication (All 3 items)	Communication Management Plan, Information Distribution, and Reporting Performance
	Integration (1 from 4 items)	Evaluation Procedures
Quality and Risk	Quality (All 2 items)	Quality Management Plan, Quality Metrics
	Risk (All 4 items)	Risk Management Plan, Risk Identification, Risk Analysis, Risk Response

As noted, the PMPQ model is the only framework that examines the quality of the planning processes in the project. From a review of the literature, this dissertation found that there were certain planning areas that were not covered by this model, yet they were believed to be important to project planning and were therefore added to the questionnaire. It is important for further work to continue developing the model to thoroughly assess the planning stage of the project. This should comprise appropriate factors since PCA has indicated that the eight planning variables measured in this dissertation do in fact load onto three factors.

The six NC variables (24 reliable items in total) were found to divide into four factors. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) variables, Environment, Time (past, present, future), and Activity, each formed a separate factor, which offers support for Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) scales. On the other hand, PD, UA, and Polychronic/Monochronic variables loaded onto one factor. This was unexpected since the Polychronic/Monochronic variable is a NC measure of Time orientations, whereas PD relates to leadership-subordinate relationships, and UA refers to the acceptability of uncertainty.

Table 29: NC Factors corresponding to initial NC Variables

Factor	Variable
Power, Uncertainty, & Time-order	PD (All 2 items)
	UA (All 4 items)
	Polychronic/Monochronic (All 4 items)
Environment	Environment (All 5 items)
Time (past, present, future)	Time (All 5 items)
Activity	Activity (All 4 items)

5.6 Project Success

The questionnaire of this dissertation also measured project success via four items,

namely Schedule overrun, Cost overrun, Performance, and Client satisfaction.

Although the ranges for Schedule overruns and Cost overruns were higher for the

Arab group, i.e. reaching 65% for Schedule and 73% for Cost, the majority of each group expressed 0% overruns. The higher percentages expressed by the Arab sample may refer to the complexity of projects in the UAE. Cost overruns may have been higher in the UAE due to the wealth of the country not requiring budgets to be strictly complied with. High percentages may also reflect industry or project-type differences.

When asked about the degree to which the objectives of the project were achieved (Performance), the majority of the British sample indicated a value of 9 and the majority of the Arab sample stated a value of 10. However, there were also low scores (e.g. a value of 3) expressed by the Arab sample. Client satisfaction appears to be an important measure of success for both NCs since the majority of each group (over 50%) conveyed values of 9.

Yasin et al (1997) found that project success was rated differently by Arab project managers. However, the criteria used to measure project success have been shown to be subjective, context oriented, and time-dependent. (El-Saboni et al, 2008). According to Dvir et al (2006), there is considerable research examining the factors that lead to project success, yet different projects will comprise different factors.

5.7 Limitation Issues of Data

5.7.1 Reliability and Normality

The data provided the researcher with numerous interesting findings, supporting
several of this dissertation's hypotheses. Nevertheless, there are perhaps some
limitations of the study that should be acknowledged. Primarily, the reliability of the
UA scale is questionable since it is lower than the acceptable level of 0.7 (Pallant,
2006). Normality was also violated, yet non-parametric tests were performed in
addition to parametric analyses.

5.7.2 Sample Size and Selection Method

A further limitation of this dissertation refers to the small sample size since only 100
participants were in each group. Furthermore, participants were not residing in the
same country since the Arab group were all located in the UAE and 92% of the
British group were located in the UK. However, 8 British participants were located in
the UAE.

5.7.3 Industry

According to Zwikael and Globerson (2006: 688), "Different industries face different
challenges" in the project environment and the quality of planning can be affected by
the project's industry. They found that planning was greatest in construction and

engineering and lowest in manufacturing. Activities are "projectised" in construction

and engineering work but day-to-day operations are apparent in maintenance and

production industries (Zwikael and Globerson, 2006). The current dissertation found

that the majority of the British group were from the Engineering industry, whereas

the Arab group were from various industries, the highest proportion in IT/Software.

Zwikael and Globerson (2006) found that projects often ended poorly in the IT

industry since there is a higher level of uncertainty and a higher usage of advanced

technology. Cost items were also of a similar magnitude for all industries in their

study, which could be due to financial aspects ranking high in all organisations

(Zwikael and Globerson, 2006).

Since industry numbers varied by identification, it is possible that industry affected

results. In addition, OC may influence results since all Arab participants worked in

the UAE and the majority of British participants worked in the UK.

5.7.4 Multiculturalism

According to Cohen (2009), there are various types of culture that control behaviour.

He suggests that comparing people from different countries is ambiguous since

ethnicity may influence behaviour and it ignores the way in which the many forms of

culture interconnect. Kabasakal and Bodur (2002) indicate that there are ethnic

groups in the Arab world, i.e. Berbers, Circassians, Assyrians and Chaldeans, and

variations between the Arab countries involved in the cluster were found. Selmer (2002) has also shown that when people are brought up outside their native country, they may experience work difficulties on return to that country. Some of the Arab participants involved in this dissertation may have lived outside the Arab world since many Arab students travel overseas to attend universities in the U.S or European countries such as the UK. In addition, British participants may have lived outside the UK, especially since eight British participants currently work in the UAE (Table 9). For instance, the researcher of this dissertation is British but attended pre-school in Oman, spent school vacations in both Oman and the UAE, and is now attending a university in the UAE.

In relation to the Arab NC, Yasin and Zimmerer (1995) found two subcultures to exist. The researchers state that the first concerns the Arab Gulf states, which has a unique "conservative" culture heavily influenced by the Bedouin ethic and Islam but the second "liberal" culture consists of the rest of the Arab countries, like Jordan, Egypt, Lebanon, Syria and Palestine. They specify that differences between these two subcultures refer to the role of women, religion, hired labour, and professional qualifications. Unlike the Bedouin of the conservative Arab world, the liberal culture has a very strong entrepreneurial tradition (Yasin and Zimmerer, 1995). It has also been demonstrated that Lebanese women differ to women from the Gulf in their conceptions of leadership, with higher degrees of charismatic authority anticipated in Lebanon (Neal et al, 2005). Differences between certain variables in the Arab culture could also be due to changes taking place in the Arab business world (Ali and Al-

Kazemi, 2005) or that some Arab countries are developing faster than others, i.e. the cosmopolitan UAE. Yasin et al (1997) also argue that traditional approaches to management are altering.

Furthermore, Booth (2008) refers to the cultural changes of the UK such as the increasing influence of regional differences. Each country within the UK has certain aspects that differ to other UK countries. For example, Ireland, Scotland and Wales have their own native languages and Booth (2008) indicates that cultural variations have been shown between England and Ireland. There are also many different ethnic groups (e.g. Indians, Pakistanis, Black Africans, etc) living in the UK (National Statistics, 2004), which may influence results. Although this dissertation used Feghali's (1997) cultural criteria of "identification and mother tongue" and all British participants who identified as British stated that English was their first language and vice versa for the Arab sample, regional differences could still be influential. Multiculturalism is an important issue to consider and may account for the regressions showing low contribution percentages. Nevertheless, a drawback of cultural research is making generalisations about diverse groups within any one NC.

5.7.5 Gender, Language and Religion

Neal et al (2005) point out that lifestyles of Arab women differ to Western women, e.g. the average age of marriage for British women is 29.1, whereas Omani women marry at the average age of 16.9, thus reaching motherhood before joining the labour

market (Neal et al, 2005). Demographics are changing though within the Arab world and the authors point out that there is an increase in Arab women leaders. Although the majority of participants that took part in this dissertation study were male, this was approximately the same for both the Arab and British samples.

