2016

Arab Management Practices from a Trust Perspective - The Case of International Companies in Morocco

El Hakimi, Imane

http://hdl.handle.net/10026.1/6557

http://dx.doi.org/10.24382/4071
Plymouth University

All content in PEARL is protected by copyright law. Author manuscripts are made available in accordance with publisher policies. Please cite only the published version using the details provided on the item record or document. In the absence of an open licence (e.g. Creative Commons), permissions for further reuse of content should be sought from the publisher or author.
Copyright Statement

This copy of the thesis has been supplied on condition that anyone who consults it is understood to recognise that its copyright rests with its author and that no quotation from the thesis and no information derived from it may be published without the author's prior consent.
Arab Management Practices from a Trust Perspective – The case of International Companies in Morocco

by

El Hakimi, Imane

A thesis submitted to the University of Plymouth in partial fulfilment for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Plymouth Business School
Plymouth Graduate School of Management
Faculty of Management

March 2016
Dedication – Dédicace – إهداء

To my dear mother - A ma maman chérie - إلهيتي أمي

To my dear father – A mon papa chéri - إلهيتي أبي

Let’s trust as if…
Today, tomorrow and the future are ours…
Like the four seasons…
They are all different…
But important like air and water.

“Trust Me, Dear Different Me”, Imane El Hakimi
Acknowledgements

First of all, I am thankful to Allah for giving me the will and power to persevere and realise my father’s dream who supported me all the way, as always, to learn and gain more knowledge through this degree. I am thankful to Allah for His blessing and love.

I would like to express my deep gratitude to my supervisors Mrs Lynne Butel and Mr Micheal Leat and former supervisors Dr Lucy Lu and Dr Shasha Yu. I am grateful to Mrs Lynne Butel for her valuable support during this thesis, and for being patient and understanding, guiding me through the whole process using her expertise and experience in research. I would like to thank Mr Ian Ridley, my former supervisor during my Master dissertation, who always believed in me and who is still supporting me, sharing his experience in academia.

I would like to express my appreciation to the Moroccan embassy in London for their cooperation, the Minister of energy, mining water and environment (Former minister of industry, trade, investment and digital economy) - Dr Abdelkader Aamara, managers in public institutions and international organisations for their contribution to this research with their valuable time and constructive views.

A very special “thank you” to my parents and best friends Mr Maati El Hakimi and Mrs Rabia Batani: I cannot thank you enough for everything you have done for me. To my amazing sisters Laila, Kaoutar and Zineb and to my dear brother Sidi Mohammed: thank you for your encouragement during my long PhD journey. To my nephews and nieces (Yahya, Sarah, Youssef, Imane and Yassine) who I couldn’t see very often or play with as I used to: I am sorry for being so busy with my research and thank you for being such a blessing in my life. To Mengmai: Thank you for being there for me, for your love and support. To my friends and colleagues: I am grateful I have known you. You all played an important role in the person I became. I learnt a lot from this PhD journey, it marks the start of more research and the learning process does not stop.
Author's Declaration

At no time during the registration for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy has the author been registered for any other University award without prior agreement of the Graduate Sub-Committee. Work submitted for this research degree at the Plymouth University has not formed part of any other degree either at Plymouth University or at another establishment.

The following activities have been undertaken:

- Taught International Business final year undergraduate students (2 hours per session, 5 sessions in total)
- Delivered a 2 hours session in Operations management to undergraduate students and a lecture/presentation as Guest lecturer - Master Business with Management (MBM)
- Completed the Educational Development - Learning and Teaching General teaching associates (GTA) and PgCert in Academic Practice Stage 1 (HEA), Associate Fellow – Plymouth University

Publications:


El Hakimi, I., (2013), “A Strategic plan model to increase the project performance based on the relationship between internal stakeholders in construction projects at Orascom in Egypt”, Proceedings of Plymouth Business School Postgraduate Symposium 2013, Received Best Poster Award.


Signed: Imane El Hakimi Date: 16/08/2016
Arab Management Practices from a Trust Perspective – The case of International Companies in Morocco

El Hakimi, Imane

Abstract

This research contributes to our understanding of trust in the international business environment, exploring the development of trust, and the influence of culture, structures and hierarchies, and international business communications. The focus is on the management of employees working in foreign-owned, international businesses operating in Morocco.

With few notable and very valuable exceptions, there has been very little research exploring the Arab approach to management and even fewer pieces of research focus on the development of trust in this context. A qualitative research approach was employed, as so little is understood about the context and the phenomenon. A total of 30 interviewees from various managerial and organisational levels represented the sample of the study with five participating international companies, from different sectors established in Morocco. Using a content-thematic analysis, the research shows that Moroccan employees prefer working in international companies and their preference is associated to many factors such as the work environment they belong to, the financial and social benefits they receive, career advancement and employees’ development as well as being a part of a defined and organised structure where information is well circulated and communication is encouraged. In this way, this research contributes not only to our understanding of the development of trust in an Arab context but also sheds more light on cultural aspects which was found out in the research that they were interpreted differently such as the case of Hofstede’s uncertainty avoidance dimension. In particular the research suggest that some, non Arabic researchers, may have misinterpreted certain behaviours in Arab cultures. This leads the research to a final conclusion that clearly shows the importance of considering Arab management as a fourth paradigm to explain managerial practices in the Arab World as suggested by Weir (2008) and better understand their practices (Hutchings and Weir, 2006).
# Contents

Acknowledgements ............................................................................................................. i  
Author’s Declaration ....................................................................................................... ii  
Abstract ............................................................................................................................. iv  
Table of Contents .............................................................................................................. v  
List of Tables .................................................................................................................... xiii  
List of Figures .................................................................................................................... xv  

## Chapter One – Introduction

1.1. Introduction .................................................................................................................. 1  
1.2. Definition of the Problem and Significance of the Research ................................. 3  
1.3. Arab Management ...................................................................................................... 5  
1.3.1. What is Arab Management? ..................................................................................... 5  
1.3.1.1. Islamic and Cultural Factors .................................................................................. 6  
1.3.1.2. Governmental/Political Factors ........................................................................... 9  
1.3.2. Example of Arab Management Models from the literature ................................. 12  
1.3.2.1. The Prophetic-caliphal Model of Leadership by Bashir Khadra ......................... 12  
1.3.2.2. Islamic Administrative Theory ............................................................................ 14  
1.3.3. Common Aspects in Arab and Western Management Practices .................... 18  
1.3.3.1. Definition of Leadership ..................................................................................... 18  
1.3.3.2. Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs .............................................................................. 24  
1.3.3.3. Great Man Theory of Leadership ....................................................................... 25  
1.4. Integration of Western Management Practices in the Arab World ................... 29  
1.5. Background about Morocco ...................................................................................... 39  
1.5.1. Morocco’s Development ....................................................................................... 40
## Contents

1.5.1.1. Geographical ................................................................. 40  
1.5.1.2. Historical ........................................................................ 41  
1.5.1.3. Cultural ........................................................................... 44  
1.5.1.4. Economic .......................................................................... 45  
1.5.2. The Role of Youth in Morocco’s Development ..................... 50  
1.6. International Business in Morocco ..................................... 51  
1.6.1. Introduction ......................................................................... 51  
1.6.2. International Companies in Morocco ............................. 53  
1.6.3. The Impact of International Investment on Moroccan and Other Arab Economies ......................................................... 55  
1.7. Summary ..................................................................................... 56  

### Chapter Two - Trust Literature Review

2.1. Introduction .................................................................................. 59  
2.2. The Importance of Organisational Trust ............................... 62  
2.2.1. Definition of Trust ................................................................. 62  
2.2.2. The Importance of Trust ....................................................... 64  
2.3. Dimensions of Trust ................................................................. 66  
2.3.1. Time ...................................................................................... 67  
2.3.2. Characteristics of Perceived Trust by Employees in Organisations ................................................................. 69  
2.3.2.1. Behavioural Integrity and Fairness .................................. 70  
2.3.2.2. Credibility – Benevolence ................................................. 72  
2.3.3. Culture ................................................................................... 76  
2.3.3.1. Comparison of Different Culture Theories ....................... 78  
2.3.3.2. Definitions ........................................................................... 84
## Contents

2.3.3.3. Culture from a Trust Perspective .................................. 89
2.3.3.4. Changing culture .................................................... 96
2.3.3.5. Challenges Managing International Business ................. 97
2.3.4. Communication in Organisations .................................... 99
  2.3.4.1. Introduction ....................................................... 99
  2.3.4.2. Definition of Communication ................................ 100
  2.3.4.3. The Process of Communication ................................. 101
  2.3.4.4. The Impact of Organisational Structure on Effective Communication to Build Trust .................................................. 104
2.3.5. Organisational Structure ............................................. 106
  2.3.5.1. Overview .......................................................... 106
  2.3.5.2. Introduction ....................................................... 107
  2.3.5.3. Definition of Organisational Structure ....................... 108
  2.3.5.4. The Relationship between Organisational Structure and Communication in the Trust Building Process ..................... 109
2.4. Summary ........................................................................ 110

### Chapter Three - Conceptual Framework of Trust Building

3.1. Introduction ..................................................................... 112
3.2. Research Questions ...................................................... 113
  3.2.1. Employees’ Perception of Trust: Perceived Trust ............. 113
  3.2.2. Communication and National Culture ........................... 114
    3.2.2.1. Communication .................................................. 114
    3.2.2.2. National Culture ............................................... 115
    3.2.3. Organisational Structure ........................................ 117
### Contents

3.2.4. Time ................................................................. 118  
3.2.5. Moderator Variables ........................................... 119  
3.3. Summary ........................................................... 121  

**Chapter Four - Research Methodology**

4.1. Introduction ......................................................... 123  
4.2. Research Aims and Objectives ................................. 123  
4.3. What is Research? .................................................. 124  
4.4. Paradigm of Inquiry ................................................. 125  
4.5. Qualitative Research Design ..................................... 127  
4.6. Proposed Research Design ....................................... 128  
4.7. Methodology in Research Design ............................... 129  
4.8. Qualitative Research Methods ................................. 132  
4.8.1. Pilot Study ....................................................... 134  
4.8.1.1. Definition .................................................... 134  
4.8.1.2. Justification and Process of Pilot Study ................. 134  
4.8.2. Interview ........................................................ 135  
4.8.2.1. Types of Interviews ........................................ 136  
4.8.3. Supporting Methods ........................................... 137  
4.8.3.1. Case Studies ................................................. 137  
4.8.3.2. Observation .................................................. 138  
4.8.4. Validity and Reliability ....................................... 139  
4.8.4.1. Definition .................................................... 139  
4.8.4.2. Validity Checks .............................................. 141  
4.9. Conducting Research in Morocco ............................... 142
## Contents

4.10. Methodology Chosen for this Research ........................................... 144

4.11. Methodological Procedure Followed in this Research ................. 147

4.11.1. Ethical Approval ........................................................................ 147

4.11.2. Source of Data ........................................................................ 148

4.11.3. Sampling .................................................................................. 149

4.11.3.1. Sample Types ....................................................................... 149

4.11.3.2. Sample Size ......................................................................... 150

4.11.3.3. Sample Selection ................................................................... 151

4.11.3.4. Initial Contact ....................................................................... 153

4.11.3.5. Choice of Interview Type: Justification ................................. 154

4.11.4. Interviews Data ......................................................................... 155

4.12. Qualitative Data Transcription .................................................... 156

4.13. Qualitative Data Analysis Techniques .......................................... 158

4.13.1. Content and Thematic Analysis ................................................ 158

4.13.2. Application of the Content and Thematic Analysis .................. 159


4.15. Presentation Phase of the Analysis .............................................. 161

4.16. Analysis Validation ...................................................................... 163

4.17. Methodological Limitation of the Research .................................. 165

4.18. Summary ..................................................................................... 166

**Chapter Five - Research Data Analysis**

5.1. Introduction .................................................................................... 168

5.2. Phase One: Pilot Study Analysis .................................................. 168

5.3. Phase Two: Descriptive Interview Findings .................................. 171
## Contents

5.3.1. First Section of Interview Result - Personal Information .......... 172

5.3.2. Second Section of Interview Result – Description of the Company from the Participant’s View .............................................. 182

5.3.2.1. Organisational Structure .................................................. 185

5.3.2.2. Communication .............................................................. 193

5.3.2.3. Culture ........................................................................ 201

5.3.2.4. Perceived Trust – From Employees towards the Company .......... 206

5.3.3. Third Section of Interview Result – Information about Employees from Participants’ Point of View ........................................... 208

5.3.3.1. Communication .............................................................. 208

5.3.3.2. Culture ........................................................................ 212

5.3.3.3. Organisational Structure .................................................. 215

5.3.3.4. Summary ..................................................................... 220

5.3.4. Fourth Section of Interview Result – Definitions and antecedents of Trust from the Participant’s Point of View .............................. 221

5.3.4.1. Is Trust Important Between Employees? ................................ 221

5.3.4.2. Definition of Trust .......................................................... 224

5.3.4.3. The Elements Involved in Process of Trust Building in an International-Moroccan Work Environment .............................. 230

5.3.4.4. Prioritisation of Factors Identified by Participants in Building Trust .......................................................... 235

5.3.4.5. Factors Leading to Decrease or Increase of Trust in an International-Moroccan Work Environment ......................................... 236
5.3.4.6. The Importance of Openness, Fairness, Behavioural Integrity and Communication in Building Trust ........................................... 242
5.3.4.7. Cultural Factors that Influence Trust in an International Work Environment ................................................................. 246
5.4. Summary ............................................................................. 252

Chapter Six – Discussion
6.1. Introduction ........................................................................ 258
6.2.1. The Religious Aspect ....................................................... 259
6.2.2. The cultural Aspect ......................................................... 262
6.3.1. Role of Organisational Structure ....................................... 263
6.3.2. Role of Culture ............................................................... 267
6.3.3. Impact of Communication .............................................. 270
6.3.4. Patterns between Communication, Organisational Structure and National Culture ................................................................. 273
6.3.4.1. Communication between Culture and Organisational Structure .... 273
6.3.4.2. Culture and its Impact on Organisational Structure ........... 275
6.3.5. Motivation and Leadership: Cultural and organisational considerations ............................................................................. 278
6.3.5.1. Leadership ..................................................................... 278
6.3.5.2. Motivation ..................................................................... 279
6.3.5.3. Patterns between Motivation, Leadership and Trust .......... 283
## Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.4. Summary</td>
<td>286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Chapter Seven - Conclusions, Recommendations and Future Research</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.1. Introduction</td>
<td>288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2. Summary of the Research Key Findings</td>
<td>288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2.1. The Influence of Culture, Communication and Organisational</td>
<td>288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure in Building Trust</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2.2. The Importance of Trust in Applying Management Practices in an</td>
<td>294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International-Moroccan Work Environment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.3. Contribution to the Body of Knowledge</td>
<td>297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.4. Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research</td>
<td>303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bibliography</strong></td>
<td>307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Appendices</strong></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 1 List of Contacted Companies in Morocco</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 2 List of Participating Companies</td>
<td>G</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 3 A Summary of the Total Exchanged Emails</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 4 Interviews Details per Participant – Coded</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 5 List of Interviewees - Pilot Study Phase</td>
<td>K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 6 Coding of Data Collected during the Pilot Study Phase</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 7 Template of the Final Presentation of Themes and Categories</td>
<td>Q</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after Coding</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 8 A list of Interview Questions</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 9 Participating Companies: Introduction of the Five Case Studies</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## List of Tables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Table 1.3:1</td>
<td>Definition of Leadership</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 2.3:1</td>
<td>The GLOBE Variables’ Description</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 2.3:2</td>
<td>Application of Hofstede’s Dimensions in Organisations</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.4:1</td>
<td>Summary of Research Philosophies</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.8:1</td>
<td>Comparison of Validity and Reliability in Qualitative Research</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 5.1:1</td>
<td>Participating Companies’ Details</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 5.1:2</td>
<td>Participating Companies’ Common Values and HR Practices</td>
<td>AA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 5.2:1</td>
<td>Main Reasons for International Companies in Morocco to Consider Local Management</td>
<td>EE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 5.2:2</td>
<td>Labour Force Participation Rate for Male and Female in Morocco Between 2010 and 2013</td>
<td>173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 5.2:3</td>
<td>Percentage of Employment in Morocco by Sector Indicating the Gap Between Female and Male Ratios</td>
<td>173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 5.2:4</td>
<td>Definitions Explaining the Meaning of Sub-themes from Participants’ Point of View in Section One</td>
<td>177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 5.2:5</td>
<td>Representation of Extracted Codes Regrouped into Themes from Data Set in Section One from the Interviewees’ Responses</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 5.2:6</td>
<td>List of Categories Identified through the Classification of Extracted Codes from Section Two</td>
<td>183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 5.2:7</td>
<td>Types of Companies – Definitions and Descriptions from the Interviews</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.2:8  List of Formal and Informal Types of Communication Extracted from Section Two .......................................................... 197
Table 5.2:9  Prioritisations of Communication Channels Preferred by the Five Participating Companies .......................................................... 209
Table 5.2:10 Impact of Leadership on Trust Building within a Defined Organisational Structure ................................................................. 216
Table 6.3:1  Reasons Why Moroccan Employees Prefer Working for International Companies in Morocco ............................................. 265
List of Figures

Figure 1.3:1  Power Distance Diagram for Seven Arab Countries ..................... 9
Figure 1.3:2  Caliphal Model of Leadership .................................................. 12
Figure 1.3:3  Maslow’s Hierarchy of Human Needs ..................................... 25
Figure 1.4:1  Factors Affecting Management in the Arab World .................... 35
Figure 1.4:2  Summary of Management Practices’ Development ..................... 38
Figure 1.5:1  Maps Highlighting the Main Moroccan Local Dynasties ............. 42
Figure 1.7:1  Research Stages ........................................................................ 58
Figure 2.3:1  Evolution of Trust over Time ................................................... 69
Figure 2.3:2  Reciprocity of Trust ................................................................. 74
Figure 2.3:3  Individualism vs Collectivism Diagram for Seven Arab Countries ........................................................................... 86
Figure 2.3:4  Masculinity vs Femininity Diagram for Seven Arab Countries ...... 87
Figure 2.3:5  Uncertainty Avoidance Diagram for Seven Arab Countries ........ 88
Figure 2.3:6  Information Flow between Different Organisational Levels ........ 104
Figure 3.1:1  Initial Conceptual Framework for Trust Building ..................... 112
Figure 3.2:1  Perceived Trust Evolving over Time to Build Trust .................. 114
Figure 3.2:2  Role of Communication in Building Trust over Time ................. 115
Figure 3.2:3  Effect of National Culture on Building Trust over Time ............. 117
Figure 3.2:4  Role of Organisational Structure in Building Trust over Time ...... 118
Figure 3.3:1  Proposed Conceptual Framework – Trust Building ................. 122
Figure 4.4:1  The Research Onion ................................................................. 127
Figure 4.6:1  An Interactive Model of Research Design ................................ 129
Figure 4.16:1 The Qualitative Process .......................................................... 165
Figure 5.2:1 Female Employee Ratio in Morocco by Industry ...................... 175
Figure 5.2:2 Main Themes Extracted from the Interviews – Section One using NVivo .............................................................................................. 182
Figure 5.2:3 Organisational Structure’s Sub-themes from Section Two of the Interviews using NVivo ................................................................. 193
Figure 5.2:4 Communication Sub-themes from Section Two of the Interviews using NVivo .............................................................................. 201
Figure 5.2:5 Culture Sub-themes from Section Two of the Interviews using NVivo .............................................................................................. 206
Figure 5.2:6 Representation of Employees’ Views about Building Trust Based on the Different Organisational Relationships within the Organisation .............................................................................................. 221
Figure 5.3:1 Overview of the Trust Building Process in an International-Moroccan Work Environment ............................................................. 253
Figure 5.3:2 Process of Trust as Perceived by Interviewees Involving Key Links between Main Themes Extracted from the Data Set ....................... 255
Chapter One

Introduction
1.1. Introduction

Based on the literature review about management in the Arab World, a broad picture of the current management has been drawn with a more focus on cultural, political, socio-economic factors influencing the effectiveness of management practices. Since 1980, many Arab countries have been encouraging management development in terms of applying new practices, considering opportunities for innovation and building new markets (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 1995). This created challenging partnerships between international companies and these countries in many ways. For instance, applying management practices in multinational corporations (MNCs) in emerging markets is very limited in terms of human resources locally based and their international experience. This calls MNCs to balance between their target in performance and production and their need to stay integrated globally and reach a locally fast adaptation from both local employees and foreign managers (Thite et al., 2012). However, the level of adaptation and adjustment within international companies is critical due to the challenges facing them when operating in Arab countries.

To be globally competitive, Arab countries are seeking solutions through applying practices the same way as applied by their foreign partners. This has been examined by Al-Kazemi and Ali (2002) who believe that management practices in most Arab countries are not applied properly and this is because of the government’s involvement in setting rules and regulations, whereas Weir (2008) sees this involvement positively as it encourages fast economic and social developments and opens new markets and partnerships at an international level. However all of them propose changes to be examined at different levels starting with the managerial level to adopt the right practices based on learning and organisational development in order to participate positively in the
country’s economy growth and to be open to the global market. Taking part in these developments raises other problems to be re-considered such as nepotism, corruption, etc. Ali (1990) highlighted similar issues in another context and linked it to industrialisation in Arab countries where solving economic problems leads to new managerial and social problems. These problems are foreseen to be related to changes in the societal structure and lifestyle, individuals’ expectations, motivation, priorities, values and ideologies. Agreeing with the other researchers, Sharfuddin (1987) emphasized the importance of environmental forces such as social and spiritual needs in solving managerial problems and this because of their effect on the organisational behaviour.

Openness to the global market encouraged Arab companies to consider changes in management by adapting Western management techniques and practices. At an inter-organisational level, Child (2001) raised the importance of trust and recommended trust building between companies with cross-cultural and geographic boundaries for an effective collaboration. Generally speaking, this collaborative adaptation is embodied as a result of interactions between people and firms from different cultural environments, as described by Nooteboom (2007a), in an attempt to analyse trust building between people from a social cognitive perspective. Individual interpretations or perceptions are usual different from one person to another regardless their cultural background and once it is related to an organisational context, there is an adaptation of these interpretations and behaviours, to some extent, to align with the organisation’s goals. Interactions facilitate the adaptation process in organisations through a set of features such as motivation and communication. These interactions then develop relationships between employees and create a bond between employees and the organisation leading to trust. Given its ambiguity and complexity, a clear definition of trust is not found but Nooteboom (2007a)
linked trust to a person’s actions and expectations of others from the fulfilment of these actions. To differentiate between trust and control, Nootboom (2007a) defined trust as “the belief that while one is vulnerable to actions of others, one expects that, in fact, no great harm will be done”. In another paper, Nootboom (2007b) related trust to uncertain outcomes that might occur due to various interactions, taking the risk in believing in others’ actions through subjective interpretations. Nootboom (2007b) also differentiated between trust in developed and developing countries where trust in developed societies is based on laws and institutional rules more than personal involvement whereas developing countries rely more on personal trust to achieve goals as a part of its social capital. To sum up, as a general definition, Nootboom (2002) come up with a simple notion of trust where “the trustor trusts a trustee in one of more aspects of behaviour, under certain circumstances”.

Whether it is about trusting institutions, organisations or people, trust is needed regardless of the degree of risk (Nootboom, 2007b; 2002; Demirbag et al., 2003). Given its importance, this research will focus on the process of trust building in a specific work environment and it will be reviewed more in depth in the second chapter of the literature review (Chapter 2). In this first chapter of the literature, a comparison of the Arab and Western management styles is discussed more in depth; in an attempt to understand both environments and behaviours to explore people’s interactions and adaptation to change with more highlight on the issues raised in this management transfer to fit with companies’ goals in a cross-cultural workplace (Ali, 1990).

1.2. Definition of the Problem and Significance of the Research
In the case of Arab countries, Ali (1990), Child (2001) and other researchers are making a call, a change in management practices for a more developed economy and globally open market. The main research gap in this area is that a lot of Arab and Western researchers have shared the need for this change without any valid or developed frameworks to explore methods to achieve these changes (Al-Kazemi and Ali, 2002). Leat and El-Kot (2007) supported this need suggesting further research in comparing Arab and Western practices within Arab and foreign companies. Conducting larger and more diverse samples in terms of the sample size, sector, nature of activity of participating companies, location for host and headquarters, etc. is more likely to shed insight and bring significant contribution for multinationals investments towards practices they apply in the host country. Additionally, there is growing demand for research in emerging economies and the focus is more on Asian markets such as China and India whereas more research should also be considered in the Arab region which is recognised to be another attractive destination for foreign direct investment (FDI) but little research has been explored in that context (Al-Husan et al., 2009).

In order to create a link between the Western and Arab approaches, it is essential to understand the Arab evolution in Management. Therefore the significance of this research lies on shedding the light on Arab management practices especially that this unrecognised paradigm went through lot of stages which have unable it from creating its proper identity in Management. Instability influenced by historical, economic and socio-political factors has an impact on managerial perceptions and behaviours such as challenges that managers face with political and economic forces, relationships and connections, employees restricted contribution in decision making, etc. What is happening in the Arab World is a good example to the different challenges that face Arab managers and foreign investors.
With the Islamic parties taking part in the political changes in most of the Arab countries started in Tunisia, Libya then Egypt, it encourages international companies to adapt to these behavioural changes and reconsider their own practices in these countries. Focusing on the organisational behaviour is one of the aspects to consider in this research. Khadra (1990) emphasized the challenges to take in order to apply an institutional and administrative development instead of traditional practices characterised by its tribal and unbalanced approach. In this chapter, we will go more in depth on these required changes exploring management in Arab and Western cultures in the way leadership practices are applied.

1.3. Arab Management

1.3.1. What is Arab Management?

In order to understand Arab management and define its components, this section will highlight the forces that shaped its evolution in order to extract the issues facing international companies investing in the Arab World. Furthermore, to understand the changes within the Arab Management practices, it is important to briefly describe the factors that influenced the identification of these practices reviewing current management practices used in some Arab countries highlighted in the literature.

The effectiveness of management practices possesses a universal characteristic that cannot be related only to culture. Management practices play an important role in developing society and its economy even if these practices are differently applied from one country to another and these differences are mainly related to culture, politics, history, economy and organisations of the country (Al-Kazemi and Ali, 2002). Additionally, flexibility, diversity and awareness of the misuse of organisational resources have been
incorporated into the Arab management style due to the internationalisation of businesses and the influence of Western management practices. Therefore, in this section there will be also a focus on factors that influence international businesses to invest in Arab countries and explore the key management practices and propose some to adopt within this multinational environment.

1.3.1.1. Islamic and Cultural Factors

Ali (1990) suggested that the changes that happened before Islam and at the beginning of Islam since the sixth century introduced many Arab management practices. Islam encouraged knowledge, agriculture and trading between Muslims and non-Muslims that might be considered as internationalisation because of the different laws, culture, and so on. The source of the Arab Management practices is mainly linked to religion and religious leaders, where management practices characterised by the different businesses developed since the start of Islam, have been based on Quran principles and prophetic guidance towards the right way to manage business and create a robust foundation in society. Since then, the sense of duty and honesty and social solidarity and mutual aid have been reinforced and constituted the root of management practices in the Arab World.

Branine and Pollard (2010) stressed that respect of traditions within a group whether family or tribe constitutes another element that influences the Arab management. The authors consider the Arab management practices to be influenced by traditions. These are claimed to be nationally embedded more than Islamic values taught from the religion itself. It shows that practices applied in Arab countries are mainly inherited from the period of colonisation or as a societal, political and economic reaction from what is happening in the World such as the recent events of the financial and economic crisis, the
Arab spring, etc. In Arab countries, work values either coming from national and cultural traditions or religiously-related are somehow associated with trust. Trust in the power of Allah (God) in the way people reflect their belief in God in their daily activities. Child (2001) stressed the importance of building trust without any cultural and traditional restrictions where for instance the fact of following the attitude of “We” and “They” representing two different parties restrain teamwork and cooperation from achieving the organisation’s goals. To some extent, these managerial approaches are related to traditions and tribal perceptions coming from the fact that the tribal mentality is following an authoritarian approach based on collective consultancy towards important matters. Ali (1990) listed the Saudi and Iraqi examples as consequences of the tribal factor in Arab organisations starting with the case of Saudi Arabia and other Gulf countries, where employees from known families do not need to go to work but they will still receive their monthly pay. The other example from Iraq, where competition between senior managers in a company can be solved by assigning these two managers in the head of new companies, and this as a tribal practice to treat and please the senior managers and avoid any conflicts. Weir (2008) even goes beyond this, stating that tribalism is an act that exists in the West where managers use their networks to access a market or achieve a goal, and in the Arab countries tribalism is a legitimate practice as it relies on a network system based on relatives and friends. Supported by Hutchings and Weir (2006), Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence (2012) reported that due to this loyal attitude, managers in the Arab World are following a hierarchical and functional structure where managers have authority over their subordinates and this tension can be explained by the traditional style the organisation is characterised by (Sykes et al., 1997). This centralised structure is foreseen as values and norms that form behaviours and ideas applied within policies in large organisations. Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence (2012) even consider Arab
organisations whether private or public as authoritarian. Policies tend to promote for a stable workspace where setting goals and encouraging innovation are causing problems.

Culture has been discussed by several scholars such as Hofstede, Trompenaars and others who focused on linking the cultural aspects in a global scale to develop theories measuring the similarities and differences of culture within countries and its influence on management practices in business nationally and internationally (Leat and El-Kot, 2007; Jacob, 2005; Early, 2006). For example, in relation to the Arab world, culture might have a negative influence on the application of training programmes given the hierarchal structure in most Arab organisations. Consequently, it will not encourage employees to apply what they learnt during the training sessions at work (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 1995). Picton (2010, p 75) suggested that it is important to examine culture and include it in the strategic plan of each organisation as it is a powerful tool that can provide a stable work environment if used in the right context.

The current situation in most Arab countries such as in Kuwait, as mentioned in Abdalla and Al-Homoud’s article (1995), adopts practices involving recruitment, promotion and evaluation systems which are not properly exploited as they are mostly influenced by cultural norms such as using personal connections. Consequently, it affects the application of other practices related to leadership, motivation and training. As illustrated in Figure 1.3:1, Hofstede (2012, 2015) explained it through the power distance dimension in Arab countries where people in Lebanon, Morocco and Egypt for example are considered less power distant than in Iraq, Saudi Arabia, Arab Emirates and Kuwait, which determines the degree of accepting the hierarchical structure in society reflected by the structure of Arab organisations and the managerial styles applied. In Figure 1.3:1,
scores represent the newest scores recalculated by Hofstede matching the dimension data matrix for these countries.

**Figure 1.3:1 Power Distance Diagram for Seven Arab Countries**

![Power Distance Diagram](image)

*Source: Hofstede (2015)*

Therefore, other aspects have to be considered during the transactional process, especially by international businesses and the host country’s government at the stage of their development plan, taking into account cultural and social factors (Thite et al., 2012; Mostafa, 2005; El Mansour and Wood, 2010; Hofstede, 2010).

1.3.1.2. Governmental/Political Factors

The governmental and political factors participated in transforming the Arab management style through the years. Ali (1990) reported that since 1950, the role of the government in most Arab countries has changed due to social parties that appeared such as in Algeria in 1962, Egypt in 1952 and Iraq in 1958 where developing managerial practices were neglected. The reason for this is the impact of colonisation on socialist governments that led them to exchange the management system from expert managers into loyal politicians or officers from the army to back them up. In the other side, conservative countries such as Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Qatar, because of the lack of any managerial support, the
discovery then increase of oil revenues incited them to apply their first development plan in 1970 to be involved in business opportunities and gain skills. Furthermore, they have been employing the same tribal approach as the socialist by recruiting members from their tribes in the government to keep authority and control in a tribal level (Mohamad and Mohamad, 2011). Additionally and different from socialists, the conservatives rely on professional managers to run businesses and governmental missions. To sum up, the main issue that delay management practices from being applied is not accepting the approaches that are not beneficial to the ruler or leading tribes of the region (Hutchings and Weir, 2006).

The government involvement is shown through relationships between different parties, for instance the Arab World with the West, created a force introduced by more pragmatic roles in management (Weir, 2008; Lowrance, 2015). This incited Arab governments to go through economic and social developments and set development programmes to improve education, health care and use of high technologies (Tarradell, 2004; UNESCO, 2002; Kirk, 2015). Another way showing the government’s involvement and according to Hooker (2009), to start a business in Arab countries and particularly in the Gulf, it is important to have the authority’s involvement and this to avoid any delay in processing permissions, and this also was investigated in the Kuwaiti’s case by Metle (2002) who focused mainly on gender management and the role the government plays in improving work conditions for Women in Kuwait, for a country that is looking to be industrialised facing cultural influence and traditions that affect this industrialisation process. Another paper raising the example of Kuwait and its developmental plan by Abdalla and Al-Homoud (1995), where the government is adopting a free market targeting the private sector even though it is still following bureaucratic approaches starting with controlling
most business activities, where 90% of the private sector is under the government procurement contracts especially for importing goods and services, using expatriates from other Arab neighbour countries known for its bureaucratic traditions, holding governmental jobs for Kuwaitis only even if they are unskilled, etc. This bureaucracy as described by the authors generated a rigid and incompetent system not encouraging innovation, choosing a traditional hierarchical system based on respect of power and authority. Seeing it from another angle, Al-Kazemi and Ali (2002) believe that managers in most of the Arab countries face lot of problems given the government’s involvement, as these are more concerned about developing and promoting for the economy rather than considering the best practices to adopt for a more internationalised market.

Demirbag et al. (1995) investigated the existing joint ventures in Turkey between multinational MNCs and local Turkish firms. The study indicated the role joint ventures played in providing local firms with strategic international opportunities in the global market. What these partnerships also offer to local companies is new way to develop their management practices creating more collaborations. This transition generated changes in the company’s structure from a traditional family-owned business to a more institutionalised organisation. Additionally and from a different level, Sykes et al. (1997) expect that moving from a bureaucratic structure to an adaptive one incorporates accepting some changes. The main changes in the economy, policies and regulations and the market in general will lead to adopting new technologies to facilitate communication internally and externally. This also involves an adaptation of the organisation structure itself (FitzPatrick, 1997) as by giving more freedom to employees, allowing personal risk-taking and encouraging new ideas (Mostafa, 2005). Thus, it will be the first step to break all the barriers caused by the organisational system within Arab companies.
1.3.2. Examples of Arab Management Models from the Literature

The Arab management has been shaped by the West, and some Western Management research investigated Management in Arab or Islamic systems (Kuwait, Jordan, the UAE, Saudi Arabia, Turkey, and Iran), but very few could define the right approach to be applied considering cultural, social and economic factors (Girmscheid and Brockmann, 2010). Moreover, there are few Arab models of management extracted from religion which were not applied in practice nor considered by Western researchers.

1.3.2.1. The Prophetic-Caliphal Model of Leadership by Bashir Khadra

The caliphal model designed by Khadra (1990) forms the Arab concept of leadership. The attributes of the model basically depended on the author’s “historical, ideological, societal and political analysis”; then it was extended to the organisational level by logical assumptions due to the previous forces’ interaction within the administrative system. However, this model was not applied empirically to prove its validity and reliability in order to generalise it.

Figure 1.3:2 Caliphal Model of Leadership

Source: Khadra (1990, p 38)
Given the difficulty in procuring the original article about the model’s creation in 1984, the caliphal model of leadership (Figure 1.3:2) has been discussed in few articles such as Khadra (1990). Robbins et al. (2015), discussing leadership in the Arab World, explored Khadra’s model (1990) as the interaction of four main elements including personalism, individualism, lack of institutionalisation and the vital role of the great man. Personalism represents a highly subjective view of individuals with strong emotions towards other people or objects, such as the person’s feeling toward their work, how they distinguish themselves from others or their degree of persuasion giving more importance to their personal opinion. Then comes individualism, which implies a high degree of objectivity and leads people to making decisions without considering people’s opinions. The combination of these two elements creates conflicts causing an unstructured system leading to another dimension called “Lack of institutionalism”, which does not show only the lack of acceptance of laws, plans, rules and regulations, but it also determines how plans, rules and regulations can be diverted due to personal interferences. The lack of institutions at this level leads to a great man to fill the vacuum. Here comes the role of leaders in establishing rules and procedures as defined in the prophetic-caliphal model as “expected great man”, who in this case is expected to be with prophetic and caliphal characteristics as illustrated in the model in order to achieve stability, growth and system development. Consequently and depending on people’s expectation and vision of their leader, the combination of two sub-models can take place as caliphal or prophetic. If we consider the two sub-models separately, on one hand, the prophetic model relies on love and unity, where the leader is open to diverse ideas presented by people and is concerned by the success or failure of the organisation. On the other hand, the caliphal model still represents conflict as it is based on use of authority which is relatively dependent on the
ability and potential of the leader to influence others. Furthermore, the quality of relationship between leader and follower determines the characteristics of leadership, which usually creates conflict due to choosing who will be ruling. Additionally, the difference between the two sub-models is the existence or lack of trust attributed to the leader; as it exists in the prophetic model by belief and while in the caliphal model it is established by force. To summarise, the prophetic-caliphal model of leadership is a basic model that can represent a behavioural linkage between the traditional, cultural, political, social and economic forces in the Arab society, which aims to reduce the “negative aspects of personalism and individualism” and influence positively social norms by trusting more in teamwork and institutionalism. Sharfuddin (1987) supported Khadra’s conclusion by emphasising the role of leadership in Islam as a role model for subordinates. For this reason, leaders who choose to follow the Islamic behaviour avoid any “oppressive, exploitative or authoritarian” actions and their behaviour with their employees is based on trust (Sykes et al., 1997; Child, 2001). This implies using motivation in a way to create a productive environment and reduce corruption or misconduct.

1.3.2.2. Islamic Administrative Theory

Sharfuddin (1987) introduced an Islamic administrative theory that gives guidance to Arab organisations and clarifies the importance of organisational behaviour for groups and individuals. The basic elements of this theory have been defined by Abu-Sin in his book “The Islamic Administration” in 1981, considering ethics, morality and administration as complementary characteristics for the administrative theory. This also agrees with Sharfuddin (1987), who connected the social philosophy with moral principles from the Islamic system, taking into account the economic and individuals’ needs. Moreover, spiritual and psychological needs are considered as well, by respecting
individuals’ point of view and involving them in the decision making following the Islamic principles of Shurah (Mutual Consultation) and Nasiha (Advice) based on their qualification levels and capabilities. In the other hand, the Islamic Administrative Theory is based on organisational structure, hierarchical relationships and use of authority in order to define responsibilities and determine each one’s role in the organisation.

According to Sharfuddin (1987), one of the main principles in the Islamic Administrative Theory is Shurah, which creates a healthy and more productive work environment between all employees. In Quran there are lot of verses inciting people to use Shurah in their affairs, and as an example stating God’s words: “And those who have responded to their lord and established prayer and whose affair is [determined by] consultation among themselves, and from what We have provided them, they spend” (Quran, Surat Ash-Shuraa, 42:38). Additionally, Caliph Umar, one of the leaders coming after the prophet Mohammad, stressed on consulting on important affairs, citing: “one man’s ideas are like a string, and two men’s ideas are like two strings joined together, and three ideas are like three strings put together – they can never be easily broken”. Furthermore, “Nassiha” or advice is another important component of the theory as long as it is sincere, honest and for a good intention; it is an effective factor in the Islamic administrative system, as people use their own ideas based on their experience to trust others’ judgement or consider their advice.

The notion of trust is reflected in the way individuals accept authority and comply with rules, in such a way to follow rules, regulations and financial control rather than depending only on people’s faith. Thus, control relies on trusted leaders following God and his Prophet’s directives in solving issues, and the same applies in defining control
mechanisms for this theory. In fact, a positive management comes from an open environment driven by trust, faith and loyalty reinforced by strong relationships (Child, 2001), and proof of a successful transition from a traditional organisational structure to a modern one is shown through accepting changes in the organisation’s culture (Sykes et al., 1997) as expressed in both Arab models of management. In the other hand, this incites leaders and managers in considering employees’ needs, paying them fair wages and providing them with necessities of life to avoid corruption and help them having a good life. Furthermore, considering the Muslim World as explained by Robbins et al (2015) in their exploration of management in the Arab World, work in Islam constitutes one of the main pillars of Faith, and therefore, it is viewed as a vital religious obligation before being an organisational requirement. Consequently, this requires selecting and recruiting people based on their merit only and not employing a less efficient person if there is a better candidate, and by doing so, we prevent managers from all types of corruption which is forbidden in all religions including Islam.

