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Conceptualizing Trust in Global Context with Focus on International Projects and Operations

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Abstract The growing international landscape of business has underlined the significance of multiculturalism and the novel challenges it brings to business implementation. The logic of this study is to draw attention of readers that how trust can be conceptualized and how trust building process is affected in global business environments where more and more projects and business operations. This research employs intensive literature review to conceptualize trust and develop a model of cultural similarities and dissimilarities for trust building in global business environment. Culture is a significant factor in building trust among global projects stakeholders for the reason that trust is vital for developing a well-functioning long term business relationship. The study highlighted that cultural differences among project teams can cause conflict, misunderstanding and poor project performance. Though, this study is presently explanatory study because no empirical evidence is provided. Future empirical research should investigate various scenarios, types of projects, cultures and countries. Cultural issues are pretty sensitive that have immediate association with trust building process among international projects stakeholders. Diminutive systematic research has been done on the cultural effects for trust building in international business context. The probe of how culture effects trust building efforts in global business environments remains unrequited. This study aims to create awareness in the research community for undertaking a detailed and comprehensive research on this topic. It also aims to serve as a foundation for future studies.		
Keywords Trust, Trust conceptualization, Trust building, Global environment, International business, International projects, operations		

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Mian M. Ajmal & Petri Helo

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1 INTRODUCTION

Researchers show great interest in concept of trust - a form of social relations and processes that facilitates the coordination of exchanges (Li et al., 2006). Trust is critical to the success of global business teams in that it encourages cooperation and minimizes unproductive conflict. Without mutual trust, however, team members may shy away from revealing their true beliefs; or if they do express their viewpoints, they may not be "heard". In one way or another, the absence of trust is likely to turn a team's diversity into a liability rather than an asset. Since, multicultural project teams have become more common in recent years, and contemporary international management literature has identified that the management of multicultural teams is an important aspect of human resource management (Ochieng and Price, 2009).

Trust has emerged as a central theme in international strategy research (Zaheer and Zaheer, 2006). Trust is viewed as an etic (culture-general or universal) or as an emic (culture-specific) concept in a cross-border situation (Triandis, 1994; Earley and Mosakowski, 1996), the intersection of different levels or meanings of trust has implications for research into, and the practice of, international collaborations. Even when one approaches trust from the more common etic view, that is, that the concept means the same thing and is measurable the same way across cultures, differences in the levels of trust across societies, as has been found in several studies (Fukuyama, 1995; Yamagishi et al., 1998; Dyer and Chu, 2003).

The increasing global nature of project management has highlighted the importance of multiculturalism and the new challenges it brings to project execution. Typically projects are very diverse, and include entertainment, election campaigns, juries, and construction, paramedics, where a team of experts are assembled to carry out a task, and then disbands once the task is accomplished (Meyerson et al., 1996). Projects are defined as temporary coalitions of actors that are assembled by a project manager, via a web of social contacts, ties and actors from previous projects (Grabher, 2001; 2002; Ekinsmyth, 2002). All projects share common characteristics: they are goal-oriented, time-limited and contain unique or non-repetitive elements (Engwall, 1998).

As the significance of internationalization develops for many organizations around the globe (Bloemer et al., 2013) there is an aggregate concentration in trust building process among the culturally diverse project partners. The international exchange relationship is narrowly connected to the concept of trust (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Scholars often describe trust the major success factor for the business. Trust has been identified as a key element influencing capital invest-

ment, relationship marketing, cross-cultural communication, learning and several types of cooperation such as high tech development projects (Kirsimarja, 1997).

Developing and maintain trust between cultures is a formidable challenge. People from different cultures often bring to relationship building efforts ‘alien’ values and beliefs, ‘peculiar’ behaviors and even incompatible assumptions, which can prevent successful interactions and fruitful collaborations (Arino et al, 2001; Branzei et al, 2007; Farris et al, 1973). It is little wonder that cross cultural interactions often involves misunderstandings, embarrassment, feelings of low self-efficacy, even psychological distress (Molinsky, 2007). DeBruine (2002) has shown in an experiment, people trust people who look like them more than those who do not. Similar countries trust each other more and, thus, can transfer technology faster and more effectively (Spolaore and Wacziarg, 2009).

Various trust models have been proposed to illuminate how trust is build (i.e. McAllister, 1995; Rousseau et al., 1998). Despite these efforts, little systematic research has been done on the cultural effects for trust building in international project context. In particular, the question of how culture effects trust building efforts in project stakeholders remains unanswered. This study attempts to answer the same.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Trust conceptualized

Trust has been conceptualized as a belief or confidence in another's reliability, integrity, credibility, honesty, truthful benevolence (Doney & Cannon, 1997; Ganesan, 1994; Geyskens, Steenkamp, Scheer, & Kumar, 1996; Kumar, Scheer, & Steenkamp, 1995; Morgan & Hunt, 1994), faith that another will meet obligations (Gundlach & Murphy, 1993) and the expectation that another will act in accordance with an individual's beliefs (Sirdeshmukh, Singh, & Sabol, 2002). Essentially, trust is confidence in another's goodwill and integrity as well as the belief in another's ability and credibility, and is associated with such qualities as being honest, faithful and truthful. Drawing on these established notions, we define trust as a belief in the benevolence and credibility of a trading partner (Ganesan, 1994; Kumar et al., 1995). According to Baier (1986), trust is much easier to maintain than to get it started and it is never hard to destroy.

According to Tejpal et al. (2013) the mounting significance of trust is also interconnected to the rising consequence of uncertainty. Or in other way round, uncertainty is in fact a primary characteristic of trust. As described by Vollan (2011), trust comprises of expectation having a positive influence on the social player and is articulated under the settings of uncertainty. In other way, trust materializes in circumstances where a player is not certain of what the other will do; however have decent aims to be sure that the other will follow the expectations (Tejpal et al., 2013). Zolfaghar and Aghaie (2011) argue that trusting also means taking risks, even if we do not frequently deliberate clearly of that except we reflect our relation with the other by taking a third person perspective.

Trust plays a fundamental role in developing and maintaining successful buyer-seller relationships (Kingshott, 2006; Narayandas & Rangan, 2004). Trust has been shown to reduce conflict, enhance coordination and foster loyalty among trading partners (Krishnan, Martin, & Noorderhaven, 2006). Essentially, trust is critical because it facilitates the cooperation necessary for both buyers and sellers (Lohtia et al., 2009) to achieve their performance outcomes from exchange (Palmatier, Dant, Grewal, & Evans, 2006). However, it is difficult to establish trust in relationships when there are significant differences in the cultures of trading partners (Mehta, Larsen, Rosenbloom, & Ganitsky, 2006).

Trust emerges with an intentional process when one party infers that another has benevolent motives toward an exchange partner (Doney et al., 1998). Such as,

demonstrating concern for an exchange partner, as new situations arise during the course of a long-term relationship, signals benevolent intentions (Ganesan, 1994; Ganesan & Hess, 1997). The intentionality process also is facilitated by shared values and norms, which enables partners to assess more accurately whether another's intentions are benevolent (Doney & Cannon, 1997). For this reason, intentionality-based trust is important to members of collectivist cultures such as Japan, since shared values and norms are highly valued in such societies, manifesting the need for sellers to be culturally sensitive (Sako & Helper, 1998).

Trust is a current conviction that another party is willing to take individual and organizational interests into account within the context and under possible events. Trust is intuitively, sometimes part-cognitively, assessed concerning the other party from recent past performance and longer term reputation through the lens of personal history hence experiential disposition to trust, coupled with organizational capability (cultural, systemic and procedural path dependency) to accommodate trusting relations. The presence of a trusted party: (i) reduces perceived (interpreted or 'subjective') risk; (ii) renders the relationship, organizational and project context more conducive to further (real or 'objective') risk reduction; (iii) creates organizational and project opportunities to improve the service and content quality (Smyth et al., 2010). Employees can build up trust in specific individuals, for instance superiors, and generalized representatives, such as the organization (More and Tzafir, 2009).

2.2 Basics of Trust

According to Tejpal et al. (2013) person's capacity to trust another is grounded on one of three basics, the first of which is embedded in one's personality. The belief system established through one's life experiences is related to trust. These experiences are linked to the cultural environment in which the individual has grown up. Secondly, the belief system may be founded on a set of rules and norms established by institutions or society. Thirdly, trust may be based on experiences inside a specified relationship. See the Figure 1.