As noted, Feghali's (1997) criterion of "mother-tongue language" was used. The first language of all Arab participants was Arabic and the first language of all British participants was English. However, Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) state that culture and language do not always go hand in hand since having the same native tongue doesn't mean sharing NC values. This is quite surprising since Hofstede ensured that the first language of all respondents of his Arab group was Arabic. Additionally, the majority of Arab NC research highlights the importance of the Arabic language (e.g. Feghali, 1997). With reference to the Arabic language, the difficulties encountered when translating the questionnaire were noted in the methodology section. Such translation may create potential errors of understanding and measurement.

The researcher of this dissertation initially considered the affect that religion may have on results. However, Yasin (1996) found no difference between Muslim and Christian entrepreneurs with regard to need for achievement. They argue that the social context is more likely to explain differences in need for achievement scores. Furthermore, Feghali (1997) states that approx 90% of the Arab population is Muslim, yet only 20% of the world's Muslims are Arabs. The researcher decided not to collect data regarding the religion of the participants since this can be a sensitive

issue. Nevertheless, it may influence ratings since Steers et al (2008) reveal that one

of the factors that effects technology development is religion. Furthermore, religion

has an immense influence on Arab everyday behaviour (Loosemore and Al-

Muslmani, 1999; Ali and Al-Qwaihan, 2008).

6. Recommendations

Recommendations first concern the planning stage of the project and the planning findings of this dissertation. Several approaches are then put forward that could be employed to overcome possible cultural misunderstandings in the project. With reference to NC and PM studies, Arab and British NC research, and Planning and NC variables, future research is also proposed.

6.1 Planning the Project

This dissertation concentrated on the planning stage of the project as the weight attached to project planning was accentuated in the literature review. Accordingly, the amount of time that should be spent on planning the project should also be discussed. Most recently, Schwalbe (2009) reveals that most project managers spend approximately 11% of the project's lifecycle on planning the project, yet the "best" project managers spend approximately 21%. Therefore, at least 20% of time should be given to initiating and planning (Schwalbe, 2009). However, other researchers offer different percentages such as Strassman (1990), whom suggests at least 5% of the project's time should be spent on planning the project.

Every project however is unique (Schwalbe, 2009) and Chatzoglou and Macaulay (1996) reveal that there is no single correct answer since project criteria (project size, nature and organisation) should be considered. They indicate that project managers

should continue with the planning phase until s/he feels satisfied that they have carried out everything necessary. This satisfaction however is likely to be affected by NC. Turner (1999) indicates that eventually the project team will need to stop planning otherwise the effort exerted will be greater than the value obtained.

Early research indicates that "Planning the Planning" is often given less attention by the project team (Laufer and Tucker, 1987). This dissertation also found that" Planning the Planning" was a low rated item. Perhaps this is due to the confusion over how much planning is required. A failure to plan however could be attributed to the attitudes of professionals or the industry (Laufer and Tucker, 1987). Project managers should emphasise the importance of planning to the team but top management should also stress the importance of planning to project managers. Perhaps all members should be given training in planning management, e.g. Time management, Primavera, Network Analysis, Gantt charts, etc.

With reference to the planning findings of this dissertation, the following table illustrates the planning variables rated higher by each NC group. It also highlights the Planning and NC relationships found by this dissertation so that recommendations take this into consideration. Arab and British project managers have the opportunity to make use of their different cultural orientations to improve project planning.

Table 30: Planning Recommendations

Planning Variable	Arab and British Ratings	Relationships with NC Variable(s)	Recommendations
Scope	British: Significantly higher	+ Environment (Mastery) + Time (Future) + Monochronic - PD (Low PD) - UA (Low UA)	Scope, Time planning, Integration, and Innovation/Technology were all rated higher by the British group and all associated to the same NC variables. Arab project managers may therefore find it useful to alter their orientations when planning these areas in the planning phase of the project. **Mastery:** Control, Specific, Larger-scale. **Future:** End-results, Long-term. **Monochronic:** Structured, Time-ordered approach, Standardisation.
Time planning	British: Significantly higher	Same as above.	**Low PD:** Closer Teamwork, Leadership-Subordinate interactions. **Low UA:** Information-sharing, Risk-taking, Supportive of Innovation.
Integration	British: Significantly higher	Same as above.	The above shows that even British project members have the chance to adjust certain orientations, (namely, Future and Low UA) to improve planning ratings in these variables.
Innovation/ Technology	British: Significantly higher	Same as above.	
Communication	Arab: Significantly	- Environment (Subjugation)	The Communication variable has opposite relationships to those noted above. Since Communication was rated higher by the Arab group, it seems that when planning communication elements in the project, the British group could improve

	higher	- Time (Past) - Polychronic + PD (High PD) + UA (High UA)	communication matters by altering their orientations to match the Arab NC. Again, Arab project members could decide to alter certain orientations too (i.e. from present to past, from a medium PD to a high PD). **Subjugation:** Emphasis on Fate and Destiny **Past:** History, Traditions, and Prior important events. **Polychronic:** Flexibility, Spontaneity, Simultaneously, Larger social networks. **High PD:** Authority, Clear person in-charge. **High UA:** Anxious, Control, Rule-followers, Employ expertise.
Cost	Similar ratings	- Activity (Doing)	Both NCs gave similar ratings for Cost. Cost related to Activity with higher cost ratings associating with lower Activity scores (Doing orientations). Since both NCs have a Being orientation, it may be worthwhile for both to adopt a doing orientation when looking at cost issues in the planning stage of the project. **Doing:** Strive/Persevere to achieve goals, Well-defined metrics and resource constraints.
Quality	Similar ratings	No NC relationships. Higher ratings by PM qualified participants.	When dealing with Risk issues in the planning stage, a higher PD is likely to produce higher risk ratings. Nevertheless, both Risk and Quality ratings differed according to PM qualification. **Credentials/Training:** Sensitise project members to Quality and Risk issues e.g. training in TQM, Risk Management, Contingency planning, etc.
Risk	Similar ratings	+ PD (High PD)	

6.2 Overcoming Cultural Misunderstandings

Culture blindness is the term used when cultural differences are not taken into consideration (Camprieu et al, 2007), which is often the case in organisations (Enshassi and Burgess, 1990; Grinbergs and Rubenstein, 1993; Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999; Shore and Cross, 2005; Ochieng and Price, 2009). The literature review indicated that neglecting NC can lead to problems, e.g. culture shock (Hall, 1960; Hofstede, 1983), miscommunication (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999; Shachaf, 2008), and managerial issues (Enshassi and Burgess, 1990; Elbanna, 2008) etc. Interestingly, the question of whether or not one can benefit from cultural theories has been posed (Camprieu et al, 2007). They suggest that ignoring cultural differences limits a project manager's ability to take advantage of cultural diversity. Yet, the techniques that have been recommended to aid cultural understanding seem challenging (Burchell and Gilden, 2008).