Nowadays, one of the common aspects of behaviour discussed in the literature is related to corruption, which is applied in several ways such as bribery, cronyism, nepotism and kickbacks (Mohamed and Mohamad, 2011; Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011). Not applying the Arab management style and not being able to adopt Western practices properly led the Arab World to such behaviours in business, which some Western authors relate to culture or the system itself (Hooker, 2009). However, some practices might be acceptable in some countries but considered as a corrupted act in other cultures. Additionally, in the West, the business system in general is based on a set of transparent rules treating everybody equally sealed by contracts or agreements protecting their rights. While in non-Western cultures, a business system is mainly ruled by the quality of their relationships and the
level of trust and loyalty between people (Child, 2001). On one hand, if we take the example of a purchasing agent as illustrated by Hooker (2009), in the West, bidders are treated equally so that contracts will be awarded based on the best offer. If the agent preferred a specific bidder because of personal relationships, then it will be against the transparent system. The agent’s act is called cronyism and it is a form of corruption unacceptable in the West. However, in non-Western cultures, cronyism might be regarded as an act of trust, and the agent chooses the bidder based on this foundation that represents the key success of a long-term business, and this has been stressed by Child (2001) considering the trust the start of calculations based on “the ability, competence and motivation to deliver their promises” for mutual benefits. The opposite could be true where for example, it is acceptable if a Western employee leaves the company for another one offering a better opportunity, money and position even if it is in the middle of a project and the company will find another qualified candidate to continue the work. However, for non-Western companies, it is not acceptable and it is considered as a corrupted behaviour, because they build strong links with their employees, they do not expect such an act and deem it as irresponsible as it disrupts the continuity of the work and might affect other people’s productivity (Buckley, 2014; Chen et al., 2010; Mohamad and Mohamad, 2011; Hutchings and Weir, 2006). This is not only related to Arab countries, Chinese for example, a non-Arab country, take their personal relationships into account while making business decisions, which may be considered as a corrupted act for Westerners (Chua et al., 2009) given it is against regulations or unethical (Dirienzo et al, 2007; Cuervo-Cazurra, 2006).
1.3.3. Common Aspects in Arab and Western Management Practices

Motivation, values, beliefs and decision styles have been examined in the literature in general, even though it has been neglected in the Arabic context, especially that issues related to this topic were always related to culture linking it to tribal traditional procedures. This confusion prevented Arab organisations from setting up basic management theories and practices. Even Western consultants did not succeed in applying or adjusting their models and practices within Arab organisations due to their misunderstanding about the Arab culture and their ignorance of the Arab political roots such as authority and tribalism (Ali, 1990). Therefore, instead of trying to define differences between these two styles, this section will highlight the similarities between the Arab style and Western management practices.

1.3.3.1. Definition of Leadership

Reviewing the leadership literature, the relationship of leadership and culture is receiving more interests; especially that leadership is expressed differently, leading to seven views of leadership as defined by Penn (2015) as genetic, learned, heroic, top-only, social script, position and calling views. Each one of these represents a perception of leadership, where for example, leaders with the calling view follow a call with a sense of mission or towards a purpose to achieve, leaders of the position view are traditional and bureaucratic where powerful titles such as “director” or “head of” are respected, etc., and learned and genetic views represent the born or made schools of thought as highlighted in Mostavicz et al (2009).

In emerged economies, leadership has been given more consideration to bring more competition between companies increasing their performance and productivity,
especially that nowadays, organisations are looking for effective leaders who will be running the organisation successfully (Russell, 2011). It has also created a positive change that “encourages flexibility, efficiency and employees involvement” as stated by El-Kot and Leat (2005), who believe that it would generate new challenges within the organisation itself. In the Arab culture for instance, motivating employees will improve the quality of relationship between managers and employees, especially if they receive recognition for doing their work or by involving them with updates about the work in overall (Calza et al., 2010). As a consequence, employees’ actions reflected in the way they work are main indicators of their loyalty, commitment and output that will increase the organisation’s productivity, showing the quality, competence and efficiency of management as measurements of the firm’s organisational health. In the case of Leat and El-Kot’s study (2009), these factors have been found to show the level of trust between employees associated in this process. The concept of trust then could be defined as one’s “good intentions to others”, which creates confidence as for their actions and words, and this characterised the trusted member as competent, concerned and reliable.

Furthermore, by reviewing the literature, it appears that there is agreement between authors on the definition of leadership as presented in Table 1.3:1:

**Table 1.3:1 Definitions of Leadership**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Leadership Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mehta et al. (2011)</td>
<td>Leadership supports a team-oriented work environment where collaboration between managers and employees reflects respect, trust and cooperation. As part of their</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
organisation and planning, leaders encourage everyone’s involvement in the decision making.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Summary of Leadership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hodges and Martin (2012)</td>
<td>Leadership creates an honest working environment reflecting employees’ behaviour and perception of trust in the organisation, their engagement and development at work and so on.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Otken and Cenkci (2012)</td>
<td>Leadership plays a moral role which is reflected in the way employees apply rules and procedures in the organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dulewicz and Higgs (2005)</td>
<td>Leadership is a combination of cognitive and behavioural factors that are embedded in the way leaders apply their practices and tend to follow a specific style more than another.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence (2012)</td>
<td>Leadership lies on the leader’s commitment and consistent words and actions that bring an integral work environment to achieve positive outcomes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To sum up, leadership could be defined as a process that involves a group of people guided by a trusted role model who will communicate his expertise within employees and fairly distribute tasks among them to achieve goals. In this spirit, features of leadership proposed in Table 1.3:1 highlights common characteristics identified by the authors, where more focus is given to features such as integrity, trust, truth and honesty as important elements to manage people in organisation. For instance, managing conflicts in global markets is one of the challenges in international partnerships, and Mehta et al. (2011) investigated the impact of national culture as moderator in the relationship between leadership styles and managing conflict. The authors examined three
characteristics of leadership as participative, supportive and directive, and the reason behind choosing these three characteristics in particular is because it was found to be more relevant in managing conflicts in such partnerships. Moreover, identifying a shared leadership identity to resolve problems in multinational enterprises was discussed in Hodges and Martin’s (2012) paper, which is another example where leadership was contextualised as a supportive factor to attract employees’ involvement and develop specific characteristics such as trust, sense of belonging, and so on; which creates their identity in the organisation. Additionally, Otker and Cenkci (2012) investigated the influence of ethics on leadership, questioning the role of trust in the leadership process in Eastern and Western cultures; The authors relate leadership to values where morality is consistent with their actions, where in Eastern cultures for example, leadership is related to loyalty and respect between the leader and employees. Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence (2012) have also explored the relationship between ethics and leadership, where trust plays an important role in the relationship between the several constructs, examining leader’s behavioural integrity, trust, organisational commitment, organisational cynicism and other organisational behaviours such as loyalty and employees’ initiative. In a hierarchical manager–employee relationship, managers have the authority to make decisions that affect their employees, and for instance, if a manager behaves with integrity keeping his/her promises and communicating accurate information with employees, they will trust him in making decisions for them; This could be more meaningful to some cultural context such as collectivist or Eastern ones. Another approach to assess leadership characteristics in an organisational context was discussed in Dulewicz and Higgs’ paper (2005), where the authors divided these characteristics into two set of behaviours: personal and competence-based. On the first set, integrity, trust, honesty, charisma, understanding, determination and confidence are personal
characteristics related to leadership. On the second one, being engaged with employees and knowing their needs contributes in directing them in areas where they can be creative and where their potential can be put into action, which is how leaders apply their skills. Therefore, such skills and competencies that differentiate the level of effectiveness from a leader to another is combined with the first category, where the fact that leaders are being themselves and having a set of skills contributes effectively in the leadership process.

In a review of leadership theories identifying personality and behavioural characteristics to determine leaders’ traits, Bligh (2011) started her description illustrating leaders as great men with heroic characteristics, as an attempt to identify more traits and develop a better understanding of leadership. This approach, as explained by the author, studies five personality traits and their relation to leadership, and which are, as cited in the paper: “conscientiousness (being an organised individual), agreeableness (reflected by the individual willingness to trust others, which once related to leadership, this factor is considered as a weak point), neuroticism (a negative point that reflects vulnerability when connected to leadership), openness (which is linked to the individual’s openness to creativity to satisfy their curiosity in order to stay informed) and extraversion (a factor that is considered as strongly related to leadership given the openness which refers to the individual’s social vision with a positive strength that helps forging their personality)”.

In addition to this, she listed other personality traits related to leadership, and that explains the link with trust as well, such as integrity which clearly defines this trait in leaders as being honest and inspiring in a way that makes others respect and trust them in the decisions and choices they make. Therefore, besides their expertise and knowledge, key traits of a leader remain relatively associated to human qualities such as honesty, integrity,
self-confidence, motivation, initiative and ambition (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991). Moreover, these skills of a leader take into account the organisation’s vision in order to implement it in collaboration with the different levels in the organisation. Consequently, to reach this goal, leaders need to be consistent in terms of words and actions, which represent behavioural integrity and honesty that seals this relationship between the leader and their followers (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991). Leadership and organisational trust have then traits in common where reliable leaders lead others to trust them, and one of the factors for leader to be an effective leader is their openness, integrity and willingness to trust. Therefore, next chapter (i.e.: Chapter 2) will be about trust, exploring the main aspects to build it and relate it to leadership.

Each of these authors defined leadership features from a specific perspective related to a discipline or a particular topic. However, none of them could clearly explain the why and how these features are relevant in leadership in a cross-cultural context, where they only addressed what leadership consists of in the relationship between manager-employee in organisations. Furthermore, trust was mainly considered as a moderating factor in the process of leadership, but none defined how trust is developed and to what extent it is important in leadership. They also did not draw similarities in management practices in different contexts such as the Arab and Western cultures that could identify common traits in leadership or in management in such a cross-cultural work environment. Hence, in an attempt to clarify this, the next sections will show similarities between two Arab models and theories in management related to leadership in the West.
1.3.3.2. Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs

If we consider Abraham Maslow, who focused on studying human motivation, he developed a theory known as Maslow’s hierarchy of needs in 1943 (Kermally, 2004). It is composed of five levels that describe individuals’ needs following a certain progression depending on how satisfied the person is in order to move to the next level (Urwiler and Frolick, 2008, p. 84). As illustrated in Figure 1.3:3, the first level represents basic needs required for the individual’s survival such as water, food and other biological needs. Once this need is met, another basic level is to be considered, which focuses on meeting personal safety and security. These two basic levels have to be met to feel a kind of stability in a personal level. Consequently, the individual will be able to advance to social needs, where becoming a part of a social structure is important especially if the environment where they are is comfortable and encourages them to share and exchange emotions, feelings and thoughts smoothly. Then, there are self-esteem needs, which are met when the individual is more confident and respected by others in the current status reached at this level. Finally comes the self-actualisation need, which is the highest level an individual could reach. At this level, a person has already a status in society both hierarchically and financially satisfied; What might be needed at this level is meeting other needs such as buying a car that no one else has, pursuing a degree for general knowledge or to add more prestige, and so on.
Comparing Maslow’s model to the Islamic Administrative Theory and a part of the Caliphal model, besides the spiritual need Arabs relate to, there are many similarities such as where Sharfuddin (1987) stated the fact that in order to create a healthy society, it is essential that leaders in Islam consider their people’s needs listed by the author as “food, clothing, housing, education, medical care, transport ... as basic needs of all human beings”, and this to have a balanced socio-economic justice implemented in society by encouraging people to support each other. Individuals working in companies are characterised by personal qualities that constitute important elements in the way leadership and trust are perceived and implemented. These aspects, once considered, help in planning for better practices in organisations (Mostovicz et al., 2011).

1.3.3.3. Great Man Theory of Leadership

The author of this research is interested in the relationship between leadership and trust, separately examined in Mostovicz et al.’s (2011) paper, where the authors consider both to be perceived differently depending on the ideologies individuals follow, supporting the
same point in their other paper (Mostavicz et al., 2009), and where they also outline that, driven by their own motivations, leaders’ values are clearly reflected on their choices preferring a school of thought more than another, applying practices that match their values or showing certain behaviour traits, manifested for example, in their level of commitment and motivation.

As briefly defined in previous sections in this chapter by Khadra (1990), Eckmann (2005), Rusell (2011) and Sabri (2011), great man role in leadership and the role of this concept in theories with regards to trust will be detailed in here, and more focus with be given on similarities between leadership theories in Arab and Western management in building trust. Starting with Russell (2011), who reviewed the literature on the main leadership theories proposing a new transitional leadership style as a new theory regrouping the main common features of leadership theories to be more appropriate to nowadays professional real world. While exploring these theories, Russell (2011) began with the Great Man theory, which historically was introduced in the 1840’s by Thomas Carlyle, a Scottish writer who gave the attribute of born/not made great men to heroes who marked the history with their interventions (Biju, 2010). This theory was supported by leaders such as Abraham Lincoln, Gandhi and others, who became role models studying their “Great Men” characteristics, personality traits and behaviour in leadership. Additionally, in her paper, even though she was discussing the gender aspect when comparing the masculine and feminine features in a leader, Eckmann (2005) explored the Great Man Theory and its influence on leadership in theory and practice, especially that most leadership, management and behaviour literature is related to this theory (Russell, 2011).
Mostavicz et al (2009) discussed the leadership literature in their paper, proposing a more dynamic theory development of leadership, looking at it specifically from a psychological angle in terms of fitting leaders’ choices coming from their own perception of the world with the activities planned by the organisation. Even though Mostavicz et al.’s (2009) exploration was not supported empirically with practical examples, the paper has introduced best leadership theories and practices from two different schools of thoughts, where the first group emphasizes leaders to be born, whereas the second group considers qualities of human development as the main element to become leaders. Here comes the Great Man theory, emerging from the first category’s ideology, representing leaders as great men with specific traits such as trust, persistence, maturity and so on, and skills such as time management, motivation, etc. Adding to this definition, great men are seen as leaders who are working inclusively with their groups as collaborators, assertive and using approaches for empowerment, implementing practices to adapt to changes in organisations within a timeline and using their qualities as leaders to reach that goal (Eckmann, 2005).

Penn (2015) viewed great man theory as an old-fashioned theory that is still used, considering leaders to be born heroes with some features in their personalities and their behaviours that could be a tool for them to develop their own leadership approaches. To some extent, it could be seen as a mixture of trait and behavioural theories; where Penn (2015) describes trait theory as a focus on individuals’ personality traits that characterise them as leaders, whereas behavioural theory is more about the approaches that an effective leader follows to be considered effective. In the same spirit, as part of Biju’s thesis (2010), the literature review chapter discusses leadership in India starting with a general overview of the main theories of leadership as the available literature in leadership
is only focusing on the issues related to these theories, and the same point was raised by Macfarlane (2014) while discussing the challenges of leadership in higher education in terms of concepts and ideologies that tend to be related mostly to the great man theory, questioning the role of leadership development in this case. Biju (2010) also identified the great man theory of leadership as one of these controversial theories where the concept of leadership is related to born leaders, showing more attention to the leader’s traits than to leadership itself. This controversy, as highlighted by Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991), resides in the fact that leadership traits don’t insure the leadership success. Furthermore, qualities of a leader are sometimes misleading, like for instance when Macfarlane (2014) gave the example of schools in the UK where, according to him, there is this cultural misconception that a charismatic leader can easily make changes in a short time.

Comparing the Western great man theory with the caliphal model and its relation to trust, section (3.5.) discusses in details the link between them, but briefly, a definition of effective or great leaders was considered from various angles, where Eckmann (2005) pointed out that leadership studies were examined through existing great leaders’ examples citing Ghandi, Churchill and the prophet Mohammad (Peace Be Upon Him - pbuh). In this sense, the main similarities that were found between the great man theory and the caliphal theory of leadership is in the way leaders are critical component to determine the organisation’s style leading to its success or failure as well as identify their contribution in motivating employees through the quality of relationships within that work environment, as described in the book of leadership, edited by Vecchio (2007). The human qualities raised earlier in theories of leadership was also an important part in the caliphal model, where the Great Man has either prophetic characteristics derived from the prophet Muhammad or caliphal characteristics which represent a leader respecting and
following religious beliefs and rules (Sabri, 2011). Reviewing leadership theories and styles, Russell (2011) described leaders as charismatic, intelligent, wise derived from the characteristics of a born great man. Here it comes to the point questioning whether being a great man is a born leader or made one learning over time through experience as it was stated by Eckmann (2005), who through a real life situation, shared her own experience about the administrative tasks managing a new department at university relating her behaviour to the characteristics of great man.

1.4. Integration of Western Management Practices in the Arab World

In terms of influencing international businesses in particular in how practices are applied, El Mansour and Wood (2010) investigated on how American and European managers adjust and adapt with work environment in Morocco; the authors focused specifically on Americans and Europeans because they constitute the largest groups in Moroccan international trading. El Mansour and Wood (2010) stressed the importance of learning, especially that organisations are in a continuous learning process, whether they are conscious about it or not. Where learning, in this case, is considered as a fundamental indicator for the American and European existence and expansion in the Moroccan market, this also can be related to the trust aspect foreseen in the way the learning process has been dealt with. For instance, the authors discussed about training sessions provided to foreigners regarding the country they are assigned to, and this before and after they travel to the host country; cross-cultural training have been introduced by multinational companies in 1990 proposing sessions about the host country’s history, business customs, language, educational system, culture and basic rules on how to behave in the country in question, which helps to build more knowledge about the host country’s culture and customs in order to easily adjust and bring a confident spirit to the new work environment.
Additionally, among 109 private companies in Morocco, only 34 responded to their survey (16 American and 18 European managers), and 30 of the 34 foreign managers did not feel any cultural shock. For example, American managers who do not speak French or Arabic – considered as the main spoken languages in Morocco – could familiarise with it, either by learning by themselves or by trusting local managers to translate for them. Moreover, the direct contact with locals and previous foreign co-workers helped foreigners to reduce the shock and adjust to the new environment and learn about its culture, better than spending time reading books or during the training. Sykes et al. (1997) expressed the need of such integration in development within the organisation, especially that it could help home-based and foreign employees to build trust to generate a committed and skilled workforce and he also addressed the impact of cultural training on performance by building trust through openness, co-operation, innovation and initiation in the organisation’s attitudes as a change approach for a better adaptive organisational structure. In addition, the training process enables employees to learn how to deal with this development stage positively using motivation, communication and team building activities (Gardiner et al., 2001). El Mansour and Wood (2010) also added that training is not enough to adapt to a foreign environment but requires more involvement from managers by interacting with local employees. Thus, communication and information sharing will be encouraged more as employees will feel involved in these changes, performance will be increased and this will be one of the organisation’s indicators of success. This involvement was also supported by Brannen and Peterson (2009), who in their paper discussed the role of an individual level learning in a cross-cultural integration to facilitate knowledge and technology exchange using the case of American and Japanese firms.
Back to the main point about the influence of culture and government’s involvement in applying management practices, Picton (2010) gave the example of United Arab Emirates (UAE) who are promoting for their cultural heritage by using the cultural element to build a bridge linking their traditions and culture to globalisation and modernisation; Culture, in this case, is reported by the author as a positive indicator to applying these managerial practices. The UAE, which is one of the Gulf Countries whose economy is based on oil, is facing challenges to preserve its national culture, and this by starting series of projects such as museums, festivals and touristic places like the “Sharjah Heritage Village” Picton (2010) discussed in his article. Therefore, the government encouraged institutions such as the Department of Culture and Information, the Commerce and Tourism Development Agency and the Department of Tourism to revive the Emirati heritage first in order to follow the fast social changes without forgetting the Emirati culture and traditions. Additionally, these projects increase the level of nationalism within Emiratis, and also support the government’s strategy in strengthening the economic and political structure of the country. Furthermore, the UAE is seeking to classify Dubai as a “World City of trade, business and tourism”, and international businesses are attracted by the cultural and modern diversity the country offers. However, Ali (1990) considered that this balance between preserving national identity and being globally competitive is challenging for large companies that usually establish lot of laws and regulations as sign of modernisation and internationalisation, which leads to question the Emirati’s case in Picton’s example (2010) on whether preserving traditions and the national culture will not create challenges to international investors with different cultural backgrounds when applying their managerial practices.
Following a parallel thinking, Turkish organisations are more similar to the Arab culture, considering organisations’ relationships with regards to their values and behaviours in business (Glaister et al, 2009, p. 362). Demirbag et al. (1995) examined joint ventures and its impact on local Turkish industrial groups. Turkish local firms were described as family-owned and controlled organisations even after FDI was adopted in 1980 in Turkey. However, since the country has known an increase in joint ventures dealing with partners from the European Union, the United States of American and the Middle East, Turkish local firms adapted to such a growth learning about external markets and developing their own knowledge and embeddedness of new technologies in their organisations. Lowrance (2015) contributed organisational changes in Turkey following different managerial practices such for leadership and strategic planning to compete in the global economy; which Demirbag and Mirza (2000) and Demirbag et al. (2003) considered challenging in such inter-partnerships especially in terms of joint ventures’ performance. To understand the evolution of the Turkish management, it is first defined by its centralised style and hierarchical management structure including short term planning, unclear organisational strategies, authoritarian and reactive behaviour that restrains innovation and taking initiative at work. Firstly, this can be explained by the educational system that obliges learners to follow a defined programme and apply it as it is, even if it is not relevant to their professional stage afterwards (Glaister et al, 2009). Secondly, the traditional family-based style, which is described as a top-down structure, explains the use of power where the provider of the group is the most respected. Consequently, this affects the level of communication and justifies the nature of decision making which concerns the top management team only. However, even though relationships are very rigid and formal between the different levels, these are considered as very strong due to the family-based nature; If we consider private companies (59% private owned and 19% foreign-owned),
which constitute the highest number compared to the 22% state-owned business organisations in Turkey, they are all managed by family members who have permanent positions and also responsible of keeping good relationships with the government and their authorities. Nonetheless, the Turkish government changed in their policies in order to encourage a free trading market; since 1980, Turkey has progressed in developing their economic growth and has liberalised their policies for a more open and international investment. As a result, management practices in Turkey have been affected by the government’s strategy towards a more innovative approach focusing on policies and how it might contribute politically and economically in the country’s development (Dincer et al, 2006; Demirbag and Mirza, 2000; Demirbag et al., 1995).

In contrast, if we consider the case of Kuwait, like the other Gulf countries, it is facing lot of challenges in overcoming problems in relation to the political system, traditional values and the quality of relationships at work. This can be linked to the current economic situation which is significant given the oil-production industry, the population and country size and its good relations with Western countries. Additionally, since the invasion of Iraq, Kuwait has been protected by the American and British armies, and this after the oil crisis that influenced the World because of this war. This shows the strategic importance of Kuwait with its neighbours Iraq, Iran and Saudi Arabia and the West. Consequently, Kuwait started investing abroad, and according to Al-Kazemi and Ali (2002), more than US $200,000 investment is made abroad by every Kuwaiti as estimated in 2001. Affected by geographic and historical facts, it is also one of the Arab markets that have been through new stages that helped in adopting new customs developing a competitive spirit that shaped relationships with others, but still kept the traditional understanding of authority; such as when the government put conditions on foreign
businesses to rely on a Kuwaiti guarantor to legally control foreign operations. For instance and since the increase in oil price in 1973, the Kuwaiti government – like all Arab oil-based countries – rewards Kuwaitis by sharing oil revenues, and this acted negatively in the Kuwaitis’ efficiency at work, reinforcing the easy work for Kuwaitis, and therefore, living wealthy with less effort as they rely more on foreigners with an estimation of 1.4 million compared to 825,000 Kuwaitis (Ali, 1990). Picton (2010) also pointed out that Emiratis’ involvement in international business is limited, with an important number of decision makers and employees being not Emiratis – mainly from other Arab countries and Westerns –, and most of these foreigners work in the private sector. Furthermore, as stated by Ali (1990), due to industrialisation in the Arab countries, solving economic problems led to new managerial and social problems. These problems are foreseen as they are related to changes in the societal structure and lifestyle, individuals’ expectations, motivation, priorities, values and ideologies; where because of the global competition, Sykes et al. (1997) considers that moving from a bureaucratic structure to an adaptive one is related to accepting changes in the economy, policies and regulations and the market in general. Therefore, by combining cited characteristics extracted from the given examples about all these countries, management in the Arab World is affected by significant problems as illustrated below in Figure 1.4:1:
No approaches or management practices are applied in order to assess the validity and development of managerial functions within companies. Additionally, considering the managerial style, decision making is top-down where employees will follow instructions given by their managers without discussion, and this restrains work performance; in fact, the hierarchical structure of Arab companies is not encouraging innovation and is respecting the power of authority. Therefore, the applicability of management practices in Arab companies is affected by the society’s economic and social characteristics (Al-Kazemi and Ali, 2002). Furthermore, to reflect on the way managers with a technical background manage their employees and in her doctoral research, Dik (2011) explored Arab management and the influence of culture in the accounting discipline. According to her, dealing with accounting systems requires a level of knowledge in managing
accounting practices, and this is a missing aspect in the Arab culture which defers from other cultures. She also raised the need of improving education, focusing on new disciplines rather than following traditional educational systems influenced by either the French system like in Morocco, Algeria and Tunisia due to colonisation, or the Anglo-American system for other Arab countries such as Egypt, Jordan and Gulf countries. Moreover, in addition to what was mentioned earlier by Dincer et al (2006) and Glaister et al (2009) about differentiating management styles in countries where management practices are more related to governmental, political and economic status and market condition rather than to the country’s values, Alyousif et al (2010) – in an attempt to develop a model through examining management practices and organisational culture applied in the construction industry in the United Arab Emirates – also linked the differences in management practices to various aspects such as environmental, cultural, societal and institutional, suggesting that educational systems as well play an important role in applying managerial practices.

To explain the lack of management skills in Arab countries from a historical perspective, Arab countries acquired bureaucratic approaches from the Ottoman era and then the European colonisation. After the defeat of the Fatimites dynasty, the Ottoman Empire (1412-1918) established more restrictions in society, where more control and unlimited power is given to leaders. Hence, lot of trading and businesses have been affected, and business activities in Arab territories were controlled. Then comes the European colonisation, which also affected the Arab management practices as it reinforced new skills expressed by a centralised authority, strict rules and regulations and a controlled freedom. Furthermore, in the twentieth century, even though Arab countries such as Algeria, Iraq, Morocco, Saudi Arabia, Syria and Tunisia gained their independency, they
kept that same authoritarian ruling system where liberalism was condemned and knowledge was controlled. Since then and in terms of management development, relationships with the West created another force that introduced more pragmatic roles in management; this pragmatism is mainly a reaction from the different stages that the Arab World has been through such as oil discovery and production, improvement of education, health care, communications and technologies and the interaction with several industries. Additionally, flexibility, diversity and awareness of the misuse of organisational resources have been incorporated into Arab management practices due to the economic development, the internationalisation of businesses and the influence of Western management practices. Therefore, this led Arab countries to focus on specific industries that fit with economic needs and reflected on some aspects such as education, where Morocco’s educational system, for example, relies on core faculties which are law, medicine and sciences including agricultural science, earth and life sciences, mathematics, physics and technical studies, while Emirates’ educational system is more technology-orientated and the Egyptian educational system focuses on industrial, technical, commercial and agricultural streamings (Classbase, 2015a; Classbase, 2015b; Classbase, 2015c). Beyond this, the quality of learning remains one of the biggest challenges that Arab countries have to ensure through a significant educational reform as it plays an important role in their social and economic development programmes, where globalisation is influencing these countries to adopt educational systems that are managerially and technologically oriented (Worldbank, 2015c; UNESCO, 2002; Kirk, 2015; Alyousif et al, 2010).

Figure 1.4:2 illustrates what has been stated earlier by Al-Kazemi and Ali’s research (2002) about the Kuwaiti case study and solutions proposed by other researchers (El
Sawah et al., 2008; Waal, 2007; Elbanna and Naguib, 2009; El-Kot and Leat, 2008; Atiyyah, 1997; Murrell, 1981) about similar issues faced by international companies in Arab countries where applying management is interrupted by factors as stated earlier and these challenges are controlled by mainly centralising authority, defining an adequate strategy for planning and information sharing and applying theories and research.

Figure 1.4:2 Summary of Management Practices’ Development

Source: designed by the author of this research, adapted - variables extracted from Sykes et al. (1997), Ali (1990), Sharma and Bhatnagar (2009), Baddar Al-Husan, Brennan and James (2009) and Serpell and Ferrada (2007)

Based on what has been discussed in this section, relating these characteristics to business relationships and taken from a trust perspective, it refers, from an inter-organisational view, to the tribal mentality existing in Arab countries which provides a stable political environment for the government because it brings loyalty and respect to policies and rules. However, from an intra-organisational view, it affects how employees are selected, evaluated and promoted in organisations that give importance to personal relationships more than professional relationships at work, and this happens at all levels. In both cases, trust plays an important role showing that rigid systems and unwillingness to delegate tasks within organisations could negatively affect employees’ belonging to their work environment. For instance, considering the Kuwaiti example, if talented Kuwaiti employees are able to feel more responsible and are carrying difficult tasks, the country...
will be developed internally by depending on skilled and competent Kuwaiti employees who can face global challenges and make significant changes in terms of norms and practices internationally recognised (Al-Kazemi and Ali, 2002). To sum up, there are no defined methods and appropriate resources used to overcome these challenges, which creates other problems related to relations’ influence, corruption, and so on. In order to emphasize the link between management practices and culture through the Arab governments’ involvement, we will be using the example of Morocco.

1.5. Background about Morocco

Historically, Morocco has always been known for its important relationship with Europe, and this before the partnership of the European Union with the country (Tarradell, 2004). Hence, historical, geographic, human, cultural and political considerations led Morocco to this partnership, and especially with France, seeking for all the financial and economic support needed to implement its social and economic development programmes. Additionally, Morocco is affected by the Arab, Islamic and European culture, which is reflected by the liberal economy of the country proposing facilities and interesting regulations for international companies mainly from France, Spain, Germany, Italy and the USA to invest in Morocco. According to the Central International Agency (CIA), the Moroccan economy is counting on key sectors such as agriculture, tourism, phosphates and textiles. However, even though it is considered as one of the fastest growing economies in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region with a growth rate decreasing from 4.8% in 2009 to 3.7% in 2010, Morocco is still facing lot of challenges to improve the economy through finding solutions to the problem of corruption, government’s high spending, legal and educational system reforms, etc. (CIA, 2012; Al-Kazemi and Ali, 2002; WorldBank, 2012a).
This raises another gap in the literature where, even with these partnerships with Europe, there is still a lack in research in the area of Management and business studies, as mentioned by Khetab (2014), who explored managerial procedures used by Moroccan companies, compared theories and examined the link between innovation and entrepreneurship in Morocco. Thus, this shows the current interest in exploring managerial practices in Morocco to build a better understanding of various phenomena such as innovation, strategies and behaviour. Therefore, the next sections will examine historical, geographical, cultural and colonial factors to explore the human nature of Morocco in order to analyse their behaviour from a trust context in an international work environment.

1.5.1. Morocco’s Development

1.5.1.1. Geographical

The Kingdom of Morocco is a North African country lying between the Mediterranean Sea in the North and the Atlantic Ocean in the West. Situated in Northern Africa, Morocco’s strategic location between Africa and Europe has brought a mixture of African and European characteristics to the country, and this encouraged the easy access for most countries in the West to an African, Arab and Muslim country such as Morocco (Sadiqi, 2015). Therefore, Morocco is one of the Arab countries well-situated geographically as it is situated south of Europe facing Spain through Gibraltar, north of Sub-Saharan Africa and west of the Arab North Africa (EconomyWatch, 2010). Additionally, the Moroccan population was estimated to be 31,972 million in 2010, and it is estimated to 34,132 million in March 2016; divided between 98.7% Muslims, 1.1% Christians and 0.2% Jewish (worldpopulationreview, 2016).
Furthermore and in order to use Morocco’s natural geography and landscape that encourages many investors to invest in the country, in 1997, Morocco applied a new law for decentralisation adding 16 new regions to the existing 37 provinces, with Rabat as the capital city (Tarradell, 2004; CIA, 2015; Sadiqi, 2015). Additionally, in her paper, Tarradell (2004) represented that Morocco carried out a sustainable development implemented nationally, raising the strategies and challenges faced during the process. Moreover, Morocco’s geography supported a cultural and religious cohabitation, which even led to an open linguistic exchange known more in Morocco than any other Arab country (Guigui, 2015; Sadiqi, 2015).

1.5.1.2. Historical

Different dynasties marked the history of Morocco starting with the powerful tribal system that was founded during the Berber dynasties, composed of Almoravids, Almohads and Merinids, who took control of Morocco, also called “Al Maghrib” or “Al Maghreb”, referring to North Africa, at the time in 1040 and for more than 200 years. This powerful system constituted Berbers’ unity, politically and socially, in terms of conserving their identity which survived during the next dynasties. However, the Berber dynasties in the 11th and 12th centuries, with this collective cultural system, still could not survive longer and failed, in some forms, in politically unifying the different tribes known for their identity and independence (Library of Congress, 2006; Esposito, 2008). Therefore, this opened the door to Arab tribes to take over for another 100 years, such as the Saadis dynasty that claimed being descendants of the Prophet Mohammed. After that and since the 17th century, the Alaouite dynasty was in power and still is. Additionally, in the Arab history in general and in the Moroccan historical background through its local
dynasties as illustrated in Figure 1.5:1, the tribal system, composed of nomadic values such as honour, loyalty, courage, trust, hospitality and so on helped strengthening Islamic practices and religious beliefs influenced by the pre-Islamic era from other religions such as Judaism and Christianity (Hermansen, 2014). Furthermore, Ali (1990) linked the evolution of these practices with the fact that individuals relied on beliefs and actions that have been accepted unconditionally because they are coming from the absolute leader “Allah - God”; it is also from this concept that comes the idea of respecting leaders and people with authority in organisations or in control.

**Figure 1.5:1 Maps Highlighting the Main Moroccan Local Dynasties**

*Source: Adapted from Muslim Heritage (2015) and Chronicle (2015)*
In the 18th and 19th centuries, and despite its weak authority, Morocco resisted to the Ottoman Empire’s rules and customs, and maintained its independence over the Turkish, French and British control. Nonetheless, this resistance did not last as Morocco’s weakness and instability was the reason for Europe, and France in particular, to show interest in North Africa through protecting Morocco’s economy and investments till Morocco gained its independence from the French influence in 1956 (Library of Congress, 2006; Sadiqi, 2015; Tarradell, 2004). However, it is still not in full control of a part of the Sahara, in the South of Morocco, that remains as an unresolved territory even though Morocco has 80% administrative control over it (CIA, 2015).

Subsequently, after gaining its independence, Morocco was looking for ways to develop and create its identity through education in various fields such as economy, linguistics, politics, social sciences and law. Additionally, it has set several goals for development, reflecting a more liberal economy and proposing facilities and interesting regulations for international companies, mainly from France, Spain, Germany, Italy and the USA, to invest in Morocco (Al-Kazemi and Ali, 2002). Therefore, at this postcolonial phase, Morocco moved from a typical traditional economic system based on agriculture, to a modern country following a modernisation process with a diverse economy and a more sustained infrastructure (Sadiqi, 2015). Consequently, this engendered gradual changes which started to take place in the 1990s where, The Kingdom of Morocco, being a constitutional monarchy, established new political and social reforms, moving from an authoritarian approach to a more democratic one and engaging in a moderate Islamic state using a mixture of Islamic law and French and Spanish civil law for its legal system (Tarradell, 2004).
Moreover, other postcolonial consequences were more reflected by several changes adopted by the different governments that Morocco has gone through. For example in 1973, the Moroccan government has launched the “Moroccanisation” plan, which aims to restrict foreign companies’ control on the economy, by allowing them no more than 49% ownership in businesses targeting specific services such as textiles and agriculture. Since then and until 2000, Morocco has known an important change, especially for Morocco’s FDI, adopting the adjustment plan of 1983, which focused on applying several strategic developments to target a more flexible economy. In fact, several developing countries including Morocco offer lot of incentives for foreign investors; as they could benefit from facilities and low wages’ services in exchange for transferring technologies to local firms and creating jobs (Bouoiyour, 2003; ICDT, 2012). Therefore, in the African Development Bank Group’s report (AFDB, 1991) and supported by the World Bank, Morocco has set the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) in 1983, proposing new reforms to redress the economic imbalances of the market through establishing measures in regards to foreign investments and giving incentives to attract more investments in Morocco. Afterwards, the SAP has been replaced by the “Investment Charter” in 1995, regrouping the previous programme in a simplified agreement document, which represents the next 10 years plan of development and promotion for investments for local and international investors, with a range of incentives put in place to attract FDI (AMDI, 2012).

1.5.1.3. Cultural

As mentioned before about Morocco’s strategic location, it participated in offering a variety of cultures, traditions and languages (Calza et al., 2010); affected by the Arab, Islamic and European culture given its geographical, historical and economic position
worldwide with an estimated population of 32,987,206, Morocco’s population is 99% Arab-Berber (CIA, 2015; El Mansour and Wood, 2010). The mixture of ethnicity and religions in Morocco was raised by Guigui (2015), who defined Morocco as reconciling for the socio-cultural cohabitation of three religions as Islam, Judaism and Christianity as a symbol of freedom, respect of self and others. Additionally, among the universal values shared by these three religions, there is charity, which reflects fairness as an important element of balance to protect the religious freedom and the dignity of the mankind; there is this principal moral asking to love others as loving yourself without any racial, ethnic or religious distinction. From this context, feeling equal and sharing human and moral values such as fairness, social equity and equality is not coming only from a cultural coexistence but also from a combination of three religions cohabiting peacefully in Morocco.

Moreover, Morocco also succeeded in using this cultural diversity to play an active role in the Arab region; where, with the set of reforms announced by the King Mohammed VI in 2011 revising the country’s constitution, Morocco has reinforced its cultural identity towards a national vision, putting the government and organisations from private and public sectors in front of new challenges, calling for another phase of its development programme. Hence, the country is still facing lot of challenges such as eliminating corruption, reducing nepotism, setting new social and economic reforms in education and diversifying its industries (Rosenberg, 2011).

1.5.1.4. Economic

Many Arab countries faced the Arab Spring resulting political changes in Egypt, Tunisia, Yemen and Bahrain where tourism market has been directly affected in these countries in
addition to other neighbour countries such as Morocco, Lebanon, Syria, Jordan and Algeria where tourism is a major source of income with an estimation of loss that could reach 25 billion dollars for the whole Arab tourism market (Al-Sharq Al-Awsat, 2011b). As for Morocco’s income (Gross Domestic Income: GDI), it was estimated at $4,708 PPP (Purchasing Power Parity) in 2010, and the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth rate increased from 3.7% in 2010 to 4.5% in 2011; one of the reasons for this increase is the strong relationship with Europe which facilitated investment between Moroccan and European companies (U.S. Department of State, 2012). Luckily for Morocco which does not count on tourism only, according to the Central International Agency (CIA), among 37 industries, the Moroccan economy is relying on other key sectors such as agriculture, mining and textiles (CIA, 2012; U.S. Department of State, 2012). 35% of foreign trading counts on mining as Morocco possess 75% of the world’s reserve, leading exporter and the third largest producer of phosphate including other natural resources composed mainly of manganese, lode, silver and copper (EconomyWatch, 2010). In addition to fish, agriculture is focusing on barley, citrus fruits, vegetables, olives and it counts on producing wine and carrying livestock (U.S. Department of State, 2012). Consequently, this is to enhance activities such as aeronautics, automotive, food processing and so on (EconomyWatch, 2010).

In a tentative to prepare for the several developments of its economy, Morocco has received support from several organisations in 1980 such from the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Bank and the Paris Club of creditors (EconomyWatch, 2010). Then in 1990, Morocco set new economic policies which instead of improving growth rate, it increased unemployment (12% in 2005, 9.6% in 2010, 9.1% in 2011 expected to remain stable till 2015) and experienced serious changes from the global financial crisis
by 2008 (EconomyWatch, 2010). Even so, the Moroccan government, instead of relying on phosphate, has followed many reforms targeting the increase of productivity and competitiveness nationally through economic actions such as setting strategies promoting energy, fisheries, industry, commerce, agriculture and tourism (U.S. Department of State, 2012). These reforms included the privatisation of the public sector since 1993 the liberalisation of rules for oil and gas’ exploration and changes in the financial sector (EconomyWatch, 2010). In addition, Al-Sharq Al-Awsat Newspaper (2011a) reported that the Phosphate Foundation Group of Morocco is planning to raise its productivity from 24 million tons to 50 million tons of concentrated phosphate by 2020 and this to preserve its leading position in the global market being one of the largest producers of phosphate in the World.

The Moroccan government also has invested in infrastructure development. In 2014, Tanger-Med Port at the Strait of Gibraltar, the largest port in Africa, opens a direct maritime line with many countries especially the American East coast to facilitate its trading with the United States (Maghreb Arab Press, 2008). Following the foreign direct investment (FDI) approach to strengthen its economic growth, the Moroccan government has attracted many foreign investors promoting for the international business (EconomyWatch, 2010). In 2010, Morocco’s total GDP reached 90.5 billion dollars between 14% from agriculture, 26.7% in industry and 49.5% as services (U.S. Department of State, 2012; EconomyWatch, 2010).