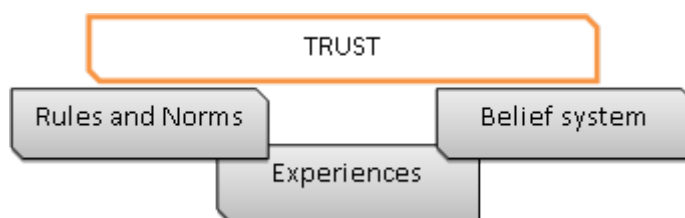


Figure 1. Three basics of ability to trust others

2.3 Streams of Trust Concept

There are two arguments about the streams of trust (Tejpal et al., 2013) as shown in Figure 2. The first stream of concepts is built on the logic that trust is embedded within the trustor (feelings, emotions and cognition) and not in the trustee. For instance, according to Yava and Celik (2010) definition trust was conceptualized as a belief, expectancy, or feeling that is intensely ingrained in personality and has its roots in an individual's initial psychosocial growth. The second stream of concept is constructed on the justification that trust is embedded within the trustee. Trustee necessarily not means the other person. It may possibly be ability, skill, brand, apparatus, technology, designs, formal system, or security etc., dependent on the setting of trust.

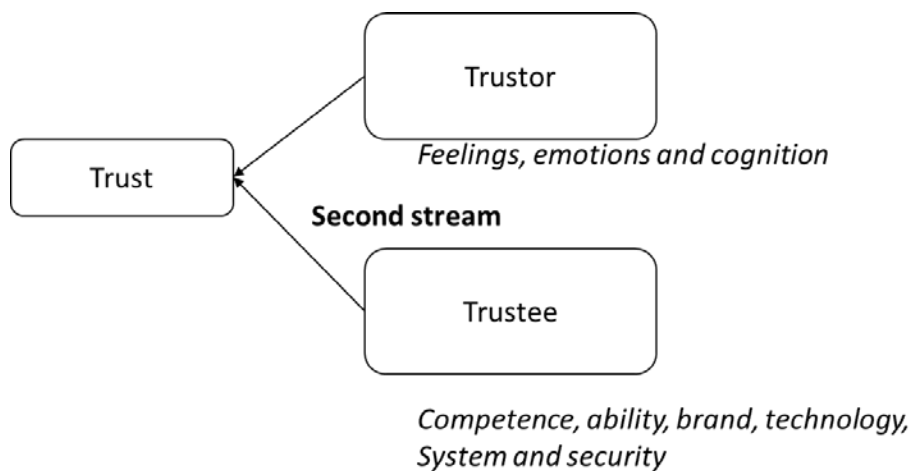


Figure 2. Streams of Trust Concept

2.4 Layers of Trust

One of the attempts to model the concept of trust is presented by Marsh and Diben (2003) who clarify that trust has been mostly categorized into three layers as depicted in Figure 3. The elements in the layer picture are as follows:

- Learned trust: a person's common inclination to trust, or not to trust another person as a consequence of experience;
- Situational trust: in which basic inclinations are adapted in reaction to situational indications;
- Dispositional trust: the psychological temperament or personality trait of a man to be trusting or not.

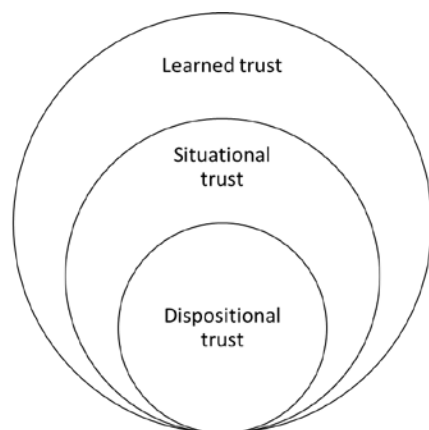


Figure 3. Layers of trust.

A situational indication may be the volume and quality of communication that is, although one may trust a person or may not do so in certain situations and under certain circumstances. These trust layers may be perceived to function as that, in the absence of learned trust, for instance, a person's dispositional trust influences his behavior, and where learned trust exists, and then a person's dispositional trust is less important in determining his behavior (Marsh and Dibben, 2003).

Noorderhaven (1992) also describes the perception of situational trust, in the logic that it is very probable that a specific actor will act in an ordinary way due to factors outside to him, as merchants to keep their obligations for fear of going out of trade. Fox (1975) splits up vertical and lateral trust in the organizations. In which vertical trust denotes the current trust among juniors and seniors. However, lateral trust grows horizontally among individuals who share a parallel work position, such as coworkers. The importance of trust is acknowledged at the personal and departmental level (intra-firm), organizational, regional and national and international level (inter-firm).

According to Currall and Inkpen (2002) it is essential to have consideration to the different levels of trust in international collaborations. Though, most of the trust investigations have emphasized on interpersonal trust. But Zaheer et al. (1998) advocated that interpersonal trust and inter organizational trust are fundamentally diverse concepts that have a shared effect on each other. They establish inter organizational trust to be of larger meaning in creating encouraging organizational consequences than interpersonal trust. Interpersonal trust is susceptible to ups and downs in key persons and the likely interruption of interpersonal affiliations and accordingly to uphold lasting collaboration between business associates, trust should be implanted inside the standards and principles of a firm (Wai-Kit et al., 2007).

Zaheer and Zaheer (2006) claimed that levels of trust fluctuate through international boundaries, and therefore together the nature of trust and the organizational and cultural support for trust can differ through national contexts. According to Wai-Kit et al. (2007) cultural misapprehension is a certain issue that can be anticipated in international collaborations but the threat of this is diminished if there is a great amount of trust among the culturally diverse collaborators.

According to Hoff et al. (2014) the level of prior trust among the central company and its possible exchange associates before the business is significant for examining the consequence of inter-organizational trust. Bachmann and Zaheer, (2006) claim that prior trust stands up always from three sources:

- 1- Prior exchange experience;
- 2- Overall reputation of the prospective exchange associates, and
- 3- Larger institutional atmosphere.

2.5 Trustworthiness Scale

Barney and Hansen (1994) have established a three-level trustworthiness scale, which consists of three elements: (1) weak-form trust, (2) semi-strong-form trust and (3) strong-form trust (see Figure 4).

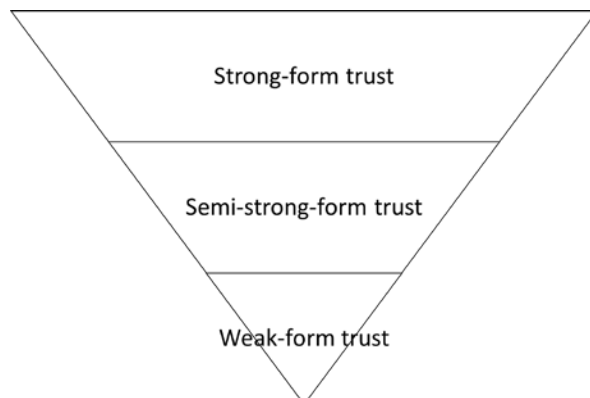


Figure 4. Trustworthiness scale (Barney and Hansen 1994)

According to Barney and Hansen (1994) weak-form trust takes place for economical articles of trade in which there are restricted prospects for opportunism and

thus no tangible exposures. Semi-strong trust takes place where parties discover it ridiculous to act opportunistically, possibly for the fear of misplacing their status. In strong-form trust the parties have adopted ethics, moralities and behavioral principles, which reveal the two partners' past, philosophy and individual view-points and which neutralize speculation.

2.6 Types of Trust

According to Tejpal et al. (2013) there are different perspectives on trust particularly in international context (see the Figure 5). Briefly these could be explained as below in six elements.

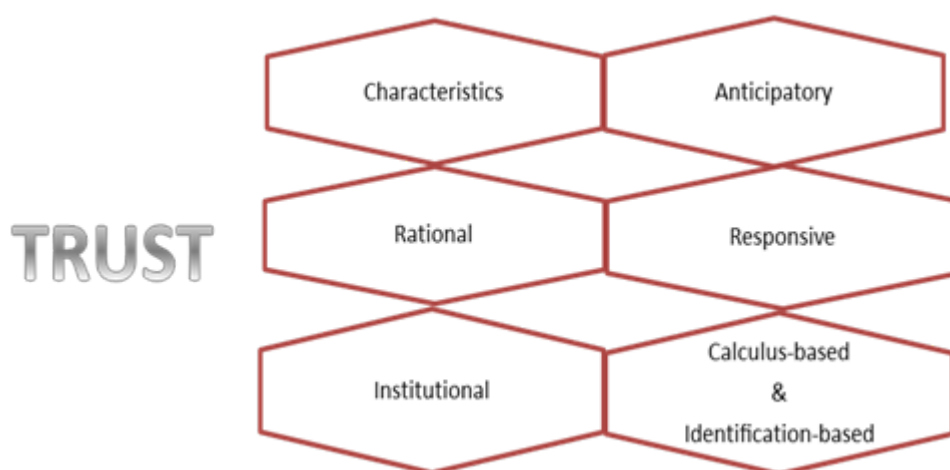


Figure 5. Different Types of Trust (Tejpal et al. 2013).