Chevrier (2003) reviews several projects to investigate the techniques that organisations employ to overcome NC conflicts. The main techniques in operation were 1) ignoring NC differences, 2) relying on occupational/professional cultures to minimise misunderstandings, 3) arranging social events to strengthen personal relationships and 4) using a cultural mediator (Chevrier, 2003). The problem with these techniques is that rather than capitalising on differences, they reject NC differentiation. However, Chevrier (2003) acknowledges that people are unaware of better solutions. Such approaches are also culture-bound and most ignore high-
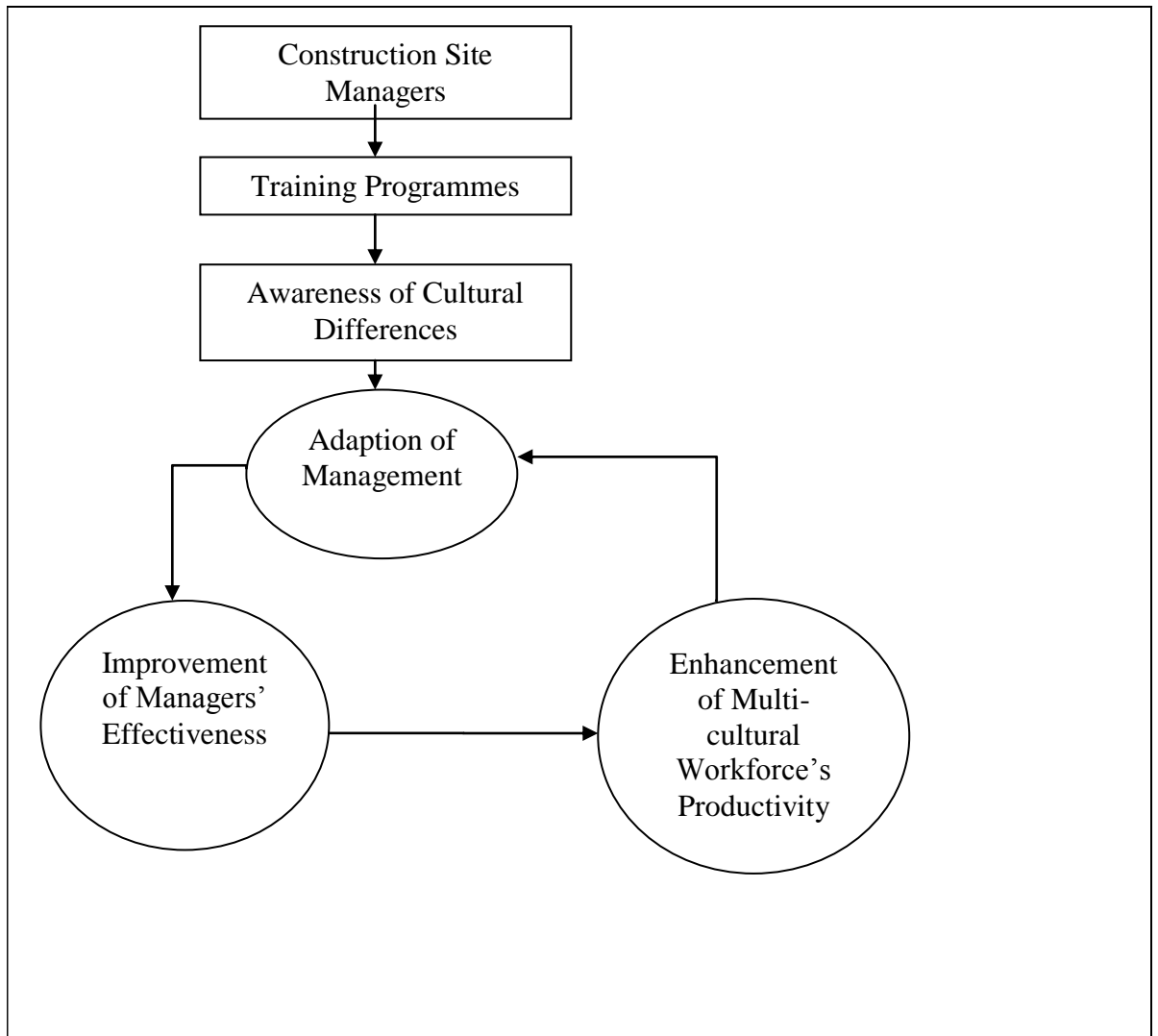
context cultures (Chevrier, 2003). The French are likely to adopt professional cultures since it suits an NC that favours an occupational identity, whereas American firms are likely to deploy communication methods (Chevrier, 2003). The following section highlights several methods but consensus over their effectiveness is yet to be reached.

6.2.1 Cross-Cultural Training

Training programmes aimed at reducing cultural misunderstandings are recommended by several authors (e.g. Enshassi and Burgess, 1990; Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999; Hurn, 2007). Grinbergs and Rubenstein (1993) state that cross-culturally trained individuals will produce encouraging results, i.e. interactions with global partners are likely to improve (Grinbergs and Rubenstein, 1993). Hurn (2007) emphasises that cultural fluency can be gained from training in cross-cultural communication.

Enshassi and Burgess (1990) provided a diagram to show the effectiveness of training managers (Figure 20). They found that managers were not given cross-cultural preparation which is the essential ingredient to such training programmes (Enshassi and Burgess, 1990). The following steps were proposed by the authors to minimise if not entirely avoid cultural conflict.

1. A general approach informing managers of cultural similarities and dissimilarities across countries.

2. Cultural training relating to Religion, Values, Attitudes, Traditions, Language, and Sensitivity.

3. Specific training relating to the type and number of nationalities in the project. This will include the manager's own culture along with all team members' cultures so that comparisons can be drawn.