Morocco is known for its strong relations with its neighbour countries from Europe to the United States of America. It belongs to the Arab League, Arab Maghreb Union (UMA), Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC), the Non-Aligned Movement, and the
Community of Sahel-Saharan States (CEN-SAD). Given the importance of international trading, Morocco has signed several agreements for free trading starting with the European Union Agreement in 1996 within an advanced status in 2006 (U.S. Department of State, 2012; EconomyWatch, 2010). Then the Arab League Agreement and the Agreement with Turkey followed in 1998 and in 2003. More agreements came up such as the Agadir agreement signed with Egypt, Jordan and Tunisia in 2004 and the bilateral Free Trade Agreement (FTA) between the United States and Morocco in 2006 which has reached $2.3 billion trade in 2007 (Maghreb Arab Press, 2008; Sijilmassi, 2010; EconomyWatch, 2010). This last agreement covers market access, intellectual property rights protection, investment, services, and e-commerce. Encouraging economic reforms and liberalization, bilateral trade, Morocco is targeting more countries and has two agreements in progress with Canada and with the West African Economic and Monetary Union (UEMOA & CEMAC).

According to EconomyWatch (2010) investigating the Moroccan economy, tourism is one of the key sectors the government relies on for its economic growth as a total of $7.55 billion tourists receipts have been counted in 2007 attracting more than 10 million tourists and creating more than 600,000 additional jobs. Moving to another sector known for its fast growth, information technology has noticed a significant increase starting from 2002 where Morocco was the first North African country to install the 3G network and in 2007 the number of Internet users has expanded to 31.6% compared to the year before. The diversity of sectors that Morocco offers to investors helped in the creation of new infrastructures and accessed free trade agreements (FTAs) opening new markets to Morocco such as Morocco-European Union Association agreement, Trade and Investment Framework Agreement (TIFA), Agadir Agreement with the Arab
Mediterranean countries, the UAE-Morocco FTA, the Morocco-US FTA and the Greater Arab Free Trade Area agreement (GAFTA) with 17 nations involved (AMDI, 2012; ICDT, 2012). This contributed to meet the three key objectives of the development plan which focuses on the economic growth of Morocco, modernisation and improvement of infrastructure and building a high standard market to compete globally (Kapferer and Gaston-Breton, 2010). In fact, Morocco is one of the countries affected by the global recession as it has been noticed a decrease in its exports from $20.17 billion in 2008 to $15.61 in 2010 (EconomyWatch, 2010). However, in 2011, Morocco could increase its export trading reaching $20 billion distributed between its major partners 20.4% from France, 18.2% from Spain, India represented by 6.4%, Brazil by 5.5%, United States by 4.8%, 4.5% for Belgium and 4.3% for Italy; primarily exporting clothing and textiles, minerals and chemicals, petroleum products and phosphates, citrus fruits, vegetables and fish. From AMDI’s report (2010), more than 1,000 French companies operating in Morocco most of them are investing in the sectors of telecommunications, banking, real estate, industry, tourism, transportation and other services. As for Spain, there are more than 800 Spanish companies in different sectors mainly industry, real estate, tourism, banking and energy and mining. Emirati companies are also operating in Morocco since 2010 focusing on the tourism and real estate sectors. Switzerland is targeting 3 sectors in real estate, tourism and industry. International investment also contributes in promoting for new sectors such as manufacturing and finance sectors which constitute a new stage in development and a more liberal economy in Morocco which is an example for the other Arab countries to consider as for their FDI’s future or on-going developments (Bouoiyour, 2003).
Among several obstacles persisting in the development process, education form a serious problem to be resolved (Bouoiyour, 2003; World Bank, 2012). The government is planning to improve the educational sector by introducing computers, internet and high technology equipment to all schools and universities in Morocco. Morocco is among few Arab countries with self-sufficiency in food production and the agricultural sector employs nearly 45% of the Moroccan population and even if it constitutes only 18.8% of the total GDP.

1.5.2. The Role of Youth in Morocco’s Development

If we consider the total population of Arab countries, it had increased to 340 million in 2009 with an average unemployment estimated at 14.8% in the same year bringing several challenges to the Arab World’s economic and social growth. The global crisis is not the only reason that affected the increase of unemployment for the simple reason that the Arab countries do not have a strong link with the global economy. Other reasons are mainly related to strategies set by the government of each Arab country towards its development. For example, neglecting the agricultural sector encouraged the migration to urban areas. Education constitutes another factor to be reconsidered and this by matching it with the market’s needs. Consequently, insufficient training programmes did not help meeting the market’s needs with the right human resources.

Even though Morocco is known for its stable and fast growth rate (EconomyWatch, 2010), the Minister of Finance and Economy Nizar Baraka following the Ministry of Economy and Finance’s news (2012b) recently declared that the Moroccan economic growth is still positive despite difficulties Morocco is facing because of the weather conditions affecting agriculture and the impact of the global crisis on the international trading with European
countries especially its two main trade partners Spain and France. He stated that it is important to take several actions concerning employment especially that it constitutes one of the major challenges of the government as the level of unemployment moved from 9.1% in 2011 to 9.9% in 2012. It represents a serious indicator that might lead to an economic crisis. The other indicator claimed by the minister of economy and finance Mr. Nizar Baraka concerns tourism sector which has slightly declined about 2% (Ministry of Finance and Economy, 2012b). The minister is proposing as well to look for new mechanisms and partnerships in other sectors such as the automotive to preserve our macroeconomic stability (Ministry of Finance and Economy, 2012a). Another action taken by the King Mohammed VI is launching the $2 billion National Initiative for Human Development (INDH) project in 2005 and this to support tourism and agriculture’s progress and maintain a good level of infrastructure starting with houses’ renovation (EconomyWatch, 2010).

1.6. **International Management in Morocco**

1.6.1. **Introduction**

Global competition incites multinational companies to assign their managers in the host country to manage their operations following a continuous learning process as a fundamental indicator for their existence and progress globally and locally in the host countries where they operate. Many researchers such as Sykes et al. (1997), Sharfuddin (1987), Leat and El-Kot (2007) and Gardiner et al. (2001) insist about introducing learning approaches in companies and this as a kind of reward for employees’ performance and also to motivate people in order to be more productive. It creates a consistent and competitive environment for employees as individuals and for the company. Therefore, training provides more support for development and this to
guarantee employees effective work to achieve the organisation’s goals. Expanding their activities cross nations in the global market is a strategy that led international companies to reconsider their management practices from country to country and because of the impact of these differences on international business in terms of innovation, communication, cultural considerations with regards to leadership and human behaviour in general this research is taking place considering international companies in an Arab country such as the Moroccan example from a work ethics’ aspect (Kriger and Seng, 2005; Braun et al, 2013; Soule, 1998; Kirk, 2015; Faris and Parry, 2011; Scandura and Dorfman, 2004).

In the case of international business, cultural differences between the parent country and host country lead to setting training programmes and this requires great efforts from the instructor in defining the right approach from appropriate learning styles to significant materials used for an effective training (El Mansour and Wood, 2010). In other respects, wrong training might cause failure which can lead to low productivity. Therefore, to reduce the level of failure in such situations, it is important to choose suitable training programmes (Sykes et al., 1997). Leat and El-Kot (2007) examined a range of management practices related to employment, training, performance and rewards. The authors’ study was also confined to the Egyptian context, basing their findings on 58 Egyptians companies in Egypt that have been asked, using a questionnaire, to investigate on the practices used by these companies. This mainly aims to explain the link between the economic, cultural, religious and developmental factors affecting the application of management practices in the Egyptian context.
1.6.2. International Companies in Morocco

Doing business in their countries is different from doing business in other countries given the cultural aspect could arise to be challenging if different (Sower and Sower, 2004). Sykes et al. (1997) addressed cultural training, introduced mainly by multinational companies in 1990 proposing sessions about the host country’s history, business customs, language, educational system, culture and basic rules on how to behave in the country in question, and its impact on performance by encouraging learning and discussed the levels of learning through learning models such as the experiential learning that relies on experience, observation and practice to gain more concrete experience whereas other basic models such as Deming’s cycle based on planning, doing, checking and acting.

Regarding international companies investing in Morocco, training is giving more consideration for several reasons. El Mansour and Wood (2010) stated these reasons by giving the example of Morocco by investigating on how US and European managers adjust and adapt with work environment in Morocco. The authors focused on Americans and Europeans in particular because they constitute the largest groups in Moroccan international trading. The other reason is that Morocco, the only African country and second Arab country after Jordan, entered into a bilateral free trading agreement with the United States in 2006. After analysing 34 responses (16 American and 18 European managers) of 109 private companies in Morocco, El Mansour and Wood (2010) stressed about the importance of learning by proposing training sessions for foreigners in the country host and this to build more knowledge about culture and customs to help them adjust and consequently bring a confident spirit for more effectiveness and productivity.

None of the European managers experienced any cultural shock and this whether they have already visited Morocco before or because they speak the same language. However, 12 of the 16 American managers felt some kind of culture shock and this is because of
the cultural differences and business environment or simply because it was hard to adjust being far from their family and friends. Additionally, even if language is another factor to be included in these training programs, American managers in El Mansour and Wood’s study did not receive any training in the main spoken languages in Morocco which are French or Arabic. However, American managers could overcome the language barrier whether by learning it by themselves or by counting on local managers to translate for them. In the other hand, European managers did not need any training in language given French is the main language in education where 30 French institutions existent in Morocco with more than 24,000 Moroccan students and it is also the most used language in Moroccan companies (France Diplomatie, 2012b). The direct contact with locals and previous foreign co-workers helped those who just arrived in adjusting to the new environment and reducing the culture shock and according to the different respondents; it was more beneficial than learning about it from books or during training materials. Consequently, this might be considered while organising training sessions by involving even local employees in one hand to be prepared work in a multinational environment and in the other hand to create a friendly atmosphere introducing them to the international managers. It will insure a good base for a multicultural work environment. Furthermore, it will create diversity which is essential as it represents people’s behaviours adapting and participating in developing their systems (Hooker, 2009; Yeganeh and Su, 2007).

Considering the several actions taken by the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) to assist Morocco through its development, it participated with $18 million in 2009 and $24.5 million in 2010 to help Morocco achieve its strategic objectives by creating more opportunities for trade and investment, basic education and workforce training, and government responsiveness to citizen needs (U.S. Department of State, 2012).
1.6.3. The Impact of International Investment on Moroccan and Other Arab Economies

For Arab countries like most emerging economies, it is still early to set up their subsidiaries in Western countries as they are still in the process of developing their own economies preparing their systems for a global market and getting internationalised practices to be liable in emerged or other emerging economies (Thite et al, 2012). For this reason and for now, there will be a focus on multinational organisations investing in Arab emerging countries and the benefits and challenges they bring with them to the host country. Arab governments are conscious of the relationship between their economies and organisations’ development in terms of procedures, policies and management practices (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 1995). This led most of these governments to work on programmes to provide efficient results increasing organisations’ growth, performance and productivity. In Arab News (2011), it has been stated that Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates (UAE) and Qatar can bring more developments to the Arab World after the Arab Spring especially that there is an intensive need for policy and institutional reforms to promote for investments in the Arab region. This way, the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) would like to play an active economic role by including Egypt, Yemen, Jordan and Morocco as members in the GCC even if some of these countries are not a part of the Gulf region. This union will reinforce relationship between Arab countries in order to develop their infrastructure. The GCC has suggested several strategies such as privatisation of the public sector and setting up a MENA bank for reconstruction and development. This bank will be mainly sponsored by the GCC in order to help Arab countries “build their own institutions and bring the change”. 
If we consider the case of the UAE, because of its political stability and economic growth, it is considered as main hub for China and India to enter the other Gulf countries and MENA region. Therefore, the GCC believe that trading needs to be reoriented toward Asia and create strong links with them instead of focusing only on Europe and the United States (Arab News, 2011). Rosenberg agreed that MENA region needs to undertake political and economic reforms for a rapid growth. This will be possible only by improving education, market regulations starting with overcoming serious problems such as corruption especially that MENA has many advantages that other countries like China and Eastern Europe lack with an established market integrated into a global trading system in addition to its little debt. Among countries that could benefit from implementing these reforms, Morocco is one of the potential growth leaders that “could accelerate their annual growth to around 7% annually” (Arab News, 2011).

1.7. Summary

Nowadays, globalisation is challenging businesses worldwide where large firms consider this challenge one of their top priorities (Sower and Sower, 2004). As a consequence of globalisation, organisations distributed geographically and those operating in the Arab World in particular are facing more challenges in managing their local employees and one of the challenges is how to build trust in such work environment to be more effective (Hill et al., 2012). The main objective of this research is to understand trust building in international large companies operating in Morocco and explore the main factors for its development; as well as exploring management of employees in the process of trust building in Chapter 2.
Chapter 1 introduces Arab management and shows some similarities between Western and Arab theories. It also reviews the Moroccan economic development where in Morocco, as in many other Arab emerging economies, there is a need to create jobs, improve its infrastructure supported with more skills and technologies (Thite et al., 2012; AMDI 2012; Al-Kazemi et al., 2002). For instance, in terms of skills, training should be considered by leaders as a kind of support for employees at all hierarchical levels. Delegating work is another aspect providing employees with more freedom to apply what they learnt. This results in a more innovative and more active human resources adhering to change within the organisation in different levels (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 1995).

Proposing a deeper understanding of the phenomenon of trust from analysing employees’ behaviours from top, middle and low management’s levels exploring the way they build trust in international organisations operating in Morocco, Chapter 2 covers the literature review about trust and explores the main factors that characterises and influences its development. This leads to the research questions to be identified and discussed in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 describes the main parts of the research methodology from the research design to data analysis used to answer the research questions. Chapter 5 analyses the collected data and discussed in Chapter 6. In Chapter 7, a conclusion of the research considers the contribution to knowledge followed by research limitations and recommendations for future research. Figure 1.7:1 summarises the stages of the research in overall.
Figure 1.7:1 Research Stages
Chapter Two

Trust Literature Review
2.1. Introduction

After defining Arab management and exploring the Western management practices in the Arab World in Chapter 1, this chapter introduces the role of trust in applying these practices to understand the process of trust building in this international-Arab work context. The notion of trust will be explored by investigating the relationship between culture, communication and organisational structure to develop trust.

The concept of management is recently embedded in Arab organisations through an integration of Western management theories and practices in these organisations. Adopting Western practices in an Arab culture as common practices requires changes not only for the organisation policies and structure but also within their human resources to adapt and accept these changes. Dealing with employees from an Arab culture to apply Western management practices is one of the challenges facing managers (Obeidat et al., 2012). The challenge will be bigger when it comes to international organisations operating in Arab countries and here where the element of trust rises. Hofstede (2015) characterised Arab countries as collectivist cultures where relationship between groups is very strong and is based on trust. Such behaviour is expected to be in organisations where employees belonging to specific groups depend on each other and are loyal to the group.

Researchers are showing increased interest in exploring trust in organisations and more interest is given to trust by most international organisations especially when it comes to working in a cross-cultural workplace (Cullen et al., 2000; Al-Khatib et al., 2002; Burke et al., 2007; Schoorman et al., 2007; Robertson and Athanassiou, 2009; Thomas et al., 2009). Trust is conceptualised in many studies as a complex and multidimensional construct with role, content and number of dimensions not universally agreed (Luo, 2002; Dietz and Den Hartog, 2006; Seppanen et al., 2007; Brugger, 2015). Its main
characteristics such as fairness, behavioural integrity and openness might be perceived and interpreted differently by actors involved in the process of trust (Kickul et al., 2005; Brenkert, 1998; Robertson and Athanassiou, 2009). The trust literature is very rich but it lacks examining trust across borders and mainly in the Arab World. As in many international business studies, issues raised were mainly discussed from a cultural perspective where researchers such as Ali (1990), Hooker (2009) and Kargwell (2012) brought cultural factors such as the hierarchical authority, rules and regulations, influence of connections and relations, indecisiveness in decision making, informality among managers, corruption and nepotism within Arab organisations restraining them from initiating equal opportunities, being efficient and innovative. Al-Khatib et al. (2002) raised the issue of limited number of studies that focus on the perception of trust among employees and its impact on understanding the ethical aspect in business practices. This gap was investigated by the authors through the exploration of employees’ ethical behaviour in three Middle Eastern countries (Oman, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia). The authors found that trust has cultural consequences where employees in these countries for example will not report a colleague’s unethical behaviour because the employee will think carefully before harming a colleague or being seen as a troublemaker by other colleagues by doing so. This shows again the impact of trust in interpersonal and social relationships among Arab employees. For instance, Zaheer and Zaheer (2006), discussing the role of trust in an international context in general where the nature and level of trust differ from country to another, criticised how trust is perceived in the literature as a universal construct. The reason behind their position is that trust is related to specific contexts and its conceptualisation change taking into account the situation where trust is initiated and based on the nature and characteristics where trust is taking place. The perception of trust is then influenced by cultural factors that may affect the business relationship in
international business collaborations. Therefore, the construct of trust may be
conceptualised differently.

In another context, Obeidat et al. (2012) discussed the Arab cultural implications in
organisations by investigating the meaning of culture and its impact on management in
the Arab World. They also highlighted the aspect of religion and its link with some
cultural features such as Arab strong belief in God and how it is reflected in their work
and their commitment to achieving tasks believing that everything is controlled by God’s
will which means that if something is meant to happen, it will happen because of God’s
will or the fact that God is in control. According to the authors, religion is another aspect
that was not taken into account in Hofstede’s study in his uncertainty avoidance
dimension where religion plays a crucial role. In this spirit, referring to what was
discussed in Chapter 1 about the difference between religion and culture and the role of
culture in Arab management explain the uncertainty avoidance score for Arab countries
come from (Hofstede, 2015).

Communication is another construct related to in managing organisations, and the role of
trust in communication has been raised in many studies. For example, Thomas et al. (2009)
believe that communication plays a central role in building trust within organisations.
This link between these two constructs was not explored well and the authors found it
interesting to shed the light on the impact of relationships between co-workers,
supervisors and top management in developing trust. Exploring this link examines quality
and density of information shared as two aspects related to trust. When an employee
shares useful and accurate information, it initiates trust development and when the
information is shared fully and more often, this strengthens the relationship and trust. In
the same context, Yang (2014) considers open communication defined by the quality and
quantity of information as in Thomas et al.’s (2009) paper to be initiated by the leader who is supposed to manage his or her members in a way to communicate freely and openly to share their thoughts and ideas in such a way to stimulate their involvement and cooperation through trust. Weck and Ivanova (2013) pointed out that communication is important in the relationship learning phase where one adapt to the other’s culture, adjust to their practices and build a better understanding of their beliefs.

Zaheer and Zaheer (2006) gave the example of a Japanese-American alliance where Japanese partners are less likely to build trust with strangers than the American partners and this has implications on Japanese and Americans’ relationship as well as their performance. Al-Khatib et al. (2002) explored employees’ perceptions in general without differentiating intra and inter-organisational relationships. This chapter will define trust in international organisations Arab countries in general and Morocco in particular. It is a call for a simple conceptualisation of trust exploring behaviours and situations in which trust occurs in intra-organisational relationships to develop a better understanding of various behaviours in relation to culture, communication and the organisational structure to support the trust building.

2.2. The Importance of Organisational Trust

2.2.1. Definition of Trust

Bhattacharya et al. (1998) and McKnight et al. (1998) attempted to bring a clear and precise definition of trust which the literature still lack of providing. Bhattacharya et al. (1998) proposed a model of trust that consists of actions that determine outcomes where trust is considered as a prediction of a person’s behaviour where trusting a person for instance doesn’t reflect if the person is good or bad which makes the outcome uncertain. As mentioned in Chapter 1, agreeing with this given definition, the element of uncertainty
was clearly explained in Nooteboom’s paper (2007b) raising the aspect of risks when interpreting behaviours and actions subjectively which Nooteboom et al. (1997) associate with cooperation with different objectives. Mostovicz et al. (2011), as discussed in Chapter 1, defined trust from a socio-economic perspective based on actions and actors where committed trustee and trustor are willing to take part in actions of their choice that “involve a voluntary transfer of assets” as cited by the authors without forgetting the element of time to achieve these actions as a result of that trust. Away from being controlled and in addition to Nooteboom (2007a) in how he differentiated between trust and control (See Chapter 1), Demirbag et al. (2003) and Demirbag and Mirza (2000) linked trust to the influence of social groups rather than any power. Similarly, Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence (2012), trust is a behaviour that is initiated by one’s willingness to trust another one rather than being forced or imposed (Kickul et al., 2005). According to Nooteboom (2002), there are different forms of trust which depends on how the trustee sees the trustor. For example, exemplar trust is trust we show to role models and behavioural trust is a form of trust where the object of trust is the trustor and how efficient s/he is. Competence trust is another form which is related to the trustor’s abilities, skills and knowledge to trigger trust. In an organisational context, these types of trust may lead to positive intentions that operationalizes how an employee build trust towards another employee, employee and manager and vice versa (Kickul et al., 2005). In other words, one party’s willingness to be open is shown through their actions such as managers telling the truth and keeping their promises that the second party will judge in order to build a higher level of relationship to be more dependable on the first party and this is how trust is initiated by employees towards their managers and maybe reciprocally. Therefore, to some extent this mutual openness between the different organisational levels is examined to show its influence on building trust (Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence, 2012; Jones, 2012; Selmier and Oh, 2012; Hutchings and Weir, 2006).
2.2.2. The Importance of Trust

In his book about trust, Nooteboom (2002) highlighted its importance through the link found in the literature between trust and human relations as complex and intriguing. Yet, trust as a concept was difficult to tackle in behavioural and social science where in the literature, it is seen as a form of behaviour or a “subjective state of expectations”. Trust either mutual or one way direction is an important component for international business for several reasons (Cullen et al., 2000; Brenkret, 1998; Schoorman et al., 2007; Robertson and Athanassiou, 2009). First of all, much of what happens between managers/employees in organisations develops informally where managers encourage trust to keep the relationship running smoothly especially that changes occur over time where new issues or situations are arisen. Without mutual trust, these issues will take more importance and consequently creates more problems between managers and employees. Moreover, companies differ in organisational cultures, management philosophies and set of policies and procedures. In a cross-cultural environment, these differences commonly generate misunderstandings affecting all parties’ performance (Schoorman et al., 2007; Girmscheid and Brockmann, 2010; Luo, 2002; Robertson and Athanassiou, 2009). Finally, trust also involves learning which is one of the main strategic benefits motivating employees in organisations given the fact that most international organisations contribute in “transfer, development and exchange of technology”. Aguilera (2007) examined the importance of shared values in facilitating the knowledge transfer in international joint ventures where a positive correlation was found between trust, commitment, learning and knowledge transfer which is necessary in the development of new technologies transfer to take place. Therefore without a level of mutual trust, involved parties (employees and manager) will not work closely to share sensitive information and knowledge; and this often results failure in finding solutions to their
problems, which usually arise in an international work environment and because of the cultural stereotype, employees do not try to overcome these (Lucas, 2000). Without trust, information will be held back and each party with take unfair advantages of the other if given the opportunity (Lucas, 2000; Barner-Rasmussen et al., 2014). For example in the case of international joint ventures in Turkey, Demirbag et al. (2003) highlighted the complications that may be leading the partnership to end up if not strengthened by trusting relationships; where in the Barner-Rasmussen et al.’s paper (2014), strong relations were illustrated as two units interact positively and the other units are informed about the importance of such collaborations. Hence, in similar cases mutual trust is important in forging interpersonal relationships because it resolves misunderstandings, reduces and manages conflicts, engenders successful cooperation within and between groups; and this for a better contribution in the organisation’s success (Holm et al., 1996; Schoorman et al., 2007; Barner-Rasmussen et al., 2014; Luo, 2002; Nooteboom et al., 1997).

The strategic aspect of international management does not concentrate on the financial, legal and operational issues only but also on soft issues that refer to the development and management of the human relationships in the organisation (Benkret, 1998; Nooteboom et al., 1997). The human relationships are defined as the extent of interaction between managers and employees to facilitate the better functioning of the organisation (Robertson and Athanassiou, 2009). It involves investing effort and time to build feelings and interactions in this kind of relationship inside the organisation. One of the important areas in these relationships is mainly formed by mutual trust (Cullen et al., 2000; Schoorman et al., 2007). Trust can be reflected by the organisation’s sincerity and goodness in such a way to protect “the organisational structure and to ensure continuity of management in the organisation”. Additionally, it will bring “the positive thoughts of the individuals” focusing on more employees’ attitudes and thoughts (Ince and Turan,
Thus, trust is then symbolised by “sincerity, justice, honesty, fairness and moral integrity” in the organisation with a tendency to believe in the organisation’s applications, policies and strategies because of these principles that result positive emotions containing “objective judgement towards the organisation”. These positive feelings about the organisation, expressed by behaviours, develop over time and build trust (Luo, 2002). In this case, the organisational structure dominated by trust emphasizes several actors’ contribution about the success of the organisation given their efforts in creating the atmosphere of confidence and improving the organisational communication. Further research is needed to examine the effects of trust on employees’ performance in a cross cultural environment, particularly in an international environment in the Arab World (Bierstaker, 2009; Schoorman et al., 2007; Girmscheid and Brockmann, 2010; Luo, 2002). Research on this area may lead to strategies/practices within the international organisations that may be most effective in increasing employees’ commitment, performance and job satisfaction taking into account the influence of culture in the life of these employees (Robertson and Athanassiou, 2009).

2.3. Dimensions of Trust

This section consists of showing expected relationships between variables, extracted from the trust literature, which encourage or refrain trust building in organisations. A common link between various variables especially that, there are many ways how researchers approached examining interpersonal and organisational trust (Whitener et al., 1998; Kickul et al., 2005; Dietz and Den Hartog, 2006; Yang and Maxwell, 2011). Targeting an international work environment from Arab and Western perspectives, this chapter focuses on the dimensions namely time involving the density and level of interaction between employees taking into account communication, culture, nationality, language, at three different organisational levels (top management, middle management and their
subordinates); and this to analyse employees’ reactions and interpretations of perceived trust.

Trust takes time to develop, especially that all these elements to be discussed in this research could increase/decrease over time (Schoorman et al., 2007). Thus, the variable of time is not to be neglected in building these elements, given that employees at different organisational levels need time to develop relationship with others in the workplace (Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence, 2012). According to McKnight et al. (1998), initiating trust consists of interacting with others to develop this trust like for example if a new employee or manager join the company, trust comes naturally through the various interactions that happen based on the tasks they share and the situations they are involved in and a minimum level of trust is then required to work together. So to some extent building trust occurs over time. It is normal at the first stage of the trust cycle all involved parties feel vulnerable at the first stage of the relationship being suspicious of each other’s motives. It also makes them reluctant to be truly involved questioning others’ abilities of providing what they agreed on which can be considered as a signal to slow down the process of trust (Lucas, 2000). In this case, strong information sharing, fairness, openness and strong communication channels can be strong signals of trust which over time decrease the suspicion that was felt at the beginning and built trust significantly (Cullen et al., 2000; Yang and Maxwell, 2011).

2.3.1. Time

Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence (2012) believe that the element of time is not to be neglected when the role of trust is examined. They focused on assessing the relationship between behavioural integrity and the workplace outcomes where for example, today’s perceived behavioural integrity is related to a promise kept in the past, which implies the
same for the current promise to be kept too and the opposite is true. Trust takes time surviving to several problems and conflicts in order to develop. Therefore, the time frame can contribute to each variable of trust especially that all the variables discussed above increase/decrease over time (Schoorman et al., 2007). Figure 2.3:1 summarises the different scenarios that could result over time as explored in this research, based on various papers discussing scenarios (1) and (2) about trust building. For instance, in a Russian unit a Finnish manager stated that he trusts and depends so much on his assistant, and this because she has been working for long years for an important Finnish manager and she is loved by everyone (Barner-Rasmussen et al, 2014; Lowrance, 2015). Here the element of time is one of the main aspects to gain this position and level of trust. Other scenarios (3) and (4) reflect cases of mistrust or barriers that affect trust building where for instance, language could influence trust building in international companies or between international alliances. In the case of mistrust, parties seek opportunistic situations over time and start looking for their own interests, especially if parties are culturally different (Brock et al., 2008; Brannen et al., 2014). The last scenario represents trust in family businesses where relationships are never questioned including loyalty, respect and trust (Weir, 2001; Zaheer and Zaheer, 2006).
Figure 2.3:1 Evolution of Trust over Time


In an attempt to identify factors related to initiate high level of trust in organisations, McKnight et al. (1998) question the element of time in developing trust. They also reject that initiating trust starts with a low level of trust that increases over time (Figure 2.3:1). They even classified this type of time-based trust into categories such as the calculative trust, where the choice of trusting an individual is related to the incentives and benefits that come with it; or trust based on knowledge, where trust increases over time while interacting with an individual and gaining knowledge. This research will question the important of this dimension in building trust and to what extent the level of trust is relevant once it is initiated.

2.3.2. Characteristics of Perceived Trust by Employees in Organisations

Researchers are showing increase interest in exploring trust in organisations (Robertson and Athanassiiou, 2009; Cullen et al., 2000; Schoorman et al., 2007). Its main characteristics such as fairness, behavioural integrity, openness and benevolence might be perceived and interpreted differently by the various actors involved in the process of
trust (Kickul et al., 2005). Using the definition of trust stated by Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence (2012), they considered trust as a behaviour that cannot be initiated without one’s willingness to trust another one. In an organisational context and instead of imposing control, trust could generate positive actions, in terms of building effective relationships between employees, employees and organisational performance (Zaheer & Zaheer, 2006; Kickul et al., 2005; Gilpin and Miller, 2013; Selmier and Oh, 2012). It also reflects the trustor’s willingness toward the trustee who is expected to “act benevolently” (Whitener et al., 1998). This means that no one can be forced to be open in such trust relationship from both involved parties (Kickul et al., 2005). The element of power is used in the context where one of the elements of trust is goodwill or benevolence which are somehow related to controlling variables such as values, social norms and moral obligation (Nooteboom, 2002). This benevolent act will create another level of relationship where one party will depend on the other because of second party’s actions that influence others involved in this relationship where trust is perceived (Whitener et al., 1998; Kickul et al., 2005). In other words, the fact that managers tell the truth and keep their promises contributes to reinforcing employees’ trust in their managers. Instead of understanding the impact of organisational trust in the different organisational relationships, this research will examine the relationship of these levels (Top management, Middle management and employees) and its influence on building trust (Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence, 2012; Jones, 2012; Selmier et Oh, 2012; Hutchings and Weir, 2006).

2.3.2.1. Behavioural Integrity and Fairness

Behavioural integrity is defined by Simons et al. (2007) and Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence (2012) as “the perceived pattern of alignment between an actor’s words and deeds”. Knights and O’Leary (2006) and Morrison (2001) stated that integrity is the
foundation of trust and without it leaders will not develop a sustainable global work environment since without integrity, employees will not trust their managers (Brenkert, 1998; Schoorman et al., 2007). Trust plays here an important role (Holm et al., 1996) in strengthening the relationship between behavioural integrity and the organisational structure where in a manager-subordinate level, the manager takes control and make decisions that impact on subordinates and when managers keep their promises and their actions are reflected accurately in their communications; subordinates feel safe and trust them. This suggests how employees perceived trust from the level of their manager’s word-action consistency. Even though it could be considered as a subjective element as it is determined by how a party perceives these actions, there are others interfering elements such as fairness considered as an objective element to which involved party reacts (Simons et al., 2007; Kickul et al., 2005).

Defining fairness, it shows the relationship between leader either top management team (TMT) or middle management team (MMT) or supervision team and employees’ perception of trust which can be understood in terms of what defines a fair treatment between the leader and his employees where rewards are distributed equally and where decisions have been made using fair methods (Niehoff and Moorman, 1993). Fairness also plays an important role in building trust where employees’ perception of trust is related to managers’ fairness toward their employees (Niehoff and Moorman, 1993). This interactivity that is initiated from the top management level to encourage such approach among managers towards their employees; leads us to the behavioural integrity dimension. Additionally, Bhattacharya et al. (1998) raised the fairness element as an outcome in the model of trust and when talking about fairness in the workplace, discussions are built on assumptions on the organisation of work; although organisations often differ throughout the stages of their life cycle. For instance and as described by Green (1992) while studying
fairness in hierarchical and entrepreneurial firms, mature firms reflect firms displaying a level of centralisation and formalisation with established relationships such assigning and dividing authority and responsibility into specific jobs with rigid boundaries, and thus they focus more on differences, while on the other hand, entrepreneurial firms with a flat structure where all employees are expected to contribute to the company’s success focus more on similarities. In other words and according to Green’s explanation (1992), the principle of fairness, in terms of the way you treat others, is managed in different ways. It is argued that from a hierarchical point of view, the concept of fairness is used with an emphasis on differences; it would be unfair not to give specific job descriptions to people, as an individual might be given extra tasks that are not requested from another individual, who is not different from him in terms of position, qualifications and so on, which implies treating similar people favourably. Therefore, in this research, focusing on large and well-established international companies will be more relevant to exploring management practices and the role of trust in implementing these practices which may not be applicable for other type of firms.

2.3.2.2. Credibility – Benevolence

According to Cullen et al. (2000) defining trust, the first major component to build relationships within the organisation, is based in beliefs about how different actors will behave (Benkret, 1998; Yang and Maxwell, 2011; Schoorman et al., 2007). The reliability and development of trust is questionable as to what extent this trust will bring positive or negative reactions through these interactions. Girmscheid and Brockmann (2010) identified two distinct bases of trust, one rational called credibility trust and the other emotional called benevolent trust. Credibility trust is the confidence that both parties have the ability to meet their obligations and make their promised contributions to the organisation. It constitutes the practical side of trust with the belief that concerned parties
can really deliver what they promise or not and whether they have the expertise and resources they say they have to apply it in the organisation. On the other hand, benevolent trust is the belief that one party will behave with goodwill toward the organisation and the other party. This component is subjective as it is related to one’s beliefs regarding how others care, raising questions about whether both parties can be mutually trusted to protect and preserve or harm their relationship in the organisation.

In an attempt to shed the light on the importance of trust in international businesses operating in foreign countries, and in particular in the Arab World, examples from different countries will help building a better understanding of trust in this context (Brenkert, 1998). Considering the Japanese example, inter-and intra-organisational relationships are all based on trust as an affective and social component for the organisation’s success (Dietz and Den Hartog, 2006). These types of relationships are built on personal connections instead of formal and strict contracts. This is consistent with the Japanese work practices, where trust is necessary providing a comfortable work environment based on beliefs reflecting different parties’ goodwill; and this to maintain and strengthen these relationships within the organisation (Brenkret, 1998; Dietz and Den Hartog, 2006; Yang and Maxwell, 2011). Trust produces trust which makes it developing mutually by sending and receiving different signals manifested in behaviour such as meeting obligations, performing tasks competently and reliably, consistently communicating and sharing information, delivering expertise and so on (Cullen et al., 2000; Luo, 2002; Yang and Maxwell, 2011). These indicators generally motivate both parties to mutually trust each other as illustrated in figure 2.3:2.
To illustrate what may happen if mutual trust is low, Cullen et al. (2000) considered the example of the traditional competitors Toshiba, IBM and Siemens AG unifying their firms to manufacture the new generation of computer chips. This project involved 200 scientists from different countries and diverse organisational cultures who worked in the IBM research centre in New York. Instead of promoting for creativity and development, relationships between the Japanese, German and IBM scientists, created cultural clashes as the Japanese found it difficult to work in a different work environment with small isolated offices whereas they are used to open space offices. Moreover, Germans were shocked from the Japanese sleeping in meetings when the topic does not concern them and IBM scientists also complained about Germans for slowing down the procedures with their long planning. All these problems can be regrouped into three factors communication, cross-cultural awareness and various management styles (Schoorman et al., 2007; Girmscheid and Brockmann, 2010; Luo, 2002). These factors generated lack of trust between Germans, Japanese and Americans dividing the team of 200 scientists into 3 teams with the strong belief that each team is hiding information and not sharing ideas (Lucas, 2000). According to the authors, considering the Japanese example, cultural
awareness is important to develop trust at both level of credibility and benevolence. It represents for Japanese a sign of reliability and goodwill if the international team they work with take into account the Japanese culture. Japanese are more open and willing to cooperate and trust others in an international work environment. Oppositely to Japanese, Americans consider credibility as a more important element than benevolence as they are more rational and less emotional in developing trust (Girmscheid and Brockmann, 2010). Japanese prefer to know people they work with raising the affective side of trust whereas Americans rely on high performance supported by strict contracts as a base for trust. Difference of culture reflects the impact of trust in both countries. Therefore, building trust could lead to a better understanding of the cultural differences and solve communication problems (Seppanen et al., 2007; Holm et al., 1996; Luo, 2002; Robertson and Athanassiou, 2009).

Trust has been more discussed in the literature about inter-organisational relationships. Topics vary from negotiations, shopping, marketing to strategic alliances. However, there is little in-depth research about intra-organisational trust in organisations in a cross-cultural and international work environment, from an interpersonal view (Yang and Maxwell, 2011; Luo, 2002; Girmscheid and Brockmann, 2010; Dietz and Den Hartog, 2006). Given the importance given to international and cross-cultural management, to succeed in building mutual trust in the organisation in an international level; there must be other norms to be included such as “norms of reciprocity, information sharing and cultural sensitivity” (Yang and Maxwell, 2011; Brenkret, 1998; Schoorman et al., 2007). Developing trust within an international work environment demands an interaction between the several dimensions of trust with the cultural and communication factors influencing trust (Luo, 2002). Trust provides a strong foundation to build relationships between managers and their employees inside the organisation. Benevolence and
credibility are two important dimensions of trust that develop in parallel. Managers
develop beliefs about their employees’ reliability to deliver activities, and such
expectations represent their credibility to initiate trust (Dietz and Den Hartog, 2006). In
parallel, benevolent trust is characterised by the beliefs developed by managers about
their employees who will act with good intentions and will not harm the organisation
(Yang and Maxwell, 2011). In an organisational relationship, credibility is characterised
by being reliable delivering what is promised building a foundation that is closely related
to benevolence with both elements developing simultaneously lead to trust (Schoorman
et al., 2007; Girmscheid and Brockmann, 2010). Actually, developing these beliefs can
be reciprocal between managers and employees (Benkret, 1998). Once this connection is
established, trust’s dimensions contribute to build trust over time which significantly will
affect the development of performance as well (Cullen et al., 2000; Seppanen et al., 2007;
Luo, 2002).

2.3.3. Culture

Considering the interest given to cross cultural management studies, several scholars such
as Bierstaker (2009), Yeganeh and Su (2007), Hooker (2009) and Mellahi (2001) have
moved their research from traditional organisational issues like motivation, leadership
and decision making to studying people within organisations, describing their behaviour
and comparing it to other people in organisations operating in other countries with
different cultures (Tung and Verbeke, 2010; Trompenaars and Woolliams, 2003). Research
now extends to the study of organisational behaviour in a multicultural dimension studying on international business and focusing on the structural issues facing
international companies from a behaviourl perspective (Venaik and Brewer, 2010). To
sum up, Trust has different forms like trusting people which, to some extent, lead to
trusting institutions and organisations. The conditions in which people interact and the
way they perceive, interpret and evaluate outcomes of their relationship to a specific environment is cultural. Nooteboom (2002) associated the cultural part to values of social behaviour and basic values of conduct.

For multinational companies seeking to understand the environment of the foreign countries where they operate, there are four basic elements to consider: legal, cultural, economic and political (Trompenaars and Woolliams, 2003). Due to the cultural differences in a multinational work environment, where it is important for international companies operating in a foreign country to understand the host country’s culture, which involves managers making a significant impact on employees reflected in their work ethics, time orientation, communication from verbal to non-verbal and language (Zaheer and Zaheer, 2006; Zeng et al., 2013; Miroshnik, 2002). For instance, Demirbag et al. (2003) in the case of international joint ventures in Turkey, contributed high risks in dealing with conflict to the cultural distance between Turkey and the international groups. Cultural differences lead to inappropriate application of management techniques and practices. This creates problems in building trusting relationships between partners and employees from both sides (Nooteboom et al., 1997).

Before discussing the role of understanding culture in building trust in a cross cultural context, next section will review culture, been a rich subject that well known researchers such as Hofstede, Trompenaars and others focused on, by undertaking large-scale global studies and developed theories to measure the similarities and differences of culture within countries (Jacob, 2005; Early, 2006). Every culture is characterised by its own values and ethics. It creates a diversity which is essential as it represents people’s behaviours and how it participates in developing their systems (Hooker, 2009; Yeganeh and Su, 2007). In order to understand the relationship between culture and trust and
explain how it influences management practices in international business, it is primordial to determine the different elements that constitute culture and find a link with business through a depth analysis.