2.6.1 *Characteristic trust*

This deals with aspects such as observations, consistency, loyalty, integrity, guarantee, decency, generosity, impartiality, goodwill and emotions etc. Trust is built constructed on the particular familiarity and communality (Tan and Thoen, 2001).

2.6.2 *Rational trust*

It includes the factors for instance financial side of relationship, vibrant competences of associates and technology embracing. As said by Doney and Cannon (1997) the wisdom of trust building is grounded on calculation, forecast of positive or negative consequences and competences.

2.6.3 *Institutional trust*

According to Child and Mollering (2003) it contains the factors such as control mechanisms among fellows with authorized structures, commercial law, agreements, pacts, bank pledges and insurance coverage.

2.6.4 *Anticipatory trust*

In fact, it is expectation based trust. In which somebody trusts the other subsequently one expects him or her to act consistently. It is the standard pattern of behavior that forms the basis for trust.

2.6.5 *Responsive trust*

Sztompka (1999) explains that responsive trust is no longer predictability that is dominant in a trusting relation, but it is so called unspoken claim of trust. The trustor presumes that the trustee has not simply the aptitude to admit accountability, but the trustee feels a compulsion to reply to the trust placed.

2.6.6 *Calculus-based trust and identification-based trust*

According to Lewicki and Wiethoff (2000) there are two types of trust which are associated to specialized and individual relationships. Specialized relationships are usually task-oriented and intended at attaining objectives, although individual relationships deal more in the social or emotional empire and emphasis on the relationship itself. Calculus-based trust (CBT) and identification-based trust (IBT) are eminent from each other. In CBT that is commonly associated to the place of work, persons incline to function on an incentive or penalty structure (Lewicki and Wiethoff, 2000). In IBT typically parties recognize and comprehend the potentials of each other. In harmony, they develop their understanding about the performance the other would anticipate in a certain circumstances and take the initiative of acting for each other in that certain circumstance. However, formation of IBT necessitates that these individuals share mutual values and goals built on joint benefit (Lewicki and Wiethoff, 2000).

Trust can be also classified into other categories for example as organizational versus personal-based trust, or goodwill versus risk-based trust. The things which lead to trust are stated as trust antecedents. Through diverse trust antecedents, a specific level of trust is shaped by the parties involved in trust process.

2.7 Other Classifications of Trust

Sako (1992) in a parallel way has also suggested three levels of trust: contractual trust, competence trust and goodwill trust. The contractual trust denotes to honoring written or oral treaties by a reciprocated and universalistic settlement on ethical codes. The competence trust mentions the anticipation of a transaction partner's equally technical and managerial know-how. Goodwill trust states the common beliefs of strong pledge to each other. It is the utmost intangible form of trust. Bidault and Jarillo (1995) also classify trust by splitting it into two constituents, technical trust and moral trust.

2.8 Particular and General Aspects of Trust

In international environments always people work together with acquainted and unacquainted persons or parties. In these situations they face two different aspects of trust (Delhey et al., 2011). These trust aspects are particular and general. According to Portes and Landolt (1996) particular aspect of trust is functional in small, face-to-face communities where people know each other and interact narrowly and where social controls are robust and misconduct can be easily penalized (Axelrod 1990). General aspect of trust in unacquainted persons is functional for multifaceted societies that include numerous day-to-day interactions amongst unfamiliar people (Nannestad, 2008). However, to judge the extent of general trust one requires evidence about both the level and the range of trust. If the level is low or the area is narrow, the amount of general trust must be considered small (Delhey et al., 2011).

2.9 Trust in Different Disciplines

According to Marsh and Dibben (2003) many efforts have been made to discover the understandings indicated by the term trust in a number of disciplines, ranging from philosophy and sociology to psychology. The subject is fundamentally concealed, however, by the fact that each discipline focuses on particular elements of the phenomenon. But now days with more globalized world and in international environment it has developed more interest in business management disciplines. The role of trust has been recognized for a long while in the social sciences. The aptitude to trust enables humans to cooperate in relationships and is consequently crucial for psychological health (Young, 2006). According to Young (2006) trust is vital in social exchanges including close personal ties and also business and work relationships.

The prominence of trust has been quoted in all major sub-areas of business by different scholars as in leadership (Atwater, 1988), communication (Giffin, 1967), Management by Objectives (Scott, 1980), business negotiation (Bazerman, 1994),

game theory (Milgrom and Roberts, 1992), performance appraisal (Cummings, 1983), labor relations (Taylor, 1989), and employment of self-managed work teams (Lawler, 1992). The concept of trust appears in many disciplines. Table 1 discourses the concept briefly from the social psychology, philosophy, economics, contract law and marketing perspective.

Table 1. Trust in various disciplines

Discipline	Rationalization	Author
Social Psychology	Confidence and interactive objective must exist for trust to occur. Trust is narrow, if one merely believes in the credibility of the other, without being eager to have faith in it. Also, if one is eager to faith in other party without believing in that person's trustworthiness, this confidence may be additional a function of influence and control than of trust.	Moorman <i>et al.</i> (1993)
Philosophy	Typically ethical philosophers perceive trust as virtuous and the discontent of notorious trust as continuously incorrect. Philosophers perceive trust in a selection of practices and varieties: it can be insensible, undesirable or mandatory, or it may be trust of which the trusted is unmindful.	Baier, 1986
Economics	The move in emphasis towards improperly competitive markets, wherein an insignificant number of agents form enduring associations and create relation-specific investments, has drawn consideration to this topic.	Lundvall, 1990
Contract Law	Contract law relates to the legitimate privileges of exchange parties and guides the design and behavior of exchange. If one side fails to accomplish its part, can be vulnerable by lawful endorsements imposed by the legal structure. As an alternative, companies collaborate under joint understanding and trust.	Grundlach and Murphy, 1993
Marketing	Pretty recent trust has developed especially in the evolving relationship- marketing hypothesis, where the formation and administration of trusting relationships have been stressed. Several streams inside the relationship-marketing approach confess that trust leads to the sort of fruitful and supportive performance that is vigorous for lasting relationships.	Salmond, 1994; Morgan and Hunt, 1994
Supply Chain Management	Confidentiality has been projected as an imperative element in building trust amongst supply chain partners along with the sharing of secrets.	Sahay, 2003

The subject of trust is building augmented importance in organizational studies (Mayer, et al. 1995). According to Gambetta (1988), scholars are mentioning trust as an essential ingredient, lubricant, and un-avoidable aspect of social interaction. Organization theory, economics, marketing and even now operations management discipline have turned out to be captivated by trust. Especially, services and relationship marketing have been found in trust for making buyer and seller relationship more and more strong (Halliday, 2003). A crucial way to this strategic relationship is the creation, maintenance and development of trust. According to Lewicki and Bunker (1996) there are three sets of professionals to whom trust is applicable; personality theorists, who apply it to human life; sociologists and economists, who view trust at the intra- and inter-organizational level; and social psychologists that emphasis on interpersonal relations.

According to Kantsperger and Kunz (2010) different dimensions of trust can result in different outcomes for the service relationship. In relational exchange of service industries, trust plays a major role in managing the service companies (Gummesson, 1994). In line with customer perception, trust gets crucial in many relational exchange circumstances and condenses the apparent risk of the service outcome (Laroche et al., 2004). As for instance, described by Kantsperger and Kunz (2010) that the results of surgery cannot be inspected beforehand but often the outcome is permanent. Therefore, the customer must have trust in the know-how of the surgeon. With the rise of big service chains (e.g. airways, banking, fast-food chains, and rental car agencies) in service industries, it becomes more and more difficult for the customer to build a personal relationship with the service employee (Kantsperger and Kunz, 2010). These services are categorized with high-rotation on the service encounter. Also, encounters with service personnel are constantly swapped with numerous self-service technologies as in banking industry (Meuter et al., 2000). Thus, the likelihood of building interpersonal trust towards individuals is restricted in this circumstance.

In service industry trust becomes predominantly significant in the whole company because the service is executed by diverse and changing service personnel as service chains (Kandampully, 2002). Usually clients have to trust the firm to hire simply well-trained employees, who are able to fulfilling his desires and anticipations. From an institutional approach, trust functions as a means to diminish operation costs in terms of search, information, or negotiating costs in the relational exchange between customer and service company (Williamson, 1985).

2.10 Trust in Entrepreneurial Settings

According to Scarbrough et al. (2013) trust has been extensively acknowledged as affirmative element in entrepreneurial situations. In serving entrepreneurs, it incapacitates the hazard and ambiguity that may influence collaborative relationships in entrepreneurial settings. It is also perceived as preventive unprincipled activities in joint associations. Ultimately, diminish observing costs, and shrinks

the information irregularity between participants by smoothing information transmission (Welter, 2012).