4. Training should also be given to employees who come from several cultures. Expectations from both the manager and the team are to be discussed so that each person knows what is expected from them. All employees should repeat step two for each project.

```
                ┌─────────────────────┐
                │   Construction Site  │
                │      Managers        │
                └─────────────────────┘
                           │
                           ▼
                ┌─────────────────────┐
                │ Training Programmes  │
                └─────────────────────┘
                           │
                           ▼
                ┌─────────────────────┐
                │ Awareness of Cultural│
                │     Differences      │
                └─────────────────────┘
                           │
                           ▼
                      Adaption of
                      Management

     Improvement                    Enhancement
     of Managers'                   of Multi-
     Effectiveness                  cultural
                                    Workforce's
                                    Productivity
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Figure 20. Cross-Cultural Training

(Reproduced from Enshassi and Burgess, 1990: 99)

Hurn (2007) further proposes that training should involve role-play so that employees

are encouraged to reflect on situations from different perspectives. His focus was on

international negotiating but his recommendations can be applied to numerous project

situations. The HR department of the organisation could implement training that

revolves around prior scenarios or incidents that arose because cultural differences were not considered (e.g. relationship differences in contractor selection, time differences in the planning phases, non-verbal communication when reporting a problem, leadership styles when presenting progress). Enabling people to understand project difficulties from other points of view can give the project a broader perspective. Furthermore, Chen and Partington (2004) argue that training must be based on theoretical up-to-date knowledge and related to particular cultural issues.

Since difficulties often arise in projects, Ochieng and Price (2009) note that creative solutions are often generated from multicultural teams. Nevertheless, communication problems will occur in multicultural teams and as a consequence affect team cohesion (Ochieng and Price, 2009). This therefore implies that employees should receive some sort of cross-cultural communication training. Like Enshassi and Burgess (1990), Loosemore and Al-Muslmani (1999) also recommend cultural initiation programmes for UK firms working in the Gulf. In Loosemore and Al-Muslmani's (1999) study, communication problems were found in international construction projects. Consequently, the level of conflict within the project was high. Project participants from varied cultural backgrounds should alter certain aspects of their cultural behaviour to better suit the project (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999). They suggest that this cultural intervention should take place early in the project lifecycle and the communication process would likely improve since cultural sensitivity would be enhanced through training (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999).

When different NCs are involved in communication, Shachaf (2008) demonstrated that the communication medium altered, with email employed more readily for intercultural communication. Interestingly, polychronic cultures (e.g. the Arab culture) became more efficient at being on time when using virtual channels of communication (Shachaf, 2008). Yet, this could also be interpreted via Lindquisit and Kaufmen-Scarborough's (2007) viewpoint that technological innovations increases polychronic behaviour, e.g. using more than one medium while working at home. Nevertheless, the Arab group of this dissertation were found to rate communication items higher. Arab project managers could capitalise on this by using the communication variable to overcome cultural differences in time and technology/innovation.

Since the Arabic language is an important feature of the Arab NC, learning the language could prove quite useful. At least a basic understanding may prevent confusion with the everyday usage of phrases containing "Bukra - tomorrow" and "Inshallah – God willing." Shachaf (2008) also found that the English language didn't allow Japanese participants to always convey what they wanted to say. This was because the social structure could not be exhibited in the same way as it is in their native language since there is a socially acceptable way of speaking to elders in Japan but translating this into English would alter the meaning. Although it was noted in the previous chapter that Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) claim that having the same language doesn't mean having the same culture, they did contend that people would be insensitive to the culture if they were not fluent speakers in the native

language. Much humour is language-dependent and context-specific often depending on word plays and meaning, for example some Arabic jokes may not seem humorous since the pun either disappears in translation or the joke relates to different Arabic accents. This can also apply to British jokes.
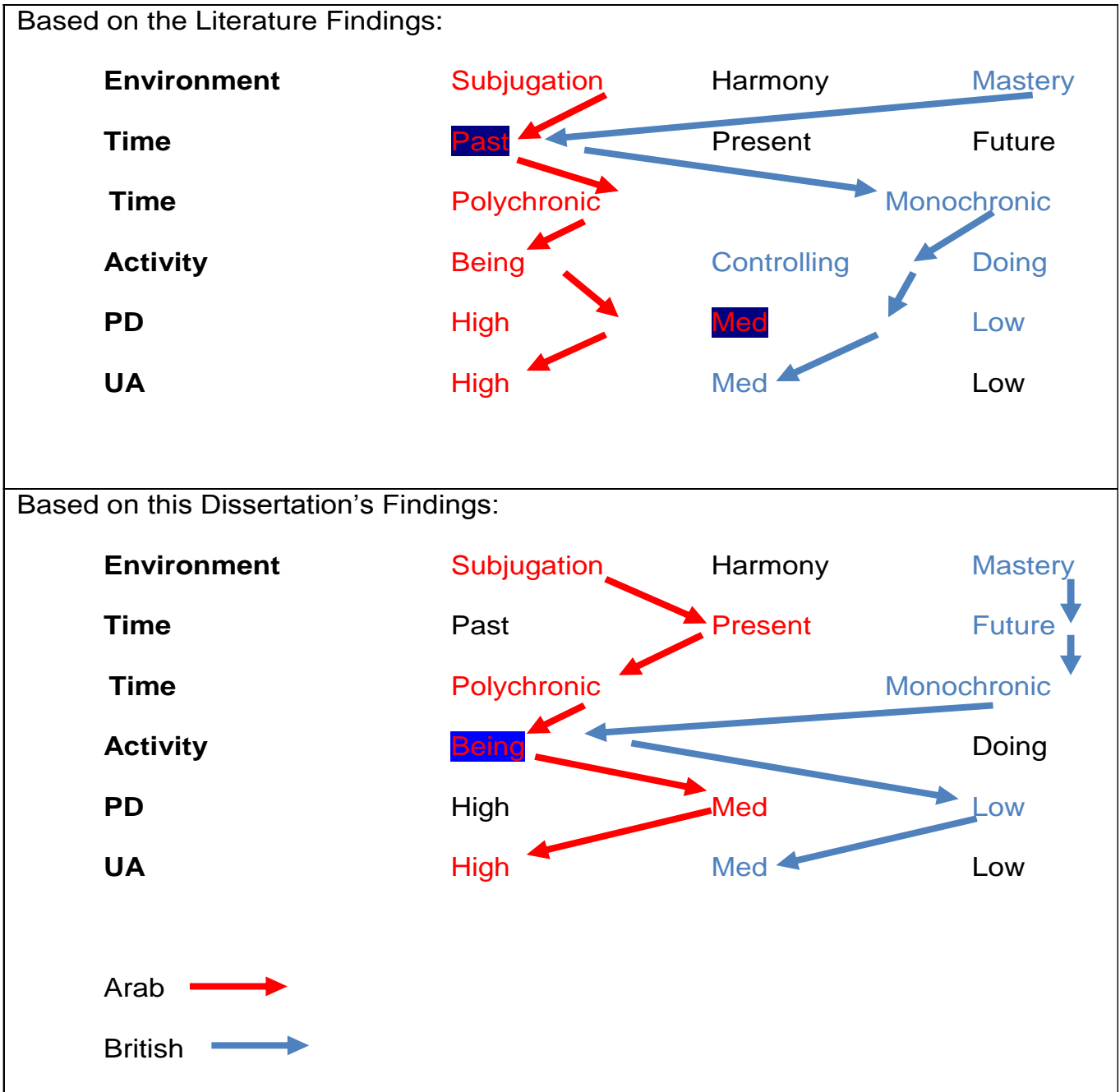
6.2.2 Cultural Knowledge and Experience

Although training programmes have received support from several cultural researchers, they also have received some criticism (e.g. Milosevic, 1999; Ramaprasad and Prakash, 2003). Both articles criticise cross-cultural training since improvements are weak and they are based on the belief that one PM fits all cultures. Ramaprasad and Prakash (2003: 200) assert that it would be impossible to account for all cultural variations since differences can be found in a wide range of things such as 'project personnel's punctuality, deference to authority, non-verbal behaviour, and the work ethic.'

Milosevic (1999: 35) put forward a strategy that should focus on four actions:

- Understand one's own culture and silent language
- Understand culture and silent language of team members
- Identify cultural and language gaps
- Avoid problems or resolve the gaps.

According to Milosevic (1999), this strategy helps project members to anticipate problems beforehand so that the team can plan to avoid them. The advantage of this is that it alerts people that PM practices are interpreted differently. Milosevic (2002) indicates that culture facilitates learning, enables team chemistry to be understood and allows team behaviour to be foreseen. Figure 20 was created to demonstrate Milosevic's strategy for this Arab and British case in point. It first uses the British NC as "one's own culture and silent language" to show where the British NC falls on the cultural dimensions studied in this dissertation. Then the Arab NC is used to "Understand the culture and silent language of team members." The cultural and language gaps can be seen from comparing both. With reference to resolutions, Milosevic (1999) suggests that the first option is the "dominance approach" where PM practices of one's own culture (i.e. the British NC) are followed. The second option is the mixed strategy, in which the strengths of each team member's NC are combined. However, in some projects a single strategy may be required, whereas in other situations all could be applied at different stages (Milosevic, 1999). The first step of Milosevic's (1999) strategy is critical as one's own NC is important to understand, even Hall (1960) emphasised the magnitude of self-awareness.

Based on the Literature Findings:

Environment	Subjugation	Harmony	Mastery
Time	Past	Present	Future
Time	Polychronic		Monochronic
Activity	Being	Controlling	Doing
PD	High	Med	Low
UA	High	Med	Low

Based on this Dissertation's Findings:

Environment	Subjugation	Harmony	Mastery
Time	Past	Present	Future
Time	Polychronic		Monochronic
Activity	Being		Doing