2.3.3.1. Comparison of Different Culture Theories

This research will mainly be about the Arab culture looking to determine the main variables different research discussed in relation to international business from a trust perspective. Because the relationship between national culture and organisational culture may have an impact on performance in an international context, foreign managers need to shape the organisational culture of the multinational company, in such a way to be valid with the national culture where the company operates (Miroshnik, 2002; Witt, 2008). Organisational culture is more about practices and this section is about defining variables related to values that affect people’s perceptions and beliefs which influence their work environment. Therefore, more focus will be about the cultural relationship from various models as seen by different scholars in the next review:

Hofstede, Trompennaars, Hall and others have been motived by the model developed by Kluckholn and Strodtbeck in 1961 with six cultural orientations questioning human’s relation to nature, relationship between people, nature of human activity, conception of space, and time orientation (Hills, 2002). For instance, Hofstede’s framework developed in 1980 about work values based on a survey targeting a big American multinational corporation (IBM) where Hofstede extracted his first four dimensions covering 40 different countries. These dimensions are: individualism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity. Hofstede’s framework has received critics about the nature of the surveys conducted by IBM designed to assess their employees’ satisfaction not having a theoretical base (Javidan et al., 2006). Among the technical critics Hofstede’s dimensions
received was about some items that were related to several dimensions in addition to the
dimensions that were randomly separated (Javidan et al., 2006). However Hofstede’s
cultural dimensions have been validated in other works (Hofstede, 2011). Hofstede’s
dimension “Uncertainty avoidance” has been criticised more than the other dimensions
given the fact that the definition of right and wrong used in this dimension are coming
from the West and these characteristics are not strongly emphasized in other non-Western
cultures (Newman and Nollen, 1996; Hofstede, 2011). In addition to being criticised for
the sample of his data coming from a multinational corporation, more critics to Hofstede’s
cultural dimensions were highlighted in Sower and Sower’s (2004) paper where the
ethical aspect is missing in the national culture dimensions supporting their point that
judging values with respect to cultural differences is a moral element not to be neglected.

Trompenaars’s dimensions is another cultural study about value orientations where 28
countries took part of the survey about his seven value dimensions derived from
Kluckholn and Strodtbeck’s work, whereas initial cross-cultural data collected by
Hofstede was in more than 50 countries worldwide represented probably the largest
matched-sample cross-national database available anywhere at that time (Hofstede, 2011;
Hills, 2002). Trompenaars’s first five dimensions, named universalism/particularism,
individualism/collectivism, neutral/affective, specific/diffuse and achievement/ascription,
consider relationships between people; his other two dimensions were more oriented
towards time and environment, same as in Kluckholn and Strodtbeck’s dimensions
(French et al., 2001). Another two dimensions have been extracted from Trompenaars’
data analysis named loyal involvement/utilitarian and conservatism/egalitarian which are
seen to be a refinement of Hofstede’s dimensions of individualism/collectivism and
power distance.
Another group of scholars House et al. (2004) focused on the global leadership and organisational behaviour effectiveness (GLOBE) research which is about identifying relationship between leadership, national culture and organisational culture whereas in regard to the measurement of cultures, Hofstede developed cultural dimensions as ways of describing, measuring, comparing cultures and examining the inter-relationships among national culture, organisational culture and organisational relationships using measures of culture and leadership (Elsaid and Elsaid, 2012). The GLOBE’s study involved 62 different societies, which resulted in extending the four dimensions of Hofstede, into nine dimensions, where the two dimensions of institutional collectivism and in-group collectivism are Hofstede’s collectivism/individualism, then comes power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and the other two dimensions of gender egalitarianism and assertiveness are a reconceptualised dimension of Hofstede masculinity/femininity (Venaik and Brewer, 2010; Brewer and Venaik, 2011).

GLOBE measured societal culture using nine cultural attributes and for each dimension, two elements have been compared between “as is” and “should be” in a way to distinguish between what is the current situation and the desire to change reflected in “should be” (Venaik and Brewer, 2010). Beside few differences between Hofstede and the GLOBE’s dimensions, rejected by Javidan et al. (2006), the GLOBE has replicated Hofstede’s dimensions with new names such as the idea of the desired and the desirable mentioned in Hofstede’s book (1984) was used in the GLOBE’s project using the “as is” and “should be” as well as the societal collectivism and in-group collectivism which is similar to collectivism and individualism. To extract the similarities between the two scholars, the GLOBE’s dimensions are defined in Table 2.3:1.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultural Attributes</th>
<th>Variable Name</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uncertainty Avoidance</td>
<td>The extent to which a society, organisation, or group relies on social norms, rules, and procedures to alleviate unpredictability of future events.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Power Distance</td>
<td>The degree to which members of a collective expect power to be distributed equally.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Societal Collectivism</td>
<td>The degree to which societal institutional and organisational practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In-group Collectivism</td>
<td>The degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organisations or families.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender Egalitarianism</td>
<td>The degree to which the collective minimizes gender inequality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
<td>The degree to which individuals are assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in their relationships with others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Future Orientation</td>
<td>The extent to which individuals engage in future-oriented behaviours such as delaying gratification, planning, and investing in the future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Humane Orientation</td>
<td>The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and kind to others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance Orientation</td>
<td>The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Adapted from Elsaid and Elsaid (2012)*

In this spirit, Xiumei and Jinying (2011)’s paper compared Hofstede’s and the GLOBE’s dimensions measuring the cultural distance between China and the USA and among their findings, it was noted that main differences between Hofstede and the GLOBE scores was at the uncertainty avoidance level with totally opposite scores and this is another aspect of confusion. The authors consider the GLOBE to be more accurate providing a clearer understanding of the national culture whereas Hofstede is linking culture to beliefs and values such as in his dimensions individualism/collectivism and femininity/masculinity which are not individual characteristics but refer to how values are distributed among groups (Hofstede, 2011). Both Hofstede and the GLOBE are measuring countries’ abilities through their culture and comparing the GLOBE’s dimensions with Hofstede’s, similarities were noticed in some of their dimensions such as their definition of uncertainty avoidance, power distance, collectivism/individualism and masculinity/femininity (Zeng et al, 2013). The GLOBE considered the “as is” and “should be” for each dimension to measure the gap between the two whereas Hofstede has chosen the low and high/small and large scales to determine to which culture each respondent belong to. The GLOBE’s measurements for both practices and values using the “as is” and “should be” is an interesting approach to determine interviewees’ perceived values as it questions the attitudes of people in other countries (Brewer and Venaik, 2011). The other critic about the GLOBE’s study is that it failed to integrate individuals’ responses into a societal level of analysis. However and oppositely to Javidan et al. (2006), Brewer and Venaik (2011) agreed that the GLOBE study could be considered as a complement
to Hofstede’s work. Table 2.3:2 shows where Hofstede’s dimensions apply in organisations (Hofstede, 2011).

**Table 2.3:2 Application of Hofstede’s Dimensions in Organisations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>How it is foreseen in organisations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Small power distance</td>
<td>Hierarchy means inequality of roles, established for convenience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subordinates expect to be consulted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large power distance</td>
<td>Hierarchy means existent inequality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subordinated expect to be told what to do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak uncertainty avoidance</td>
<td>Individuals have no problem changing jobs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Individuals dislike rule whether written or verbal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong uncertainty avoidance</td>
<td>Individuals would stay in the same job even if they don’t like.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>There is an emotional need for rules even if they do not obey to it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>Transgression of norms leads to guilt feelings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Languages in which the word “I” is indispensable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Task prevails over relationship.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collectivism</td>
<td>Transgression of norms leads to shame feelings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Language in which the word “I” is avoided.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relationship prevails over task.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Femininity</td>
<td>Balance between family and work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sympathy for the weak.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculinity</td>
<td>Work prevails over family.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Admiration for the strong.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Adapted from Hofstede (2011)*
2.3.3.2. Definitions

Since 1954, many social anthropologists attempted to analyse the similarities and differences facing societies using different approaches such as “conceptual reasoning, field experiences and statistical studies”. Results from research highlighted the relation between individuals, societies, gender and power which were qualified as common problems for any country. Additionally, supporting other researchers’ findings and because nations are too complex to be limited, Hofstede expanded the geographical parameter to 40 different societies in 1979 while working in a project on behalf of the large multinational company IBM which later on was expanded to a total of 70 countries since 2001 (Hofstede, 2012). As a result, he developed four dimensions from the analysis of 100,000 questionnaires’ responses of IBM employees which, since 2001, was translated to 18 languages (Hofstede, 2012). The diverse environment where these employees were working represented the right sample for Hofstede to “identify differences in national value systems” and this because he has noticed that these differences were reflected in their responses using the statistical analysis. The results were regrouped in terms of inequality, impact of groups on individuals, gender’s implications and what does uncertainty represent to them (Hofstede, 1997; p. 13). The empirical results from the IBM survey data constituted then the four main subjects called dimensions of culture. Each of these four dimensions already exists and is recognised in the social sciences but representing its own. The four dimensions theory developed by Hofstede is based on an empirical combination of these to identify the differences in national cultures. They have been validated by testing them using several theories in the social sciences such as Boulding’s theory as stated earlier and the Inkeles and Levinson’s findings in 1954 as their theory matches Hofstede’s empirical findings. Therefore, using the received responses, Hofstede could compare the similarities among the different societies in order to develop the four dimensions to measure culture. Later on, a fifth dimension was added.
in collaboration with Michael Bond in 1991 (Hofstede, 2012). Zeng et al. (2013) defining culture using Hofstede (1984)’s book where he identifies national culture based on the values of each country’s dimensions which help in understanding the country’s culture. In the next sections, focus on Hofstede’s dimensions in his website considering seven Arab countries that represent the Arab world in his model (Hofstede, 2015).

**Power Distance (PDI)**

It is mainly about how society deals with power distribution. It also explains the inequalities of levels among society expressed by the hierarchical structure that is followed and whether it is accepted or rejected by people who are looking for a more equal system (Hofstede, 2012; Hofstede, 2015). In organisations, it shows the ability of low levels in the organisation’s structure to accept this distance in power (Manrai and Manrai, 2011).

According to Figure 1.3:1 in Chapter 1, people in Lebanon, Morocco and Egypt are less power distant than in Iraq, Saudi Arabia, Arab Emirates and Kuwait, with high degree in power distance, where people are accepting the hierarchical structure of society. However, it explains the respect of hierarchy structure within organisations in all these Arab countries and that employees are receiving tasks to do from their managers without asking for justifications or even rejection (Hofstede, 2012; Hofstede, 2015).

**Individualism versus Collectivism (IDV)**

This dimension represents a high score characterised by individualism which means that individuals prefer to take care of themselves and their family members rather than being taken care of by others (Manrai and Manrai, 2011). In the other hand, collectivism can be represented in society by how loyal and group-oriented employees are within companies.
(Hofstede, 2012; Hofstede, 2015). Tsang and Prendergast (2009), using Hofstede’s dimensions in their paper were more interested in this dimension because it can easily show for instance communication styles with respect to consumer and products reviews and distinguish between Western and Eastern from the way they handle how they express their views about a product. Collectivist cultures as explained by the authors lead Chinese to develop and preserve a harmonious environment by honouring people’ “face” such as not complaining about a purchased product below their expectations, as a way to avoid conflicts, which in the Chinese culture reflects the seller’s face taken away and the buyer’s lack of forgiveness. This is different in the American culture where expressing opinions is considered as a natural and interactive social relationship when they can be more open to writing negative reviews about a product and producing conflicting comments.

**Figure 2.3:3 Individualism vs Collectivism Diagram for Seven Arab Countries**

![Individualism vs Collectivism Diagram for Seven Arab Countries](image)

*Source: Adapted from Hofstede (2015)*

Figure 2.3:3 shows that Saudi Arabia, Arab Emirates, Kuwait, Egypt and Morocco are sharing more collectivistic characteristics than Iraqis and Lebanese who are still belonging to a collective society. Culture is an important parameter influencing societies in these countries and this is explained by the level of collectivism and the role it plays in strengthening the relationship between managers and their employees and how homogeneous the team is.
**Masculinity versus Femininity (MAS)**

This dimension indicates the degree of masculinity or femininity within society and connects heroism, success, money, power and achievement to a masculine-oriented and competitive society (Manrai and Manrai, 2011). Oppositely, a more feminine society is the one that is more cooperative, modest and caring which leads to a more group-oriented category (Hofstede, 2012; Hofstede, 2015).

**Figure 2.3:4 Masculinity vs Femininity Diagram for Seven Arab Countries**

Source: Adapted from Hofstede (2015)

Following Figure 2.3:4 given by Hofstede (2012; 2015) in measuring this cultural dimension, among the seven Arab countries only Kuwait and Egypt seem to be relatively feminine societies where conflicts are resolved by negotiation and compromise, employees seek support and value equality and solidarity at work. On the contrary, Iraq, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, Arab Emirates and Morocco are giving performance, competition and quality high consideration for success.
Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI)

This dimension measures the level of ambiguity and uncertainty for a society and how far it can handle it. In other words and as defined by Manrai and Manrai (2011) it evaluates the degree of threat felt by people in unexpected situations.

Figure 2.3:5 Uncertainty Avoidance Diagram for Seven Arab Countries

Source: Adapted from Hofstede (2015)

Hofstede (2012; 2015) measuring Arab countries’ uncertainty avoidance shows from Figure 2.3:5 that these societies are very rigid as per the future and prefer to set rules to avoid any threat. Companies in these countries are diligent and consider time precious. Therefore innovation might not be encouraged because what keep employees motivated is more the need of a secure environment rather than a creative one.

The dominance of American management theories induced a belief that these theories are suitable for everyone like when US managers use same practices anywhere they go. Managers choose the most suitable management practices which are more appropriate to the national culture they operate in (Newman and Nollen, 1996; Witt, 2008). If we consider a wider scale where international companies operate in another country, practices tend to be standardised (Newman and Nollen, 1996; Trompenaars and Woolliams, 2003). Therefore, for multinational companies to adapt their practices to the
national culture in the country where they operate, more focus is to be given to how to create an environment where employees trust more their managers, accept these practices and perform more than if they have been following the organisational practices following orders, executing tasks without being creative or innovative (Trompenaars and Woolliams, 2003). The next section related Hofstede’s dimensions to the element of trust in organisation to explain the influence of culture in building trust in a cross-cultural work environment.

2.3.3.3. Culture from a Trust Perspective

Zeng et al. (2013) pointed out that MNEs’ approaches while expanding in Korea are different as some could have a short term expansion plan in terms of their FDIs’ duration so this compromises their learning process of the host country culture especially that gaining a cultural experience requires time. Other MNEs who have already gained experience with different cultures in other countries could use their learning skills but with the risk of losing the meaning of such learning to develop a positive relationship with the host country where overwhelmed managers become unable of properly using such skill because of the fast and vast expansion. Vahlne and Ivarsson (2014) examine the example of Swedish manufacturing MNEs looking more in depth on their global expansion strategy. One of the challenges they have been facing was adapting and developing management practices that fit in other countries by building experience through experiential learning and keeping a strong networking system with important people in the new environment with relevant relationships seeking opportunities. This kind of approaches requires time without forgetting the element of trust building which creates coordination between both parties, where even with their cultural differences they learn how to gain benefits from their coordination using experiential learning which is initiated by trust.
From a cultural perspective, researchers such as Whitener et al. (1998) and Hofstede (2001) reported that cultural differences exist and it influences individuals’ behaviours such as initiating and building trust especially in an international work environment. For example, if we take managers from an individualistic culture such as the United States, they will face challenges between their interests and building trust whereas in collectivist cultures, there will be little to no problems balancing the two. This finding is supported by Iglesias et al. (2011) who gave the example of two companies where managers use different ways to show how they trust their employees. Managers in company A were giving a high level of empowerment to employees in dealing with their daily functions and in solving their work problems their way without getting back to their manager. As for company B, managers are following another approach where they meet regularly and using a brainstorming approach they list the main problems they are all facing and start finding solutions applied once agreed by everyone as a more communicative way to gain employees trust. Although both studies highlighted the aspect of trust, they did not consider the Arab setting which may produce other effects in terms of the employees’ ability to adapt to such approaches.

Kumar and Che Rose (2012) agrees that engaging employees at work requires a certain adaptability but it is of great help to build trust and decrease employees’ attachment to culture by being more open and innovative for everyone to express their opinions freely and to be encouraged to take risks. This might be different in an international cross-cultural context where measuring trust always brings culture as an important element to discuss in such studies. For this research, there will be more focus on trust and its characteristics as a strategic approach for the Arab-Western integration of management practices in the Arab World. Several scholars defined dimensions to measure culture and
the most well-known models are developed by Hofstede, Trompenaars, House et al. in the GLOBE project, Hall and many other. Hofstede remains the most reliable source in relation to the important number of samples and data given Hofstede’s findings more reliability and validity than the others (Leung, 2006; Newman and Nollen, 1996). Additionally, little empirical research has used the Hofstede dimensions to investigate the influence of work ethics, trust in particular, in a cross-cultural work environment. The other reason for choosing Hofstede’s dimensions in the framework is the availability of the different resources used as pre-existing tools, to measure culture in relation to trust in the organisation. The reason behind it is to question whether differences in management practices of the international company and national cultures of both Western and Arab employees is related to trust, knowing that employees’ understanding of work and the way in which they expect to be treated is mainly related to their national culture. As a consequence, employees would not trust the work environment and would feel dissatisfied and uncommitted when management practices are inconsistent with their values.

National Culture
Starting with a definition of national culture which is a set of values and beliefs learned since birth to distinguish one group of people from another (Hofstede, 2011; Elsaid and Elsaid, 2012; Hofstede, 1984; Newman and Nollen, 1996). As discussed earlier about behavioural integrity and how employees are affected by their managers’ consistent words and actions, Simons et al. (2007) suggested in their article that employees from different racial groups interpret behavioural integrity differently where they analysed data showed that black employees rated their managers differently than did non-black employees. This could take researchers to investigate on employees coming from different cultures and explore how different or similar their trust perceptions are. In line
with Simons et al.’s study (2007), a part of this research is to explore how employees from different cultural backgrounds at organisational levels interact with each other and build trust in an international work environment. In this case, referring to the similarity-attraction theory mentioned in Simons et al.’s study (2007) where it shows that people who are similar tend to be attracted to each other and either their similarity is attitudinal or demographic, their behaviours such as their communication and the way they open up to others, etc. tend to be similar.

**Individualism – Collectivism**

Individualism is characterised by individual accomplishment where people are driven by their personal needs whereas in collective cultures, members from the same group rely on each other, are protected by the group and accomplishment is derived from the group’s actions and interests in a way not to lose face in the eyes of the group (Hofstede, 2011; Brewer and Venaik, 2011). In organisations, individualism emphasizes individuals’ contributions to work and employees in such cultures are independent, competitive, value achievement and recognition. In addition to their opposition to hierarchy and traditions, employees from individualistic cultures are responsible for their results seeking more rewards and they are driven by their personal needs without caring for other individuals’ rights especially that they give no importance to rules and are very little concerned about ethics. Collectivism is more manifested as work solidarity, cooperation and team rewards where hierarchy and traditions influence them to preserve their loyalty to norms including ethics where keeping your promise is important and where contracts are sealed verbally (Elsaid and Elsaid, 2012; Leonidou et al., 2013; Newman and Nollen, 1996; Hofstede, 1984; Miroshnik, 2002; Brewer and Venaik, 2011). Considering this, levels of trust could vary from culture to culture reflected on the way they perceive trust within that environment. In Whitener et al.’s study (1998), managers and employees’ cultural values
influence their willingness to engage in a trust relationship. For instance, using Hofstede’s work (2001) and according to Goel et al. (2005), if we consider employees collectivistic cultures, they will be developing close relationships between each other while individualists would rely on themselves and are more likely to be reticent to engage with others preferring to protect their interests as a group giving less trust to others whereas collectivist groups tend to more importance to others by trusting them.

**Masculinity – Femininity**

In organisations, the masculinity/femininity dimension reflects employees’ orientation for high earnings, recognition, rewards and promotion. Employees belonging to a feminine culture seek cooperation and value relations whereas in masculine countries, they are more activity-oriented and value achievement (Hofstede, 2011). Masculine employees are ambitious, independent, competitive and able to ignore any work ethics if necessary to achieve their objectives as they are driven by achievement and success driven even if it is at the expense of others (Elsaid and Elsaid, 2012; Miroshnik, 2002; Leonidou et al., 2013; Newman and Nollen, 1996; Hofstede, 1984). They are more likely to be careful in trusting others as they believe their trust behaviour will be exploited (Goel et al., 2005). Thus, the level of trust is more likely to be low among employees in a masculine culture.

**Uncertainty Avoidance**

Uncertainty avoidance reflects individuals’ tendency to accept or reject the unknown, or the level of threat people feel from uncertainty (Miroshnik, 2002; Venaik and Brewer, 2010; Hofstede, 2001). For instance, individuals with a low degree of uncertainty avoidance tend to accept obscure situations, take risks easily, do not always follow practices and tend to be more flexible. Oppositely, individuals with strong uncertainty
avoid taking risks to be in control and reduce the uncertainty of the situation, strictly follow rules, regulations and norms and are intolerant towards abnormal ideas and behaviour (Leonidou et al., 2013).

Organisations set clear practices and policies that employees could rely on and the more these rules are understood by employees, the least uncertainty is felt avoiding the unknown (Newman and Nollen, 1996; Hofstede, 1984; Venaik and Brewer, 2010). For instance, French companies are more hierarchical and followed a bureaucratic system based on rules more than American companies. This structure does not affect their effectiveness if applied in France as the situation is different if this same structure applied in the USA given both management styles and approaches are implemented and applied differently and this was indirectly investigated by Peng et al. (2000) when they were looking at the differences in management styles between Chinese and international joint ventures and the same study was looked at by Nguyen and Larimo (2015) where both examined the element of conflict. Peng et al. (2000) mainly focused on examining how Chinese and Americans then Chinese and French companies operating in China were managing conflicts where they found out that there is no difference in the way Chinese, French and Americans manage conflicts adopting similar styles to avoid, compromise and dominate degree of conflicts especially that the reason behind these conflicts in international corporations is cultural. It shows to what extent culture can influence the way management styles are implemented in an international work environment. Linking what has been discussed above about culture to trust, Goel et al. (2005) related individuals with low uncertainty avoidance to the group of people who can accept uncertainty and accept things as they come. Here it reflects their ability of dealing with different groups as long as it serves their interest. They are less likely to build long relationships or build trust quickly than in high uncertainty avoidant individuals who tend to create a secure
environment supported by traditions and rules as prevention from the future (Juceviciene and Mozuriuniene, 2007; Brenkert, 1998).

**Power Distance**

Power distance is related to people’s beliefs about power accepting or rejecting the unequal distribution of power (Leonidou et al., 2013; Newman and Nollen, 1996; Hofstede, 1984; Hofstede, 2011; Miroshnik, 2002). In organisations, power distance is measured by the amount of formal hierarchy, the degree of centralization, and the amount of employees’ participation in decision making. This dimension depends on employees’ perceptions of managers’ decision making styles. Therefore in organisations with high power distance, employees accept hierarchy and treat their superiors with respect given their status and obey to them. On the other hand, low power distance employees are less tolerant to hierarchical relationships in organisations and disregard authority. Therefore, employees with more power distance follow their superiors’ opinions and are more concerned about work ethics (Leonidou et al., 2013). For instance, employees in high power distance cultures such as in the Arab World are likely to view participative management with fear, distrust and disrespect because this kind of management is not supported in their national culture (Hofstede, 1984).

Within an international environment, if a Western manager is following a participative practice encouraging innovation and employees’ involvement, Arab employees would see him/her as incompetent and weak (Newman and Nollen, 1996). Therefore, this does not only deduce the importance of practices in relation to employees’ performance but also shows the influence of national culture on gaining employees’ trust. For instance, employees in high power distance organisations do not communicate their opinion or express their disagreement openly and the top management team is not easily accessible,
etc. Under such circumstances, employees apply the general established regulations defined by the organisation with a very limited creative environment which decreases employees’ belonging and attachment to the work environment.

2.3.3.4. Changing Culture

Calza et al. (2010) recommended the importance of accepting the influence of religion on culture and its relation to work culture and business practices. They suggested to understand this cultural diversity from both partners and considered that international companies should be aware of Arabic traditions. Consequently and as concluded by the authors of the study, it will break the barriers created by these cultural values and norms and transform it into strong international relationships especially by integrating local employees within the company. Considering the Emiratis’ experience, globalisation and internationalisation forced the UAE to many economic changes. In order to protect their authentic identity, the UAE promoted for social and cultural revival projects translated by museums, renovated old buildings and souks (traditional shopping malls). This cultural and political process didn’t aim to protect Emiratis’ traditions only but it also promoted for touristic strategies to keep the UAE one of the best destinations for tourists. In addition, it encouraged development of national and international business (Picton, 2010). For effective results and in order to change employees’ vision towards foreign managers, encouraging innovation is one way to developing employees’ performance. Consequently, they will tend to accept international business relationships, build trust and acquire new knowledge that leads them to be more open to apply a standard business culture instead of their own. For example, having a local manager to deal directly with local employees will reduce the cultural shock and simplify the communication between the foreign and local parties.
Hooker (2009) concluded that instead of having a standard culture system fighting corruption in any way, it would be recommended to coexist and leave each country work out their problems on their own. Each country needs to respect other countries’ values and culture. This openness will develop trust between the West and other relationship-based cultures and will help them accept ideas and create more businesses together. In this spirit, Hofstede (2001) stressed on the importance of technologies and its impact on changing culture. Supporting Hofstede’s idea, Tsang and Prendergast (2009) pointed out that most countries using technology tend to adopt similar practices and therefore apply unified procedures. Consequently, organisational and national cultures will be affected by this change and will be adopted widely. Cronje (2011) supported this in his paper where technology is considered to keep all societies together despite their cultural differences. To examine the technological impact on culture, Cronje (2011) took the educational system with students in a Master course in two different locations where the first group is from Sudan, an Arab African country with strong Islamic characteristics and the other group from South Africa following an Ango-American style and strict Christian religious. It was concluded that shared use of technology lead to a common culture with more focus on what they have in common through shared values where students started being attentive to body language. Common communication tools was also important using available technologies such as internet to search for information.

2.3.3.5. Challenges Managing International Business

Understanding the cultural environment where the international company will operate in is important (Demirbag et al., 2003). For example and according to Hooker (2009), to set up a business or start a project in Arab countries and particularly in the Gulf, it is important to have authority’s support and this to avoid any delay in processing permissions. It is not considered corruption for the simple reason that these authority
figures follow Islamic ethics and are respected (Neal et al., 2005). Power in this case is commanded with responsibility. However, in some scenarios, the same concept occurs but differently as the request will go through a mediator or as called “Wasta” to facilitate the process of getting an admission, a good job or a business offer. This mediator usually asks for money in return therefore it is corrupting.

Another challenge raised in the literature is gender. For example, the effect of gender in the UAE is linked to the type of industry females and males choose and Kargwell (2012) concluded that female are more familiar with fashion and limit their business in the clothing sector. This leaves Emirati males with a wide number of industries for their businesses. On the contrary, Neal et al. (2005) stated that women leaders in the Gulf countries increased for the past few years in managerial levels in both public and private sectors. Initially, several researchers such as Picton (2010) and Neal et al. (2005) agreed that setting up practices and organisational principles is similar for both genders and women have equal rights as men accessing education and workspaces at all levels.

Considering the fact that globalisation didn’t weaken the UAE and their cultural values, the Emiratis’ involvement is limited and an important number of decision makers and employees are not Emiratis but from other Arab countries and Westerns (Picton, 2010). However, considering the Algerian experience, local employees might consider these changes as a threat as per their beliefs and traditions that might be weaken. Consequently, this could demotivate employees adapting to this new culture and therefore be less active in the foreign company. Therefore, involving local managers could facilitate this integration and establish a positive connection between both parties. In addition, motivating employees will improve the quality of relationship between managers and employees especially if they receive recognition for doing their work or receiving updates.
about the work in overall and this to see the benefits of such practices set by the company (Calza et al., 2010).

2.3.4. Communication in Organisations

2.3.4.1. Introduction

Companies operating internationally have special managerial responsibilities to develop an effective communication not only with other companies in important sectors in the host country but also inside the organisation itself where they operate (Hibbert, 1997). Even though it is a complex process, it is fundamental that companies in this case use different forms of communication to develop relationships with different actors involved in the company. Therefore, for relationships to be based on sincere foundations, communication between the different levels in the company is an important aspect in building trust (Jones, 2012; Selmier and Oh, 2012; Mason and Leek, 2012). Mutual trust could be an important component for international business for several reasons (Cullen et al., 2000; Brenkret, 1998; Schoorman et al., 2007; Robertson and Athanassiou, 2009).

First of all, much of what happens between managers/employees in organisations develops informally where managers encourage trust to keep the relationship running smoothly especially that changes occur over time where new issues or situations are arisen. Without trust, these issues will take more importance and consequently creates problems between managers and employees. In a cross-cultural environment, these problems commonly generate misunderstandings affecting all parties’ performance (Schoorman et al., 2007; Girmscheid and Brockmann, 2010; Luo, 2002; Robertson and Athanassiou, 2009). Finally, trust involves learning which is one of the main strategic benefits motivating employees in organisations given the fact that most international organisations contribute in transferring and exchanging information. If trust does not exist and concerned parties are not committed, the exchange of information and knowledge which
is necessary in the development of new technologies transfer will not take place. Therefore, without some extent of mutual trust, employees and managers will not work closely to share sensitive information and knowledge in organisations, and this often results failure in working out problems that usually arise in an international environment, as they avoid solving issues with a prejudice that it is not worth the effort trying (Lucas, 2000). Developing high levels of trust using communication with employees is lacking in the international management literature in the Arab context. For this reason, this research will examine how organisational structure influences the choice of communication channels to show the contribution, if any, of interactions across levels to build organisational trust in the context of Western firms operating in the Arab World (Bik, 2010; Lount, 2010).

2.3.4.2. Definition of Communication

Starting with a definition, communication is a complex process contextualized by the use of several communication means to interpret the received information using shared vocabulary and this could be controlled by how effective communication is within the groups and between levels in organisations (Hibbert, 1997; Muchinsky, 1977; Srikanth and Puranam, 2011). Supported by Kumar and Che Rose (2012)’s findings, Whitener et al. (1998) added that the perception of trust from a communication viewpoint being open and willing to share information as this enhances strong relationships between employees and strengthens their trust (Kickul et al., 2005). Here Kickul et al. (2005) define effective communication in this context as when managers communicate clearly with their employees leading positive results. Simons et al. (2007) on the other hand pointed out that communication could be interpreted differently by employees and this is what managers should be aware of especially in an international work environment. Communication should be directed in this case from two sides where managers
communicate with employees by sharing appropriate information as a monitoring tool (Kumar and Che Rose, 2012). For instance, if a manager doesn’t interact with his/her subordinates, s/he will not be aware about their work and consequently, subordinates will most likely be less confident communicating with their manager openly and freely. Moreover, managers can use different approaches such as initiating discussions with employees to learn more about their progress at work and the issues they are facing through informal meetings whereas formal meetings would be more to keep in touch with employees sharing information and showing manager’s interest in employees’ work in a way that could be interpreted by employees as manager’s interest in staying informed (Niehoff and Moorman, 1993). By using the appropriate communication tools relevant to either the culture they belong to (Scandura and Dorfman, 2004), the leadership style encouraged in the group such as the participative style that promotes collective achievements through continuous communication or the company’s vision building their identity using forms of communication such as shared vision, encouraged empowerment and open expression building confidence (Kriger and Seng, 2005; Braun et al., 2013). Tools used could vary from one leader to another, encouraging information sharing, which is itself a tool to monitor employees’ progress (Xie et al., 2009; Selmier and Oh, 2012). Consequently and over time, this will help develop trust within the organisation where subordinates trust their manager’s decisions allocating rewards and perhaps this will build trust of managers about subordinates’ work.

2.3.4.3. The Process of Communication

Muchinsky (1977) explained the process of communication as selecting information which is foreseen as important by the communicator in order to share it with the recipient of communication and here where Scandura and Dorfman (2004) described a leader as a person who can effectively communicate ideas by motivating the group, such an approach
is coming from their values and through their own experience. In this spirit but considered from another angle, another definition provided by Gilpin and Miller (2013) and Selmier and Oh (2012) who considered communication as the base that establishes and maintains relationships in the organisation. Communication can be categorised into high-context and low context communication where low context communication encourages direct verbal approaches such as face to face and direct communication. In the contrary, high context communication used indirect modalities with indirect and non-verbal messages (Xie et al, 2009). Abu Bakar and Mustaffa (2013) pointed out that communication represents a social system in organisations sharing formal and informal information. For instance, Malaysian employees as described by the authors work better as a group and give more importance to interpersonal communication and relationships. Trust is expressed here by the level of respect Malaysian employees show, reflected in both verbal and non-verbal communication including language and gestural practices (Xie et al., 2009; Selmier and Oh, 2012). Moreover, Hutchings and Weir (2006), in an attempt to understand networking in China and the Arab World, examined the role of trust and its implications of internationalisation to come up with lessons for international managers. They also stated that interpersonal relationships play an important role in transferring information between employees, using the right channel of communication strengthened by the “reciprocity, intensity and durability of these relations”. Hence, Communication differs from environment to another and it affects the professional behaviour in an international setting by using various communication channels from direct, clear and explicit language to indirect messages (Bik, 2010; Hofstede, 2001). Non-verbal communication represents a powerful tool consisting of body language reactions such as hand gestures, voice intonation and so on, facilitating the transfer of messages without actually saying it verbally (Sykes, 2013; Ozuorcun, 2013). This type of communication may create confusion if interpreted wrongly especially within a cross-cultural
communication context (Xie et al., 2009; Holt and DeVore, 2005). The level of interaction between the top management team, middle managers and employees at lower organisational levels is central to determine how effective communication is within the organisation. It would therefore reflect the role of communication in building trust, in terms of how effective is the information flow to circulate and share information between them (Zhou, 2013; Raes et al., 2011). In summary, employees at different levels are more likely to establish a distinct and stable identity through communication process (Koschmann and Pfarrer, 2012). Finally, without neglecting the role of language in this context, oral and written communication is fundamental for international businesses as both parties should express and agree about their agreement. Hence, language is another dimension to consider in the model where a common-spoken language is important to share information considering the most commonly spoken trade languages which are English, Spanish, French and Arabic (Selmier and Oh, 2012). In international business, language has a significant influence to increase or decrease trust as stated by the same authors “language was the tool of the meeting, but also the key to trust. Speaking a language is very rarely separated from culture and the results may be similar: increased trust”. It could be more important for a long term benefit relationship in an international organisation. Thus, sharing information in person or in writing could be more effective in influencing the person receiving the information and this may create a certain level of trust (Xie et al., 2009; Selmier and Oh, 2012).

Trust being the key variable in this research’s developed model, it is defined as the willingness of involved parties to cooperate and coordinate their efforts to reach their expected outcomes (Lount, 2010). For this to happen in an international environment, trust grows over time where international managers and home-based employees learn how to interact together. Without communication, these repeated interactions will not be
successful (Stephens and Rains, 2011). Trust takes time surviving to several problems and conflicts in order to develop, whether it decreases or increases depending on the outcome of the interactions (Holt and DeVore, 2005; Schoorman et al., 2007). The quality of relationship between different levels depends on how effective communication is through information flow circulating between them as illustrated in figure 2.3:6.

**Figure 2.3:6 Information Flow between Different Organisational Levels**

Source: Adapted from Lount (2010), Holt and DeVore (2005), Schoorman et al. (2007) and Raes et al. (2011)

The fact of interpreting and filtering information at each level has a different informational base from which they see the organisation, and this may affect their interactions. Communication may take place face to face, by phone, through written communication, and so on. It may be formal such as by scheduled meetings with fixed agendas and protocols; and informal through phone calls and spontaneous meetings in the organisation or before meetings (Raes et al., 2011). Therefore, building trust within such environment is largely a matter of actions and interactions between organisational actors.

**2.3.4.4. The Impact of Organisational Structure on Effective Communication to Build Trust**

As for trust building in an international environment, developing high levels of communication in employees emphasizes the influence of organisational structure, such as the role of top management and middle managers. According to Hill et al. (2012); top
management, leading the group, plays an important communication role in organisations by setting its communication style and by establishing its credibility with employees. Employees develop different interpretations and responses to others’ messages depending on their level in the organisation. Therefore, one might expect employees’ level of trust building to be influenced by their hierarchical proximity to the top management team. Whitener et al. (1998) highlighted the importance of the organisational structure in constraining or accepting open communication to develop trust such as the case of centralised organisations that focus on efficiency and neglect the development of trust by controlling communication. Organisations with low control are more decentralised and less formal where they focus on effectiveness and encourage open communication. Considering informal communication among employees, if not constrained, they are able to share resources moving from one employee's group/department/level to another (Crawford and Lepine, 2013). Hence, organisational size and structure may influence the extent to which information at each level differs from the others. For instance, in large organisations, they have a more diversified structure and the importance of managing information is greater (Raes et al., 2011; Zhou, 2013). Therefore, employees at different levels are more likely to establish a distinct and stable identity through communication process (Koschmann and Pfarrer, 2012). Additionally, Ellman and Pezanis-Christou (2010) claim that employees and middle managers feel responsible for what their firms do only when they are involved and have a significant say in decision making. The authors described the internal communication or communication within the group/team as important for enhancing their identity generating trust within the group.

Organisational structure might negatively influence employees’ perceptions of the use of proper communication channels. For instance, literature related to communication in organisations has shown that individuals at higher levels tend to communicate more
frequently with each other than with employees from lower levels creating fewer opportunities to interact with each other (Hill et al., 2012). By maintaining a continuous dialogue with employees through effective top-down and bottom-up communication, the top management team will provide a positive signal actively considering employees’ concerns and showing the importance of receiving employees’ input in the process of building trust, increasing performance and achieving the organisation’s effectiveness.

2.3.5. Organisational Structure

2.3.5.1. Overview

To examine the impact of organisational structure on trust building, this section represents an attempt to shed light on how organisational structure can affect trust building in an international firm. Reviewing the vast literature on organisational structure, it is explored targeting its impact on performance where Kriger and Seng (2005) investigated organisational and human performance as aspects related to leadership from a behavioural aspect examining the influence of leaders in rewarding performance measured by the company’s profit, employees’ job satisfaction, company’s contribution to communities, etc. through incentives. Zhao et al. (2014) considered the relationship between structure and performance from another angle, where an adaptation of MNCs’ organisational structures and strategies and the stakeholders’ environments is significant. It determines management style’s implications on social environments which over time generates changes in structures and practices in a way to balance MNCs’ entry to a specific market with the stakeholders’ expectations. This transition conceptualised by the MNCs strategies adapting to economic changes build performance from a social level and company’s level as illustrated by the authors through the Chinese market regulations leading MNCs to accustom themselves to local practices.
2.3.5.2. Introduction

Compared to the vast literature about the impact of organisational structure on performance, the topic related to organisational structure and its role on ethics has been neglected (Ellman and Pezanis-Christou, 2010). Recently there are attempts in this topic, where for instance Hill et al. (2012) examined the effect of hierarchy on employee’s commitment to change through the perceived understanding of relationship between employees and top management, relating their finding to the different levels of leadership to show employees’ commitment to organisational change. Hence, because developing high levels of trust with employees is lacking in the international management literature in the Arab context, examining the influence of organisational structure on employees’ interactions across levels and questioning whether it contributes or not to build organisational trust (Bik, 2010; Lount, 2010).

Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence (2012) examined the role of trust and workplace outcomes that could be produced based on factors generating the trust process such as managers who would expect better job performance as their trust outcome, senior managers’ key outcomes would be expected to lead to organisational commitment and so on. Consistent with the same authors’ findings, the type of hierarchy in organisations affects perception of trust depending on relationships between employees from different organisational levels, in terms of the density of these interactions and the person interacting with (Stephens and Rains, 2011; Holt and DeVore, 2005; Hill et al., 2012). Authors such as Whitener et al. (1998) and Kickul et al. (2005) believe that trust is initiated from the top where the managers’ actions and interactions with subordinates could be taken as a beginning of trust building. However, it depends on the type of the organisational structure where for hierarchical firms and entrepreneurial firms which among other aspects, hierarchical firms display a high level of centralisation and
formalisation and establish authority-obedience relationships. Thus, they mainly acquire employees’ willingness to obey to instructions for a set of specific jobs especially that knowledge is centralised at the management level with the assumption that experts who produce the standard operating procedures are able to manage the resources (Green, 1992).

2.3.5.3. Definition of Organisational Structure

Organisational structure is defined as the number of organisational levels from employees and top management. Top management team is conceptualised as the highest level which includes the chief executive officer (CEO) and vice presidents who report to the CEO. To address the question of how these different levels - top management, middle managers and their employees – work individually or as a group. Involving the top management is important given the fact that organisational practice is generally initiated by the top management team to be implemented by employees at all levels of the organisation (Hill et al., 2012). There are two types of organisational structure: vertical and horizontal structures. In the horizontal structures, rights are allocated between the different actors whereas in the vertical structure, there is a director who sets strategies and subordinates cannot change them (Ellman and Pezanis-Christou, 2010). Differences in this case could show more in such centralised organisations where employees are highly controlled and trust development is likely to be constrained whereas in low-controlled organisations, managers are more likely to communicate openly and encourage innovative thinking which may lead to more trust. To explain the relationship low-controlled firms have with trust, Green (1992) also explained on some elements such low levels of centralisation, standardisation and hierarchy that are witnessed which consequently develop a suitable “body of information” essential to the progress of the firm where decision and control are displayed throughout the organisation. If the organisational culture is represented by a set of values forming the practice continually constituted and adapted by the organisation
members, the organisational structure, conceptualised by the relationship between leaders/manager and followers/subordinated defines the type of hierarchy followed by the organisation characterised by group level with distinct role according to their specialisation and departments (Crawford and Lepine, 2013; Raes et al., 2011; Langley et al., 2013). The interaction of the top management team, middle managers and employees at lower organisational levels is central to build trust (Raes et al., 2011).