For example, Shepherd and Zacharakis (2001) explain the development of trust as a steady and incremental course of gesticulating pledge in a relation among associates. Appropriate activities contain gesturing pledge and uniformity being rational and unprejudiced winning a decent fit with the partner, and regular and open communications. Likewise, Maxwell et al. (2011) suggest several trust-building actions witnessed in face-to-face communications among entrepreneurs and investors.

2.11 Role of trust in Public Administration

As we can observe in today's globalized era there is lot of debate about electronic form of public administration and many countries are switching from traditional to electronic governments. But with regard to e-form of government experts believe trust plays a central role. As thought by Bannister and Connolly (2011) that in the setting of public administration and e- government trust is a multifaceted concept that presents scholars with numerous challenges. Transformation is mostly a problem of description and degree it is not a complex paradigm. However, trust is a complex theory with many understandings.

According to Bannister and Connolly (2011) the ultimate concern to governments themselves, both politicians and public servants, are the elements and mechanisms that lead citizens to trust their government and public administrations and subsequently to involve in trusting behavior. They further investigate that are these mechanisms the same for developing trust amongst individuals as they are for developing the trust that an individual has in the government? To answer this query different literatures have quite dissimilar viewpoints and also there is specific discrepancy. The backgrounds elements of trust are also influenced by whether power or risk in an operation is equal or unequal. Generally trust needs to be reciprocated. But for a citizen dealing with government, the situation is never equal, so the nature of the trust required by citizen and government will be different (Bannister and Connolly, 2011).

2.11.1 *Commitment and trust*

In the relationship management literature, commitment is indivisibly linked with trust (Bloemer et al., 2013). Morgan and Hunt (1994) claim that commitment and trust together are essential to get the results that indorses efficiency, productivity, and effectiveness. When the parties involved in a business relationship trust each other, they are less prospective to show unprincipled behavior or take advantage of each other (Styles et al., 2008). Subsequently, we assume trust to have an affirmative value on affective commitment, which means that it successfully serves as additional stimulating force. According to Bloemer et al. (2013) trust has a

constructive influence on affective commitment. Trust also makes transacting parties self-reliant in the other party's morality, truthfulness, consistency, sincerity, reliability, and generosity (Saleh et al. 2014).

2.12 Trust in Academic Interaction

According to Farini (2012) from many decades pedagogical theories have been suffering with stark troubles in escaping the unintentional consequences of educational intentions. With more internationalized environment in academic institutions learning experts are concentrating on new pedagogical methodologies. New pedagogical methodologies consider the most topical cultural assumptions of interaction with youngsters that concerns the superiority of their input and assertiveness in the studies and learning process (Farini, 2012). Youngsters' involvement is mainly observed as contribution in decision-making, through which they can feel prominent (Lawy and Biesta, 2006). Various pedagogy studies discuss different broad issues involved in learning process but the most important and often ignored is the trust amongst educators and young people. Trusting commitment in particular interactions amongst the learners and educators is energetic for the revival of outstanding learning process. Learning is mostly affected by lack of trust, which creates the dissatisfaction of anticipations. Trust building is an imperative subject of educational research to examine the strategy of enablers that can endorse trusting commitment among the learners and educators (Farini, 2012).

2.13 Antecedents of Trust among Supply Chain Partners

According to Coulter and Coulter (2002) there are different antecedent elements of trust. Tejpal et al., (2013) have discussed these antecedent elements of trust with supply chain partners' perspective. A concise synopsis of each element is given below as well as depicted in Figure 6.

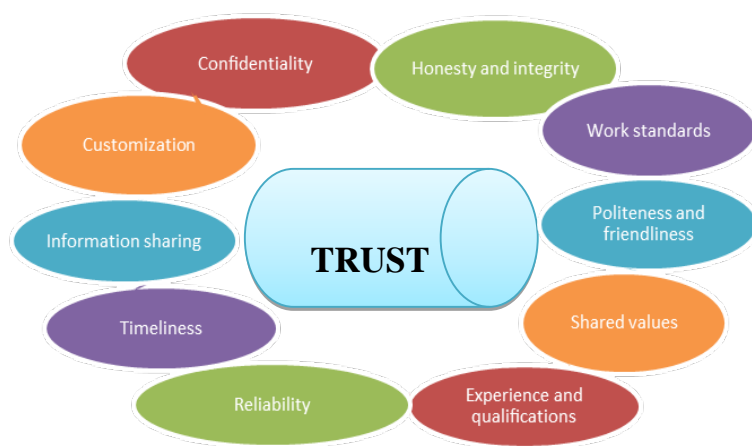


Figure 6. Antecedent elements of trust

Confidentiality has been projected as an imperative element in building trust amongst supply chain partners along with the sharing of secrets (Sahay, 2003). Honesty and integrity has been considered as one of the key elements in building and sustaining trust in supply chain corporations (Kwon and Suh, 2005). Trust in a supply chain can be related to the members’ competence or work standard, skill, knowledge and ability to fulfill a promise, agreement or obligation. Mutual trust between supply chain partners is built on the trust in, and acknowledgement of, the competence of the other partner to provide goods or services customized to their requirements (Kwon and Suh, 2005). According to Coulter and Coulter (2002) sympathy and politeness trust fundamentals collectively with wholeheartedness and friendliness can uphold trust when supply chain partners are involved in systematic collaboration. Bhatt (2003) claims that supply chain partnerships are erected on the trust that their partners follow shared values or likeminded objectives. Coulter and Coulter (2002) elaborate that trust can as well be built among supply chain partners on the basis of know-how, specialized qualifications or proficiency of partner organizations linking to the production of products or delivery of required services. Heffernan (2004) believes that trust is established by the partners by doing what they have said initially. Trust can be also created on the knowledge that the partners are reliable and will retain their undertakings to each other. According to Yee and Yeung (2002) the promptness of a partner in responding to other partner’s demand establishes trust amongst the supply chain partners. Thorough business operations adaptation and customization and delivering substitutions to encounter the certain requirements of the other supply chain partners’ trust can be also established and sustained. Cooperation amongst partners can facilitate the supply chain affiliates to adapt and customize their supply chain practices, goods and services to fit their partner’s business to make upgraded performance for the supply chain (Coulter and Coulter, 2002). Constant pledge to communication can also maintain and build trust between supply chain affiliates for sharing information and planning (Kwon and Suh, 2005; Myhr and Spekman, 2005).

2.14 Trust and Borderless E-commerce

According to Li et al. (2012) the swift growth of the internet and e-commerce during the late 1990s has created an augmented importance of trust in online transactions. In typical offline or face-to-face trust encourages gestures or the possibility to grasp and try products beforehand customers buy it (Josang et al., 2007). On the other hand, in online transactions these features are generally absent (Rose et al. 2011). Furthermore, online transactions also cross cultural, social or regulatory restrictions more often than their offline corresponding items. It should be highlighted that online trust is, first and foremost, about trust. There is no major difference between the concept of trust in general and trust within an online environment. The differences are not in the concept of trust itself, but in the setting in which trust is molded and upheld, because of the variances among features of the online and offline atmospheres (Li et al., 2012). The trust is affected from a variety of trust antecedent elements some of them are technological, others centered on social norms or habits, and some built up over time. In the presence of trust antecedents which form sufficient faith for an organization or individual to contribute in an online transaction.

2.14.1 Trust classifications in online services

Grandison and Sloman (2004) have characterized trust for online services in five different categories:

- (1) Resource- access trust
- (2) Service-provision trust
- (3) Certification trust
- (4) Delegation trust and
- (5) Infrastructure trust

In online services, trust is not merely influenced by the affairs among the trustors and trustees but also arbitrated through technology with attitudes of the trustors as an object of trust towards technology (Bart et al. 2005). In online transactions the trustors and trustees can be human or computer agents or organizations. Even in inter-organizational relations it is specific agents within those organizations who manage the relations and the inter-personal trust will be reflected in the general level of trust between these organizations (Li et al., 2012).

2.15 Trust in Risk Management

Earl (2010) states that there are two factors that might relate with trust during risk management process, like knowledge and shared values. The influence of trust on risk perception, for instance, might be ultimate when knowledge is deficient, and the indication of that relationship might differ subject to whether respondents fa-

vored or disagreed the actions of the targets of their trust findings. Trust is determined or influenced, from the most broad-spectrum to the most specific as:

- (1) Sociocultural and individual personality characteristics;
- (2) Perceived institutional characteristics;
- (3) Perceived risk characteristics; and
- (4) Perceptions of the information received.