PD	High	Med	Low
UA	High	Med	Low

Arab ➡

British ➡

**Figure 21:** Arab and British NC Orientations

A situational approach was further proposed by Milosevic (2002). Nine responsive strategies were formed on the basis that three scenarios are likely to occur: either the counterpart/project manager has a weak understanding of the project manager/counterpart, or the counterpart/project

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manager has a moderate understanding of the project manager/counterpart, or there is a high understanding between both.

- Weak - A project manager could hire an expert (agent, consultant, facilitator) to enable a mutual connection or the project manager could persuade the counterpart to adopt his/her own PM script.

- Moderate – The project manager may decide to adopt the counterpart's PM script or both parties may decide to alter each of their scripts.

- High – There are three strategies that could be applied, Embrace, Synergise, or Jam. An embrace strategy is suggested when the counterpart is incompetent in the project manager's script, yet a synergise strategy is applied when both are highly competent. A jam strategy refers to "improvisation," where both change their ideas to fit the project work.

The following figure created by Milosevic (2002) further highlights the possibilities of his strategies. This is a situational approach so there is no right or wrong strategy. Every project manager has the choice to decide the most suitable method for their project (Milosevic, 2002).
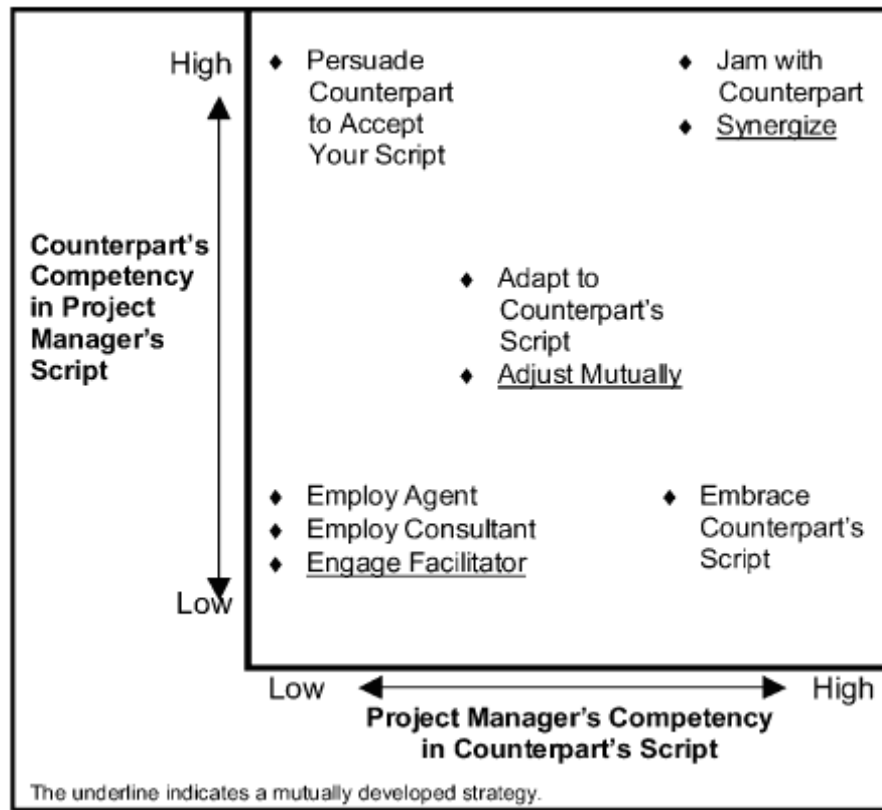
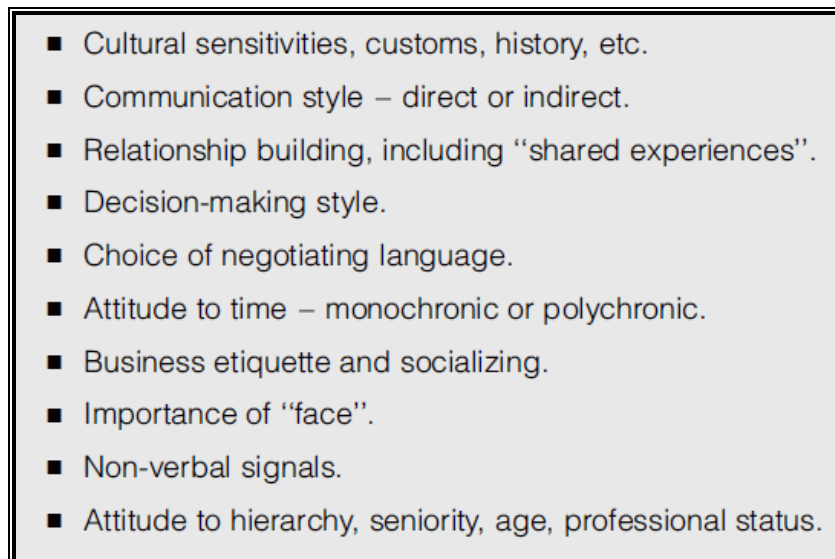**Figure 22:** Milosevic's (2002) Situational Strategies (Source: Milosevic 2002: 499)

However, Milosevic (2002) warns that there are weaknesses, i.e. positional power is ignored, disrespect for culture, and not doing what the Romans do when in Rome. Pinnington et al (2003) researched the role of minimal structures (social and technical resources applied) in improvisation, in which they found that the wider context influenced one's participation. Through a pharmaceutical case study, the researchers found that risk-taking and jamming were less apparent. Nevertheless, Pinnington et al (2003: 26) argue that Bourdieu's theory of practice can facilitate this by highlighting

"the relational nature of social life (involving social position, disposition, and position taking)." Since the social structure did not encourage jamming, the authors suggest that context plays a role in implementing the minimal structure. They recommend relating minimal structures to context (via Bourdieu's theory), which in turn can heighten creativity and productivity.

An example was given by Milosevic (2002) where British project managers convinced an Arab project team to adopt their PM script (a matrix organisational structure). Although the Arab team did not like to work within this structure, they were convinced that it would be the most suitable approach for the project, and hence adopted it. Once the project was completed however, they no longer kept the structure believing that it only worked for that particular situation. Chevrier (2003) also asserts that the solution is contingent but project managers can look back at previous projects to check whether NC difficulties were encountered. This may mean that NC could also be appreciated when reviewing the completed project, e.g. in a post-project review. Information gained from this would likely facilitate future multi-cultural projects.

Another useful project tool is an understanding of culture or more specifically power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, long-term orientation and humane treatment (Shore and Cross, 2005) since they argue that this would provide project managers with a vocabulary. Therefore, project managers are able to thoroughly understand the cultural differences that are likely to occur in the project and

consequently early compromises can be reached. Moreover, Kippenberger (2000) refers to teaching cultural dimensions to members as a way of understanding why certain values, attitudes and beliefs surround that particular NC (e.g. opinions on right and wrong, the role of women, time, etc). Kippenberger (2000) advised organisations to perform a cultural audit to identify significant cultural differences on potential partners such as differences in language and behaviour at social events (meetings, greetings, banqueting). He advises project organisations to go deeply into the cultural audit considering how such cultural behaviours affect business systems and operations. For example, a NC that has a low PD would likely have a preference for flatter structures (Kippenberger, 2002). Hurn (2007) also supports the usage of a cultural audit by suggesting that one should consider one's own culture and the other culture. Figure 23 indicates several of Hurn's (2007) cultural review points:

- Cultural sensitivities, customs, history, etc.
- Communication style – direct or indirect.
- Relationship building, including "shared experiences".
- Decision-making style.
- Choice of negotiating language.
- Attitude to time – monochronic or polychronic.
- Business etiquette and socializing.
- Importance of "face".
- Non-verbal signals.
- Attitude to hierarchy, seniority, age, professional status.

Figure 23: Cultural Audit Points (Source: Hurn, 2007: 359)

Once differences are unravelled, a project manager can overcome such challenges through an understanding of how culture impacts on decision-making (Burchell and Gilden, 2008). According to Hofstede (1983), international experience is helpful for preventing cultural misunderstandings. It was illustrated that employees with more international experience were often employed on multi-cultural projects since they were more aware of non-verbal cues (Loosemore and Al-Muslmani, 1999). Shaw (1990) suggests that international experience helps since more sophisticated cross-cultural schemas are developed. For example, a manager and an employee may have different cultures, yet they may have a similar cognitive structure if both have had cross-cultural experiences (Shaw, 1990). Nevertheless, Hofstede (1983) states that international experience is not enough on its own, both personality and training should be considered. Bailey (2005) also maintains that training enhances experience. In a similar vein, Ali et al (1995) recommended recruiting managers who display tribalistic, sociocentric or conformist values to work in the Gulf area. Since dress code is an important issue in the Gulf, it may be worthwhile wearing local attire to meetings with native stakeholders. Managers ought to have a multicultural attitude and everyone in the project should feel that they belong to a global community (Chiesa, 2000).

Although several of these recommendations appear plausible, it should be mentioned that project managers will need cognitive and behavioural capabilities to both learn and act on local knowledge (Ramaprasad and Prakash, 2003). This seems very tricky if the project contains a wide range of different NCs. Even though the literature

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provides examples of NC differences, Ramaprasad and Prakash (2003) argue that this is inadequate.

6.2.3 Management by Project

Emergent PM has been proposed as a method to overcome cultural problems since it leverages local knowledge and integrates it with one's global knowledge (Ramaprasad and Prakash, 2003). As a consequence, this integrated knowledge enables more effective management (Ramaprasad and Prakash, 2003). The five components of Emergent PM are shown in Table 28, which were based on principles from Emergent Design. However, this will require patience and both behavioural and cognitive skills from the project manager since PM "has to combine its normative top-down global knowledge with the emergent bottom-up local knowledge" (Ramaprasad and Prakash, 2003:204). Although PM has a widespread application in the west (Ramaprasad and Prakash, 2003), projects are being carried out internationally. Hence, an amalgamation of global and local knowledge is necessary for the project.