2.3.5.4. The Relationship between Organisational Structure and Communication in the Trust Building Process

Communication is a complex process contextualized by the use of several communication means helping the interpretation of the information using shared vocabulary which coordinates and controls the activity of information sharing within groups and between levels in organisations (Koschmann and Pfarrer, 2012; Srikanth and Puranam, 2011). Applying communication in a vertical or horizontal structure might differ given the fact that power is distributed between the actors involved in the horizontal structure whereas the power in a vertical structure is given to one actor to decide about the rest. In this case, communication will be implemented more quickly than in the horizontal one where the increased workload of communication and information processing can provoke opportunities for errors or misunderstandings (Zhou, 2013; Ellman and Pezanis-Christou, 2010). Oppositely to the previous authors who believe that the vertical structure with one decision maker will give effective outcomes using unified and one source communication, Hill et al. (2012) pointed out that using communication extensively results in higher levels of trust in managing the organisation from a top-down perspective. From the bottom-up angle, communication could enhance fairness and justice between employees by considering that their concerns have reached the upper management level (Whitener et al., 1998).
In the other hand and compared to a flat structure, a hierarchical structure improves the coordination of communication. A hierarchical structure for example reduces the probability of decision errors and improves decision quality using the right communication channel and structure. It establishes an internal information infrastructure, which enables the different levels to communicate when necessary and for employees in the same group to share a more homogeneous communication system than do employees within other groups. It also involves coordination through both formal and informal structures where unofficial communication, trust, networks and other informal structures facilitate and complement the functions used within the formal structure (Zhou, 2013). Hill et al. (2012) identified a frequent communication gap between the top management team and employees which impacts how employees perceive the organisational hierarchy and also influence their communication’s effectiveness. Investigating the role of organisational structure in building organisational trust, Whitener et al. (1998) defined successful organisations those where organisational structure is created to enhance trust. To sum up, organisational structure and perceived communication remain two of the most significant predictors to build trust over a period of time. For instance, jobs would stop being self-contained and there would be more acceptance of participation with others and supportive relationships relating these connections, among other things, on trust, interdependencies, confidence, diffusion of control and responsibility and a high sense of loyalty and commitment towards the firm (Hill et al, 2012). The gap between the organisational levels and the type of the organisational structure could cause lack or slowness in developing trust through low level or lack of employees’ openness with their managers (Hill et al., 2012).

2.4. Summary
In summary of both chapters of the literature, Arab management has been shaped by the West and some Western Management researches investigated on Management in Arab or Islamic systems (Kuwait, Jordan, the UAE, Saudi Arabia, Turkey, Iran, and so on). However, very few could define the right approach to be applied considering cultural, social and economic factors. By exploring a set of work values that apparently exist based on the literature, and even from this research, it would clarify the role and meaning of work, employee’s work orientation and valued behaviour at work; which could be useful to improve employee-employer/manager’s relationships and to explain, if applicable, the role of trust from a cultural aspect in an international work environment focusing more specifically on the interactions between Arab countries and international companies.

There is an increased interest in developing trust, researchers approach it differently based on their theoretical backgrounds, and chosen empirical context from various fields such as strategic management, international business and organisational behaviour (Luo, 2002; Robertson and Athanassiou, 2009; Girmscheid and Brockmann, 2010; Seppanen et al., 2007). Despite the importance of trust in companies’ performance, there are no effective theoretical and empirical attempts to measure trust in an intra-organisational level in an international work environment involving Western and Arab management styles (Dietz and Den Hartog, 2006). The next chapters in this research propose a framework focusing on integrating the Arab philosophy in Western practices for international businesses within the Arab World. For an empirical attempt to add more knowledge to international management and to Arab approaches, theories and practices, Chapter 4 will identify the methodology and approaches to be used in this research. Analysis and discussion will then generate a final framework which may contribute to an understanding of management practices in the Arab World, starting with the case of Morocco; as well as to an in depth exploration of the process of trust.
Chapter Three

Conceptual Framework of Trust Building
3.1. Introduction

After a rigorous review of the literature (Chapters 1 and 2), this chapter will examine the six research questions extracted from the literature and through the pilot study conducted during the literature review phase. These questions will be answered in Chapter 6 but it is important to identify and show the link between the various components taking part in the process of trust. Exploring these components helps understanding how trust is perceived in an international organisation and how employees react to it in order to have a clear picture of its development in such a work environment (Nootenboom, 2002; Brenkert, 1998; Robertson and Athanassiou, 2009).

There will be a focus on three organisational levels (Top, Middle and Low management) to explain the ways in which employees view the different dimensions of perceived trust and how it influences the application of practices within the company. Figure 3.1:1 illustrates the relationship between the different constructs in relation to a possible increase or decrease of trust building, and this to question the relevance of organisational trust in influencing the various interactive events.

Figure 3.1:1 Initial Conceptual Framework of Trust Building
3.2. Research Questions

There are many ways how researchers approach examining organisational trust and this section consists of identifying the research questions with the corresponding literature with more details given in Chapters 1 and 2 to show expected relationships between the constructs that could theoretically encourage or refrain organisational trust building as supported by the literature to be tested in an Arab-Western work environment with Western embedded managerial practices (Whitener et al., 1998; Kickul et al., 2005; Dietz and Den Hartog, 2006; Yang and Maxwell, 2011; Maxwell, 2013). The research questions represent the author’s understanding of the reviewed literature in the topic of international management, leadership, communication, culture and organisational trust. This section lists the research questions by the constructs as detailed in Figure 3.1:1 to show the elements targeted for each research question.

3.2.1. Employees’ Perception of Trust: Perceived Trust

Researchers are showing increased interest in exploring organisational trust (Robertson and Athanassiou, 2009; Cullen et al., 2000; Schoorman et al., 2007). Its main characteristics such as fairness, behavioural integrity and openness might be perceived and interpreted differently by employees involved in the process as shown in Figure 3.2:1(Kickul et al., 2005; Brenkert, 1998; Robertson and Athanassiou, 2009). Backed up by the reviewed literature and the pilot study’s outcomes, behavioural integrity and fairness are likely to affect employees’ trust in the upper management, questioning at the same time the mutual trust that could be built as a consequence of their openness. Adapting Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence’s (2012) hypotheses to this research, without neglecting the element of time in this process as shown in Figure 3.2:1, the
following research questions are identified to reveal the importance of the link between mentioned constructs.

**Figure 3.2:1 Perceived Trust Evolving over Time to Build Trust**

- What are the different perceptions of trust, if any, in international organisations operating in a Moroccan work environment?
- To what extent perceived trust affect the process of trust development in this same multi-cultural work environment?

### 3.2.2. Communication and National Culture

#### 3.2.2.1. Communication

According to Lount (2010), trust is defined as the willingness of involved parties to cooperate and coordinate their efforts to reach their expected outcomes. Trust grows over time and in an international environment for instance, international managers and home-based employees learn how to interacting together (Figure 3.2:2) and without communication as Stephens and Rains (2011) pointed out, these repeated interactions will not take place.

In terms of communication and its relation to organisational trust, it is anticipated that managing employees using effective communication would create a trusting relationship
between managers and employees. The interaction of the top management team, middle and low managers is central to effective communication which reflects on how efficiently information circulates between them and therefore relevant to trust building (Raes et al., 2011; Zhou, 2013). Communication may take place face to face, by phone, through written communication and so on, and these channels depend on the environment where it is set. Examples of various channels of communication are cited in Chapter 2 about the Malaysian style and the Chinese and Arab style as explored by Hutchings and Weir (2006) and Abu Bakar and Mustafa (2013). It may be formal such as through scheduled meetings with fixed agendas and protocols, informal through phone calls or spontaneous meetings in the organisation or before meetings (Raes et al., 2011). Therefore, building trust within such environment is largely a matter of actions and interactions between organisational actors.

**Figure 3.2:2 Role of Communication in Building Trust over Time**

![](image)

**3.2.2.2. National Culture**

Analysing the role of national culture in this context will reflect on how fast or slow trust is built between employees and managers over time. There is a particular focus on Hofstede dimensions in relation to employees coming from Western-Arab cultures working in an international environment (these dimensions were defined and discussed
in details in Chapter 2). For instance, Hofstede “masculinity/femininity” dimension identifies individuals in masculine groups as opportunists and assertive where they are more likely to be careful in trusting others because there is a belief that they will be exploited by the person they put their trust on (Goel et al., 2005). Similar to the collectivist values where the more encouraged and recognised employees are, the more valued they will feel which increases the likelihood of building trust. Another example from Hofstede’s dimensions (2001) is how individuals deal with the unknown and in terms of trust, Goel et al. (2005) related individuals with low uncertainty avoidance to the group of people who can accept uncertainty and accept things as they come. Here it shows their ability of dealing with different groups as long as it serves their interest. This classifies them as less likely to build long relationships or build trust quickly than in high uncertainty avoidant individuals who tend to create a secure environment supported by traditions and rules as prevention from the future.

As shown in Figure 3.2:3, this is also related to nationality and how this construct can be significant in building trust. Simons et al. (2007) observed that employees belonging to the same demographic group are more likely to be reticent in dealing with other employees from a different demographic group. Using the same concept, nationality is therefore expected to influence the relationship between managers and their subordinates which consequently affect how trust is perceived by them in an international context. Thus, it is anticipated that Arab employees will be more open with their Arab managers and show more willingness to trust them.
Therefore, the research questions with regards to these two constructs are:

- What are the elements that measure trust in a Moroccan-International work environment?

### 3.2.3. Organisational Structure

The literature did not shed the light on the factors that managers consider in building trust in the case of international companies in the Arab World. The same applies to these companies organisational structure and its impact on organisational trust; where it is assumed that, for instance, centralised (hierarchical) organisations will be less likely to generate trust than in the decentralised (less formal) organisations. This implies the following research question to investigate the impact of organisational structure on organisational trust as shown in Figure 3.2:4:
3.2.4. Time

This framework reflects three patterns related to the national culture: the organisational communication and organisational structure. These patterns identify key research questions to understand employees’ reactions and interpretations of perceived fairness, behavioural integrity and openness at several organisational levels using different communicational channels. Trust takes time to develop especially that all these constructs could increase/decrease over time depending on the outcome of these constructs’ interactions (Holt and DeVore, 2005; Schoorman et al., 2007). Thus, the variable of time is not to be neglected in building these elements given that employees at different organisational levels need time to develop relationship with others for trust to occur (Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence, 2012). Therefore, the construct of time will be linked to all the found constructs in relation to trust as in Figure 3.1:1.
- To what extent organisational trust affect, if applicable, a better use of management practices in this specific setting over time?
- After exploring the process of trust and identifying key foundations, what are the characteristics that define Arab Management Practices in Morocco during this process?

3.2.5. Moderator Variables

In a brief description of the role of mediator and moderator variables and their impact on research’s outcomes, Mackinnon (2011) defined mediators as a mediating element to understand the relationship between two variables X and Y which is usually illustrated as X→Mediator→Y. As for moderators, they could also be representative in terms of the company’s sector of activity, its geographic location, etc. Their role is different in a way that variables during the research period are considered as stable and non-changeable variables such as gender, race, ethnicity, age, education level, etc. These variables, most of the time added as a routine in all studies using surveys and questionnaires, assist the research in exploring relationships within groups and subgroups and this supports the study in various ways. For instance, Sower and Sower (2004) examined the role of demographic moderator variables like gender, age and work experience in validating existing models in cultural and behavioural studies that clearly neglected the importance of these moderators in refining the results and their potential help in the business’ success.

As highlighted by Mackinnon (2011) moderators is used in complex behavioural relations where experience and relationships are different from person to another, the moderators in this case could either help clarify the common aspect in these relations or help extracting differences in a group of individuals. For instance taking Sower and Sower’s (2004) study, moderators were found to affect the relationship between cultural values and ethical behaviour where individuals’ social values are related to the social environment they come from, and the moral values are reflected on the way ethical
behaviours are applied in a cultural group. Moderators in this case link between these values to determine the relationship between culture and ethics.

Moderator variables, which are the participants’ age, gender, position held in the company, educational level, number of years working for the company, the number of years working in the current position and their nationality are expected to influence the antecedents of perceived trust explored in this research (Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence, 2012). Age is a significant moderator in ethics studies where it could show the cultural orientation of individuals from a group of age to another (Sower and Sower, 2004). Work position and length of experience is estimated to influence individuals’ judgment about situations as they relate it to their own experience (Sower and Sower, 2004). Conducting a group analysis, gender in cross cultural studies for instance could clarify the role of both genders in the way they perceive trust. It also determines if there is any significant link between gender and the density of interactions between employees, which in turn will lead to question its relation with trust and so on (Sower and Sower, 2004; Mackinnon et al., 2012).

Therefore, using these moderator variables like age and gender will control the respondent’s age, gender, education and position as well as examine whether the demographic and cultural characteristics are related somehow to the perception of ethics and trust building. Nationality is also a moderating variable that influences the perception of trust and how trust is actually built. Nationality could be expected to influence the relationship between managers and their subordinates which consequently affect how trust is perceived by them in an international context. This anticipates that Arab and precisely Moroccan employees might be more open with their Arab-Moroccan managers and show more willingness to trust them.
3.3. Summary

To sum up, the role of trust is explored in this research within specific organisational structures, examining what international organisations offer to host-country employees to create an atmosphere of confidence and open communication, if applicable; and this to generate the organisation’s success through their employees’ involvement. This will clarify in which ways different dimensions of perceived trust interact and how it influences the implementation of practices within the company. In order to understand these interactions, between these constructs, a clarification of the inter-relations between these and their impact on developing organisational trust over time will be examined taking Morocco as the scope of the research using 5 case studies as detailed in Chapters 4 and 5.

Figure 3.3:1 illustrates the relationship between the different constructs in relation to a possible increase or decrease of trust building in such work environment, to investigate the process of trust building. It is important to highlight that none of the studies reviewed in the literature propose models from a Western-Arab context or by regrouping all the constructs together.
Figure 3.3:1 Proposed Conceptual Framework – Trust building
Chapter Four

Research Methodology
4.1. Introduction

Chapter 1 (Section 1.2) outlines the research problem extracted from the gap in the literature about Arab management practices and trust which have not been addressed rigorously especially in international business. Challenges facing international companies operating in the Arab World have been explored in the literature but not from a trust perspective. According to Hofstede et al. (2010), Arab countries are classified as collectivists where group members share values and consult each other. Thus, whether cultural differences play a role in this, international organisations are considering work ethics to enhance their effectiveness (Bierstaker, 2009). This research focuses mainly on the role trust plays and attempts to provide an empirical view on the challenges these organisations face in Arab countries in terms of managing employees and applying various managerial practices and how are they manifested in day-to-day operations and through what channels.

4.2. Research Aims and Objectives

In order to understand how trust is built and in which way and to what extent organisational trust could affect the management of these international companies and their employees this case, there is a need to explore the role of organisational trust and examine the main factors that affect its perception at different organisational levels in an international context where Western and Arab employees are involved in this interactive process, if applicable. In an empirical attempt, the author examines three dimensions including national culture, organisational structure and communication to investigate management practices from a trust perspective on international businesses in Morocco. The following objectives are then established to achieve the above aims:
Understand the process of building organisational trust through the interaction of main highlighted factors influencing trust building in an international organisation and its importance, if any, in this specific setting.

Investigate on the role of trust in applying international managerial practices and working in a cross-cultural environment targeting international companies operating in Morocco.

The next sections in this chapter will explore some qualitative methodological approaches in relation to the research design and methods with a justification of the methodological choice to answer the research questions.

4.3. What is Research?

Blaxter et al. (2010) believe there is no universal definition of what research is; Axinn and Pearce (2006) defined it as a process using specific methods to collect data and analyse it in order to address a specific phenomenon, while Saunders et al. (2009) provided a simplified definition stating that research is a way to increase knowledge by using a systemic logic to understand a phenomenon in question.

In social science studies, research is classified into two forms: quantitative and qualitative. In management studies, there is an increase interest in combining qualitative and quantitative methods in order to obtain better results and some researchers such as Creswell (2009) acknowledges the importance of mixed methodologies in research providing a clearer and a more complete picture of the phenomenon studied.

There are three defined types of research: exploratory, explanatory and descriptive (Creswell, 2009). The difference between these three types is related to the phenomenon
in question whether it is little known called exploratory - seeking new insights developed into research questions to be tested and analysed more in-depth (Tharenou et al., 2007). The second type is an explanatory research that is already defined but aims to explain its occurrence or lack such as measuring cause and effect relationships between variables (Hesse-Biber, 2010). The descriptive type is about documenting observations about a specific phenomenon already known covering all aspects related to it in a more descriptive manner (Axinn and Pearce, 2006).

4.4. Paradigm of Inquiry

Paradigms of inquiry represent different ideas from several philosophical positions such as positivism, constructivism or realism (Saunders et al., 2009; Figure 4.4:1). Table 4.4:1 shows a summary of the different research philosophies from ontological, epistemological and methodological perspectives. The choice of paradigm of inquiry is mainly related to the researcher’s understanding of reality (ontology) and the knowledge that could be gained from it (epistemology) using compatible methods relevant to the research to answer the research questions (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Mannay and Morgan (2014) also emphasizes on the importance of epistemological consideration in research as it makes the topic under exploration less complicated with better visibility to address the research questions. For instance, taking the ontological aspect of post-positivism, reality exists but not totally understood yet which, to some extent, fits with the context of the research. For qualitative research, it is more appropriate to consider paradigms such as interpretivism, critical theory or grounded theory due to its social nature (Maxwell, 2013).
Table 4.4:1  Summary of Research Philosophies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Positivism</th>
<th>Post-Positivism</th>
<th>Critical Theory</th>
<th>Constructivism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ontology</td>
<td>Reality is real</td>
<td>Reality is real but imperfect</td>
<td>Reality is shaped by social, cultural, economic, political, ethnic and gender forces</td>
<td>Reality is relative, meanings and understandings developed through social experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemology</td>
<td>Objective and findings are true</td>
<td>Objective and findings are probably true</td>
<td>Subjective and findings are value-mediated given that can be known is related to what we know. Our interaction within that specific group subject to investigation influences our knowledge and findings.</td>
<td>Subjective and findings are related to how reality is understood.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Experimental, verify hypotheses using quantitative methods</td>
<td>Experimental, falsify hypotheses using quantitative methods – qualitative methods may be used</td>
<td>Rely on combining methods using observation and interviews questioning the subject through conversation and reflection.</td>
<td>Ethnographic and interpretivist, approached through observation, interviews and existing documentation to construct a meaningful reality.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Guba and Lincoln (1994, 109) and Heron and Reason, (1997)

This research was considered from two different positions, but it was taking the interpretive side more than the post-positivist position for various reasons, backed up from several books about the philosophical and methodological way of approaching research (Bloor and Wood, 2006; Holliday, 2007; Saunders et al., 2009; Maxwell, 2013). When it comes to defining truth through gained knowledge, the author of this research cannot separate herself from the subjectivity of the research (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Moreover, given the nature of the research, it is more about understanding the relationship between defined processes rather than describing dependent and independent variables; moving from why things are happening to what is happening. This also leads to the choice of the interpretive approach which is more inductive than deductive. The interpretivist position is then more relevant in this context as the researcher is more involved in the process bringing her own interpretation and experience to the extracted events and their influence on the social actors subject to this research rather than being independent and objective as in the post-positivism position where it is about testing hypotheses deducing generalisations to challenge laws and rules to falsify these rules (Howell, 2012).
4.5. Qualitative Research Design

Research design, considered as the most critical methodological decision phase in empirical research, constitutes the strategy that is followed by data collection and data analysis addressing issues about whom to study, what to observe, how to collect data and other questions to answer the research questions it addresses (Blaxter et al., 2010). Considering social science for instance, phenomenological researchers are interested in exploring all kind of social aspects such as the human behaviour to shed the light on what represents a gap to clarify it to explore it, explain it and recognise it. However, it is difficult to explain this type of studies using measurable variables (Hancock, 1998). Here where the element of context becomes important as it represents the organisational phenomenon with a concrete capture of the real-world relations as pointed out by Bamberger (2008) in his article about the role of context in management research. This
could be through exploring specific aspects related to a phenomenon in order to explain it and understand the aspects associated to it.

Qualitative research focuses on understanding a new phenomenon not examined yet or that could not be examined using quantitative approaches (Blaxter et al., 2010). It focuses on exploring, describing, comparing human behaviour to clarify people’s actions from a specific context to understand why people react in a certain way (Cheng et al., 2009). The subjectivity element taken from the fact that assumption are based on a contextual understanding using an interpretive approach whereas positivist assumptions lie on objective data-based assumptions which can lead to generalisation (Tan, 2010). Contrarily to qualitative research, qualitative does not propose techniques and concepts that deal with subjectivity. However, this subjectivity could be justified by diverse realities coming from the participants’ perspective rather than the researcher’s input established through a trustworthy collaboration between researcher and participants to explore meanings. It is clearly reflected through shared feelings, experiences and thoughts. This reflection of others’ realities is approached in a way to gain deeper understanding of what is happening describing the phenomenon in question and what is people’s perception in this specific context.

4.6. Proposed Research Design

According to Maxwell (2009), designing a qualitative research takes in consideration goals which constitute elements leading to this research justifying its importance exploring the gaps and clarifying how the results will fill in these gaps. Research questions are composed of questions interlinked to help the researcher explore the phenomenon to understand it better. The conceptual framework is the initial plan set by the researcher using theories, personal knowledge and experience, and existing literature
to support the phenomenon under research. Moving from what did the researcher think to what is actually happening using methods and techniques to collect data and analyse it. Results then need to be validated to avoid any wrong conclusions. The core element in this model for any qualitative research is asking the right questions (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2008). As shown in Figure 4.6:1, components are interconnected and each component addresses specific parts in the research proposing a flexible structure creating coherent relationships. Even research questions evolve over time during research where the researcher’s way of thinking develops, even the way collected data like when participants insist about some specific aspects related to the phenomenon in question which takes the researcher to reconsider research questions from a deeper and more narrowed angle like when you consider one main aspect in particular.

**Figure 4.6:1 An Interactive Model of Research Design**

![Interactive Model of Research Design](source: Maxwell (2013))

### 4.7. Methodology in Research Design

According to Hesse-Biber (2010), research methodology refers to the overall process from the theoretical stage to data analysis and grounded theory will be explored. Justifications for choosing it is provided accordingly in this section.
Given the new aspect of trust explored in this research and using observation, semi-structured interviews and archival documents on a small-scale sample provide the researcher with an effective base of analysis within and beyond the subject (Mannay and Morgan, 2014). However, any personal involvement of the researcher through judgment or interpretations could be misleading (Koro-Ljungberg, 2004).

Grounded theory is considered because it is revealed to be important in generating explanations for behavioural phenomena in international qualitative studies. From the definition, grounded theory emerges from extracting participants’ interpretations and meanings from the analysed data collected using a set of methods to generate a theory (Douglas, 2003; Tan, 2010). In the 1960’s, Glaser and Strauss originally started with grounded theory for social studies with distinct approaches where, oppositely to Strauss and Corbin who are coming with a more structured approach stressing on conditions, context and the different interactions during the coding and analysis process; Glaser emphasises on the element of creativity in research without the need of following strict methodological procedures (Douglas, 2003; Tan, 2010; O’Connor et al., 2008; Charmaz, 2014). Glaser also brings up the emerging inconsistencies from an organisation by comparing all the issues and differences identified in the process whereas Strauss and Corbin are providing a more descriptive way to approach the phenomenon in depth during the coding and analysis (Douglas, 2003; Tan, 2010). Glaser and Strauss’s different approaches engaged more published research suggesting a methodological development of grounded theory moving from a quantitative to a more qualitative approach. That was the case of Goulding (1998) who reviewed grounded theory from an interpretivist perspective. Her paper mainly focuses on customer behaviour and how marketing
publications interpreted Glaser and Strauss’s work in developing grounded theory where the use of such a methodology from an interpretivist position was excluded due to the fact that grounded theory was mainly related to positivist approaches and even O’Connor et al. (2008) supported this point where grounded theory does not allow any interpretive attempt to build knowledge. Even though differences between grounded theory and phenomenological methodologies consist in how data and literature are used to generate theory but they still provide more insight approaching the phenomenon in question where interpretivists to some extent understand a phenomenon in a context and grounded theorists go to create a theoretical structure.

Reviewing the use of grounded theory globally with more focus on international researchers and the way they employ this methodology within their context, Charmaz (2014) questioned the cultural constraints that could affect its application due to the concern of participants’ values and cultural rules that could interfere with the rules of data collection for this approach such as the use of recordings or notes could be unacceptable in some social groups. Taking the case of Douglas (2003) for instance, raising cultural differences, in a review of the literature on grounded theories in qualitative methodologies in management, concluded that grounded theories are significant in understanding the development in management. Following a similar methodological approach as Charmaz (2014), O’Connor et al. (2008), in another attempt to clarify the use of grounded theory and its limitations using a sample of dissertations that applied this methodology done from an interpretive perspective, emphasize on the importance of standards to assess grounded theory to avoid any confusion as stated earlier by other researchers (Tan, 2010; Koro-Ljungberg, 2004; Goulding, 1998). O’Connor et al. (2008) go beyond that and identified two sets of standard assessments they claim to be useful derived from the
positivist school with objective thoughts and assumptions and the interpretivist school with subjective assumptions which, if applied properly, will improve knowledge building.

4.8. Qualitative Research Methods

First of all, it is important to differentiate between methodology and methods and taking Tan’s simplified definition of these two terms, methodology represents a way of thinking about reality subject of the study and method is a set of techniques and tools used to gather data to help analyse and understand this social reality in question (Tan, 2010). Hancock (1998) focused mainly on the field of primary health care examining the role of research and mainly qualitative development in the health care sector. But following his philosophical thinking, he started his paper with a general introduction of qualitative research with a simplified explanation of the importance of qualitative methodology in research with clear methods to collect and analyse data as a fundamental way to understand a phenomenon related to a given social setting. Other researchers such as Elci (2007) also expanded the use of techniques and methods to a new direction recently accepted in global international business called dynamic management techniques allowing an open thinking approach. This dynamic thinking could be incorporated for instance in identifying and creating a new theory than testing existing ones. He also showed the importance of linking international business research through the right methods with global management strategies. One of the challenges facing researchers is selecting the right methodology and successfully applying it within the research context and this happens only if the researcher understands the characteristics of this methodology and properly applies it in terms of gathering the right data collection, answering research questions without forgetting the reliability and validity elements (See section 4.8.5 Validity and Reliability) to be tested using appropriate techniques (Creswell, 2009).
Back to the methods used and being more specific about the type of data gathered, data in qualitative research is composed of anything you see through observation or hear during interviews including how it was said and the conditions of which it was communicated including any documents received while conducting the research given their importance (Lauring and Klitmoller, 2015). Even informal data during informal meetings, conversation with employees and observations are useful so interviews are not the only tool to rely on in qualitative research (Maxwell, 2013). To ensure honest data in qualitative research, Wadembere (2012) recommended some tactics during the data collection. As an example of these tactics, questions could be iterated and rephrased seeking for more details about a point that was raised by the interviewee so that in case there is any false information detected, it could be reconsidered. Another important point not to forget in qualitative data collection is protecting participants’ rights where all approaches considered during this process is dealt with in an ethical manner respecting privacy and participants’ confidentiality.

Bearing in mind that qualitative methods usually take time to interact with people considering their availability (Hancock, 1998), it provides deep insight on the research’s subject. Moreover, time should be used wisely for consistent result and accurate information. For this research, a combination of methods for data collection is considered as a very helpful used in qualitative research to develop research practices (Wadembere, 2012; Cheng et al., 2009). Next sections of this chapter will review and explain reasons behind choosing a pilot study approach, interviews, case studies and observation as methods to answer the research questions.
4.8.1. Pilot Study

4.8.1.1. Definition

Pilot study is a useful approach to avoid errors or inaccurate information resulted from wrong or mistaken measurements (Creswell, 2009). Additionally, it is a good approach to measure the reliability of the research. Even though they are not well used in qualitative research, in an exploratory research, pilot studies could be very useful tools that help in testing ideas gathered from the initial literature and methods to determine the implication of such choices in an inductive way. This could help in developing a better understanding of theories and practices employed by participants in the chosen setting subject of the research (Maxwell, 2013; Surangi, 2016). Methodologically speaking, pilot study represents a testing tool “to pilot and confirm the suitability and appropriateness of collected data as well as to ensure that the requirements of pre-selected research methods are met” as explained by Reiter et al. (2011) in their paper about research method selection in a qualitative interpretivist research.

4.8.1.2. Justification and Process of Pilot Study

The pilot study was run at the first stage of research in which 11 interviews were conducted to provide the researcher more clarifications to what aspects among a list of patterns found in the literature to focus on, within a specific context representing international companies in Morocco as the scope of the research. The other reason behind this choice was to narrow down the research questions using the key aspects found to be among the many elements highlighted in the literature. From a methodological perspective, conducting a pilot study at an early stage of the research was a good training tool to learn how to interview, constantly observe and analyse and compare constructs during the coding stage. It also helped identify the main methodological challenges that might arise during data collection within a Moroccan-international sample setting.
The pilot study started with the help of the Moroccan Embassy of Morocco in London where the author of this research could set few contacts with Moroccan institutions. While interviewing key decision makers in these institutions, more contacts were made using various informants introduced in the process to facilitate the data collection at this phase. Interviews were conducted with several managers working in international large companies located in Morocco from different industries and sectors (See Appendix 5). The outcomes of these interviews helped the researcher to refine the research area to determine more specific items to constitute the items of the questionnaire (Tharenou et al., 2007). During these interviews, key challenges were exposed by international companies in Morocco especially when implementing management practices (See Appendix 6). Merging the results from the pilot study with the issues reviewed in the literature, a clearer picture showed the element of trust as one of the main aspects to consider in such Moroccan-international partnerships.

Once the literature review phase was completed, the second stage of data collection started. Methods used in the second and final phase targeted companies as case studies (See Appendix 2) to conduct in-depth interviews with various participating international companies in Morocco with a total of five case studies from different sectors. These methods will be discussed in next sections.

4.8.2. Interview

Interviews is a common method used in qualitative research offering more behavioural insights that could be witnessed in a specific setting or generalised to the company’s culture (Mannay and Morgan, 2014). Besides the flexibility proposed to participants in terms of going for direct or phone interviews, face to face interactions, conducted in a
more engaging manner, remains the best option. The reason behind it is that it helps in reducing the misunderstandings that could occur during the interview (Lietz et al., 2006). Interviews were defined by Axinn and Pearce (2006) as a tool to directly observe behaviours and attitudes, share others’ perspective and experience about a specific topic and get more information and insights about the phenomenon in question. In other words, considering another definition by Guba and Lincoln (1994), interviews are a tool seeking to clarify the research questions through the analysis of the collected data especially that in qualitative data, the human behaviour can provide rich insight to answer the research questions.

In qualitative research, one of the main components in qualitative methods as stated by Maxwell (2013) is about established research relationships which include participants and gatekeepers, who represent usually informants who facilitate the process of data collection till completion, as main actors involved in the research. The establishment of these relationships determines their level of interaction during data collection as it gives the researcher access to a specific setting starting from the first online contact with the informant to having face to face interviews with participants and gathering information in an ethical manner. In some cultural backgrounds, interviewees could be scared of the consequences that could happen if they talk freely especially if the session is recorded.

4.8.2.1. Types of Interviews

A simplified definition of the three types of interviews is provided by Tharenou et al. (2007) from unstructured, semi-structured to structured interviews. Starting from the first type where a flow of questions is asked spontaneously by the researcher about the research questions without any preparation or a structure going into an in-depth discussion of few topics guided through by the participant’s previous responses. On the
opposite side, structured interviews consist of a list of prepared questions asked by the researcher directing the flow of the conversation to the points highlighted in the questions. It also consists of dealing with all participants the same way following the same questions with a precise structure like in questionnaires. The last type which comes in between the two others is a more focused interview type which involves open-ended questions related to the elements covered in the research. In this case, the interviewer and the participants are given the opportunity to explore some topics in details. It also offers the flexibility for the interviewer to rephrase questions to elaborate on the interviewee’s answers or simplify it for them to keep the conversation as friendly and informal as possible. Hancock (1998) regrouped these three types from the ones that fit more qualitative research and what is the best type for quantitative one. Focusing only on the first category, qualitative interviews are better employed if they are semi-structured or unstructured because if it is too tight and structured, the phenomenon in question would not be well explored.

To avoid any risk of researcher bias, a triangulation will help validating the information collected by using other methods such as theory to back up the results and explain the phenomenon more in depth and through other methods such as observation as details in the next sub-section (Creswell, 2009).

4.8.3. Supporting Methods

4.8.3.1. Case Studies

Case studies show complex interactions between management practices coming from some countries and applied in others. It could reflect for example reactions from the impact of these interactions while transferring Western practices in Arab countries. This exchange is a useful strategy to access information like about Western and Arab practices using case studies allowing a more descriptive analysis (Creswell, 2009; Tharenou et al.,
Blaxter et al. (2010) also emphasized the importance of case studies using evidence such as characteristics of individuals who were observed, groups or organisations that were participating in the case study as part of the phenomenon subject of study. These elements could strengthen the research by analysing the specific phenomenon to allow a deeper understanding of it and establishes generalisation to a wider population with same characteristics.

4.8.3.2. Observation

New and complex phenomena are better explained using combined methods (Cheng et al., 2009). In qualitative research, valuable information is not only collected through direct interactions with participants. Observation is usually useful during the process of interviews given it is an opportunity for the researcher to observe participants’ daily work and this could generate better insight and shed the light on current social and cultural practices (Mannay and Morgan, 2014).

Observation involves people but also the environment where they are as it could give indications on the nature of the work environment and relationship conditions. For instance, to explore how non-verbal communication is initiated or identified, to provide information about people in a specific work setting, belonging to a certain geographical area with a specific educational level, observation could be a key element to describe these aspects and broaden our understanding of the phenomenon in question (Lauring and Klitmoller, 2015). Observation can be recorded in making notes or using memos describing interesting aspects perceived by the researcher about people or situations that occurred during data collection. There are risks that could happen during observation such as missing out an important event while writing about an observed action or even focusing on a specific event and neglect others that could be more relevant (Hult et al., 2008). Even
with these limitations, observation is a supportive tool in qualitative methods that helps acknowledging matters that happen at the time of conducting interviews. Hancock (1998) recommend to back up visual observation with written archives and materials that constitute a good qualitative support to learn more about the organisation and their vision and it is represented through case studies including code of conduct, annual reports, etc.

4.8.4. Validity and Reliability

4.8.4.1. Definition

Defining reliability and validity, they are concepts that are more common in quantitative studies that could be seen by positivists as objective reality controlled by measurable facts using rules and standardised measurements to ensure the validity of the results as accurate as possible to understand the phenomenon whereas reliability represents the element of consistency of the results over time and where it is replicable for the overall studied population (Golafshani, 2003). Arguably in qualitative research and as examined by Morse et al. (2002), the purpose of handling threats to validity and reliability is different as it implies an opportunity for learning where reliability is a way to test the quality of information to understand the phenomenon better. Validity is another concept generating trustworthiness and confidence in confirming the research results.

Hesse-Biber (2010) explained that using many methods in the same research known as method triangulation or data triangulation using a combination of sources, methods and theories and compare case studies with others from the literature, strengthens the results to develop a better understanding of the phenomenon subject to the research. These measurements are used to validate research through various strategies set to find a meaning to the research’s findings (Lietz et al., 2006). In addition to the multiple methods concept encouraged in qualitative research, descriptive validity could be a significant
approach, eliminating one of the threats during data collection, recording the interviews and this to increase the credibility of data through a profound description (Wadembere, 2012; Lauring and Klitmoller, 2015). Using the reliability and validity test approach, most researchers conduct pilot studies to test their methods during their research to guide them through on the right track (Axinn and Pearce, 2006).

Considering Table 4.8:1 where validity and reliability tests are to be conducted for this phase of the qualitative research credibility could be gained by managing bias issues in qualitative research, using external and internal validity to assess the credibility of the research (Wadembere, 2012; Lietz et al., 2006). Sower and Sower (2004) defined external validity by the extent of generalisation to population that could result from the sample of the research especially with the threat it could represent when assuming a sample from a country to be generalised to the whole population of that country or other countries with similar cultural, geographic, social or economic aspects. Firstly, to strongly validate the research findings and be able to generalise properly, the author is using external validity through epistemological reasoning to reveal what can be known from what was found either from the literature or the data analysis. This is supported by theories, interpreting and stating other similar cases and observing how same symptoms were tackled and resolved relying on an objective interpretation of the analysis (Riege, 2003). Secondly, using the right procedures make a difference to the research final findings, like when internal validity is considered (Cheng et al., 2009). It means that participants are involved in the validation process, called respondent validation, where transcribed and translated interviews in addition to the analysis findings are reviewed and discussed with them to challenge the results and their feedback and comments could represent an important input in the final model (Lietz et al., 2006).
4.8.4.2. Validity Checks

Validity is also an important base for generalisation in terms of either transferring what might then be proven in one country to another or providing a stronger insight from a small sample to the whole population. For instance, instead of counting on standard approaches for measurements (Tharenou et al., 2007) to support this generalisation, one of the ways to validate the research’s findings is through validity checks to avoid any misinterpretation of the results answering certain cultural or managerial research questions.

Lietz et al. (2006) introduced the peer briefing check which could be another technique to minimise bias and to reach a deeper understanding of the phenomena in question through discussion with peers such as engaging with the supervision team during the continuous meetings, discussing with peers and other academics during presentations in workshops and conferences. Without forgetting the role that observation plays in this process, triangulation by observation is a useful tool for validity checks to increase research credibility (Lietz et al., 2006). Another example to avoid respondents’ bias is when the researcher assures participants’ anonymity and confidentiality so that

Table 4.8:1 Comparison of validity and reliability in qualitative research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Validity</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>Credibility</td>
<td>Consistency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Neutrality</td>
<td>Dependability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External</td>
<td>Confirmability</td>
<td>Applicability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Transferability</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

participants answer questions as honestly as possible knowing that there is no wrong or right answer (Leung et al., 2005).

4.9. Conducting Research in Morocco

In this research, there is a focus on how organisational trust is perceived within employees from several organisational levels in an international organisation operating in Morocco and how organisational trust could be built by mainly examining the relationship between top managers, middle managers and their subordinates and by exploring trust in relation to these three organisational levels in an international context. The research examines three dimensions including national culture, organisational structure and communication to investigate management practices from a trust perspective on international businesses in Morocco. The main research questions are formulated in Chapter 3.

Tung (2008)’s paper, in an attempt to compare the evolution of management theories and paradigms highlighted two main limitations in international management and work values worldwide. The first limitation is about the general assumption of cultural similarities across countries leading to the second limitation assuming the stability of culture over time. To compete globally with a culturally diverse workforce, these developments push into reconsidering these assumptions given that culture does gradually change hence should be taken into account in order to understand specific cross-cultural interactions in international business. In a similar context as discussed by Bello and Kostova (2012), it was pointed out that there is a need to adopt a “multiple-cultures perspective” to better understand international business viewing culture as a construct composed of sub-cultures and multi-levels. Therefore, to build a methodological concept, moving from multi-layers complex constructs to multiple disciplines in international business, the author of this research attempts then to approach the topic by adopting a multilevel behaviour-related
form to examine values and reactions not only from a cultural perspective but other aspects that influence managerial actions and practices leading to trust building, if applicable, in international companies operating in Morocco reflecting the methodological choices, subject to this chapter.

The decision behind choosing Morocco as a scope of this particular research where five case studies are taking place was for many reasons. Firstly, the author of the research is Moroccan and she can use her own cultural values to help in interpreting findings which according to Marschan-Piekkari and Welch (2004) could be a good approach in cross-cultural studies in terms of better quality research. Saying that, in qualitative research, using the researcher’s identity and background could be considered to some extent as bias. However, it could be a strong element to build on the author’s research given the author is the one interpreting data based on their own experience as a person and as a researcher involving “the researcher’s technical knowledge, research background and personal experiences”. The main condition for its success is when high outcomes are produced by avoiding any bias that might influence the research’s results being directly engaged with participants while staying objective.