2.16 Trust and Inter-organizational Relationship

Seppanen et al. (2007) believe that firm's capacity to create inter-organizational relationships for instance alliances and a partnership has turned into a critical basis of knowledge-based competitiveness and a dynamic capability. Several scholars have identified certain critical success factors for these relationships. Amid the most common, one of the most critical is trust. Trust enables more open communication, information sharing and conflict management (Blomqvist, 2002). It has been suggested that a certain extent of trust is compulsory as a starting point for inter-organizational collaboration to grow (Blomqvist, 2002). Trust is understood to be critical as it is perceived to escalate likelihood (Sako, 1998), elasticity (Lorenz, 1988), and strategic flexibility (Young-Ybarra and Wiersema, 1999). Overall, trust is perceived to condense transaction costs such as governance costs and internalization costs (Bidault and Jarillo, 1997). It also concretizes the mode for casual network cooperation (Bidault and Jarillo, 1997) and joint innovation (Miles et al., 2000). According to Barney and Hansen (1994) trust may be a critical element in augmenting business performance and serves as foundation for sustainable competitive advantage in international environment.

2.17 Trust and International Business

The challenge of establishing and maintaining trust in cross-cultural relations is most apparent across national borders. It is a truism of globalization that the worldwide transfer of capital, labor and investment, coupled with the network-oriented nature of the organizations and their markets, and the fluid employment and social environments within which many now operate, entail elaborate interdependencies within and between workforces in different countries (Caldwell and Clapham, 2003; Gulati, 1995). Yet, although the 'globalized' nature of work is rendering national cultural boundaries somewhat 'fuzzy' (Doney *et al* 1998), the influence of national cultural traits and norms on people perceptions, beliefs, values and behaviors endures (Pothukuchi *et al* 2002), and remains problematic for trust building (Dyer and Chu, 2000; Johnson and Cullen, 2002).

International coalitions like mergers, Joint Ventures, strategic alliances and outsourcing arrangements bring people together from diverse organizational cultures (Luo, 2002; Madhok, 1995; Maguire and Philips, 2008; Ring and Van de Ven,

1994; Zaheer *et al* 1998). New patterns of working are emerging within organizations that require employees to negotiate manage an even more complex of network of relationships (Kasper-Fuehrer and Ashkanasy, 2001; Rubery *et al* 2002). The recognition of the importance of trust by scholars and practitioners in organizations has grown dramatically in recent years (Bijlsma-Frankema *et al.*, 2008). Numerous researchers have examined trust antecedents and outcomes (Baptiste, 2008; Mayer *et al.*, 1995).

Trust is an important factor in business-to-business relationships but it is portrayed as a complex entity that is difficult to measure (Gulati, 1995). The concept of trust is not new, however, it has only recently (from the beginning of the 1990s until today) been the focus of research in project management. Even though it has received a great deal of attention, there are so many different views of trust that it tends to confuse more than it clarifies (Misztal, 1996). Trust is a dynamic (Hawke, 1994) and complex construct with multiple bases, levels and determinants (Rousseau *et al.*, 1998). Trust has been expanded to a range of theories and concepts applied in different fields according to their natures and characteristics (Frost *et al.*, 1978; Good, 1988; Jones and George, 1998). Owing to the complexity of many projects as well as changing project conditions, the theories and concepts of trust are often different from setting to setting (Kramer and Tyler, 1996; Rosenfeld *et al.*, 1991).

Projects have certain characteristics: i.e. temporary, high flow of personnel, defined time pressure, and uniqueness. These characteristics have an impact on building trust since these characteristics are less common in permanent organizations. For example, projects are temporary, and this characteristic may conflict with the building of trust, since trust is most often established over a time period that includes several interactions (Dervitsitotis, 2003).

Numerous studies have considered trust as a factor on projects. Few studies have analysed trust as one project factor and value has been neglected. Some of the studies of trust *per se* have alluded to value issues, for example, on the one hand high trust levels across a project design team and with the client was perceived to be reducing transaction costs and maximising creativity and problem solving (Smyth, 2005), whilst on the other hand a lack of investment in trusting relationships across a series of PFI projects was starting to directly increase transaction costs and indirectly increase operational costs (Smyth and Edkins, 2007; Edkins and Smyth, 2006).

The Global Project Management Framework addresses the combined challenges of the international, distributed and virtual projects, being mainly dedicated to *global projects*. This novel category can be defined as a combination of virtual and international projects, which includes people from different organizations working in various countries across the globe. The managers can use the following dimensions (see figure 7) to evaluate the level of complexity of their projects, and identify if they are experiencing the same challenges than other global project managers.

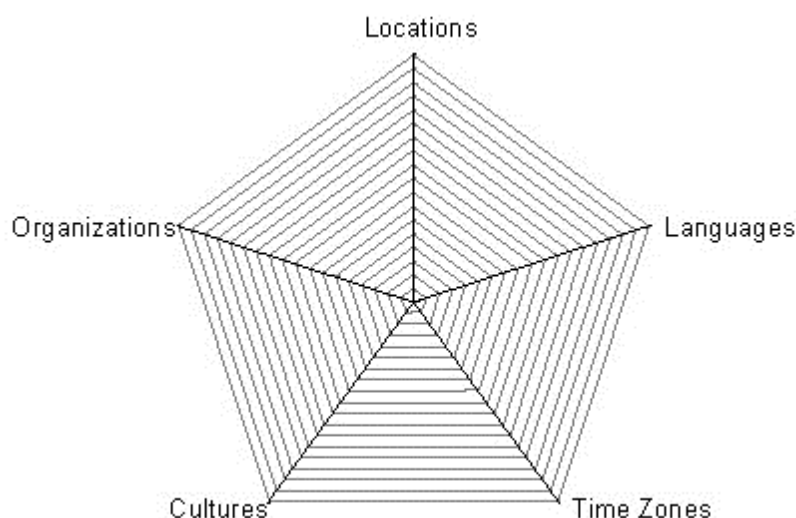


Figure 7. Dimensions of International Projects (source Binder, 2007)

The above dimensions can be represented by a radial chart where the centre represents the lower complexity levels: single department, location / time zone, language and cultures (Figure 7). The combination of medium and high marks shows the higher complexity of projects across borders, with team members from different cultures, languages, and organizations working in different nations around the globe: the global projects. Organizations can use the scale above to establish comparisons among different projects, to decide when to apply the best practices, and for risk management.

As pointed out by Bhaskaran and Sukumaran (2007) significant cultural differences are visible across organisations owned and managed by individuals of one nationality and significant cultural similarities are apparent across organisations owned and managed by individuals of different nationalities. Many other factors such as the legal, economic and regulatory context of the organisation influence its values, orientations and practices more profoundly than the national culture of its owners and managers.

2.18 Trust and International Stakeholders

Project management deals with the directing and control of subordinates. A newer perspective presented by scholars like Cleland (1986), Burgoyne (1999), Jergeas et al. (2000), Freeman (2002), and Dervitsiotis (2003), emphasizes that the management of project stakeholders is one of the most important tasks for a project manager because a project's success depends upon many individuals, including several who do not report directly to the project manager. According to Cleland (1986), the management of a project's stakeholders' means that the project is explicitly described in terms of the individuals and institutions that share a stake or

an interest in the project. Project stakeholder management is designed to encourage the use of proactive project management for limiting stakeholder activities that might affect the project negatively, and to assist the project team's ability in taking advantage of opportunities to encourage stakeholder support of project goals. For a project manager, it is vital to build good relations with the stakeholders who are identified as being most crucial for the end result (Karlsen et al., 2008).

The political system is likely to influence both the value priorities of the members of society and the degree of value consensus in society. One critical distinction among political systems is their location along a dimension ranging from democracy to totalitarianism (Christensen, Engel, Jacobs, Rejai, & Waltzer, 1971; Dahl, 1971; Galnoor, 1982; Huntington, 1991). Democracy teaches compromise and trust more than totalitarianism does (Barbu, 1956; Dahl, 1971). Suspicion and intolerance, exacerbated by encouraging citizens to inform on one another, permeate totalitarian states (Musil, 1992; Nowak, 1988). This filters into day-to-day interaction, causing a wariness and lack of trust that may undermine commitment to benevolence values such as honesty and forgiveness (Schwartz and Sagie, 2000).

To achieve well-working relationships the parties need to develop from a low-trust base to a high-trust base in their relating. Misztal (1996) argues that trust is seen as being particularly important in both organizations and projects, since it is viewed as "essential for stable relationships, vital for the maintenance of cooperation, fundamental for any exchange and necessary for even the most routine of everyday interactions."

The management of stakeholders is also an important task for every manager. In a project context, stakeholder management takes on a slightly different character. Previous research has pointed to the temporary nature of project transactions forcing managers to continuously shape and reshape the positioning of the project in a relational framework (Sutterfield et al., 2006). Moreover, the often complex and uncertain type of transaction that projects represent adds to challenges of establishing well-functioning coordination and cooperation routines in industrial projects. Therefore, projects represent an important empirical context for the formation of relationships between stakeholders.