Table 31: Emergent Project Management

Component	Definition	PM	Example
Constructionism	"Learning by doing" Act upon the knowledge.	A project manager will create certain methods, techniques or procedures that follow PM requirements yet are consistent with the local NC.	Gantt charts or Network analyses can be created to show local calendar dates. A network diagram could be created that takes into consideration important NC dates of the team.
Technological Fluency	"Deep Familiarity" A holistic application of the technology.	Project managers and team members will become fluent in PM techniques so that they can be readily adapted to suit the local NC.	PM software such as Primavera can be taught to all project members. Files and data can then be reprogrammed to include NC requirements.
Immersive Environments	"Total immersion" Immersion in the culture.	This facilitates the learning process. All project members will be provided with the insight of how a particular NC differs.	Different NCs have various traditions, morals, values, etc, that differ from one NC to another. A team exercise could be constructed so that there is a greater understanding of how these will impact the project.

Applied Epistemological Anthropology	"A research spirit" Creating new knowledge requires one to fully determine existing knowledge.	Local knowledge is connected together and utilised for successful PM.	Like in Risk identification, team members can come together to identify possible elements of the local NC that may disrupt the project. From using their local knowledge, the project team can create solutions without offending the NC.
Critical Enquiry	"Dialogue and Debate" This is not criticism but an inquiry into each other's local knowledge.	Project managers and workers will converse with each other and other local people, which would facilitate innovation, problem-solving, and overall awareness.	Respectively questioning differences that are noticed may help the team to appreciate differences. Becoming interested in the native language and learning basic phrases may also be useful to the prevention of project problems.

In order to tackle the problems that may arise from NC differences, Schneider (1995) argues that management by project could be beneficial. Firstly, however he states that if teams are multicultural, they should be arranged early on in the project so that any conflict can be resolved in advance. He then refers to projects as temporary companies and states that:

> ... when a uniform basic level of knowledge exists through the organisation... Standardisation of decision-making and problem-solving methods, briefing and meeting techniques, and delegation principles increases the efficiency of the project work..."
>
> (Schneider, 1995: 249).

Standardisation helps project members to have the same understanding of the tools being used and create a new context (Schneider, 1995). However, it is possible then that this will diminish the advantages of using cross-cultural teams, i.e. different perspectives and analyses of the problem. The standardisation of tools, more specifically to standardise communication and documentation within international organisations, has also been supported by Eriksson et al (2002). They found that meetings were a good way of handling communication sources of conflict. Yet, Globerson and Zwikael (2002) raised the problem with certain communication tools in PM since there are very few tools to facilitate the communication process other than stakeholder analysis.

Interestingly, Schneider's (1995) ideas regarding the execution of tasks to a "best practice" standard concern PM certification. It was already found that cultures are more supportive of PM when there are high numbers of PM trained staff within the organisation (Wang and Liu, 2007). Hence, sending project managers to training (i.e. a certification in PMP) could have critical impacts. Morris et al (2006) indicated that certification has proved vastly critical to the profession. However the results of this dissertation indicated that the only difference found in planning ratings between those holding a PM qualification and those not was in Quality and Risk planning. This may imply that Quality and Risk variables require more expertise.

The "management by project" approach appears to offer a valuable solution, yet PM utilisation is also influenced by NC (Bredillet et al, 2010). Most recently, they discovered that PM has a higher deployment in low PD, low UA, and Individualistic cultures. It was also higher in high GDP/capita countries. However, the scale used to measure PM utilisation looks at the number of certified project managers in a particular country. This is unlikely to give an accurate picture of PM deployment and it is questionable whether people or organisations in low GDP/Capita countries are able to afford certification. Hodgson (2007) indicated that the number of PMI certified professionals is less in Africa and the Middle East, yet PM is being used.

6.2.4 National, Organisation and Project Cultures

Although the focus of this dissertation is on NC rather than on OC, Hofstede (1983) claimed that a strong OC can reconcile NC differences. He presents an example where French employees working in a US company in France responded to questions more like Americans. He argues that OC unites different people through organisational rituals. This is of particular relevance since OC is not commonly contemplated in Gulf workplaces (Al-Ali, 2008). Kendra and Taplin (2004) argue that in order to be successful with PM, companies must change their OC to be project-based. On the contrary, Shore (2008) argues that NC actually influences OC. He declares that the culture within an organisation is created based on the NC structure and that project cultures are formed by project leaders. Furthermore, Pinnington (2003: 215) argues that when examining OC it is important to understand that there is interplay of societal sources of culture, "organisational culture being a particular manifestation of societal culture." OC is not a fixed entity (Pinnington, 2003) so it could facilitate organisations to overcome the difficulties that may arise from conflicting NCs. However, Suliman (2006) found that OC in the UAE has a low affect on individual behaviour. Perhaps OC assistance depends on whether one considers OC as "Liberation or entrapment?" (Pinnington, 2003). Interestingly, this is possibly the case for NC since an entrapment perspective would avoid NC differences (hide them under the table) but a liberation viewpoint would adopt differences (to create new ways of doing things). In addition, few studies investigate the influence that NC has on OC within the Arab context (Klein et al, 2009). They call for more attention to be given to the "ideal Arab OC."

The following diagram was retrieved from Shore (2008) because it clearly indicates the complexity of investigating NC, OC and project cultures. Kendra and Taplin (2004) suggest building a PM culture that both supports PM principles and considers the culture of the company's employees. This will then produce a set of shared values.
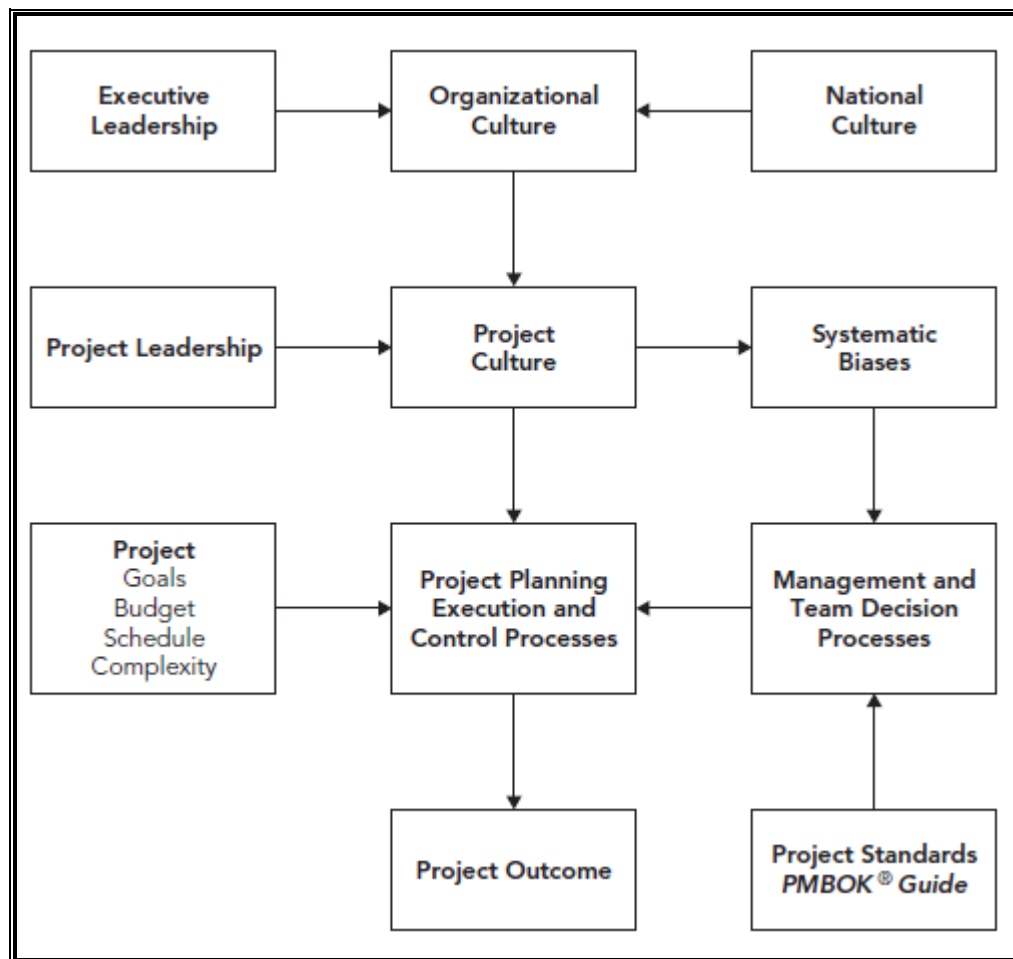
Figure 24. The Complexity of National, Organisation and Project Cultures

(Source: Shore, 2008: 6)

The organisation or the project, however are likely to be comprised with employees holding different values. Kendra and Taplin (2004) found that organisations struggle to adopt a PM culture because project managers, teams, top management and other stakeholders have different values. Consequently, the organisation must ensure that values are aligned, which will require matching mutual values and beliefs with the social and practical features of PM (Kendra and Taplin, 2004). They indicate that a project manager's values, the organisation structure, business processes, performance systems and the PM subculture will all play a role in project success. Marrewijk (2007) also discusses the importance of project culture on project goals. He exemplifies through the case of the Environ Megaproject that a project culture was created, which was based on certain values, namely "innovativeness, creativeness, non-traditionalistic, and independency." When discussing the problems of Singapore's construction industry, Dulaimi et al (2001) argue that the project culture should be customer-oriented, allow for quality improvements, innovation and collaboration.