Given its importance in terms of natural and human resources, geographic and political advantages, The Arab World is attracting more researchers to explore how business is done in the Arab region. For example, Khakhar and Rammal (2013) addressed one of the socio-economic and cultural aspects influencing management strategies in relation to Arab and non-Arab negotiation approaches and the authors focused on a snowballing sample in Lebanon. Another reason for choosing Morocco scope of this research, as an African country, is its strategic location linking the Arab World and Europe. Not to forget the economic changes occurring in the Arab World since the Arab Spring, Morocco is
one of the few countries that was not directly affected by the global economic crisis or by the political changes in the Arab region. As explored more in depth in Chapter 1 about Morocco, the question about how Arab Morocco is was addressed by several researchers such as Obeidat et al. (2012) and Ali and Wahabi (1995) who considered different angles especially Morocco’s location given its closeness to Europe taking more from the French and Spanish colonies than from the Middle Eastern culture. Morocco with its Arab, European and African influences given its location and Hofstede (1983) in his cultural classification is still putting Morocco and all Arab countries as one group. Morocco shows a mixture of Arab and Western values which differentiate it from other Arab countries such as the Middle East if considered from their different historical and linguistic angles (Forster and Fenwick, 2015).

Introducing the next section, it is important to clarify that choosing a country like Morocco for data collection is a challenging step in international business research beside its openness to the World but like most Arab countries and as explained in Chapter 1 (See 1.3 Arab Management), information sharing is still restricted by cultural norms and ideologies embedded in their interactions and ways they approach research and researchers (WorldBank, 2014; Hult et al., 2008).

### 4.10. Methodology Chosen for this Research

In this spirit, it is interesting to challenge some approaches used in quantitative research like the case of Peterson et al. ’s paper (2012) where they outline the main methodological issues in quantitative international business research such as criteria and size of the sample used. They also proposed new methodological considerations to control these issues such as using multi-levels models. For instance, these models consider multiple clusters in a given nation or compare opportunities such as regional level or sectorial level
in that nation. Quantitative approaches should be considered in qualitative research for a better contribution to the theory development in international business. Even Bello and Kostova (2012) discussed this point in their editorial review paper listing the main weaknesses in international business exploring different management practices from an intra-organisational angle where values and beliefs are challenged raising a complex but very rich topic for research from a theoretical consideration. Hence, Peterson et al.’s methodological approach is applied in this qualitative research which involves defining trust in an international work environment at multi-organisational levels considering intra-organisational opportunities like exploring relationships and interactions in international companies from different sectors and located in different regions.

In the case of this research, it is purely qualitative of nature because the elements representing qualitative research are more appropriate to the setting of the research as there is more focus on the meaning of activities to people involved in these activities or events, the impact of the social and physical context on these activities and the processes by which these activities and their outcomes occurred to explore the phenomenon more in-depth (Cleary et al., 2014). It is also partially taken from the differentiation between qualitative and quantitative methods provided by Wadembere (2012) that they are philosophically distinguished like when talking about qualitative, it has subjective views of reality and its philosophical positions are more phenomenological than positivist with its main purpose to explore in order to understand the phenomenon in question. Due to the exploratory nature of this research to understand Arab management practices through trust building in an international work environment, qualitative methodology was the right choice to answer the research questions offering a deep understand of such a complex phenomenon.
By exploring the interactions between employees in an international organisation operating in an Arab country to examine the relationships between actors in this work environment leads to an understanding of a phenomenon subject of study in this specific context. Therefore, adapting grounded theory within cultural contexts could raise the point of adapting grounded theory to methodological settings using a mixture of methods considered by the author of this research. Again, this mixture seems to be suitable to this research, which engenders a deep understanding with a clear examination of patterns interpreting relations in a local and global context (Cheng et al., 2009). Considering Glaser and Strauss approaches that have been discussed earlier in this chapter, the way the author of this research approached the phenomenon subject of exploration from an interpretive perspective, is using Glaser’s method where the management team and decision makers are involved during the pilot study where a list of issues extracted from the literature were raised to inquire the relevant element to be the subject of identification then through Strauss and Corbin’s method, where the author of the research focused on trust in a very specific context using observation, interviews through notes, recordings and transcriptions and archival data to code, analyse and interpret the phenomenon in question within 5 case studies. Therefore, this research follows an in-depth interpretive approach that explores and details practices through observation during the time of the interviews. The observation tool used constitutes a very rich element in this research in addition to making brief notes about participants’ behaviour during the day of the interview with their colleagues, body language before, during and after the interview and reactions of individuals in their work environment and interactions with their colleagues. Moreover, the grounded theory aspect, rather than developing a theory, is used to help in refining our knowledge about this topic through proposing an appropriate sampling after refining questions. This happened at an early stage of the research through identifying the
relevant aspect among various issues discussed in the literature during a pilot study adding more value to the quality of the research (Tan, 2010).

In order to choose the right methods to gather the appropriate data, Saunders et al. (2009) classify common research strategies into three types: case studies for exploratory research, surveys for the descriptive type and experiments for explanatory cases. The main type in this case is exploratory as it examines new issues that have been already discussed in previous research and other contexts different from the Arab context. However, a combination of the three types is considered as for instance the exploratory stage was first used during the pilot study using interviews seeking more clarifications from the field to direct the researcher in gathering more information to understand the right phenomenon to be focused on among a list of patterns highlighted in the literature (Bloor and Wood, 2006). The second descriptive interpretive stage was supported by semi-structured interviews methods to explore the research questions more in depth (Maxwell, 2013). Finally, a final explorative attempt took place while conducting the final semi-structured interview to answer the research questions.

4.11. Methodological Procedure Followed in this Research

4.11.1. Ethical Approval

Research is not about using data randomly; there is an ethical aspect that should be considered. Creswell (2009) highlighted the importance of ethics in research building norms and standards to be respected while undertaking research. Accordingly, the University of Plymouth is supporting researchers by providing assistance through their faculty Research Ethical Approval Committee (FREAC). The Ethical Approval of Research is a procedure the researcher should apply for before conducting the research methodology and involving participants in the research. It is important to ensure an honest
and open environment to conduct the research successfully and also ensure the protection of participants’ rights during interviews where the researcher agrees and commit to respect all conditions such as informing in written all participants about the purpose and the application of the research, informing the top management participants in advance about the aim, scope and nature of the research before arranging the interviews.

The author of this research followed the same procedure submitting an ethical application form that after consideration; was approved by the committee. There was a request to record interviews following the ethical approval form agreed by Plymouth University. Permission was also granted by most interviewees for voice recording during interviews. Finally, it was clearly mentioned that participants are not receiving any financial incentives to take part of this research but will be on a voluntary basis. The research was then carried out in a transparent manner during the fieldwork and through all stages of research following the company’s practices and respecting the university code of conduct and ethics. As an example of protecting participants’ confidentiality, their names were coded in two digits with a capital letter representing the company and the number representing the participant interviewed within that company.

4.11.2. Source of Data

Considering Khetab’s (2014) methodological choice using an explorative qualitative approach exploring innovative practices used by Moroccan entrepreneurial companies, 9 companies from different sectors and industries participated with 9 semi-structured interviews. They were questioned about their innovative approaches when considering new projects and business ideas with other markets to compare the Moroccan practices with the Western ones. Due to lack of documented information for academic purposes about Morocco and for confidentiality and availability reasons, it is not easy to access
information when it comes to research (Khetab, 2014). A concrete example was discussed in Chapter 1 about Tarradell’s work (2004) where she conducted a case study about Morocco using secondary data from various sources such as the internet and from the literature. The primary data was supported by interviews with decision makers from governmental institutions, whenever it was possible with the help of informants. This is to admit that data collection would not have been successful without the help of key informants who help the author of this research with in-depth information and trusted her by being a reliable source on the topic that attracted their interest.

Methods used for this research from interviews, case studies and observation when applicable. Interviews were the first method chosen by the researcher to gather data at an early stage of the research to provide more explanations and direct the progress of the research through the pilot study. For example, most of the companies that participated in the interviews found notice boards as a valuable source of sharing information within employees in the company. For research purposes, observing what is written in these boards strengthen collected data and develop a better understanding of the different communication channels applied by these companies (Hancock, 1998).

4.11.3. Sampling

4.11.3.1. Sample Types

In their book about qualitative data, Miles and Huberman (1994) stated the use of different typologies of sampling for different purpose in qualitative research. Among these techniques comes the snowball or chain sampling where involved participants introduce other participants, reliable and more knowledgeable, who could be relevant to the research providing rich information. This was also employed on Konanahalli et al.’s (2012) cross-cultural article about British expatriates’ adjustment in the Middle East. It
is not only limited to qualitative research as this type of sampling was recommended by Peterson et al.’s (2012) work for quantitative studies to help elaborating better models and understanding new perspectives.

Qualitative sampling should be more purposeful (such snowballing) than random due to the nature of the qualitative approach dealing with social processes with coherent meanings which the random approach doesn’t offer. Random sampling is more used in quantitative research as it follows an objective approach that systematically reduces threats and avoids any bias (Putten, 2006). As defined by Beauchemin and Gonzalez-Ferrer (2011), the difference between random and chain samples is that initial selected participants will help the researcher to reach more participants from the targeted population called snowballing whereas the random representation of participants occurs by a random selection.

4.11.3.2. Sample Size

Quantitative research is used to analyse the relationship between different variables where data is considered relatively small among a large number of subjects (Axinn and Pearce, 2006). In the other hand, Tharenou et al. (2007) associated qualitative research to analysing large data in terms of its richness from only small number of subjects to examine attitudes and opinion. Wadembere (2012) emphasized on the fact that as long as the research sample is using the right techniques to answer the research questions, the size does not really matter. Whereas Miles and Huberman (1994), who discussed about the size of samples in qualitative research, pointed out that working with a small number of people contextualise the phenomenon under research more in depth. However, qualitative research is sometimes criticised not for its content but for the small number of interviews it encounter especially that there is an emphasis on the importance of
generating a larger sample for a successful research. The sample size then could lead the research not to be generalizable because of these methodological criticisms (Ellis, 2010). The size of the sample usually is constrained by the research length, time allocated for data collection and financial considerations (Mackinnon et al., 2012).

4.11.3.3. Sample Selection

The aim of this research is to explore the role of trust in a cross cultural work environment and this involves participants with specific characteristics to take part in the research sharing their own understanding of trust. Mackinnon et al. (2012) emphasize the importance of selecting a sample relevant the research to answer the research questions. Small size samples represented with 30 interviews in this case still enrich our understanding of the phenomenon in Morocco where analysed data brought rich insight to the research.

The sample of companies approached of the beginning of the research was chosen randomly. Then, given this random approach could not be successful in some emerging countries due to cultural interferences; then the snowball sampling was more effective which increased the likelihood of locating the right population for this research (Neelankavil, 2007). The targeted sample was mainly characterised as large international companies using Western management practices, implemented in Morocco and from any sector to keep the choice of this research sample various and wide. Approaching government Moroccan institutions helped in the selection of the sample which was chosen from several regions in Morocco such as Casablanca, Tangier and Kenitra where Multinationals are located in industrial zones. These zones, known as the most concentrated areas where multinationals operate, are one of the government’s development plans to promote for several sectors in various regions well distributed in
Morocco as a new strategy to geographically expand the country's economic growth (CIA, 2013; Ministry of Economy and Finance, 2013a, 2013b). Arguably, Morocco could be considered as a case study by itself but this could be misleading as in understanding the methodological approach chosen in this research. Morocco is mainly the scope of the current research given it is an Arab country and all asked questions are particularly related to practices in Arab management. Then from this and to narrow the research itself and explore it deeply from one angle, a simple approach was considered by selecting a sample from the wider Moroccan population in terms of the five participant companies, called case studies to answer the research questions and based on theory and empirical research, general conclusions will be generated (Maxwell, 2013; Bloor and Wood, 2006) from the sample to relate it to the wider Moroccan population.

Selecting large international companies and from a variety of industries and sectors was kept open to reach as many participants as possible. The author also found it interesting and meaningful to focus on various regions in Morocco rather than choosing one. It is because it will enrich the analysis and also it could give relevant cultural or behavioural indications about a region that could complement the country-level to understand specific characteristics (Chang et al., 2010) such as to explain the trust building process in a multinational work setting in Morocco by focusing on various regions. Networking is very important (Hofstede, 1983) and by contacting the Moroccan Embassy in London also arranging a meeting with the Minister of Industry, Trade and New Technologies of Morocco who kindly supported the idea of this research, as well as using social media helped the researcher make initial contacts.
4.11.3.4. Initial Contact

For this research, the data collection was initiated with reviewing secondary data primarily to get a grounding to prepare for the interviews during the pilot study phase. Information collected included the structure of the company and the way in which it operates in Morocco. Using selective sampling as defined by Tan (2010), the researcher chose participants and decided in advance about where data collection will take place and who will be involved in it. Due to the nature of the topic and the type of the companies involved in the research sample, a selective sampling was not appropriate as the researcher even by planning and arranging the time and companies for the data collection, different circumstances did not allow it especially in terms of participants’ availability and research time frame (Tan, 2010). The sampling applied at the beginning was useful at the first stage of the data collection as it consisted of participants who were willing to take part in the study and who were interested in the topic. A list of international companies operating in Morocco was provided by various parties such as the American Chamber of Commerce in Morocco, the British Embassy in Morocco, the Moroccan Embassy in the USA and the UK. Then electronic mails were sent to make a first contact. Unfortunately this approach was not successful during data collection for the interview phase leading the author of this research to follow another sampling technique using the snowballing sample to conduct interviews.

Therefore, the choice of the sample and its selection followed a snowballing approach with a small sample, a total of 30 interviewees using in-depth interviews, relevant data sources such as documents provided by participant companies and observation (Holliday, 2007). These aspects constitute an effective approach for better quality data collection within the proposed sample.
Then during the formal interview phase, the environment during the interviews was friendly and informal so that participants feel involved and engaged. By providing such a flexible environment, they will answer questions freely without feeling scared or restricted. For instance, the author of the research accepted two interviews to be returned in written rather than conducting a direct interview whereas all the other participants were more enthusiastic about undertaking face to face interviews to be more interactive with the researcher and most of the time to satisfy their curiosity about the research and researcher. Participation in this research was following an ethical form where participants were free to withdraw or amend their participation and most of them genuinely accepted to validate the interviews once transcribed, offered their help to also take part in the analysis validation if needed. All these aspects show their willingness to be involved favourably in this research given the interest they showed to the topic.

The purpose of the research and what the researcher is doing with collected data has been clearly explained to participants and anticipated concerns were answered and addressed to prepare the right environment for the analysis interpreting people, events and activities in their natural setting with suitable qualitative techniques and on the right time (Bloor and Wood, 2006). Using the right type of interviews was important to facilitate this.

4.11.3.5. Choice of Interview Type: Justification

The structure of the questions and themes of semi-structured interviews increase the likelihood of revealing honest answers with concrete examples and this allows creating meaningful data that could not be accessible using other ways. This ensures that all relevant points are covered and this is considered helpful for several reasons such as comparing individual answers at the same organisational level and groups from different levels. Therefore, semi-structured interviews was the right choice for this research
because it is a more flexible method that combines the two other types allowing more information to be gathered with a structuration that helps during the analysis. In this case, semi-structured face to face interviews are conducted targeting top managers, middle managers and subordinates. A brief introduction about the purpose of the research was given to participants at the beginning of the meeting with main sections to be considered to provide them with enough information and guide them on the element of discussion. The structure of the interview is very simple to encourage participants to explore the subject more in-depth (See copy of the interview questions - Appendix 8, p R).

4.11.4. Interviews Data

81 international companies were contacted using emails or online forms through their global websites (See Appendix 1, p.: B). Communication at that stage was mainly using electronic correspondence and phone calls. For the companies who kindly accepted to take part in this research (See Appendix 2, p.: G), communication was through various channels but mainly emails and where few of them preferred phone conversations to discuss further the research topic. Once phone numbers were exchanged, face to face interviews were arranged unless when circumstances (long distance, cost, etc.) obliged participants or the researcher to undertake the interviews using phone, Viber or Skype calls which happened only once as requested by the participant. As a researcher coming from the same cultural background, knowledge used to truly understand the phenomena subject to this research was objectively applied in terms of language used by participants to express themselves and also from a cultural perspective to understand where they are coming from to objectively interpret their meanings and it is more a benefit than a disadvantage (Holden and Michailova, 2014).
Unless it was not accepted by the interviewee, the interviewer recorded the interview especially that it is the best option so that instead of taking notes, the researcher will focus more with the participant and create an engaging environment listening and interacting with what is said. Moreover, when the whole interview is taped, the analysis becomes more complete than when the author takes notes (Hancock, 1998). For instance, during the interview phase, one participant refused to be recorded and this led to note taking which increase the risk of response bias given that the researcher makes notes of the relevant information that is perceived by the researcher as so and this could neglect other interesting comments mentioned by the interviewee. Another example was the case of another participant who requested to complete the interview questions by written after a long, in-depth and more open discussion on the phone and this because of availability, working hours and location reasons. Additionally, another type of interviews was conducted using the online skype interviews and a software called “Skype recorder” was used to auto record all the researcher’s skype interviews by keeping a track ID referring to the interviewee so all the recorded tapes are assigned an ID and only the researcher knows who each tape belongs to. Again, another recording tool was used during the face to face interviews, called the “Microsoft sound recorder” installed in the author’s laptop which offered a better quality recording. A total of messages exchanged electronically between all these companies from 08/04/2014 to 29/06/2014 are 602 electronic mails (See Appendix 3, p.: H).

4.12. Qualitative Data Transcription

Transcribing qualitative data is not a matter of writing word by word what was said but the tone and the way it was said is important as well. Sometimes important information is transferred through the body language and the way participants transmit the information (Holden and Michailova, 2014; Muethel and Hoegl, 2012). For instance, the
interpretation of Japanese closing their eyes during a meeting is a sign of careful listening whereas Americans or Turkish could interpret it wrongly and be offended (Ozuorcun, 2013). Another example is when a participant expresses his opinion about their previous manager being good, “He was good” could be interpreted differently if considering various intonations such as “He WAS good” meaning that he was good but he changed, or “HE was good” meaning that the previous manager was good and the current one is not, or “He was GOOD” meaning that he liked his previous manager, or “He was good?” meaning he does not think so. The way the information is communicated is actually a good indicator to detect positive, certain and enthusiastic meanings or other negative feelings and depending on how the interviewee perceive his/her work environment. Therefore, transferring these reactions in written is the only way to communicate participants’ feelings using techniques such as upper case letters, punctuation marks or using underline and bold the text in question.

The transcription phase started at the end of the data collection when the author gathered all the necessary information from the organised interviews with the five companies participating in the research. Appendix 4 (See Appendices, p.: I) provides more details about interviewees, their positions and the length of interviews per interviewee for the five involved companies. Interviewees were using various languages from Moroccan (Dialect in Morocco), French or Spanish which won’t be possible to transcribe unless you are familiar with these languages. Additionally, some Moroccan proverbs were provided by participants to explain specific situations that only a Moroccan can understand the meaning. Therefore not anyone can transcribe and translate the context of the interviews. As a matter of fact, the flexibility in using various languages is time consuming in terms of transcription and translation but it allows interviewees to be more open and express
themselves freely. In order to transform the interview from an audio file to a written version, the researcher proceeded to a transcription of each interview producing a document with everything that has been said in the interview. Obviously, it is a time consuming process estimated to be about 5:1 which means that for a 30 minutes interview a full transcript will be produced in about two and half hours (Hancock, 1998).

After the transcription phase and given most of the interviews were not in English, translation word by word was processed to help analysing data accurately. Some of the examples given in Arabic and local proverbs used during the interviews were translated in such a close way to English proverbs otherwise an explanation of the meaning was given by the author as objectively as possible (Holden and Michailova, 2014). To sum up, 29 out of 30 interviews in total were recorded given that one interviewee did not allow me to record and preferred to feel comfortable by just taking notes and having a normal conversation. 29 interviews were transcribed and all of them translated to move to the analysis phase.

4.13. Qualitative Data Analysis Techniques

4.13.1. Content and Thematic Analysis

There are various techniques used for analysing data. For instance, content analysis is very useful for the categorisation stage where the content, by analysing feelings, behaviours and verbal and non-verbal data, gives a better description to the coded data (Khakhar and Rammal, 2013).

Consequently, the interpretation becomes more meaningful once the themes are regrouped for a thematic analysis, occurring after the coding stage, to compare these
themes and find similar ones to link them together in order to interpret the patterns and define significant concepts (Gertsen and Soderberg, 2011).

4.13.2. Application of the Content and Thematic Analysis

Saunders et al. (2009) pointed out that there is no defined approach to analyse qualitative data. In general, the analysis represents the classification of data into categories to study the relationship between these categories exploring the data gathered using coding. Given its relevance to exploratory research; an interpretive approach was used by the researcher in a simplified way to explain the phenomena in question reducing the data gathered into categories and themes (Blaxter et al., 2010; Birkinshaw et al., 2011). In other words, it involved content and thematic analysis to match extracted patterns to build an understanding about these relationships subject to this research.

Given the phenomenological nature of the research, the author considers thematic and content analysis two techniques of analysis that complement each other even though they could be similar in terms of the process of analysis itself. Given that content-thematic approach is more about finding patterns from emerging data, key meanings regardless the number of the time it occurred, are still important to discuss in order to objectively explore the phenomenon subject to this research.

At the beginning, manual basic analysis initially started while coding and categorising data. To be more engaged during the main analysis of the research using a combination of thematic and content aiming to explain the processes from the participants and researcher’s point of view through criticising and interpreting the content of the interviews focusing more on the meaning (Barbour, 2008). This type of criticism is an
important part of the analysis process allowing more critical thinking of the research topic (Lietz et al., 2006).

To avoid any inconsistency from an epistemological and ontological position of the research itself, this approach brings more insight to theory and knowledge than if it would have been if other methods of statistical nature of analysis are used. This was supported by many researchers who examined research paradigms especially from positivist and interpretivist positions such as Vasilachis de Gialdino (2009), Raddon (2010), Edirisingha (2012) and O’Gorman and Maclntosh (2015). Moreover, to refine the identified categories, thematic analysis is used to interpretively explore the phenomenon, provide more clarity and validate the patterns that were highlighted during the content analysis.


The first stage in the analysis process is coding. It plays a fundamental role in organising data textually (Tan, 2010) starting with an open coding to create categories which leads to axial coding to determine links between these categories and finally form meaningful patterns between the different categories and subcategories of the model using a selective coding (Khakhar and Rammal, 2013). For instance and following Strauss and Corbin’s technique (1998) during the open coding, the interviews were broken down into a group of incidents then differences and similarities of these incidents are compared within the same interview. After that, the extracted elements were compared with other interviews of same and different organisational levels (incidents cited by top managers or middle managers or low level managers) generating a simple matrix of categories and subcategories at different levels. Coding data in this research contextualised the interviews’ transcripts and also developed a better understanding of the research phenomena while exploring the extracted categories and themes.
During the pilot study for instance, coding resulted of categories representing patterns and themes relevant to the research. Each deduced theme or pattern was allocated a row in a table and columns assigned to the participants as groups representing their companies. Then each pattern extracted from the scripts was ticked in the table mentioned by groups to help highlighting which pattern and theme was the most mentioned. In a way to structure categories, colours red, orange and green were used to highlight the patterns most stated by the participants where red represent the theme that took more consideration by all participants, orange represents the themes to be given less consideration and where green represent the elements that have less impact on how international companies operate in Morocco (See Appendices 5 and 6, Pp.: K – N). This manual coding approach helped exploring specific themes back in the literature to narrow down and clarify the literature and address more in-depth the research aims and objectives.

As for the final data collection stage, the author followed a similar approach using Hancock’s (1998) simplified analysis algorithm amended by the author of this research to fit the structure and nature of this research. First of all, the author extracted the most common ideas highlighted in all interviews and classified them into groups: Culture, Communication, Time, Organisational Structure, Perceived trust, etc. Categories were reviewed and classified progressively. The manual analysis used basic techniques such as the use of colours to regroup related categories into sub-categories and prioritise them from minor (least important) to major (most important) categories to create more visibility of themes during the analysis.

4.15. Presentation Phase of the Analysis
At the stage where findings from the data analysis is to be discussed, there are few points to consider especially that in qualitative research, data is subjective, descriptive and interpretative (Hancock, 1998). The structure of this section will look at the categories extracted from data to present the findings following a template as given in Appendix 7 (See Appendices, p.: Q). A clearer understanding will be generated once the final model is completed.

After presenting the categories by themes, a description of each category will be supported by key quotations from participants to explain the category and show good examples of what employees think. As the author works through the different categories, it happens to start finding links between categories as a natural and instinctive procedure to come up with how the themes emerged and how conclusions about the findings were drawn. As explained earlier, content analysis carried out at each level could extract relevant meanings from what was said by interviewees. Results from the qualitative data could be presented quantitatively using tables, diagrams and figures to reinforce the analysis and strengthen the qualitative approach with such quantitative techniques. The final phase will use the thematic analysis to interpret all the themes and feed the model with patterns and concepts for all the elements initially extracted and illustrated in the model (See Figure 3.1:2, Chapter 3 and Figure 4.6:1, Chapter 4).

To sum up, analysing data in qualitative research involves structuring information in such a way that simplifies the presentation of the collected data in order to emphasize the most relevant elements and describe the phenomena subject to this research in depth so that this exploration leads to a better understanding of results (Hancock, 1998). By presenting the findings well, readers will find links between the full description provided of the current research with details about methods used and in which specific context it was
applied to in a way to determine whether it is possible to transfer these findings to another context.

4.16. Analysis Validation

It was important to continuously revise the range of categories and items allocated for each category to analyse transcribed data accurately (Holden and Michailova, 2014). Following a similar approach used by Lietz et al. (2006) in their auto-ethnography qualitative study where they engaged with two other researchers to reflect in their initial analysis, participants in this research will be involved in the validation process and this will be at 2 levels: after the interviews’ transcription and after the initial analysis communicating electronically with participants (via electronic mails and Viber or Skype calls). Even though clarifications were made during the data collection stage about various aspects discussed and mentioned by participants, validation of the transcribed version of the interview is mainly used to provide participants with more time to revise their final script and amend it in case some elements were not mentioned or not clearly explained. This first validation from respondents initiates the coding process whereas the second validation after the initial analysis highlights any significant aspect relevant to the research (Elci, 2007). Seeking for more accuracy and a more meaningful structure, NVivo was mainly used to verify the categories or amend it in case something was missing (Bloor and Wood, 2006).

Without neglecting the power of language, data gathered for analysis represents participants’ views, from their own perspective, which also represents a sample from the bigger population of Morocco (Holden and Michailova, 2014). Their opinion was expressed using their own language to describe the subject being researched. Even though there was a transcription and translation of what literally was expressed by them,
data was well presented and labelled given the author understands the language used
during the interviews and is also familiar with the cultural and social aspects of the sample
subject to this research.

To be as objective as possible and following a good analytical approach to avoid any
misinterpretation, the researcher’s interpretations are to be checked by participants and
informants involved in the data collection phase and this measurement was found to be
successful in Luthans and Ibrayeva’s (2006) study in a similar context. Another way to
validate data was by checking it using different methods mainly through participants’
checking to confirm the accuracy of data after transcribing data and after the analysis
involving them more in verifying the results. The use of triangulation in this research was
important to strengthen justifications to defend the findings applying various methods
from multiple sources in an attempt to eliminate any kind of bias (Cheng et al., 2009). Triangulation at the analysis phase consists of checking how consistent the analysis
findings from different method used to collect data, called methods triangulation and the
same concept applies using sources’ triangulation within the same method. Finally,
multiple approaches are applied to interpret the analysis using various theories to back up
the interpretation, called theory triangulation and this to verify the qualitative analysis.

To sum up, either analysis of the pilot study or during the main data collection, a
simplified way to treat data fairly, interpret results properly and produce rich analytical
conclusions was by considering Creswell’s (2009) technique, adapted by the researcher
to fit the nature and the type of this research as illustrated briefly in Figure 4.16:1.
4.17. Methodological Limitation of the Research

There were limitations in terms of methods used in this research. Recognising them is important for many reasons. It will mainly provide a research background and shed the light on the main research obstacles to obtain data in social studies for future research.

For example, as mentioned in Section 4.8.2 in this chapter, using the pilot study for the interview stage helped the researcher receiving more directions from practitioners. However, there may have been mistakes interpreting nonverbal and indirect messages from interviewees (Creswell, 2009) especially that the transcription and translation was made by the researcher herself. Even though the author of this research did not know the participants before which helped in minimizing the risk between the parties involved, to reduce the risk of bias more at this level, the literature was used as a back up to strengthen the research outcomes. For this research, there were three major limitations:

- Literature in Arab management in general and trust in Arab organisations in particular is very limited not to say inexistent and that was highlighted in Chapter 1. Some Arab management models and theories, even though not widely known but helped to
support the comparison of management theories and models from both the Arab and Western perspectives.

- Observation was made by the author of the research and information formed from this method was the researcher’s interpretation of what was seen during the interviews in the participant companies. Activities recorded using written notes could be misinterpreted and this leads to the researcher-observation bias. However, the researcher reduced this risk by backing up data that were observed and matching it with interviewees’ examples given to explain a particular situation. Another risk of method bias is while conducting the semi-structured interviews where the researcher’s background and involvement in translating Moroccan proverbs and body language is subject of bias. Translated interviews were checked by a professional translator and by local practitioners to reduce any error of interpretation or in the translation.

- It is important to mention that this research is not generalised to the public sector as the sample was only representing large international companies from various sectors and yet the sample cannot be generalised to the whole population in the private sector either with regards to national or international companies.

4.18. Summary

As a summary of this chapter and from a phenomenological perspective, to better understand and explore relationship between employees in the setting of this research, various methods were used to bring more insight and clarity to answer the research questions. For instance, concrete examples were used to reflect the way people, from different cultural backgrounds, describe situations within the international work environment they belong to. Such tool was important to raise a cultural awareness
especially that, when considering culture and religion in international business, these concepts are not fully understood. Following the same approach as suggested by Birkinshaw et al. (2011), primary and secondary data and methods were combined in this research to explore management practices in the Moroccan context to emphasize the interest given to international research in this area providing a richer understanding and deeper exploration of the problems investigated. A case study approach was applied to explore global and local interactions in management practices within international businesses by examining how global and national factors affect the implementation and application of these practices. Semi-structured interviews were conducted for data collection phase to extract main patterns and interrelationships to form a clearer understanding of trust building in such international work environment.

Next chapter will provide an in-depth analysis of the findings emerged from data, after being coded as explained previously in this chapter (See sections 4.12. and from 4.14. to 4.16.) in a way to provide plausible interpretation of the research findings in Chapter 6.
Chapter Five

Research Data Analysis
5.1. Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to analyse data resulting from the interviews in order to explore the main components related to building trust in a Moroccan-International work environment. Following the research methodology in Chapter 4, interviews in this chapter will be analysed from the first phase of data collection run as a pilot study and second phase where five companies were considered as case studies where in both phases, observations and archival documents were supporting tools. Summary of key issues resulted from the pilot study is in Appendix 6 and Appendix 9 regroup the case studies for more details about the companies and the chosen plants taking part in the research (Appendices, p. M. and p.V).

5.2. Phase One: Pilot Study Analysis

The first phase involving a set of interviews were conducted during the pilot study. 11 interviews contained participants’ views from their individual experience working in or dealing with international companies operating in Morocco (Appendix 5). In addition to the way participants were contacted and how coding has been processed, as mentioned in Chapter 4 (See sections 4.11.3.3., 4.11.3.4. and 4.14. - p. 160), the analysis of the sample resulted of key issues and challenges as listed in Appendix 6. It shows for example key points, as raised by all interviewees, which were regrouped and highlighted in red in Appendix 6. Leadership, motivation, inter-organisational and intra-organisational relationships and challenges facing both international companies and local employees in such partnerships were the key topics discussed during the interviews. From the analysis, it was found that interviewees, among many aspects, focused on the soft side of management such as cultural adaptation, values, specific behaviours, relationships between Moroccan and foreign employees in these international partnerships, and so on.
It also shed the light on work values that interviewees consider important in terms of understanding the role and meaning of work, employee’s work orientation and valued behaviour at work; which according to them is an important indicator of employee-employer/manager relationships. Brewer and Venaik (2011) considered interviewees’ perceived values in their paper as an interesting approach as it questions the attitude of people in other countries. In this pilot study, it was interesting to notice that some Moroccan participants believe that international companies, when settled in Morocco, look for “qualified human resources” as stated by I4 who is a managing director and partner of a consulting firm dealing with international companies willing to invest in Morocco. I11, deputy general manager of a South Korean group in Morocco also raised the lack of human resources in the construction industry. Other interviewees, managers working in American multinationals, Moroccans but with MBA degrees from American universities, were more optimistic. They considered reforms and development programmes initiated by the Moroccan government as a good start to increase management profiles fitting the demand. This was confirmed by interviewees from the governmental institutions who used figures showing the increase in international investments in the country where I10 stated that the Moroccan government is well aware of the market needs in terms of some specific profiles: “The government has been very flexible to attract more investors and facilitate procedures and some investors choose Morocco for the quality of human resources... we have qualified resources in several sectors but there is a limitation in middle management which investors may struggle to find”. Yet, there is still a need in improving regulations as stated by I9: “in terms of training, the company was involved in a governmental programme and it was not a good experience. The company has decided to train their employees through private firms to gain time and avoid bureaucratic procedures”. As for the managerial practices, I8 for
example was positive about the role of leadership implemented in the company in a way that “employees are treated fairly and the management team motivate their employees implementing a trusting philosophy. Financial incentives are also provided in addition to a recognition system for best employees who receive rewards – gooood ones. Their achievements are recognised by the director of the company during an annual event...”.

I9 discussed the cultural adaptation in the American scenario and according to him, “Moroccan employees easily adapt to the American structure to 80%. There are still 20% of changes to consider preparing for this adaptation... but it does not change any of the structure, procedures or company’s objectives”. The South Korean style of leadership follow another approach where “people are respected, they are given the opportunity to show what they are capable of given that employees cannot be forced to work unless they are self-motivated”. Financial incentives and promotions are the main strategies used by the company to motivate employees.

Overall views insisted on an adaptation between Moroccan and international practices to implement the company’s objectives. There was an agreement on a cultural openness as well as respecting and understanding each other’s values like the case of I11 who considered the current Arab culture as “polluted... if compared to the Prophet Mohammed’s culture. People are now manipulating the situation in the name of Islam to reach their personal goals. Industrialisation is a part of this cultural change as power and authority are divided among several players in society”. Moving to the Moroccan culture, he considered it better compared to the other Arab countries as people are more open. When merging the pilot study’s findings with other studies from the literature, more focus was going towards exploring behaviour through culture and the way employees are managed. The key issues raised during the pilot study then led to the trust literature as
first step to consider in the cultural and the managerial adaptation in cross-cultural collaborations.

Findings from the pilot study were discussed more in depth through other participants from different sectors and backgrounds. The final phase of the data collection is examined next.

5.3. Phase Two: Descriptive Interview Findings

The second and final phase of the interview process sheds the light on many aspects related to the Moroccan and international employees working in international private companies in Morocco such as their perception of the company they work for and to what extent this encourages them to trust their employer; as well as exploring the role of trust in building effective work relationship between them internally at different hierarchical levels and between different departments through relevant communication channels, as indicated by participants.

Before the start of the analysis, transcribed interviews and the translation copies were validated by informants and a professional translator to make sure that data is analysed objectively and without misleading information. For ethical reasons, personal information and companies’ information were removed at this stage of validation to protect participants’ rights. As detailed in Chapter 4, extracted categories during the coding were used as main elements of the content analysis to label data. This led to the next analysis approach using thematic analysis which involved interpreting extract themes to create patterns to understand trust building. The whole process of analysis was validated through conceptualising these relationships using NVivo as the most convenient programme to help identifying the main themes and the connections they offer (Tan, 2010). Description
of how the themes were regrouped is in Chapter 4. To investigate the validity of the resulting conclusions from the interview analysis, participants, who proposed help, were involved at this last stage to validate the results. Following the ethical agreement for confidentiality and anonymity of participants, there is no reference to their names or companies they work for unless it is permitted by participants themselves.

Backed up with observations on sites during data collection, the upcoming sections provides an understanding of trust building exploring found patterns and the link between different themes constituted mainly of culture, communication and organisational structure. For more clarity and consistency in presenting the resulting findings, this chapter will follow the structure of sections as represented in the interview template (Appendix 4, p.: I). In each section, extracted themes related to categories from the conceptual framework in Chapter 3 are analysed to form a better understanding of these associated constructs.

### 5.3.1. First Section of Interview Result - Personal Information

Following a chronological order in how analysis of the sample was processed, the first section of the interview consists of personal information providing the characteristics of participants through the moderating constructs (Gender, Age, Education, etc.) focusing more on identifying the relationship between each construct and the managerial aspect in such a way to link it to the main topic which is trust building (Appendix 8 – p.: R).

Based on the total characteristics of participants, the majority of the sample is male (8 females and 22 males). The sample depended on employees’ availability at the time of the interviews. At this level, the resulting percentage cannot explain this gender gap with
respect to sector and company activities or can be related to cultural reasons. The researcher’s observations are contradictory with the resulting gender imbalance where in all the participating companies there was a significant number of women working in various positions from managerial, administrative to operation and production. Checking the labour force rates by gender in Morocco, it was noticed that the majority of the Moroccan labour force are male (Worldbank, 2015a; 2015b) as indicated in Table 5.2:2 with an unemployment rate for females reaching 19.2% over male 18.4% (CIA, 2015). Considering the percentage of employment by gender in key sectors in Morocco also indicates that male are prioritise in employment more than female as shown in Table 5.2:3 and Figure 5.2:1.

**Table 5.2:2 Labour Force Participation Rate for Male and Female in Morocco between 2010 and 2013**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Worldbank (2015)*

**Table 5.2:3 Percentage of Employment in Morocco by Sector Indicating the Gap between Female and Male Ratios**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of female employment</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>% of male employment</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% of female employment</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% of male employment</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>% of male employment</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% of female employment</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% of male employment</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Worldbank (2016)*

These figures clearly show the unbalanced employment rate between male and female in Morocco. However and even if they are facing obstacles to work, women still considerably contribute to the Moroccan Economy with an increase of 1% in 2013. As illustrated in Figure 5.2:1, women in Morocco are gradually entering sector that were previously monopolised by men (Laskaridis, 2011; Worldbank, 2016; Morikawa, 2015). Stokvis is one of the examples that claim to consider gender equality as one of their key values where 50% of their total employees are women (Stokvis, 2016).
As for the age range of the sample, 27 out of 30 participants are between 25 and 45 years old with only 3% of the sample less than 25 years old working under the supervision of managers at the low management level. Even though the sample did not represent categories over 50 years old, the percentage of managerial positions anticipates that managers do not have to be very old to occupy managerial positions. The sample also represents young managers with postgraduate degrees and those who started with the company with lower degrees were seeking more knowledge and gained higher degrees while working. This was supported by the participating companies where all excluding SNOP clearly stated in their websites and online documents the companies’ vision to encourage employees to develop their managerial and technical skills through training and learning and development programmes. This sample contains a balanced number of participants from different managerial levels where 13% of the total sample were from the top management level as managing directors bringing their own experience and opinion in their management style and their perception of trust and how important trust
is in an international work environment. Followed by more than 46% of the sample who are managers and 40% is between assistant managers or so called M-1, M-2 and administrators working under the supervision of their managers in different departments. The top management’s involvement in the interviews reflects their interest in trust as one of the very important elements they are keen to implement more at work.

Education was another moderating variable where it clearly shows that interviewees from the total sample obtained a good education. From the total sample, more than 13% with an MBA occupy top managerial positions and more than 33% received support from their current company to obtain more degrees relevant to their learning and development to advance in their career. For example and considering specific disciplines, 13% have degrees in other disciplines from communication, literature to more scientific degrees like biology and physics; more than 23% obtained bachelor degrees in engineering or IT and 60% with a degree in Finance, business and management. In the same spirit, to reflect the aspect of promotion and development within the company, when asked about the number of years spent in their current position, 70% of the interviewees have been in the same position for less than 6 years with more than 26% who recently have been promoted and just started their new functions. One exception was an IT manager in one company who was in his same position since he joined the company for a period of 13 years. 26% of the total sample spent between 6 to 10 years in their current position.

With regards to the total number of years spent in the company they work for, nearly half of the sample hasn’t spent more than 5 years as a total period working in their current company whereas an equal percentage of 26% spent between 6 to 10 years and 11 to 15 years working in the same company. Those who spent more than 10 years in the company
are divided between 6% from the top management and 26% from the middle management and 16% from the low management. Another observation from the responses and the descriptive data in this section, working in the same company for long years does not mean that they will be promoted to top managerial levels and it shows that 46% of those who worked less than 6 years in the company are still young (between 24 to 42 years old) and are from different organisational levels and positions. Considering that all of them obtained good degrees and most of them have received training, it is noticed that the total sample’s age range is considerably young.

To sum up, this section provides a descriptive introduction about participants sharing their personal information. In addition to these variables and without being asked, participants added more details to justify what they are doing and why they are doing it or simply felt the need to provide more explanation and be open. The coding approach was explained in details in Chapter 4 (Sections 4.15. to 4.16.). So, using the template designed for the coding phase (Appendix 7, p. Q), a set of categories were identifying during the coding and categorisation phase of the data analysis leading Table 5.2:4 which also defines the meaning of each of the extracted categories. Mainly, the title given of each category reflects the basic meaning of the word itself as perceived by the interviewees.