The number of stakeholders involved or interested in the project can dramatically increase the complexity of the situation. Each stakeholder usually has their own interest in the project and this may cause different priorities and conflicts. Thus, we argue that it is wrong to ignore the stakeholders or attempt to impose a rigid detailed control. These are challenges and demands that the project manager cannot overlook, but has to consider and deal with. It is necessary to develop an understanding that can generate appreciation and trust and can lead to constructive working relationships (Karlsen et al., 2008).

Researchers have started looking at cultural differences in the levels of trust across societies. A higher level of propensity to trust, and higher external trust, exists in business relations in the US than in Asia (Huff and Kelley, 2003). Cultural distance by itself does not influence the trust levels of employees (Stahl et al., 2003). In case of acquisitions, the impact of cultural detachment on trust is moderated by whether the unreceptive acquisition was a domestic or a cross-border one. In this case, trust was found lower in the cross-border acquisitions.

The country-of-origin effects on trust between partners in international collaborations are also one of major issue of concern. For example, based on stereotyping, certain nationalities may be trusted to greater or lesser extents in certain countries (Markus and Zajonc, 1985). Initial trust in foreign partners may thus be systematically different, for different object countries (Arino et al., 2001).

2.19 Cultural Perceptions and Trust

Cultural differences can either be regarded as impediments to a consortium's performance, or they can be viewed as important underlying steering mechanisms crucial for maintaining a firm's long-term survival and a research institution's professional credibility (Liyanage and Mitchell, 1994). Prior studies suggest that individualists' trusting choices are both highly personalized and decontextualized (Branzei et al., 2007). While, those from collectivist countries are more likely to have more interdependent self-construal that may affect trust process (Gudykunst et al. 1996; Oyserman, Coon, and Kimmelmeier 2002). Trust is bestowed on autonomous actors who harvestable traits, talents, and preferences applicable across situations, and who rationally and deliberately form and dissolve relationships in order to maximize their individual goals (Kim et al., 1994, p. 7). The conception that the level of trust differs significantly across nations, with consequences for the functioning and the success of national economies is explored by various researchers (e.g., Fukuyama, 1995). The development of trust in interfirm business relationships depends on shared expectations, which are shaped, at least in part, by the institutional environment in which the actors are entrenched (Lane and Bachmann, 1996).

The subject of national culture has received a wide field in the theoretical and research literature (Hofstede, 2001). Often values and value dimensions are used to elucidate cultural differences in organizational performance (Fischer and Pootinga, 2012). According to Pillai et al. (2001), a cross-cultural context provides an ideal opportunity to test the generalizability of a theory. Previous work has demonstrated that different types of contextual factors may influence trust. The framework of Doney et al. (1998) suggests that when trustors and targets share the same norms and values, there is a greater chance that a trusting relationship will be formed. This is because the direction the target takes to earn trust is the same route the trustor follows to establish whether the target is trustworthy. Greenberg (2001) suggest that people may have different perceptions of fairness because they have internalized different norms and values, and a major reason

why people differ with respect to norms and values is that they come from different cultures.

National culture influences beliefs about and behaviors to trans-national alliance partners. Though, beliefs and behaviors are also influenced by the complex inter-relationships between relational constructs such as trust, commitment, cooperation, dependence, communication and compatibility. Often, compatibility is not only influenced by national culture but also by the size, business activity and how the organization is incorporated (Bhaskaran and Gligorovska, 2009).

Within cultures, trust grows quickly. This is partly because trustees can better anticipate the preferences of same-culture trustors, and can thus signal more efficiently (Bacharach & Gambetta, 2001; Spence, 1974). The signs deliberately (or spontaneously) emitted by trustees are also more likely to be perceived and correctly interpreted by trustors who share similar cultural norms, values, and expectations (Doney, Cannon, & Mullen, 1998). When signs and attributional styles are aligned, initial trusting choices can be made more confidently and the ensuing trust is deeper and more durable (Johnson et al., 1996; Sheppard and Sherman, 1998).

The effects of cultural distance on transaction costs and the governance of international operations has been scrutinized by researchers (eg., Kogut and Singh, 1988; Shane, 1992). However, their research has not clearly considered the role of trust in such stipulations. In general terms, it is obvious that trust is influenced by the national culture; Doney et al. (1998) theorize how specific national cultural norms and values relate to the creation of trust. Luo (2001) shows a link between cultural distance and trust in that increased cultural distance reduces the ability of boundary spanners to form 'personal attachments' in IJVs in China.

However, in cross-cultural encounters, a lack of convergence in cultural proclivities may result in a virtual collapse of the trust-building mechanism (Doney et al., 1998). The absence of credible signs or the presence of unexpected/undesirable ones can create cultural misunderstandings which impede trusting choices (Aulakh et al, 1996; Das and Teng, 1998). Once a trusting relationship has been forged, repeated interactions gradually align trustee signals with trustors' expectations (Cannon et al., 1999; Chen et al., 1998). Yet, very few researchers have considered the logically prior question: how does trust initially emerge among partners from different cultures?

Culture norms influence the development of trust in strategic alliances (Sarkar et al, 1997). There are vast cultural differences in various industries, which are often neither acknowledged nor addressed. Many companies employ people from a wide variety of countries and backgrounds and, unfortunately, mostly know very little about them. Cultural differences play a key role in the creation of trust, since trust is built in different ways, and means different things around the world.

Furthermore, culture is an area that has been identified as a cause of project failure (Dinsmore, 1984; Jaeger and Kanungo, 1990; Verma, 1995; Muriithi and Crawford, 2003). Considering that global projects will have to deal with multiple cultures, the role of culture assumes greater importance in their performance. Since everyone brings culture to the project, the project manager needs to be aware of, and understand how culture can and will impact the global project.

2.20 Trust and Cultural Implications

According to Dyer and Chu (2000) three nations study there were differences in the levels of trust for. Their conclusions also reinforced the conception that the formal organizational setting may influence the development of firm-level practices, which further effect trust building process among culturally diverse parties. As substantiated from different studies that there are cultural differences in trust building process (Seppanen et al., 2007). Cross-cultural studies could provide more valuable insights to practitioners in the globalized environment since cultural transformations between parties surge the challenges in inter-organizational relationships (Arino, et al, 1997).

Fukuyama (1995) believes that the most widespread cultural characteristic always influence a nation's fortune and capability to strive as the level of trust or cooperative behavior is centered upon their shared norms. In various cultures the level of trust along with the inclination to trust is greater than in other cultures (Usunier, 1990).

While culture and trust are so often examined on different levels as culture on organizational or national level, and trust on individual or team levels (Wiewiora et al., 2014). There are witnessed interdependencies among these overall levels, indicating that culture on organizational or national levels influence trusting behaviors between individuals (Issa and Haddad, 2008). For instance, Whitener et al. (1998) claimed that organizational culture values such as risk-taking, allocating risk, control mechanism, extensiveness, and open communication benefit trustworthy behaviors among organizational members. Another study by Issa and Haddad (2008) established that organizational cultures with honesty, incentive, motivations, and consultations are expected to develop interpersonal trust among personnel. Precisely, according to Whitener et al., (1998) organizations with tight control cultures, formal and focused on efficiency, may limit the growth of trusting affiliations, however not as much of formal, freedom cultures with larger levels of decentralization are more prospective to the growth of trust among members.

Cultural dimensions by Hofstede (1980) were also investigated with regard to trust. Such as power distance by Khan and Maalik (2011) and individualism versus collectivism by Kuwabara et al. (2007) as stimulating factor for trust. According to Doney et al. (1998) collectivist cultures are more prospective to involve in trusting conducts than individualist cultures. They argue that in collectivist cul-

tures people grasp group values and beliefs and pursue shared benefits and are improbable to be inspired by self-interest, and consequently doubtful to participate in unprincipled conduct. However, on the other hand Huff and Kelley (2005) established that executives from individualistic cultures have a greater inclination for trust than executives from collectivistic cultures.

2.21 Trust in International Setting

Recently, one of the management challenges is to win the trust of your stakeholders. Many have often spoken about having trust, when they should have spoken about building trust. Trust is something that must be earned over time by listening, talking and making sure that you “walk the talk” because stakeholders are becoming increasingly cynical, even though many leaders tend to take trust for granted. Trust is a powerful asset and can create loyalty that gives an organization the benefit of the doubt in situations where they want to be understood and believed (Beslin and Reddin, 2004).