Perhaps emphasis can be placed on creating an emergent project team culture. Ochieng and Price (2009) stated that multicultural project teams are unable to refer back to an existing identity since they have been formed for the basis of the project and they comprise many NCs. This therefore differs to a team within an organisation or department due to a project's temporary nature. Ochieng and Price (2009) found that in order to reduce the possibility of cultural misconceptions, focus should be

given to the below. The collectivist point of this is quite intriguing since it was already noted that the home to PM is the US (Morris et al, 2006), yet the US has been described as individualistic (e.g. Hofstede, 1983; 2001; Milosevic, 2002).

- All members within the team should <u>Trust</u> each other.

- Tasks should be carried out in a <u>Collectivist</u> manner (rather than from an individualistic perspective).

- Clear lines of <u>Communication</u> should exist within the team.

- <u>Project leaders</u> should be empathetic to NC differences and develop procedures to resolve possible conflicts.

The latter point relates to conflict management and Randeree and El-Faramawy (2010) found that over half of the UAE sample in their study did not have a conflict management policy within the organisation. The researchers elaborate on Islamic conflict models and demonstrated that they may be implemented by all project managers, regardless of gender or nationality. This could be quite useful for organisations in the UAE since implementation of such Islamic conflict models may thoroughly overcome the conflict at hand but it could also educate expatriates about certain Islamic teachings, which play a role in the Arab NC.

6.3 Future research

Firstly, research looking at the Arab NC must continue. It would be worthwhile comparing the results of this dissertation to other NC findings since comparisons could be drawn. The Arab NC will likely impact future business operations so results will provide organisations with much information. The UAE in particular has had an immense influence on today's international business affairs, thus research investigating the Arab NC is useful to inform and benefit future multicultural relationships. This would also help researchers realise whether theories based on findings from the West are applicable to other environments such as the Gulf region.

In order to account for the multicultural limitations of this study, culture could be identified independently like in White (2006) who identified each person's cultural orientation from analyses. Countries like the UK and the UAE have a multicultural environment where participants may actually be from two or more nationalities. It is possible then that there is mixture of different cultural orientations at play. Cohen (2009) indicates that everyone is multicultural since they have a nationality, a regional origin, a social class, and a religion etc, but so far research has not uncovered how these multiple forms of culture overlap. He advanced another approach that abandons talking about which type of culture is more important to study and instead discusses the specifics behind the interrelationship of each, e.g. between high and low

social classes in two countries, or regional differences in two countries (Cohen, 2009).

Nevertheless further research is required to clarify the term "Arab". Feghali (1997) discussed the controversy that surrounds the term "Arab". For example, it is a complicated matter when discussing culture according to "geographical boundaries." She found that the term "Arab" is often confused with other concepts such as "Muslim" or "Middle East" and several countries that belong to the Arab League (e.g. Sudan) have African-related traditions/customs and Arabic is not the first language (Feghali, 1997). Greater care should therefore be given to this "label."

Although cultural research has evidently progressed from the 1990s, Shaw (1990) argued that research did little to explain how cultural differences affect business behaviours. This dissertation also supports this argument and prompts future research to tackle the "how" question. This dissertation found that certain planning variables, e.g. Innovation/Technology, correlated with a number of NC variables. Steers et al (2008) indicates that there is a lack of research investigating technology and culture. They pose a relevant question of whether or not different technologies are expected to correlate with different NCs. Research should study the complexity of relationships in order to uncover the processes behind such relationships. Safety is another issue that must be taken into account since this is obviously an extremely crucial issue in the project environment. However, this is again a weak area of research (Mearns and Yule, 2009) but they point out that NC will likely influence the attitudes held towards

safety. It would be valuable to study this further from an Arab and British perspective, especially since there are many oil and gas projects within the UAE that comprise a range of NCs.

Most studies focus on Hofstede's dimensions and although reasons have been given for this, i.e. Hofstede's framework has been backed by the business literature (Bredillet et al, 2010), there is less research investigating PM methodologies alongside Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) variables and/or the Polychronic/Monochronic variable. Future research should also investigate the other NC variables and Planning variables that this dissertation did not further investigate (e.g. Value Management, Procurement, HR, alongside Universalism/Particularism, Specific/Diffuse, Affectivity/Neutrality, Responsibility, Human Nature, etc.). Cohen's (2009) approach could also be applied here since the many forms of culture could be investigated in relation to PM principles. Project managers would then be able to hold a greater appreciation of the multiple forms of culture.

In terms of PM, it is important to note that PM is not a theory but includes many theories, e.g. risk, knowledge management, negotiation etc (Morris et al, 2006). Perhaps then it is time for this discipline to include cultural theory (national culture, organisational culture, professional culture etc). Surely then project managers would be given a heads up about the project's consequences of ignoring cultural differences. Researchers interested in the PM domain would likely explore the NC differences of PM in greater detail and the proper protocols could be implemented. Emergent PM

(Ramaprasad and Prakash, 2003) was discussed as a possible cultural technique. This could be the course of action required, yet further research is required to test whether this has an effect on project success. It also appears that less research investigates the link between NC, PM concepts/techniques, and project performance.

NC has been discussed immensely in the management literature, yet measuring NC has not vastly improved. Several of the NC questions in this dissertation's questionnaire had to be shortened since they entailed a considerable amount of reading, e.g. Hofstede's (2000) PD questions and items from Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961). Considering language differences are apparent in different NCs, it would be much easier for both participants and researchers if questions were concise. This would most likely improve response rates too.

7. Conclusion