Table 5.2:4 Definitions Explaining the Meaning of Sub-themes from Participants’ Point of View in Section One

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Definition – Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Belonging</td>
<td>Being a part of an organisation, considering it as a second home.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditional openness</td>
<td>It was noticed that most participants allowed the recording without any objection where only few asked about the recording process and only one refused to be recorded. The fact that he didn’t approve the recording and the way he was asking about whether the company authorised it or not pushed him more to refuse the idea of being recorded. He wanted to express himself freely without keeping any records. It may be related to some internal issues or a personal preference. For this particular case, it was mainly the first option.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>The way meetings are sometimes organised reflects a cultural influence where, like for instance when a participant cannot make it for the interview, the HR assistant who was planning for the interviews on site took the author of the research to another manager who was already in another meeting. The HR assistant interrupted Y6’s meeting to squeeze me in for my research interview saying: “That’s the only way to do it, sometimes you force things”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedures</td>
<td>Procedures and standards set by the company provide employees with an organised structure to clarify their position and functions within the company.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning and development</td>
<td>When asked about their education level, participants raised the opportunities of development offered by the company to obtain more degrees while working.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>It was clear from participants’ responses that motivation is an important tool that if encouraged by the organisation, it increases employees’ performance. Choosing the right leadership style reflected in the way managers deal with their employees to motivate them. For instance, M6 considers motivation as a part of the company’s strategy where with the help of her manager and his guidance, she is aiming at doing work as expected to be promoted. Few cases don’t felt demotivated because they have been occupying the same position since they joined the company.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>The interviews were conducted in Moroccan, French, English and Spanish to let interviewees express themselves as freely as possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tone</td>
<td>It was noticed that the way participants express their responses reflect either pride or sarcasm like when asked about the years spent in the current company Y1’s was proud of the past 15 years he spent in the company, he could move from a financial director position to other departments such as HR, Logistics, IT and then Sales to finally reach the managing director position in the company. M7 used a different tone where she stated: “assistant HR for 7 years. 7 yeaaaaaaaaars holding the saaaaame position and the saaaaaame salary”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral communication</td>
<td>It was noticed from interviewees’ responses that the company encouraged verbal communication between employees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honesty</td>
<td>Some employees at the beginning of the interviews expressed their willingness to be participating in the research providing honest answers where others expressed their honesty through their actions by being very honest and open discussing raised points objectively.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Willingness to share

Meeting with the author of the research for the first time and having busy schedules and deadlines but still were interested in the topic of the research and this was reflected in the way they responded to the questions and their generosity in explaining some situations through concrete examples.

In the basis of participants’ responses and using content thematic analysis, categories were regrouped into themes at this initial stage and while moving to the next sections, these themes will be generated by more segments throughout the data set as it could lead to exclude some themes that are not strongly relevant in order to understand how these elements, those with strong links, support the process of trust building. As for this initial stage, themes were identified as listed in Table 5.2:5 where each theme represents categories that include significant information given by participants.

Table 5.2:5 Representation of Extracted Codes Regrouped into Themes from Dataset in Section One from the Interviewees’ Responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Culture</th>
<th>Organisational Structure</th>
<th>Communication</th>
<th>Perceived Trust</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Planning in organisations</td>
<td>Planning in organisations</td>
<td>Different systems</td>
<td>Communication tools</td>
<td>Willingness to share personal information and secrets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sense of belonging</td>
<td>Job advancement promise</td>
<td>Job advancement promise</td>
<td>Oral communication</td>
<td>Acknowledging trust issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditional openness</td>
<td>Development challenges</td>
<td>Development challenges</td>
<td>Use of tone while speaking</td>
<td>Listing examples about fairness issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welcoming</td>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>Body language</td>
<td>Openness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pride</td>
<td>Adapt to workplace</td>
<td>Language</td>
<td>Honesty</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open talk</td>
<td>Adapt to people</td>
<td>Spontaneity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of recognition</td>
<td>Procedures and standards</td>
<td>Giving oral promise</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expressions with double meaning</td>
<td>Learning and development opportunities</td>
<td>Willingness to share information or knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture difference</td>
<td>Advancement opportunities</td>
<td>Information and/or knowledge sharing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employee evaluation systems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Till now, there was no clear indications or interlinks between the different themes identified in Section One given the informative type of questions asked. In addition to the moderating variables, a representation of the model illustrating the themes in Section One was done using NVivo creating an automatic model, which highlights the main patterns related to this section’s themes, as shown in Figure 5.2:2 with the ellipse shapes illustrating the moderating variables and rectangular shapes representing themes. More themes will be extracted in the next section where interviewees start answering relatively in-depth and focused topics.
5.3.2. Second Section of Interview Result – Description of the Company from the Participant’s View

In this section, participants were asked five questions with regards to their perception of the company they work for, and this to determine their understanding of the company’s procedures, policies and standards. The reason behind it is to identify the main factors in initiating trust through their perception of the company’s vision (Appendix 8, p.: R).

In the process of coding the set of transcribed data, a list of codes were highlighted. In a way to shape the content and development of the meaning of the phenomenon subject to this research, the extracted codes were later regrouped into categories. This was as part of the content analysis approach exploring the content of the sample as explained by Krippendorff (2013) in his book about content analysis (See Chapter 4 for more details about how the main categories were extracted).

At this stage, after going through all the transcripts, codes were extracted and categories were identified. Codes were given significant names rather than using numbers simply to
provide better meanings for interpretation purposes later on and to help the author of the research in the categorisation phase. Table 5.2:6 as shown below, regroups codes by categories as identified at the end of the coding of Section Two of the data set.

**Table 5.2:6 List of Categories Identified through the Classification of Extracted Codes from Section Two**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>List of Codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Company Structure</td>
<td>Difference in companies’ size, structure type, unified structure, hierarchy, change in structures within companies and hierarchical differentiations when organising events.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company Standards</td>
<td>Implementation of new procedure and application of current standards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company Motivating Employees</td>
<td>Incentives given to employees as encouragement, opportunities for career advancement, equal opportunities, learning and development, development challenges, general social events and company’s support for employees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee Trust in Company</td>
<td>Commitment, openness, integrity, honesty, linguistic openness, outcome from positive linguistic exchange, willingness to be open to discussions, positive thinking and challenges to reach integrity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees’ cultural awareness towards the company</td>
<td>Stability, unity, cultural differences, belonging, types of recognition, identity, cultural openness, rich cross-cultures, appreciation and pride, power of known names in getting favours, responsibilise others, identity loss, social events and choice of communication channels from a cultural perspective.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral communication</td>
<td>Channels used for oral communication and benefits of oral communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written communication</td>
<td>Channels used for written communication and benefits of written communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal communication</td>
<td>Levels (degree) of informality, process of informal communication and informal communication types.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal communication</td>
<td>Levels of formality and formal meetings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face to face communication</td>
<td>Frequency of meetings, flexibility, types of meetings, face to face benefits of communication, justification behind choosing face to face meetings, individual meetings and group meetings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Justifications of negative communication</td>
<td>Information loss and limitation in communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Justifications of positive communication</td>
<td>Follow up, a tool used for clarification, learning and development, information and knowledge sharing, linguistic exchange and power of languages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee experience</td>
<td>Experience is one single code that in this context was representing the years the employee spent in the company or working in the sector or working in international companies.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Given the qualitative nature of this interpretive research, codes were not quantified to the number of times they were found in each transcript and key identified categories were not prioritised by the total number of codes mentioned. All categories were considered as relevant regardless the number of time codes were mentioned within the total set of data. The reason behind it is that this research is exploratory, it aims at understanding the phenomenon in question and no theory is to be grounded at this level. The following
sections identify the key themes as common themes within the total data set and justify their relevance with regards to the research topic in order to answer the research questions.

5.3.2.1. Organisational Structure

In an attempt to examine the company’s procedures from employees’ point of view, one of the main themes raised was about the structure of the organisation employees work in. The list of categories, extracted during the content analysis, was refined during the thematic analysis where key categories were regrouped into initial themes. For more clarity in terms of interpreting the patterns, these initial themes were finally classified into sub themes within this main theme representing the organisational structure. There were three important sub-themes extracted from this theme:

- **Structure of the Company**

  According to participants, having a structure within the company is important, and that is one of the reasons why they prefer international companies. Even with the challenges local employees face while working in international companies, they still prefer to work in there rather than working for local companies. It provides them with rules to follow based on respect and offering discipline, stability, continuity and such things according to M6 “are the things that urge us to stay and not change our job... We are safe, international companies give you everything you will need: the means, the techniques, the manners, everything, and what to say to the clients, all you need to do is be there and do the job”.

  When defining hierarchy, in some companies, use of power is frequent where employees feel hierarchy through authoritative behaviours, and it is where the gap between managers
and subordinates is felt more. Even though international companies offer an organised system where employees belong to the structured group working together, however, the element of hierarchy is still present to some extent where for instance M5 stated: “you don’t feel like an employee but part of the team... there is respect and I respect my superior, we adhere to hierarchy but at the end we are all the same, we are all working”. However, there is a kind of differentiation between employees from different hierarchical levels during some social events organised by the company where for instance L7 stated: “We had the inauguration event of the plant in Kenitra but it was only for managers. After that there was an event organised for everybody”.

Implementing the company’s strategic vision while evolving includes involving people in this growing change, and once this takes place inside the company, employees notice the change like when M3 was positive about improvements made in IT and HR departments given this change helps both departments to stay closer to employees stating: “We had recently a regional IT meeting in Egypt, and we have met the IT CEO of the headquarters. There was the regional IT director, IT managers and assistants; we came out with a considerable number of ideas, we have discussed a significant number of projects, and amongst the projects that we have talked about there was people development, the strategic vision regarding HR for the IT department”. Moreover, there is a level of adaptation when the company considers changes at the structural level like what happened in Company Y as mentioned by Y5 following a matrix structure which reflected positively on employees. Supporting this, M6 also explained that “the change is not radical, it urges you to do better and to feel a sense of security and stability”. The change doesn’t only occur at the structure level but could be foreseen when a new manager joins the team, where employees compare between the previous and new
practices as stated by M8 explaining the effect’s change as “honestly, now it’s okay. We have a new HR manager and there is change. For example now, everything goes according to the law. It is clear about what we need during the recruitment process, the recruitment stage”.

Another category from this sub-theme was showing companies with a unified structure and to what extent this unity provides employees with more organisation and clarity in terms of understanding the company’s vision, feeling a part of a group given that the same structure is applied in all the locations where they operate. From employees’ view, this unified structure is conceptualised as “a family, internally here between us and through other plants in Europe, Asia or Central America. It has the same behaviour, you will find the logo with same processes and procedures”. International companies have an organised system with different professions and diverse departments that provide employees with a structure and a rich environment for continuous learning, as well as financial considerations as expressed by Y5 “salary wise, there is a huge difference compared to Moroccan or public companies”. Some see this environment as a set of procedures like L3 who defined the company’s style as objective-oriented and it allows employees stay focused on working on the objectives. Others like Y2 prefer to consider the company’s vision as a collaboration between employees, which is an added value for the company’s success rather than emphasis on the relationship manager-subordinate and the hierarchical concept behind it.

- Type of the Company

In addition to the company’s structure and the way it is implemented, the type of the company also matters. This was actually a key category that was mentioned in all
transcripts as a relevant element to constitute a sub-theme in this section. The reason behind it is that most participants worked in other companies either international or local. Some even included the size considering bigger size companies to be important for their learning like Y6 stating: “In fact I worked for two companies ... the size of both companies are incomparable. So the size of Y is much bigger than the French group. Therefore, for me Y is a big school in the Auto industry and this makes the difference compared to other companies”. However, others think that considerably smaller size companies is an advantage to build better relationships internally and keep contact with all employees at all hierarchical level as mentioned by M1: “Compared to other organisations in this sector, we are more employee-oriented like I can contact the top management team in our headquarters by phone whenever I want and all the management team know each other. It could be that the size of the company is influencing this way of openness and accessibility but also the company’s strategy is encouraging this working spirit.” Respondents also justify their choices preferring to work for international companies comparing it with other companies they worked for either international with a different culture or local companies and it was interesting to notice that they have all chosen the international option like Y4 who stated firmly: “I will never think of another company but international ones”. Table 5.2:7 lists the type of companies that were cited during the interviews and their management style as perceived by interviewees.

Table 5.2:7 Type of companies – definitions and descriptions from the interviews

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bag’s owner type</td>
<td>“Moroccan companies are called “Bag’s owner” which means someone who has money in a bag and doing business…Bag’s owner is moody: the day you don’t give you are out. They start counting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional Entrepreneurs</td>
<td>“on you as long as you give they like you but the day they feel you are not as productive as they want, they forget about you and you are out” (Y4).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International companies</td>
<td>“Multinationals provide space for employees where you get promotions and you feel comfortable. For example, if you have an emergency you find someone to help but in a family business context they don’t give you any priority or consideration to foreigners” (L7).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MNEs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moroccan companies</td>
<td>“There are public ones with a certain type of functioning small and medium enterprises, family businesses and there are multinationals… When you compare a director of a multinational based in Morocco with a manager of a SME or a public organisation is like comparing day and night. It is not the same culture, not the same concepts and it is not the same thing” (Y1).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Family business are always limited, you learn nothing… I stayed 4 months and I couldn’t adapt. It is like the whole day doing nothing so I didn’t learn anything” (L8).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In an interview with the Minister for Economy and Finance Mr. Baraka, interviewed by a member of Transeo which is the European Association for SME transfer, the minister stated that SMEs constitute more than 95% of the Moroccan national companies, and this figure is very representative to the Moroccan social and economic growth (Transeo, 2013). Saying that, statistics show that Moroccan SMEs constitute 50% of the Moroccan economy which according to Younoussi et al. (2013), discussing the factors refraining Moroccan SMEs from internationalisation, data is not accurate with regards to the number
of SMEs having access to the international market; where current studies show limited international activities of the Moroccan SMEs. They also stated that of the 95%, 40% are private investments, 8% are exporters and the rest are public companies or government-owned. Regardless, the 95% or more are all sharing the characteristic of the “Bag’s owner” as defined by interviewees. With a total of 62 bilateral agreements, the foreign direct investment (FDI) increased moving from 51.2% in 2000 to 62.4% in 2007 and compared to 2012, FDI has known an increase of 20% in 2013. As claimed in the African EconomicOutlook report, being the second interesting location for FDI in African, the number of international companies to enter the Moroccan market is expected to be increased in the next few years regardless of their size or sector. Considering key sectors, the aeronautic sector includes 100 companies, 300 call centres in offshoring and 150 companies in the automotive sector (State, 2015; AMDI, 2011; UNCTAD, 2010; AfricanEconomicOutlook, 2014).

To sum up, from these figures and from interviewees perception in choosing international companies and what they offer, type of the company was then considered another relevant sub-theme.

- **Standards Followed by the Company**

Standards introduce norms that help regulating work in order to know who is doing what. For example, the role of the HR department is to manage employees, evaluate their progress and support their career development. Sometimes procedures implemented internally restrict employees’ freedom so they do what they have been asked without any individual input. This is seen by some respondents positively, where M4 explained the importance of firm standards as a way that helps sharing information: “there is already a
manual that helps you, guides you, orients you and gives you opportunities for more learning to share with your subordinates”. Compared to what happens in local companies, the aspect of freedom in international companies is considered to be positively contributing to the company’s success. It is about working on tasks using appropriate approaches, rather than just following the manager whether right or wrong as highlighted by L4: “you feel that in a national company, you are not free. You satisfy the requirements of the position as you are asked. There are standard rules followed by everybody. Everybody should think like the boss... anyone who are against, prefer quitting the national companies”.

The stability element was raised in most of the interviews where standards and procedures protect employees’ rights and provide clear description of their work as mentioned by L7: “I find it better and the employee is freer than in a local traditional company... Here you work comfortably and according to what I hear from people in other places, you don’t have certain flexibility in terms of working hours and stability”. Comparing a local and international company, standards play an important role where employees know exactly what they want and what they are going to do; whereas without procedures as in local companies where the process is random where today’s standard is different from tomorrow.

- Support Provided by the Company towards Employees
Adaptation appears in the way companies in this sample show their support to employees, and it is provided in many ways. For instance, given that all of them are located in industrial zones far from the city centre, transport is provided to employees. Companies even offer other incentives such as Eid and Ramadan vouchers, schooling vouchers, etc.
There are many social events organised by the company like Henna and circumcision day for employees’ children where a party is organised for employees and their families.

Support also comes through motivating employees like Y1, at his top management level, believes in sharing values more than seeking for financial support and defined it as: “My social responsibility towards the company is show respect to everyone: staff, friendly work environment where we evolve, moral and social values that are important. This helps me be myself, with my own moral and human values which allows me in this environment to develop myself and evolve in an easy and smooth way”. Transferring the company’s vision to employees sometimes comes with obstacles, as expressed by M4 who linked that to the lack of motivation or sometimes a matter of habits. The need to feel motivated, not necessarily financially but through encouraging words such as “Thank you” would be supportive. Employees in international companies are more open talking about their concerns, and it is where motivation was discussed. Employees from different hierarchical levels consider motivation and the company’s support differently. Y5, from the middle management level, sees the continuous development as a motivating point, especially that the system, according to him, is not rigid. It offers promotion’s possibilities following the hierarchical order. In other words, changing positions or status is possible in an international company, and this is how diversity is encouraged. In addition to being a part of a multinational group which develop employees’ skills in terms of learning new languages and understanding other cultures, L8 from the low management level considers the company she works for as supportive. For instance, opportunities exist like the case of a simple operator who becomes a supervisor then a manager is a motivating example for others. Y2 gave a concrete example of career advancement: “Four years ago, the managing director was a simple manager. From director of logistics and purchasing to
managing director now, it is an evolution, there is continuity and openness”. Learning and development was another aspect of motivation, it is rewarding in such a way that it offers opportunities to evolve from employees’ point of view. Career advancement is another kind of support set by international companies to produce better and work harder.

To sum up and using NVivo, Figure 5.2:3 illustrates a representative model of the main sub-themes identified from the organisational structure theme at this stage.

**Figure 5.2:3 Organisational structure’s sub-themes from Section Two of the interviews using NVivo**

### 5.3.2.2. Communication

Following the same analytical approach and using Table 5.2:6, many aspects of communication have been strongly mentioned in this section, clarifying the role of communication from employees and companies’ perception as claimed by interviewees. This section regrouped all the categories related to communication into one theme. Key sub-themes are explored to identify relevant patterns with regards to trust and with the other themes already identified. Communication is claimed to be the bridge between the company and employees, and regardless the type of information communicated between
the company and employees, the process remains the same as explained by M6: “it is not always eloquent but it is always communicated in stages or fully explained or sent via emails to keep us always well informed”.

- **Types of Communication**

In order to determine the types of communication in this case, the analysis was focusing on the elements that were most repeated among interviewees, reporting their views of communication and to what extent it is linked to trust building from their own perception. At some point, notes from observation written by the author of the research during her visits on sites were used to back up and validate interviewees’ statements.

From these observations, communication is all about human interactions, regardless the company’s structure, type or size; especially that participating companies belong to diverse sectors with different sizes, with their proper strategies and vision. Nevertheless, interviews show that participants appreciate the interactive aspect of communication implemented in these international companies. One of these interactions comes through direct communication between manager and subordinates from lower levels either M-1, M-2 or operators and technicians. This direct contact is considered as important and was clearly stated by interviewees from the 5 companies. It was very visible in M and Y companies where managers were interacting with their subordinates in a friendly manner and communication between two parties came naturally and both ways. As observed by the author of the research, there was no hierarchal involvement to force interviewees respond this way; this was clearly visible in the way they exchange their views. According to M6, she believed that developing rapport with her manager provides her with more insurance, knowing her manager is there for them to support them. It appears that
involving personal life at work helps in strengthening employees’ relationships, where combining personal life and experience leads to professionalism as explained by L3: “it’s human, if I didn’t have this interaction with them, they wouldn’t come to share it with me”. Therefore, if something happened at work, the personal and professional elements will be both considered while assessing the quality of work.

Hence, interviewees distinguished between formal and informal interactions between employees. For example, the formal aspect happens during formal meetings, where information is discussed at a managerial level then shared at a department level later on during other meetings where each manager clarifies points highlighted at the first level meeting, as a way to keep everyone updated. Other ways of formal communications is through sharing formal information electronically. A concrete example of this process stated by Y5 as when the company’s structure changed, a meeting took place to clarify the new changes in involved departments and the same concept is followed by the five companies where formal information is shared first during meetings, then circulated through emails and also shared in dashboard, screening or in terms of memos located in a specific location in these companies accessible by everyone.

Oral communication is strongly encouraged by managers and also coming through the shared vision and values of these international companies. It facilitates the exchange between employees from different departments. Participating companies follow formal procedures to manage work and these procedures are respected by employees during formal meetings. However, the informal methods of communication are applied internally through direct interactions such as face to face, use of texts or phone conversation. A degree of informality is applied depending on the situation itself where for example, if it
is urgent, even if it is first communicated orally, it has to be formalised in writing following the company’s procedures. The fact of moving from informal to formal approaches via emails or in written could be interpreted as mistrust. Y4 clarified this point: “Between me and my team members, we have face to face meetings and if we want to keep a track of the work to watch your back and not to have anything against you, you follow it in writing”.

Again considerations apply with regards to the frequency of meetings, where they get to exchange information and how deep relationships are as for the type of exchange they have (sharing personal issues, using social media for communication as a tool of staying in touch during urgent situations), and this between departments and within same departments. According to L7, in the financial department, informal approaches are encouraged and applied. Beside the financial year meeting, which usually takes lot of time for preparation and follows a formal procedure, communication is generally informal; whereas L8, in another department in the same company, have a different approach as when there is a new task or a new procedure to be implemented; their manager shares it with them during a meeting or by email. The way communication is managed within the same department is the manager’s choice but in terms of communicating between departments or different hierarchies is formal like the case of L4 from the middle management, whose type of communication with top management and even with his colleagues from the same level is formal. However, tools used to communicate are informal like receiving a phone call from the head of the department asking about a critical and urgent matter with regards to the progress of a specific project or requesting them to deliver a presentation in front of the top management team to present the progress of the project, etc. Same formality is used with his own team but involving different tools
such as planning for a meeting through outlook or emails to share the meeting’s invitation. Others prefer to meet with their teams at the end of each day to assess the team’s progress and set objectives for the next day as a formal practice to keep everyone well informed in addition to the informal aspect which happens during the day when information is needed, phone calls serve to clarify the situation. Table 5.2:8 summarises the identified formal and informal types of communication used by international companies as claimed by interviewees.

**Table 5.2:8 List of Formal and Informal Types of Communication Extracted from Section Two**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formal Communication</th>
<th>Informal Communication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Planned/ Scheduled Formal meetings</td>
<td>Unplanned meetings where you could discuss upcoming matters on the time it occurs and this usually happens frequently when manager shares an open space with his/her team or they follow an open door policy, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exchange of information by emails</td>
<td>Phone conversations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily or weekly briefings</td>
<td>You approach the person directly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of Outlook to send invitations</td>
<td>Use of SMS, social media and other phone apps to stay in touch (Viber, Whatsapp, Skype, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of memos, dashboards or screening to share information and circulate new procedures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Communication Channels**
To define the flow of communication in the context of this research, it is regrouped into two main categories in this section. The first category constitutes communication between departments or hierarchies. International companies try to embrace the religious, cultural and social aspects of the host country in their procedures to connect with local employees through activities and events to bring employees from different departments together. Even though 2 out of 30 interviewees still believe that communication between departments still needs further development Sn1 stays positive with regards to the opportunities employees from different departments share together and stated: “we celebrate Achoura event (Traditional Cultural Moroccan event, this same event is also considered as religious) in the factory/plant, the environment day, women’s day and we hold sport competitions and an open day for families which concerns all staff without exception even subcontractors working permanently/constantly with the plant”. Y2 illustrated another example for communication between departments which also incorporate the open door strategy followed by these international groups: “I even welcome people from other departments. If it is very important, let’s say it is related to logistics and I see that the logistics manager is busy, I will not wait for him to be available, I will make a call and talk to the person concerned and discuss the problem with them considering me like their manager”. When there is a certain familiarity between departments, it engenders more understanding and support between departments where for instance a manager can welcome employees from other departments to discuss work issues. Saying that, considering the company’s nature of activities is important, when choosing the right channels to use, especially in between departments. For example, interactions between departments in a company operating in tourism are not the same as a company in the automotive sector. Moreover, employees in companies in the automotive sector communicate differently. The reason behind it is that if a specific
department involved in the process like the production, bearing in mind that this department locates a big number of employees, communication takes another path: “If it concerns employees; there is a meeting with their supervisors or delegates given they are directly related to them especially when we are dealing with big numbers of employees in the production. So the information goes through their delegates. Then delegates will transfer the information face to face, they talk to them and see their feedback and reactions about the given information and if it is positive, then it is confirmed by writing”. Hence, the size of the department itself is important to choose whether communication between departments is feasible or not.

The second category incorporates communication within the same department shown through the amount of information exchanged within the team. Communication within the same group is represented through the daily interactions or during meetings and it was claimed to be important and natural within the team members as stated by L3: “I don’t need to meet with them informally to know what’s happening because internally, I don’t think that there is a need to know what’s happening. The information goes by in a smooth way”.

**Communication Tools**

Following Table 5.2:8 of tools interviewees have chosen for communication, communication by phone appears to be the second most frequent tool used by employees to communicate with each other informally after direct interactions. In some cases and depending on the position and hierarchy of the employee, phone calls are a practical way to get access to information quickly and directly from the source and it could be informal or formal like L4 who stated that in some situations “it happens that when there are
happening events during the project cycle, the head of the department calls me to ask about the critical state, to decide and to help him with the progress of the project”.

Using emails as a tool of communication is limited as some employees consider it as a tracking tool of the work done. Y2 summarised the meaning of exchanging emails as according to him: “the first is that it is a communication tool to inform people. The second interpretation of emails is that it could be considered as a tool to throw the ball to someone just to show that you informed them. So it becomes their problem to deal with whatever I sent. It could be a ticking bomb, I throw it and I am not concerned anymore. I inform you and put the responsibility on you about this matter. I passed the information and I have a trace that I did my job and the rest is your problem”. Interpreting the use of emails in communication where it is a communication tool but intentions are different: “I want to get rid of the task by doing what I am supposed to do” or as a sharing tool.

Technologies offer advanced ways of communication with employees that international companies try to have. There are other tools used by employees such as Microsoft Outlook or the TMT (Task Management Tool) which include employees involved in a specific task. Once the task is launched, it has a description of the work and the progress of tasks can be easily followed. According to managers, this tool helps in sharing the progress of the work more than following up employees’ progress.

- **Summary**

To sum up, communication is another theme raised by participants and it is also composed of different sub-themes that covering the important aspects in relation to their perception of the company with regards to communication. Figure 5.2:4 summarises the different
sub-themes showing the diverse links of how communication is incorporated in such organisational systems.

Figure 5.2: Communication sub-themes from Section Two of the Interviews using NVivo

5.3.2.3. Culture

From key codes identified during the content analysis, the author of the research decided to regroup categories related to various aspects of culture either organisational or national into a generic theme called “Culture”. The reason behind it is that from interviewees’ perception of culture, it was not about defining the two types of culture but rather link their understanding on how different the two are in order to adapt with this international vision and the organisation’s procedures. From an organisational aspect, interviewees consider their national culture, claimed to be as open and adaptive to accept and understand any other culture including the one inside the company. For example, there are employees who gained experience in various international companies such as Y1 who
stated: “I have worked for other environments: Italian and French but it is my first experience with a Japanese group. There is certainly a change in relation to culture which is very important”. This leads to considering the role of different organisational cultures in the way organisations are managed. Y4 comes with his own interpretation to these differences, based on his own experience, considering the Japanese way of management to be different from the European style: “Japanese and European mentalities are different. From my experience, Japanese focus on the conditions more than the result. Conditions come first then result and this could be seen for example when taking into account employees’ wellbeing... Europeans are different, they want to see results then they will adjust the conditions and provide work environment facilities...”. Moving from the sub-theme “cultural differences” to “cultural openness”, interviewees also believe that any international company operating in Morocco will be adapting their procedures with respects to the Moroccan culture at a more formal level through Morocco’s legislation of employment and labour law concerning the Moroccan work code (Hajji and Idrissi, 2014). L3 clarified the adaptation phase where the international company, once installed in Morocco, apply their headquarters’ standards taking the same managerial system that exists in their group and all its subsidiaries then it is the role of the local management to develop it and to some extent adapt the company’s culture to fit the host country’s culture. Few interviewees from M-Company disagreed with this statement and it is the only participating company that has a Swiss managing director. For instance, M2 thinks that this adaptation is not applied yet given that those making this adaptation are not considering the Moroccan employee’s situation. Comparing between an employee in Switzerland or Europe in general is not similar to the situation of a Moroccan employee who is facing many challenges from economic, cultural and others stating that: “When M-Company applies the standards in Europe, and Switzerland, they follow those
standards, because they are well taken care of. When the employees are given standards to follow, they follow them. In Morocco, The employee is not given his due and is marginalized so when you ask this employee to follow the standards, you are asking the impossible”. In other words, M2 thinks standards at M-Company need to fit with employees’ needs where the managing director who is a non-Moroccan, should understand and consider the social and economic challenges local employees face. This is one of the reasons why international companies, choose a Moroccan management staff as explained by Y1 who was in the period where Y-Company was managed by Portuguese who could not understand why employees were unhappy and started a strike because the management did not allow them to get an additional day during one of the main religious celebration in Morocco. Portuguese top managers did not understand at that time the importance of this religious celebration to the local employees especially that most of them live in far regions and need 1 to 2 days just to travel. The current managing director of Y-Company was the one who managed to convince the management about giving employees an additional day and also convinced employees to go back to their functions and continue working promising them the additional day. Knowing and understanding the culture and sub-cultures employees are coming from, have saved Y-Company millions. M-Company is still new in Morocco compared to the other companies who gained enough experience by embracing, to some extent, the culture of the country within their practices.

Interviewees claimed to understand and differentiate between the national and organisational culture, however, it does not mean that the national culture is not present in the work environment where international companies are operating in. Even though employees follow standards with all the advantages they cited and the changes already in
place or to be considered, the local cultural aspect is visible to interviewees in some situations such as the case of M7 who talked about her first experience working in an international company as a good experience pointing out that “I am much respected as I am a part of the HR department... they need a form or a favour so they respect me. Their behaviour is different because they need your services – being in the HR department. They seek us to ask for days off and ask for a lot of things. So employees treat us differently... We are respected or they just take us into consideration because they need us”. In this case the national culture is present in a negative way where employees use the element of power or try not to upset that specific employee because s/he is needed.

Another list of related sub-themes was identified as part of culture. First of all, employees are seeking to work for a powerful name and a well-known group even if it does not offer a high salary compared to similar companies with similar activities. M4 for instance expressed that “it is very important to have a label such as M-Company. First, it is a very good reputation... You represent a name, a brand”. Interviewees also refer to their need to be recognised outside the working environment by their friends and families just because they are working for a reputable company. This kind of power was explained by Y2: “you will always be solicited by everybody to assist in workshops, training sessions and you get the support everywhere and from everyone. This is not limited to specific people but it touches employees from all levels starting with operators to their managers”.

Another sub-theme called “Moroccan identity” was revealed to be important to interviewees. To back up their views, interviewees were using Moroccan quotes to express their ideas such as a Moroccan saying in relation to this sub-theme: “human is the son of their environment - you belong to the environment where you come from”.

204
Some explained it as even if the person lives or studies in a foreign country or away from their own environment, people’s perception of where you come from will never change, the change might occur for some time then the person goes back to their origins.

According to some participants, they linked the element of responsibility as embedded in the Moroccan culture. Historically as discussed in Chapter 1, Moroccans have been through many changes during and after colonisation, the social and economic challenges also played an important role in taking more responsibility in their adaptation process. This perception is also seen as cultural by interviewees. This cultural and linguistic openness, positively perceived by employees, has also negative consequences that some employees named as an identity loss in a way that colonisation destroyed the Moroccan and Arabic language as while thinking in Moroccan, reports and meetings are conducted in French. The impact of culture does not concern only international companies but also Moroccan employees.

To sum up, employees become more open to working in international companies especially that it does not represent a specific ethnicity or racial group. With all nationalities involved, it brings a rich cultural mixture that has advantages and disadvantages as illustrated in Figure 5.2:5 summarising the main sub-themes extracted from participants’ responses and regrouped them into the “Culture” theme.
5.3.2.4. Perceived Trust – From Employees towards the Company

Section Two of the interview was about employees’ perception of the company they work for. Unintentionally, knowing the topic of the research or because it was important to mention, interviewees have included the element of trust in their views even though none of the 5 questions asked in this section are directly expressing their opinion about it. Yet, the element of trust was briefly introduced by interviewees sharing their experience with the company they work from a trust perspective. Most interviewees measure their trust to the company they work from the way they are motivated either through advancement and by being given equal opportunities offered by the company.

When interviewing managers, they believe that it is important to treat their subordinates fairly given it motivates the team to work positively. Another example was given by a manager about how fairness is applied internally through small gestures that occur
internally in his department when employees receive symbolic gifts from clients and suppliers like pens, agendas, etc. To avoid any frustration among the team, managers in this case make sure that received gifts are distributed fairly. Employees’ satisfaction is not by receiving gifts but it is more a behaviour about the way they were treated by their superiors. Saying that, managers also admit that it is challenging but they give this aspect more consideration and this from all angles especially that most of participating companies believe in such values as illustrated in Table 5.1:2. Moving from vertical to horizontal relationships, most interviewees from middle and low management when discussing this aspect, they described trust as being considered a part of a team. For instance, when an employee is promoted the team will celebrate that as a part of sharing social equity and information will be circulated between departments to share the good news.

Many of the interviewees have been working for the current company for years where they created a strong network and built a name and status within that work environment. This attachment was a reason they gave to justify their choice to stay in the company rather than looking for better opportunities elsewhere as highlighted by Y2: “I am attached to Y-Company and I cannot leave it for some reason that I ignore for now even though I received extremely important offers elsewhere. Then we think thousand times before thinking of leaving. I don’t know why”.

At this level, the theme representing perceived trust was not as relevant as the other identified themes through supporting views to justify interviewees’ perception of the company. However, it was meaningful to most participants, reason why it was mentioned. The author of the research represented objectively the sample’s views to enrich findings
with detailed and in depth explanation given by participants, something that a quantitative
data analysis will not cover.

After analysing participants’ perception of the company, they were asked about their
relationships with other employees at work and this is discussed in the next section.

5.3.3. Third Section of Interview Result – Information about Employees from
Participants’ Point of View

The aim of the third section of the interview was to give interviewees the opportunity to
share their views about their relationships with employees in the company they work for.
Following the same content - thematic analysis used in the previous sections of the
interview, after going through the third section of all the scripts, key codes identified were
regrouped into categories. Each of these categories shares common meanings that link
the codes in the same category. Then, the list of all the extracted categories was again
classified into relevant themes depending on the patterns found to link between them for
a better clarity during the discussion chapter. Hence, the main identified themes are
explored below more in depth sharing employees’ view about each key theme.

5.3.3.1. Communication

Aspects of communication were raised in the interview responses, either to support
aspects that were mentioned in the previous sections in terms of tools and channels
preferred of communication, or to extract new aspects to be considered as relevant as the
others such as examining the benefits behind choosing a way of communication and
justifying their communication choices. The classification of these aspects led to this
theme which explains the process of common used channels and tools of communication as experienced by the interviewees in the 5 different international companies.

It was claimed by interviewees that face to face communication is encouraged in international companies, the ones they work for or from their previous experiences. The process of communication starts through direct interactions. When the matter is urgent or when one of the parties involved in this exchange is not available on-site, communication over the phone is used as the second option in this process. For instance, when interviewees were asked about the methods used to communicate about tasks within and between departments, a summary of preferred channels prioritised by importance is generated in Table 5.2:9.

**Table 5.2:9 Prioritisations of Communication Channels Preferred by the Five Participating Companies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preferred communication Channels</th>
<th>Justifications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Face to face interaction (Informal)</td>
<td>Objectives are always explained face to face to make sure that employees clearly understand how to do a task or how things work. Tools used in this case could be phone or emails to arrange the informal meeting (or chat).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect interaction – Phone</td>
<td>In some situations when one of the parties involved in the communication process is not on site and it is an emergency, information is exchanged over the phone. Phone in this case is the tool used for communication,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
the person might call or send a text to transfer the message.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formal meetings</th>
<th>Not as frequent as the daily direct interactions, employees are formally informed during a formal meeting about strategies and updates then the outcomes of the meeting are documented and circulated electronically either at a managerial level or to all employees.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indirect interaction (As part of the company’s standards)</td>
<td>It is the method that follows the face to face interaction where the concerned employee will be engaged to perform the task as requested then send it electronically. Emails in this case is considered a tool of communication to transfer information not a tool of tracking. Most of interviewees believe that using emails as a daily communication tool is an indicator of mistrust. Therefore direct contact is preferred and emails are avoided unless it is a necessity or a procedure to follow.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The implications of degree of informality in applying formal procedures are also important in an international-Moroccan work environment. 95% of the interviewees from the five companies consider informal communication to be the best way to exchange and share information between employees. It is also claimed to be a way for creating a friendly work environment for employees to build rapport and interact efficiently. Meanwhile, the formal aspect is still present to respect the procedures as set by the company in terms of the formal meetings and documentation of meetings, tasks and actions.
From another perspective with regards to encouraging informality, interviewees noticed that the face to face approach leads employees to be more open discussing work-related matters and personal stories at work. At a horizontal and at a vertical level, among the 5 companies, all of them incorporated the open door strategy as claimed by participating managers. The reason behind it is to allow employees from the same department or other departments to discuss work or personal matters. According to managers, they prefer to be close to their subordinates to know them better and to create a more open work environment not only as a way to mitigate risks at work but to understand the team’s needs discussing their concerns either personal or work-based informally. Interestingly, from a none-Moroccan top manager’s experience, M1 sees Moroccan employees facing a challenge in applying the open door strategy and discuss with managers their issues. According to him, employees at first felt uncomfortable with this approach and even if the process of change is slow, it is accepted to some level.

3 out of 30 responses prefer to keep their concerns, work or personal related, between the team without escalating it to the manager. For example, Y4 will try to find a solution with his colleagues first explaining that: “The manager is always there for us and if there is problem or something is wrong, he will talk to us and ask us what’s going on... If it is something between colleagues then we keep it between us and solve it. We don’t escalate unless it is big then we go to the manager”. According to interviewees who raised this point, they justified the fact of not involving the manager not because they are excluding or not trusting him/her; it is more about being considerate respecting the hierarchy and the workload their managers deal with.
5.3.3.2. Culture

The aspect of culture was again raised in this third section of the interview. This time, it was more about the national culture and how it influences employees’ relationships. To explore this identified theme, using the same approach followed to define themes previously stated, interviewees shared their views on the role of national culture in the way employees interact with each other in the international companies they work for. Interviewees were asked to what extent the Moroccan culture is reflected in the way Moroccan employees work and it was interesting to see employees’ awareness on the aspect of culture. The majority of employees in the 5 companies are Moroccan and all of them, including the non-Moroccan participant in this sample agree in a way or another that culture is present to some extent as a way of living. This was considered as normal given the nature of the environment they belong to.

Views on this point were divided into three groups where senior manager interviewees claim to embrace the culture of the company only as a set of standards to follow. From what Y1, Moroccan managing director, stated: “I cannot manage Company Y with a mentality or the same management of a Moroccan organisation. It won’t work. There are standards for quality, for management, feedback system, follow up, openness in communication, etc.” and M1, non-Moroccan managing director, stated in the same context: “I don’t think it is about Moroccan or Tunisian culture, there is one culture followed by Company M everywhere to reach high quality service”. Top management level is more focused on using the company’s standards to reach the same quality through a unified culture of the company headquarter group. It also does not mean they intentionally neglected the national culture but there is an understanding of the situation. That was justified by all seniors in the sample especially M1 who, comparing the
Moroccan working environment to the Swiss culture, believes that work is done the same way but work in the Moroccan environment requires more communication and managers’ involvement with their employees to reach the same level. Y1, a Moroccan managing director at Y-Company, added that management as practices should be beyond culture and to move forward according to him, it is better to focus on common aspects that unify the group the most instead of focusing on what differentiate them the most. Respecting each other’s differences is a very important rule for Y1 as according to him, between a Moroccan and Japanese for example “there are 80% of things that can reunite them, in a way or another... We are all the same. We have specificities that we should all know and respect”.

On the other hand, middle managers, being more involved with employees, see the national culture from a positive angle assuming that generally speaking Moroccans are known for their commitment at work. Even those who are not committed at the beginning feel the pressure with time and insure the completion of the task. Human values appears to be given lot of importance at this middle managerial level where some managers prefer to have in their teams “well raised” employees, which means someone respectful and honest. The definition of “Well raised” in the Moroccan context is related to the person’s manners, sharing good characteristics. These characteristics might not be directly related to that person but their family is known for its respected roots or respectful background, that person will be automatically classified as “well-mannered”. Yet, as referred by Y2 and even though it could be misleading at times when subjectivity dealing with this aspect as abstract it is in measuring how well-mannered the person is: “we go with the idea of “this person is a good person from a good family, well raised”, and the person is honest even though he is bad but he always stays as an honest person for everyone and here is
where personality depends on culture”. In this spirit and according to him, the fact that a person is good or coming from a good family is important in the Moroccan culture.