One issue commonly encountered in multicultural teams is whether trust is built as the team progresses or needs to be established before any progress can take place. In the U.S., trust is ‘demonstrated performance over time’. Here, one gains the trust of one’s colleagues by ‘coming through’ and delivering on time on one’s commitments. In many other parts of the world, including China and many Arab or Latin American countries, building relationships is a pre-requisite for professional interactions. Building trust in these countries often involves lengthy discussions on non-professional topics (i.e. soccer, family and politics in Mexico) and shared meals in restaurants. In these countries, work-related discussions start only once your counterpart has become comfortable with you as a person. This may take a lot longer than you would consider ‘normal’; in the case of Arab countries, China, or Mexico, it may take months of repeated interactions to establish trust (Asherman *et al*, 2000).

Trust development needs mental preparation and mutual acceptance by the interacting parties. Madhok (2006) considers trust-building a costly and time-consuming process because it is a long-term investment. Hakansson and Snehota (2000) state that trust is built up over time in a social exchange process whereby the parties learn, step by step, to trust each other. The reciprocal and self-enforcing nature of trust is generally noted: trust tends to evoke trust and distrust to evoke distrust (Blomqvist, 1997). Perlmutter (1969) found building trust between persons of different nationality difficult. This means there is no shortcut to developing trust – service providers must invest time, money and a great deal of tolerance in coming closer to customers of other nationalities.

2.22 Trust and Knowledge Sharing in Projects

Consistent with the notion of relationship management, trust between parties is a fundamental factor (Jun-Gi and Lee, 2014) that stimulates each party to contribute or involve in fruitful and reciprocally constructive exchange relationships (Hewett and Bearden, 2001). Knowledge sharing in exchange relationships is vital to nurture cooperation amongst affiliates and to attain the objectives of projects (Xu and Ma, 2008). According to Jun-Gi and Lee (2014) trust plays a dominant role in building and sustaining the affiliation amongst the participants of projects and in stimulating knowledge sharing initiatives.

An environment of trust promotes the open exchange of knowledge as individuals do not feel that they must safeguard themselves from others' unprincipled actions (Inkpen and Tsang (2005). Holste and Fields (2010) also claimed that trust among coworkers was vital in the apparent accomplishment of the transfer and use of tacit knowledge. As supported by Koskinen et al. (2003) that trustworthiness is crucial to improve knowledge sharing within and between project teams. The existence of trust among project members working on inter-organizational projects provide access to valuable knowledge of outside project associates smoothing acquirement of innovative notions and perceptions, which are particularly fundamental for product innovation projects (Maurer, 2010).

Koskinen and Pihlanto (2007) advocated that diverse types of collaborations mean that different forms of trust may be more or less required in different circumstances or settings. Abrams et al. (2003) stated that there are two forms of interpersonal trust, which are important in knowledge sharing. Such as, the trustor's perception of competence and skills of trustee and the degree to which a trustee is assumed to look for the best interest of the trustor. While Levin and Cross (2004) agreed the later dimension of trustworthiness regularly matters when sharing knowledge, and that mostly matters when the sharing includes tacit knowledge.

Generally, trust among project members has a robust effect on knowledge sharing and when there is a trust project members are more self-confident in looking for and applying the knowledge received from their associates. Moreover, it can be advocated that different dimensions of trust have different importance for knowledge sharing; dependent on whether sharing involves tacit or explicit knowledge (Wiewiora et al., 2014).

2.22.1 *Knowledge culture and trust*

Bhagat et al. (2002) have suggested the culture dimensions (individualism versus collectivism) as likely antecedents for cross-border organizational knowledge transfer. Wiewiora et al. (2014) describe that there are some correspondences between these two notions of culture and trust. Time is prerequisite for both culture and trust to mature. Likewise they are related with interpersonal interaction and

regulate the landscape of affiliations. Though, there are also variances; trust seems to be more contexts reliant and unavoidable in particular relationships and players. Both knowledge and trust have been informally linked with culture but soon after attempt has been made to explore trust as serving factor to develop the culture (Strong and Weber, 1998; Issa and Haddad, 2008).

2.23 Effects of Trust on Business

During the previous decades, intellectuals have made a plenty of investigation on the positive effects of establishing trust among collaborating firms (Thorgren and Wincent, 2011). It is admitted that with trust organizational partners will not act opportunistically in spite of situations of ambiguity and obvious susceptibility and consequently a confidence may emerge in the partners' reliability and consistency (Rousseau et al., 1998). It significantly pays to exchange benefits in inter-organizational relationships, as less negotiation costs, threat of disloyalties, transaction costs and exploration costs (Buckley et al., 2009). Although, the indication of the positive exchange benefits is undoubted among researchers, however, there have been contemporary cracks identifying that trust may also bring costs and risks. But this spot is comparatively less researched and investigators draw attention to undesirable trust effects such as lack of objectivity and considering of alternatives, repressed creativity, over-confidence and disregarding of suggestion for speaking in contradiction of one's partners' trustworthiness (Patzelt and Shepherd, 2008).

2.24 The Importance of Trust

The most productive people are the most trusting people. If this seems to be an astonishing statement, it shows how distorted the concept of trust has become. Trust is one of the most essential qualities of human relationships. Without it, all human interaction, all commerce, all society would disappear (Asherman et al. 2000). Zand (1972) reported that "apparently in low trust groups, interpersonal relationships interfere with and distort perceptions of the problem. Energy and creativity are diverted from finding comprehensive, realistic solutions, and members use the problem as an instrument to minimize their vulnerability. In contrast, in high trust groups there is less socially generated uncertainty and problems are solved more effectively." In other study Boss (1977) concluded that "under conditions of high trust, problem solving tends to be creative and productive. Under conditions of low trust, problem solving tends to be degenerative and ineffective."

These findings are critical to improving the effectiveness of individual relationships and project teams. Once trust has been established, it must be maintained. In many countries, such as Japan and Germany, where people are more likely to remain in the same area, relationships between people take a long time to create and need regular reaffirmation to remain effective. In particular, regular visits and

communication is needed to keep the relationship alive and trust at a constant level; otherwise, trust spontaneously decays over time, and one needs to reestablish it when the next interaction takes place (Asherman et al. 2000).

3 TRUST BUILDING PROCESS IN GLOBAL ENVIRONMENTS

Based on the past researches and literature review findings, a cultural effect model is developed to depict how culture effects trust building in international projects stakeholders (Figure 8) and what should be done to establish trust among culturally diverse stakeholders in global projects. It is believed that all the factors listed feed into building trust between the project and stakeholders in the culturally similar environment. The relative importance of the factors can be presented as: reliable behavior = good communication > sincerity = competence > reaching project milestones > goal congruence > commitment > benevolence. Achieving these factors feed into the building of trust and creates a positive atmosphere in which more efficient project execution is manifested. Whereas, the negative trust building may be apparent between the project and stakeholders in the culturally dissimilar environment which leads to less efficient project execution.

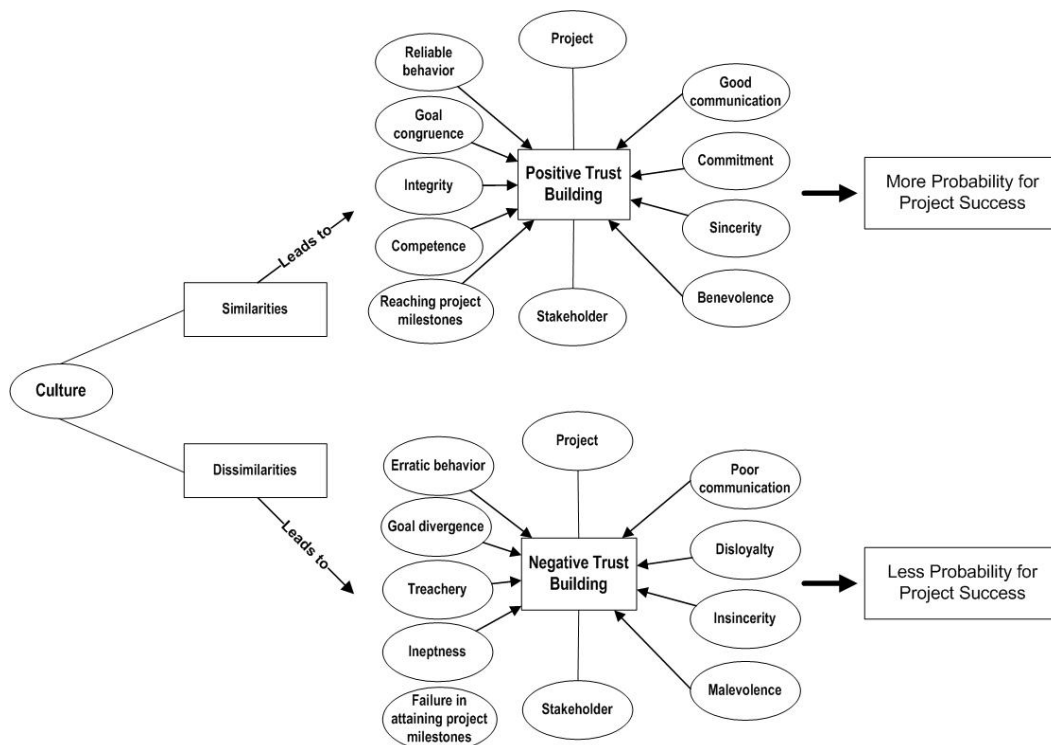


Figure 8. Cultural effects model for trust building in international project stakeholders

4 MANGIERIAL IMPLICATIONS

Multicultural teams to be effective, members must learn to tackle the challenges that occur from team members' differing nationalities and cultural backgrounds (Hong, 2010). The problem of cultural clash usually stems from the fact that neither partner has the comprehensive management capability needed to be able to complete the project individually (Davenport et al., 1999). Therefore, building trust in the relationship (Wolff, 1994) and respecting the other partner's "different" abilities is a crucial element in successful research collaboration. Expectations of the collaboration can be quite different, and therefore good communication channels between the partners are important. Commitment to a relationship essentially implies that mutual respect and trust exists, as one definition of commitment, for example, is "the act or process of entrusting".