In the last few years, research started exploring the affects that social and cultural issues have on PM (Bredillet et al, 2010). Studies nevertheless must continue since further research is required to completely understand the implications. After all, the way in which we learn is affected by culture (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). Anthropology has provided many useful accounts of how NC affects human behaviour (e.g. Shweder, 2002) but project managers should be provided with this information from a PM angle. PM is based on a number of theories so NC is expected to play an immense role in the interpretation of such notions. Caution, however must be taken since the complexity of relationships and the question of "how" are yet to be fully comprehended. Linking NC to project outcomes is litigious (Ochieng and Price, 2009) as the bond between NC, project performance, and project consequences is unknown. Hence, this dissertation study has originality and offers valuable information to the PM discipline, and in particular to the planning phase of the project.

The major research question of this dissertation "*Do Arab and British project managers differ in the ways that they plan the project?*" has been answered since results demonstrated the existence of PM differences between both NCs. Namely, Scope, Time planning, Integration, and Innovation/Technology were rated significantly higher by the British group, whereas Communication was rated significantly higher by the Arab group. An essential area of future NC and PM research is to compare findings of this dissertation with findings from other countries.

This would lead to successful collaboration for global JVs and multi-cultural projects. Furthermore, investigations should study in detail the connections between NC variables and PM notions, phases, methodologies, and performance, etc. It is possible that a range of orientations are required at different stages of the project (e.g. a Monochronic orientation during planning and a Polychronic orientation during closeout) or even for different PM methodologies (e.g. a Past time orientation for value analysis but a Future orientation for value planning).

In response to RQ2, the PMPQ model was appraised. Several planning variables were not included in the PMPQ model but were included in this dissertation based on a review of project planning literature. Principal component analyses revealed that the initial eight planning variables studied loaded onto three factors. Further research is required in order to create a model that assesses the planning stage of the project. Although this dissertation study focused on the planning stage, project managers still require information on how NC affects other stages of the project. It may also be more appropriate for future studies to look at NC differences within the same industry as this would then enable greater understanding of the effects of specific industry sectors.

As the UAE becomes an increasingly attractive region for business, the cultural values, beliefs, behaviours, and traditions behind this NC are important for organisations to value. However, both the differences and the similarities should be appreciated. For instance, the UAE and the UK have a strong relationship and as

noted there are similarities between both NCs. For example, El-said and Harrigan (2009) point out that "wasta" is something learnt from the West, in particular the UK as this was actually reinforced by the British when Jordan was under British occupancy. The UK has had much influence over certain Arab countries so it is likely that there are familiarities between both, which could facilitate future collaboration. Yet, literature has indicated that trust is critical to multicultural work (Ochieng and Price, 2009) so it seems plausible that trust could be reinforced if one understands why certain cultural values are meaningful to an NC.

However, the literature has specified that NC differences are not completely understood or considered by PM, for example, Loosemore and Al-Muslmani (1999) found that British project managers often ignored NC differences in the project. This again stresses the significance of further research and for PM to emphasise that NC should be considered by the project team/organisation. This dissertation accentuates the importance of not ignoring such similarities or differences and instead recommends capitalising on them to broaden the project outlook, primarily by adopting a situational approach. Still, techniques and procedures require appraisal but once assessed they can be deployed to exploit cultural advantages.

The results and several of the recommendations proposed here highlight further duties for the project manager, e.g. to "unify project teams successfully across international lines" (Kruglianskas and Thamhain, 2000: 61). Kruglianskas and Thamhain (2000) also indicate that top management support is essential since the relationship between

PM and NC is intricate. Behavioural and cognitive capabilities are an essential

ingredient that project managers require (Milosevic, 2002; Ramaprasad and Prakash,

2003). Both researchers contend that these capabilities are not usually components

that he/she possesses. These ingredients will possibly become a significant area of

future PM research and consequently an important element to PM training. With

consideration to the planning stage, numerous proposals were advised to tackle NC in

the project, e.g. a situational approach and cultural audit were recommended, along

with teaching project members certain planning techniques. Moreover, the "planning

the planning" item was discussed in relation to the amount of time that should be

assigned to the planning phase.

Many investigations adopt findings from Hofstede's research but this was carried out

between 1967-1978. Hence, cultural orientations may have altered as lifestyles,

business operations, and even PM has certainly changed since then. This is not to

undermine Hofstede in any way since his findings have been extremely significant to

cultural research. Although there appears to be a discrepancy between definitions and

dimensions of culture (Cohen, 2008), Hofstede's (1983, 2001) definition seems to be

coherent. Stereotyping is a delicate issue though that both researchers and project

managers need to consider when discussing NC. Multiculturalism could perhaps be a

concept that overcomes these sensitive issues and provides expediency to the notion

of culture.

In light of the recent global credit crisis, NC will possibly affect the way in which firms approach the aftermath. Different NC orientations may vary in their approaches to downsizing, crisis management and the implementation of future projects. A NC with a Future time orientation may decide to focus on future business proceedings, whereas a Present orientation may focus on today's events. Perhaps the Past time orientation actually foresaw or prepared for the crisis since this is not the first time that this has occurred. Nonetheless, both globalisation and the credit crisis have increased the likelihood of potential alliances between a diversity of international companies. Hence, NC knowledge will prove useful during such challenging situations.

The NC variables studied in this dissertation related to all Planning variables except Quality. NC can therefore influence the approach adopted by the project manager when planning the project. The Arab and British NCs were selected as a case in point, which illustrated that both have different cultural orientations in Environment, Time (past, present, future), PD, UA and Polychronic/Monochronic variables. Both groups also significantly differed in their planning ratings for Scope, Time Planning, Integration, Innovation/Technology and Communication, which is likely to refer to NC differences since compatible relationships were established. Based on the findings from this dissertation, recommendations were proposed for Arab and British project managers, which took into consideration the NC and Planning relationships found in this dissertation. Since Quality and Risk ratings also differed according to PM qualification, training/credentials in these planning areas was proposed.

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