Project success is strongly linked to communication and cooperation between stakeholders (Diallo and Thuillier, 2005). A business leader's greatest battle today is to win the trust of stakeholders. The leaders who win are those who communicate openly and often, have a clear and committed communications policy, initiate formal and informal programs and assess their own performance.

Leaders too often talk about *having* trust, rather than *building* trust. Trust is something that must be earned. It is not something that today's business leaders can take for granted, because both internal workforces and external publics are increasingly cynical. Building trust in an organization's leadership requires a personal effort on the part of the leaders themselves. Yet it's a team effort too. And the corporate function most likely to support leaders' efforts to build or sustain trust is communications. Communications is fundamental to building trust. It contributes to the creation of an environment of trust around leaders that enables them to lead effectively, engage employees and ultimately deliver results. Communications serves as the positioning agent for message delivery and leadership development for senior managers (Beslin and Reddin, 2004).

Communication is the formal and informal sharing of meaningful, timely information between partners (Anderson and Narus, 1990). When communication between exchange partners becomes more effective, relevant information sharing increases, and partners get to know each other better, which then fosters shared identification between those partners (Dutton et al., 1994). The shared identity that results from such an interaction, such as similar beliefs and judgments about future developments, leads to mutual trust (Kogut and Zander, 1996).

Cross-cultural trust depends on good interpersonal skills and mutual respect among the project team. In order to achieve an effective project performance it is

essential to have teambuilding activities in place and the notion of cross-cultural trust is an important dimension of multicultural teamwork (Karlsen *et al*, 2008). The achievement of project performance on multicultural teams reinforces the understanding of cross-cultural trust on projects (Ochieng and Price, 2009).

It is recognized that several factors affect trust, but by studying research literature, we identified the following factors as being the most interesting and important for building trust in a relation between a project and its stakeholders: reliable behavior, good communication, sincerity, competence, integrity, reaching project milestones, commitment, benevolence, and goal-congruence. However, we should be aware that many trust building mechanisms have a high degree of interrelatedness which makes it difficult to fully distinguish one method from another (Lander *et al.*, 2004).

It is vital to think about the cultural similarities and dissimilarities on trust-building for practitioners from the beginning of establishing a new project relationship, which probably will make the project more smoothly and minimize conflicts that may arise. Organizations should emphasize on reliability and communication to establish trust. To improve communication, it is suggested to clarify the roles and responsibilities in the beginning of the project and building informal relations with the stakeholders. There are three coupled approaches to the establishment of trust between individuals on global teams (Figure 9).

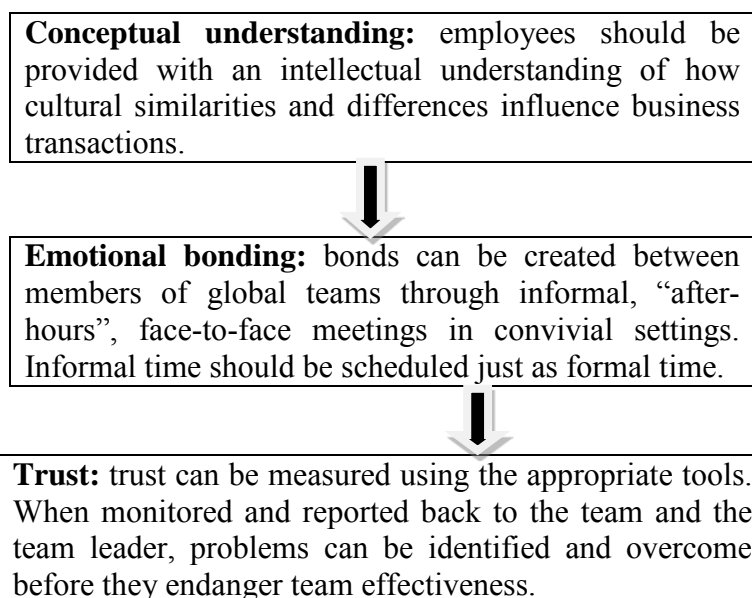


Figure 9. Trust building steps

5 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Trust is imperative for building a well-functioning relationship. Trust can be seen as a result of a good project-stakeholder relation, trust is reciprocal. Trust is something that must be earned, and that it can be easily lost. The parties should be aware of how trust is built in relations and which factors are important in building trust. The parties should put efforts in improving their communication skills, behaving reliably, showing commitment, being sincere, benevolent and competent, having and acting with integrity, working towards reaching project milestones and establishing common goals. Adherence to these suggestions will make it easier to build trustful relationships.

The probe about who to trust is fundamental in various unstable international business environments, as is the capability to be trusted. Trust has been acknowledged as central to business development and to the forthcoming attainment of international cooperative endeavors. All types of project in addition to numerous investments also mandate a certain level of trust. Trust appears to demonstrate a vital share in human collaboration, operational infrastructures, learning and problem-solving, all necessitate trust. With the intention of trust, the player requires specific facts. With specific facts accessible there would be not an issue of trust but of balanced control. If there are not specific facts available then it would be an example of belief or making a bet.

Trust is typically built on an entity's anticipations for example in what way other entity will execute on certain upcoming situations as a function of the targeted individual's existing and former assertions. Trust is also established on know-hows and social wisdom, and is consequently likewise dependent on particular national or native culture.

Trust is usually perceived as the consequence of a practice. Since trust affiliations grow steadily. The trust formation is realized as a self-enforcing progression. Typically, trust generates trust and distrust produces distrust. Trust is most delicate and is challenging to start, sluggish to develop and continuously easy to disrupt. On one occasion deceived it is challenging to patch. Trust may possibly seem in informal meetings as among unfamiliar persons, or it takes place in enduring associations. It is an asset of joint components than of remote entities.

Numerous disciplines have diverse elementary conventions of trust. The economists' point of view and calculative interpretation of trust has strong divergences from the philosophers' attitudinal and principled view. Social psychologists emphasize the consistency of the conversation or undertaking and the satisfaction of responsibilities, while economists perceive trust as a reaction to anticipated forth-

coming conduct and endorse the usage of captives to safeguard balanced performance. Social psychologists and philosophers underline the personal and interpersonal characteristics, though economists, lawyers and most market researchers highlight inter-organizational trust.

Trust is a powerful force that builds loyalty, increases credibility and supports effective communications. It gives you the benefit of the doubt in situations where you want to be heard, understood and believed.

Fortunately, leaders can and do win the trust of their many stakeholders. They win this trust by communicating openly and often; having a clear and committed communications policy, strategy and processes; initiating formal and informal communications programs; and regularly assessing their own communications effectiveness and that of their team and their organization.

Cultural differences can create misunderstandings between team members before they have had a chance to establish any credibility with each other. Cultural divergence can have an important impact on Trust building in international projects stakeholders. Do not expect everyone to be the same. Understand the stakeholders and their cultural background. Value the diversity different cultures and perspectives bring to the international projects. Learn about each other's cultures. Ask stakeholders from different cultures (including yours!) to share information about their culture, business etiquette, underlying values etc. so that right kind of trust can be established which will upshot in successful project completion.

Thus, Managers of global project teams need to recognize that building trust between culturally different people is a complex process, since each culture has its own way of building trust and its own interpretation of what trust is. To be effective, this process often requires a significant amount of time and communication.

This study opens up several directions for future research. We suggest that the research question and model should be tested empirically in various settings, like different types of projects in different cultures and countries to identify whether there is any effect of culture on trust building among projects stakeholders.

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