The final group representing the low management level participants believe that the Moroccan culture exists. They claim that Moroccan managers still find it difficult to recognise their subordinates’ efforts, which is a part of the Moroccan culture. In this context, when an employee is acknowledged for their hard work, it is not common that managers thank them as way of recognising the employees’ efforts, there will be using the expression of “good but...” which is frequent used by traditional Moroccan managers. The “but” means that the person did well but still expecting more from them. Subordinates think that culture controls the management style chosen to manage employees. Examples given by interviewees couldn’t be generalised over the whole sample of managers but still, it is representative of an existing category of Moroccan describing the traditional way in managing people. It will be discussed more in depth in the next chapter.

In relation to motivation and leadership, a few of them also raised the impact of culture on their degree of motivation because of the way they are treated. For instance, culture interferes with how procedures are applied to motivate employees. It was claimed that other ways of reward, rather than financial rewards, are not considered. This supports, to some extent, the previous point about the kind of recognition employees are looking for. 4 out of 30 consider the company’s promotion and bonus system very rigid (1 from a middle management level and 3 from low management level). For them, demotivation comes from the feeling of unfairness following a pay/remuneration system that considers same positions equally whether you are educated or not. However, in a way to motivate employees, managing directors an opposite view, they actually come up with the new pay
system considering functions rather than people. The reason behind it is that some employees could negotiate their salaries at the beginning whereas others, without negotiation skills or previous experience, might have a lower salary which later on could affect their performance in the company. This might engender other issues like employees feeling not valued by their managers leading to a decrease or lack of motivation.

Overall, the influence of culture was positively perceived as it brings different people from various backgrounds to work together and adapt showing that participants are aware of this diversity. Moreover, Moroccan culture is in itself a set of sub-cultures; given that employees are coming from different regions of Morocco. What helps in this learning and adaptation process is that in the 5 participating international companies, youth is strongly present and in a single team, sub-cultures are present. With all the clashes and differences that might happen, it is a learning process for employees to deal with diversity in such a way to unify the team. This cultural exchange help employees understand the elements that differentiate one from another and respect the diversity of the group.

5.3.3.3. Organisational Structure

Same analysis has been used to process data and identify this theme. Hence, the following description explored key data that related between the sub-themes to identify the patterns found between this theme and its sub-themes.

- Organisation Structure and the Role of Leadership

Another aspect with regards to motivation in the 5 companies are about setting motivational approaches such as the employee of the month or employee of the year, motivation through empowerment, delegation, etc. When asked about this point,
motivation was only seen in one way as the way manager motivates his/her subordinates. Motivation also comes from the way employees from same hierarchical levels support each other in a motivational way. L8 raised this and considered that there is more cooperation between employees which is motivating. The reason behind this cooperation as explained by L8 is that there is no competition between colleagues because each one of them in the department has a different position and a specific function different from the others. Each one is feeling safe and there is no danger that one takes their position so they feel more relaxed and comfortable and this creates more willingness to help each other and support each other.

Again, most interviewees claimed that motivation is not always about money as stated by Y4 “when you give nothing even if they increase your salary whatsoever it reaches and you are not motivated, you don’t feel comfortable”. Managers consider motivation in their way they manage their employees; encouraging them by being close to them, understanding what they want and appreciating what they do. Table 5.2:10 shows the different aspects in relation to leadership which according to interviewees is an important element in this theme.

**Table 5.2:10 Impact of Leadership on Trust Building within a Defined Organisational Structure**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership situations</th>
<th>Justifications using interviewees’ examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership is expressed through the way managers motivate employees. They emphasize on being fair and transparent. It is also the</td>
<td>Y6: “I give employees the opportunity to take risks, to find solutions on their own, ask others help to find the solution but at a certain level when I feel they are blocked or I feel it turns to red (danger), I interfere either by giving them direct solutions or giving them...”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are different ways to motivate employees. Some managers claimed during the interviewees to choose internal promotions using the opportunities offered internally by the company. Leadership has led to the element of fairness that appears to offer equal opportunities insuring that hardworking employees deserve to be promoted. Another
element raised by interviewees from different management levels, is behavioural integrity. For example, when the manager promises the employee the promotion, the promise is respected. Between trusting in the manager’s promise, and the manager’s being fair and keeping their promise, employees - the one to be promoted and their colleagues - develop a trusting behaviour on that manager, through his actions linking the aspects of leadership and trust in this organisational structure.

Moving to another type of motivation, more than 50% of interviewees relate motivation to creating a good working environment and gaining more experience in such a diverse workplace. For instance, motivation is when events are organised at the department level to motivate employees and all companies encourage such initiative as claimed by all interviewees.

**Employees’ Perceived Trust from an Organisational Structure Perspective**

As expressed by interviewees when asked about procedures and aspects with regards to the organisational structure, the structure in participating companies is reflected through followed formal procedures. It represents the various organisational levels and the degree of power or decision making they are involved in. From low management levels, use of power and respect of structure are accepted when employees at a lower level are feeling involved and recognised.

An organisational way of recognising employees efforts, all participating companies follow appraisal systems as standards where employees are evaluated by their managers through the annual objectives. The formal nature of the organisational structure is also represented through the monthly meetings and debriefings where managers monitor their
employees’ progress and also provide moral support. This strengthens the manager-employee relationship to an extent that hierarchy is not felt within employees as expressed by M5 “In our group we don’t adhere to the hierarchy”. However, L4 shared an example where hierarchy could be a barrier in terms of sharing information or might impact relationships between departments stating that “sometimes it depends on the person making the request. If it is a manager within the group, our manager will transmit the request to me and I will dispatch it to the person who will execute it, mainly by email to share the information”. In this specific situation, emails are used between departments to insure that the information have arrived to the concerned person and this indirectly shows the degree of trust within the different departments as it shows the respect of procedures within the company.

In general and according to the overall responses, organisational structure offers a friendly environment where hierarchy even though it exists, it is not felt as the hierarchy in a local organisation. Majority of the interviewees also recognized, moving from a rigid structure and acknowledging the importance of the human role by these organisations led to the implementation of new managerial practices. It resulted in having positive outcomes as pointed out by Y1 from the top management level: “In my strategic act when I was elected the best plant for the client PSA 2014 globally... When I took the direction of the group 5 years ago we were blacklisted and we couldn’t get any new markets because we were not good in terms of quality and delivery because we were not managing our projects. Why? People were demotivated, people are not recognised and their problems were ignored, there was a very high turnover and over 4000 employees we had 300 leaving each month... It is impressive as a figure so for now less than 20 people instead of 300 are leaving and the 20 are mainly operators but management level nearly 0%”. This was one
of the good examples to emphasize how trust between employees and systems can take place as an efficient practice if creating a healthy atmosphere. This links to other outcomes like increasing employees’ performance and employees feeling more motivated and valued.

5.3.3.4. Summary

Section Three of the interviews generates a rich understanding of the main aspects emerging from this data set linking themes identified from various patterns and meanings that seems to be important to interviewees; reason why they raised them many times.

Using a schematic drawing, Figure 5.2:6 illustrates the main themes and sub-themes emerging from data. Starting with the grey section, it lists all the factors raised by interviewees which were regrouped into the theme of communication between employees. This theme led to another element called perceived trust raising the role of communication in building trust between employees. For instance, the choice of communication channels depends on the nature of the task and the numbers of time employees get to interact with each other within and between departments. This provides a platform that employees base their judgements to initiate trust on others depending on observed behaviours through other employees’ actions during these interactions, leading to the final section of the interview to be explored next.
5.3.4. Fourth Section of Interview Result – Definitions and antecedents of Trust from the Participant’s Point of View

5.3.4.1. Is Trust Important Between Employees?

Now that a picture was drawn about how employees perceive the company they work for, employees they work with, this section focuses on participants’ perception and understanding of trust. Before asking them about their understanding of trust and how they define it, interviewees’ first question in this section of the interview was whether they believe trust is an important aspect between employees. Most participants consider trust as an important component at work either between employees or with regards to the company as a structure, policies and practices.
Yet, trust is approached differently from one employee to another like M3 follows a personal technique which seems working according to him. Being straightforward by nature and coming from an IT background, he prefers to clarify things from the beginning asking his subordinates not to hide anything and be direct: “I don’t like people hiding things, I don’t like “Zigzags” (people not being straightforward), indirect things, I am frank, direct, I make it known from the beginning, and therefore, if the person shares the same viewpoint, we follow this path and the trust is naturally acquired; personally, it’s the way I am, I don’t know if it’s the best approach or the worst, but it works, and my assistant shares the same point of view and he uses the same perspective, and Alhamdoli ALLAH (Thanks GOD), till now it works and I have no worries on this matter”.

A minority among the interviewees does not believe in trust as a relevant element at work. According to St5 who is a young professional employee with high qualifications, work for her will be done whether she trust her colleagues or not. She justified her statement using previous experiences where she trusted colleagues who let her down. Additionally, coming from an Engineering background, she preferred to be more practical in terms of following processes and thinking logically instead of analysing situations with emotions.

Various examples were raised by interviewees through their responses about specific situations in relation to trust leading to the main factors to explain the importance of trust at work:

- Some linked it to religion where for instance Y3 provided examples from Quran (The Islamic religious Book) on how trusting in Allah (God) help in being honest, treating others with respect and performing work properly: “why do we have to go that far? Trust
has been an important part of our religion and it is clearly mentioned in Quran – Surat Al’Imran (3:122) “When two parties from among you were about to lose heart, but Allah was their Wali (Supporter and Protector). And in Allah should the believers put their trust.” and (3:159) “Then when you have taken a decision, put your trust in Allah, certainly, Allah loves those who put their trust (in Him)”.

Education refers to the person’s academic background and education also refers to what the person learnt from their life experiences. The second aspect of education was found to be another indicator on how employees develop a trusting environment and shows to what extent it affects, over time, their interactions with other employees and their performance. Gaining experience from life situations could be enriching as the person can live in autonomy and can easily adapt. For example, M6 gave the example of when she was working for a Spanish international company where the element of trust does not exist and is not encouraged. Sharing her own experience, she stated: “the Spanish people say that trust is: “la confianza da asco” [trust does not exist – If trust exist, it becomes bad with time]... When I was a new recruit, they told me you are not going to stay more than a year... When I asked they told me that trust “da asco” [trust spoils things]... I spent years working for them... With time employees become more acquainted; the employer starts to loosen up and interact with you more like a friend than a boss... that is why they limit contracts to 6 months, they think that if you stay more you know more the manager’s habits, and you will use it to your advantage and work less. They become psychologically manipulated. Once I moved here [M-Company, Swedish] it was totally different, if you do not trust me you will not trust me to do the job and if you do not trust me we cannot move forward”. From this emerges another pattern in relation to
management styles that will be discussed in next chapter raising the social and economic aspects that were first discussed in Chapter 1.

Trust explored in this research is work-related and few interviewees insisted in clearly distinguishing between the two like Y4 who differentiate between work-related and personal life trust: “There are many people I know and I trust at work but I don’t trust them outside work because that kind of trust is something different”. However more than 80% of interviewees consider trust as an added value gained through their interactions with people regardless the context whether it is work or personal life. In other words, these given examples show the importance of trust as seen by interviewees when working in a specific work environment. Given that trust is approached and understood from different angles, this led to question interviewees about defining trust and clarify their own understanding of trust in a Moroccan-international work environment.

5.3.4.2. Definition of Trust

When it comes to formulating a clear definition of trust, interviewees were challenged by the question finding it difficult to provide a proper definition and synonyms given that their understanding comes from their own experience and through real life examples. In this case, trust was defined by interviewees through qualities they identified in other employees they trust from the same company they work in.

As mentioned earlier, trust is considered as important in a work environment; however, it is not given to everyone. It is a learning process a person reaches through experience and continuous interactions as highlighted by Y6: “First of all, trusting someone is a culture, it’s an education, a discipline to trust or not”. The first element essential to
initiate trust is employees’ willingness to trust others. According to interviewees, it is mutual to some extent depending on individuals and their intentions from trust and only time would say whether the person deserves more or no trust as pointed out respectively by Y6 and L7: “Firstly, it is willing to trust. Secondly, we establish trust through a professional relationship day after day. The initiative at the beginning is important to know the person and then see how to deal with them later” and “I deal with people with a good intention but with time you discover whether you should keep this trust with this person or not. You start and you are willing to trust this person and if it’s not the same case for that person then there is no balance”.

There are some important qualities in people they trust at work that all interviewees agreed on in the element of trust in order to create a comfortable environment where by interacting well with each other, they feel more involved and more engaging:

- **Respect of promises, Man of actions and Commitment** (Behavioural Integrity): The general perception of respect is involved in the process of trust coming from the fact that respecting others is about considering people’s self-esteem and dignity and this creates trust. Respect could be defined from different angles. For example, to build and develop trust, some interviewees believe it is a matter of respecting any given promise, being committed to fulfil these promises and being “un homme de parole - a man of his words” as translated from French to English. St4 related trust to employees’ actions considering those who respect their promises and are committed in the way they work which with time become role models everyone trust. For example, Y4 trust as: “when you meet up your commitments with them and at that time, anything you tell them, they take it and believe you without the need of checking elsewhere”. The element of time
is a part of the trust process given that it is not reached till employees deal with other at various occasions and in different situations, which few interviewees called the testing phase before initiating trust like L7: “I don’t reach a level of trust till I do my tests and from the beginning to test the person and situations”.

- **Security feeling:** The element of discretion was considered of high importance for interviewees between employees from same department or between employees who worked together for many years. They claim no private shared information should be disclosed and privacy is respected with people they trust. It is also about being able to confide to someone you work with without pressure knowing that you will not regret it. M7 for instance is a good example to explain the security element that was raised in trusting a person at work: “Trust is not for everybody, some people you trust because you feel at ease with them, with some you keep your shell up because they might report to the manager, and there are others that you keep so far away from, you do not trust at all; only 1 or 2% are worthy of your total trust”. In addition to feeling a part of the team you are working with and within a human-focused organisational structure, security was also linked to the procedures and standards that some international companies offer to Moroccan employees, L4 shared his personal experience in relation to trust and security: “It’s about security; I have to feel secure that I have rights that are respected and protected. Trust is also dependable on the team with whom I work”.

- **Transparent Communication:** Communication is indirectly involved in all the qualities that are listed by interviewees. It is about creating an open environment where employees are open and approachable. This is another reason why managers encouraged the open door strategy as interviewees highlighted. When communication is based on
mutual understanding and transparent sharing, a feeling of security and respect is initiated between the parties involved in the process whatever their position, gender or culture is.

- **Shared human qualities:** More than 60% of interviewees believe trust is a set of human qualities and the more qualities and values you share with a person, the more comfortable your relationship is and the faster trust is built with that person. For example, L4 prefers those who share common points with him as it is easy to understand. M3, in his case, differentiates between human qualities and competence qualities which according to him are connected qualities: “humanly speaking, the person is upright, sincere, clear in their ideas, communicative. There is also the competence aspect, if we are not competent, we cannot trust this person; on the technical level, the person needs to remain up-to-date and creative”. At a professional level, when it comes to improving services and an overall performance at a department level, having someone who is willing to help and support others is a human quality that inspires trust according to L8. Many used the expression of “Well raised - Well mannered” linking the person’s human qualities to the environment they are coming from and where they were raised referring to a disciplined, polite and nice person as main qualities that contribute in building trust. Another quality that was discussed was honesty. An honest person is defined as someone who knows how to interact with other employees. They also know how to deal with challenges and various situations by being honest in their words and actions and this determines another component of trust. Interviewees consider this quality to be important given that in such competitive work environment where high quality is required, honesty saves employees time giving them the opportunity to improve their performance and advance in their career like for example managers being honest with their subordinates in evaluating their progress and being honest in showing them how to improve themselves.
Receiving Support from each other: Receiving support from colleagues where the person is confident that there will be at least one who you can count on is an aspect of trust. It is not only about knowing that the person is there but being sure that you will get support from them as highlighted by M9, Y6 and others: “she’s there whenever we need her, it’s someone who supports us, helps us; she is always there” sometimes we need the others’ opinions”. What strengthen trust is the person’s actions such as making time and being a good listener without being judged.

Good Leadership: Good leadership in this context and from interviewees examples and explanations, it is measured through the way managers motivate their employees. Trust is developed over time through these motivational approaches, employees feel positive, more involved and confident about themselves. One of the raised approaches is training where some managers noticed a clear change in their subordinates who have been offered training and courses to improve their educational level as stated by the managing director St1: “I noticed a clear change in the performance level, the competence and the work efficiency, and for the moment being I’m happy... when you train people, they are more confident about themselves”. Moving to another aspect of good leadership, Y3, an HR manager who related loyalty to leadership as an aspect of trust. As for him, leadership comes from the way the manager deals with his employees: “One is the eldest person I worked with and he is my M-1, he is very modest and even if I shout at him 10 times a day, each time I do, he quickly forgets. He always recognises his mistakes buuuuuuuuut when I tell him something between us, he will not even repeat it to himself in the mirror”. Sn is another example of leadership who believes that openness allow employees to develop their competences and become passionate about what they
do “try my best to create this environment fair, open and allowing development of competences in a healthy environment. In theory, if people find such environment, their moral value adjust to these values and gives excellent results” which will automatically generate trust as a practice.

- **Motivation:** Given that the five companies participating in this research belong to stressful overloaded sectors, and without motivation, “there will be no trust. So if the manager recognises his/her employees’ efforts, it will have an impact on their productivity and work level, then trust of course” as clearly explained by Y5. Delegating work to subordinates is another approach to motivate and inspire employees. For example, L3 is away in a mission for few days for a specific reason, he is confident and trust his employees in the engineering department about doing the work as usual and that if there is a problem, he will be informed about it “as long as I don’t receive a call I know that everything is good, I can count on the other person on all levels: technical, human, procedures, relationships with the other departments; this is trust”. M4 believes in teamwork and the importance of delegating, taking risks and learning from mistakes by giving constructive comments as a lesson to everyone in the team to learn from: “Trust in a team is very important to keep them together, it is a union because we are human, we can all make mistakes, you discuss and give warnings, and clarify things, make them aware and why, I gave you warning because you made a mistake not because I don’t trust you”. This is seen as a positive motivational tool from subordinates who defined trust towards their managers as receiving various chances to make mistakes, learn from it and being encouraged by their manager knowing that their manager will not judge them for making mistakes “…sometimes they are bad mistakes. It has nothing to do with forgiveness, they give second chances, we are part of the company and we are moving
forward, so they encourage you and take your back… This is what makes you trust this person…tries to push you not to repeat the same mistake”.

Trust definition varied from person to another but in general, trust comes from different situations that employees face while interacting with each other. This may involve one or more qualities as mentioned in this section (5.2.6.2).

5.3.4.3. The Elements Involved in Process of Trust Building in an International-Moroccan Work Environment

In a way to refine interviewees’ responses about their perception of trust, they were also asked to describe the process itself. To explore the process of trust building through the various qualities that were raised till this stage, interviewees who believe that trust is important at work were asked to explain how they build it to identify the elements they focus on to initiate it. The aim of this question was to define a clear understanding of the process of trust building based on the common aspects regrouped into key themes they raised from interviewees’ experiences.

- Honesty and Behavioural Integrity (BI): In addition to what was mentioned earlier, some interviewees linked trust to the act of being transparent and honest as explained by L3: “Already, in order to have it [referring to trust], we must be honest with ourselves and with the team. If we say something, we don’t come the next day and say something different. It’s very important; it makes a deep impression on the person and on the team as well”. Interviewees claimed that through their daily working experiences and their interactions with each other recognise those who deserve their trust. Individuals’
actions and how others perceive it determines whether the person is to trust and to what extent.

**Leadership and Organisational structure:** In this sample, leadership and organisational structure are related in the five international companies in Morocco. From interviewees’ responses about leadership, managers or employees at higher levels are seen by their subordinates as a source of knowledge and as an intellectually capable manager who can teach his/her skills and inspire employees to perform better. At all organisational levels, employees’ trust towards the structure is reflected by their respect and awareness of policies and tools available. The company’s vision is supported by workshops and activities to build values and encourage certain practices like the managing director Y1 gave the example of seminars organised by the company about teambuilding and management where for instance: “*this activity about how to trust your team, when you fall, you already know that they will not let you down so I just fall knowing they will catch me... There are lot of activities similar to this and here I am not saying we are perfect but we belong to a human field and it is subjective we can’t be a 100% rational but we try our best to be healthy and in the safe side*”. Considering the structure from another angle, the impact of interactions between employees within the same department and from different departments on trust. L7 is one of the 90% interviewees who described their department as homogenous given they deal with the same employees within this department and the same manager. This creates a certain harmony where everyone knows and understands their functions, shares the same values and are able to interact easily with more opportunities to develop trust. However, interviewees from middle and low management were reticent in describing the relationship they have with other departments
as each interviewee believe that relationships and practices within their department are better than in other departments as expressed by M2.

- **Motivation:** Most interviewees insisted on doing their best as a self-motivation approach, showing respect to the agreement they signed with the company when they joined and this leads to feeling rewarded by being committed and engaged as pointed out by St4: “By doing so, we are always having this peace of mind; I am relaxed because I am doing my best”. Recognising employees’ hard work does not only motivate them, it also challenges the other employees to perform better. This may have a positive impact on the other employees in relating the manager’s action as being fair and supportive. It depends on how employees interpret other employees’ actions including their managers’ actions and decisions. like M5, relating lack of trust to the lack of motivation stated: “…when there is no trust, you feel depressed and you lack the motivation to work”. Some personal characteristics may influence their perception of work in general as they could be passive accepting and executing tasks without any personal involvement or risk taking and therefore motivation decreases. Motivation in this context will be discussed in the next chapter linking it to all the emerging patterns from themes identified from this data set.

- **Openness:** Another element in the process of trust that was raised during the interviews. For example, Y3 who is one of HR managers in these participating companies, which given their position they have various interactions with employees, who linked trust to the component of openness. From a managerial perspective, trust is generated from the fact that a manager understands his/her employees and their needs. It is about building a personal profile to be accounted for. Interviewees believe it involves a set of
skills to be developed such as communication, credibility, emotional intelligence, management and leadership skills to preserve an open environment where employees feel secure to be willing to trust their manager as a response to their manager’s openness.

- **Fairness:** The indicator of being fair in the process of trust is not measured based on how good or bad the person is as concluded by most senior managers. It is about feeling secure and treated the same way as anyone else without discrimination. Some managers treat the more hardworking employees better than others as a motivational practice to challenge others to do better. This aspect will be also discussed in next chapter to differentiate between various management styles and motivational practices from a cultural perspective.

- **Discretion:** Discretion was mainly brought up by interviewees from middle and low management levels. 70% of interviewees stressed on sharing either personal or work-related problems with those they trust knowing it will not be exposed or known outside the confidence circle.

- **Religion – Faith:** Some see trust from a religious perspective building trust with people comes from their belief in Allah (God) and the existence of religion was noticed in interviewees’ views on values and respect of others as elements that they learnt about from religion. Faith and the role of religion in terms of initiating trust with good intentions were raised by more than 85% of total interviewees. Some consider trust as part of the Islamic education the person received and coming from an environment used to have trust in Allah (God) no matter what as pointed out by Y2. The importance of religion and its role in building trust was linked to lies as stated by L3: “We are Muslims –we shouldn’t...”
lie saying “don’t lie to me”. Thus, not lying is amongst the principles in order to establish trust, no matter what the circumstances are, and it’s valued by the team”. There was no differentiation from interviewees about trusting only Muslims because they are sharing the same religion otherwise as some clearly stated, they would not have worked and adapted easily in international organisations. Religion in here involves all religions sharing common values whether it is Islam, Christianity, Judaism, etc. At this stage, given interviewees raised the point of religion and what it means to them. It is one of the aspects that were briefly highlighted in the literature chapter to differentiate between the national culture and religion. Identified patterns between trust and religion could also be important in expanding on the discussion in next chapter, not only from a trust perspective but to explore the Moroccan way of management which is partly relevant to answer one of the research questions.

- **Security:** The element of security is mainly related to Maslow’s hierarchy of needs where employees see in the company and its hierarchy a secure work environment (See Chapter 6). Interviewees were looking for security from different angles. For example, the process of searching about the company, its vision and employees working in there is expressed by 45% of the interviewees as stated by L4: “because when we join a group, and because of the unemployment issue, you have to think, before making the first step, about security, before even applying for the job. We have questions about the percentage of laid-offs within the company and the reasons, the level of orientation, etc. We need to understand the social context of the company. Is it a stressful environment? What is the educational level of managers and individuals working within the company and we approach employees working there to ask them”. The concept of security brings the element of trust at many levels. For instance taking the case of new employees, even
before joining the company, they collect information about the company and managers in charge by checking their career path and by tracking employees who worked with them whether they progressed career wise while working with these managers.

5.3.4.4. Prioritisation of Factors Identified by Participants in Building Trust

International companies according to interviewees provide a stable and secure environment even if it is demanding. It requires more input and discipline from employees compared to Moroccan national companies. It adds new values and improves the person qualities with the company’s qualities as a part of the international experience. After extracting the various qualities that interviewees identified as important elements in the trust building process, they were asked to prioritise these from the most to the least important to generate a more visible picture with regards to the process of trust. It appears to be a general conception among interviewees about respect, discipline, support, discretion and communication as inseparable aspects to establish, develop and strengthen trust within the conditions they are offered in an international workplace. There is this general perception from interviewees who believe that if one of these aspects is missing, the other elements will not function properly.

Analysing all the responses, communication can bring employees together to discuss about issues they come across during difficult situations, treat complaints or to listen to new ideas, support and motivate each other. It also brings them together in a way they easily confide about work-related topics as well as their private life. This depends on the degree of trust they have for employees they interact with and to what extent they respect each other’s privacy. It is where the element of discretion was raised in this process as stated by M7: “someone who will keep my secrets ... confidentiality is important and it is
on top of the list”. The fact of sharing secrets with other colleagues, supports the importance of communication which if it is misused leads to negative reactions such as destroying trust as pointed out by L7: “… when the person you share a secret with and doesn’t keep it you cannot accept such an act because they have no reason to take it out and it is unacceptable and once it happens, trust is gone”.

Building trust was also mentioned when linking communication to being credible, disciplined, committed and honest. Credibility comes from respecting your words reflected on your actions, which were discussed in the literature. With this regards, Y6 believes that “if the person is not credible, people will not take him seriously anymore in whatever he says which means the flow of communication will be wasted. If we cut communication, we don’t talk about trust anymore”. Additionally, others such as M8, St1, Sn, L4 brought the elements of honesty, commitment and discipline as the right tools to building trust and performing better as a team.

5.3.4.5. Factors Leading to Decrease or Increase of Trust in an International-Moroccan Work Environment

When interviewees were asked about the factors that lead to increase or decrease trust, the element of time was important. Trust may change over time, being able to initiate trust and deciding not to trust the person anymore is subject to occurring situations and to what extent the trustee is affected by the actions of the one they trusted. A concrete example is given by L3: “What strengthens trust is time; and it can be negative or positive. Thus, the person’s actions with time will show whether the person is to be trusted. The events that follow afterwards allow to enhance this trust. It all depends on the reaction of this person with regards to the events that occur”. St5 supported the idea stating: “…trusting this
person today doesn’t mean it will be the case later. It varies with time. The person should be subject to check in all conditions and times because now everything is fine, the person does their work properly but tomorrow they can betray you”. Time is an important component in the process of trust to be earned by those who are worth it. Trust results out of an accumulation of events that affects the decision of initiating and developing trust as highlighted by L7: “Trust comes with time; it’s a set of events that creates positively or negatively the image of trust... Because the events that have occurred have contributed so that trust becomes solid”.

Effect of the first impression: Most situations cited by interviewees happened after taking into account the fact that the first impression about a person at work could be wrong or right which results in increasing or decreasing trust. Interviewees take into account the work environment they work in, situations based on what the employee subject to trust deliver the work and in which circumstances. This understanding, as considered by interviewees, reinforces trust as negative aspects could be turned into positive ones when employees are more tolerant and problems are encouraged to be discussed openly in order to be fixed. Interviewees in this case insisted that the process involves different qualities and aspects they learn about the person in order to develop a higher level of trust.

Interpreting behaviours as discussed earlier in this section is subjective as it depends from person to another but it appears to be relevant in the decision employees make in initiating and building trust. For example, the way an employee’s actions are interpreted by others through consistent situations where the person in question is approved to be cooperative or helpful, genuine or simply liked by others to generate trust:
**Interpretation of actions to increase trust:** Elaborating more on the elements that increase trust at work, various examples were given by interviewees about what really strengthens their trusting relationship with other employees, such as:

- Learning from previous experiences: Some employees who learnt from previous situations they were facing in the past gain a level of maturity in dealing with new situations.

- Being committed and disciplined at work inspire trust and it also creates a comfortable work environment.

- Showing respect and being respected by others is another factor that reinforce trust between employees which most interviewees consider as a form of support that you show to each other as stated by Y1: “*We have human values which the overall of our employees live within a certain morality applying these human values that we all share together. Then I think with this in mind, trust can be built with the same principles of openness and the fact you can count on each other*”. Having human values that inspire trust by being easily approached by colleagues.

- Quality of relationships in the workplace: Considering the process from an organisational structure angle focusing on the manager-subordinate relationship as well as the behavioural integrity, delegating work and involving subordinate in projects or various tasks reinforce trust as they believe that the manager by giving them more responsibilities is trusting in their abilities in doing these tasks.
Motivation and leadership: It was raised again by majority of interviewees highlighting that it is another way to develop trust like recognising subordinates’ efforts and complimenting them for their good work. Such positive appraisal gives more confidence to employees to perform better and trust in their manager’s decision more. Leading employees properly using motivational approaches strengthens relationships at both horizontal and vertical levels.

- Interpretation of actions to decrease trust: When it comes to the opposite scenario when things go wrong, the initiation stage of trust is affected. Interviewees, instead of using the term “decreased”, they rather prefer to use the term “destroyed”. Many interviewees claimed that it doesn’t happen a lot like M3 clarified this when questioned about the 2 terminologies: “What destroys it or rather reduces it; because if trust is destroyed, it's serious”. Still, the fact of thinking about such radical option shows how important trust is to them. Yet, this does not mean they will stop working together, it rather becomes a matter of dealing with the person with caution given that the person betrayed them. There are many factors that lead to this stage of mistrust:

- The aspect of saying lies and hiding important information: In many answers, interviewees refer to lies as an element that destroys trust like when the person falsifies information to hide a problem or not share an important information where such action may lead to negative outcomes at a bigger scale as supported by M5 response: “In case there was a problem, and you have told the falsified version of what happened, instead of finding solutions you will be looking for the truth, and giving solutions based on wrong information so the outcome will be wrong. Then you lose your credibility and the trust is
lost accordingly. You’ll become watchful and suspicious”. As stated earlier, some interviewees backed up their answers by a verse from Quran as a strong reference and source of how to deal with situations in relation to trust between people. For this specific example stated by M5 for instance, the verse in Quran was: “Oh you who believe. If an unrighteous person brings you any news, ascertain the correctness of the report fully”. Y1 for instance considers lying as not a part of moral and human values as well as not a part of the company’s values. By lying the person creates a strategic problem internally by misleading the other employees and it is not acceptable. Such behaviour is also considered as irresponsible and it is here where some interviewees will become cautious and will start initiating communication with that person through emails to keep track of everything.

- The application of practices inside the company: Highlighting another important element in terms of implementing and applying practices from an employee-company angle, interviewees from middle and low management raised the way practices are applied internally. It is mainly when they feel there is a kind of differentiation between employees which lead those who are not treated fairly to lose trust in the system. Interviewees who raised this point were questioning practices with regards to salary and training as main concerns for their peers from same organisational levels in companies especially M, St and Y: “If we compare someone less educated with a higher salary because he has been working there longer and someone more educated and is paid less than the senior employee because he is new. How would you want that new employee to trust”.

240
Lack of communication: With reference to the implication of lack of communication to decrease of trust, it usually starts with misunderstandings as employees have already initiated trust. This could be based on expectations and hopes that came from initial positive interactions as first wrong impression. In this context, M3 expanded on this point: “it begins through misunderstandings... It can be settled on the person-to-person level, however, on the person-to-company level sometimes it’s more difficult, because in general, we don’t necessarily have someone who speaks in the name of the company, and who knows how to restore this trust. When it’s weakened, unfortunately, it remains like that for a long time or definitely, and there is no reparation”.

Employees consider their privacy as a red line: When it comes to interpreting values and behaviours among interviewees, some characteristics are shown to be critical in losing trust if that characteristic is not respected. For example, if one is not respecting others’ privacy and sharing information they were supposed to keep for themselves, trust is lost. Consequently, those who witnessed the incident will be careful dealing with the person in question again and the element of trust will be questioned if not initiated to level zero. L7 for instance gave the example where breaking a promise and sharing a secret with others leads to destroying trust.

Broken promises and changes in behaviour: Y6 added another example when the person’s words are not consistent anymore with their actions or when the element of honesty is questioned, etc. The idea of changing in behaviour within a team you interact with in a daily basis is interpreted by the team members as being “selfish and individualistic” and they interpret it as if the person thinks of their personal benefits rather than the whole team’s wellbeing. This aspect will be discussed more in depth in the next
section which focused more on the impact of culture in defining the elements of trust in such an international-Moroccan work environment.

5.3.4.6. The Importance of Openness, Fairness, Behavioural Integrity and Communication in Building Trust

Some of the aspects in the trust literature raised in Chapter Two highlighted the factors such as openness, fairness, behavioural integrity and communication as basic components that contribute to building trust in organisations. Interviewees were asked, according to their own experience about trust at work, to determine whether these aspects are relevant. They were also asked to prioritise them in order to create patterns in the process of trust building. All interviewees agreed that all these aspects are at the same level of importance, all related and indivisible and they believe that if one is not functioning well, it will affect the other factors too. Considering which one of these aspects is first in this chain, they believe communication is about keeping a certain consistency between what is the employee’s perception and expectation and what is actually happening in real situations. Openness, fairness and behavioural integrity are components linked through continuous use of communication linking all the element of trust. However, considering that communication is present at all levels; positioning the other elements in this chain of trust is what was challenging as different classifications were proposed backed up with real situations to justify their choices:

- **Openness, fairness and behavioural integrity:** Following interviewees understanding of each of these elements, openness for them is expressed through communicating openly using various channels. This leads to considering the person as someone fair and credible. A concrete example is given by Y5 stating that: “if someone
hides something to me, once I know, it breaks trust and it means there is no openness. It might happen to be in situations where we are less open but being communicative and by discussing all the options, we try to be fair and consequently we build trust. In terms of promotion, if we promise someone to be promoted but because of erroneous procedures, like the example of the manager who sent a promotion request to be approved by the management board team but was not accepted, so the person who was promised the promotion by the manager will show resistance against the system but if communication is there, if there is an adaptation in terms of procedures, everything changes”. From interviewees who have chosen this order, the person’s openness and fairness reflect on the team in a way that they are involved in being informed and up to date about work. This perception is coming from the person’s consistency in respecting their words through concrete actions and it is when the behavioural integrity complements the overall process of trust. In other words, openness and communication lead to fair decisions and actions which support others’ perception on that person to initiate trust with them.

- **Openness, behavioural integrity and fairness:** From the interview and according to some senior and middle managers, international companies in Morocco are now looking to hire employees with moral values more than having a high degree and high qualifications. Qualifications is something these companies can manage through proper training whereas people either have or don’t have some specific human values such as someone open and honest: “if I have to choose between one candidate who is competent and one open and honest with less skills than the 1st one, I will go for the 2nd one because you can trust as it is rare to find these qualities and not easy to find a person who to trust”. M6 for example who feels demotivated thinks that even if all these factors are important and should be applied but in reality, they are not. However, she admitted
that the company is transparent and is open about everything in relation to employees and achievements. Information is circulated through various channels. She rather blames employees who do not want to use the facilities: “there is transparency within the company... my position allows me to be between the employees and the board of executives... as far as consistency is concerned, through communication they [managers] get what they are promised it just has to be objective. on the employee level, for now, as long as there is communication, we can always have what want within limits of course and in terms with the contract/delays/restraint. As for justice, it depends how each person defines justice, it is not always clear but it is not totally black”.

- **Fairness, openness and behavioural integrity**: from a managerial point of view, employees are expecting to be treated equally. Assuming they are a part of an international work environment where standards and policies are taking place, the aspect of fairness is important considering manager-employee relationship. M4 implies by “the whole team should feel that they are treated equally, that they have the same rights” that without implementing and applying the standards set by the company, they lose trust in the system and those in position of power “If you are not open, people will be scared coming to talk to you and this might affect the productivity”. L4 for instance focused on the employee-employee relationship regardless their position insisting about the role of openness in strengthening and facilitating communication between each other. This spontaneity to some extent loosens up the contact between them and it is when the element of consistency is given more power by taking place.

- **Fairness, behavioural integrity and openness**: decision makers and leaders agree on the importance of being fair towards employees like Y1, the managing director
of Y in Tangier referred to a time when he had to sign an employee’s resignation: “It is not that I fired him but he put himself in that situation... He knows very well that I will never put him out but he did something bad. He knew that it was extreme... People don’t want you to be bad or nice but fair”. From a subordinate’s perspective, being fair is what they expect from their managers and it is perceived from an emotional angle as subordinates are looking for fair rules and being respected as human beings. For interviewees who have chosen this prioritisation, behavioural integrity is important as employees need to see consistency in their manager’s actions, want rules to be implemented fairly to show the consistency aspect leading to a more open reaction from both sides.

- **Behavioural integrity, openness and fairness:** Only one interviewee, L3’s view not to be excluded from the analysis given its meaning in this explorative research, believes that behavioural integrity comes first even if like all the other interviewees, consider all these elements are complementing each other and are at the same level. The rationality of his choice to start with behavioural integrity is coming from his belief that being consistent is a characteristic that encourages the initiation of communication: “My choice is based on the fact that initially a person who is consistent has confidence in what he/she says and does; if we say things that we don’t do – to begin with – this person has a problem, he/she is not reliable; we don’t confide to him/her”. Then from that, this person will decide about the other elements whether to be more open and treat others fairly.
5.3.4.7. Cultural Factors that Influence Trust in an International Work Environment

In relation to culture, the factors that were extracted from the literature in Chapter 2 have examined the main aspects of culture in the Arab World where traditions and connections or so called “Wasta” in Arabic were revealed to be important in showing the collectivist characteristic in Hofstede’s studies. The literature only focused on few countries such as Kuwait, Egypt and the UAE where these factors were more visible. There are no indications about the role of culture a Moroccan context. Therefore, interviewees were asked to share their opinion and explore more in depth this matter.

Culture, a representation of the Moroccan rooted values reflected in their behaviours and their social environment, is an aspect that interviewees did not deny its existence and it was clear during the interviews as observed by the author of the research. It is when the type of organisations was raised again. For instance, culture exists in Moroccan cultures where differentiation between employees is applied. St1 referred to a well-known Berber group in Morocco, a family business who as part of their practices is to only give managerial positions to Berbers. This tribal favouritism could be seen as unfair by non-Berber employees whereas for the group owners, it is a matter of trust. International companies, as extracted from secondary data, claim offering equal opportunities and according to interviewees, this is one of the main reasons why they prefer working for them rather than Moroccan organisations. However, in such a Moroccan-international working context and insisting on culture in relation to the phenomenon of this research, was important to question whether trust is culture-related and if yes, to what extent.
- **Hierarchy and seniority**: More than 70% of total interviewees are coming from different regions in Morocco and each of these regions is culturally different from the others. Here the element of sub-cultures within the same culture is revealed to be one of the aspects where culture is felt in international companies. This means that employees from a certain region are likely to feel more comfortable with each other and their interactions will be more frequent than interacting with employees from other regions. When this happens, it may bring negative outcomes, if trust is misused. For example, the situation concerns one member of a team who is trusted by the others. Trust may come from the fact that elders in the Moroccan culture are respected and trusted due to their life experience and also because of the element of seniority. Trust is misused in this case when other employees assume, rightly or wrongly, that this employee knows how the system works because s/he was in the company more than others. Hence the senior elder employee is respected and trusted. To illustrate how this could be wrong, Y5 stated that the company Y adopted a new follow up method to balance the workload between employees in the finance department. Change is such situations is not easily accepted and according to Y5, trust plays a big role to implement this new process. One of the elements in the department who resisted to this change was highly trusted by the team and this influenced negatively the work of the whole team. On the other hand, M2 strongly believes in trusting the organisation as a system leading to respecting and trusting the top management and the hierarchy. Trust in this case is based on believing in the power of the organisational culture rather than the cultural considerations in relation to the manager’s religious belief, nationality or ethnicity stating that: “*we are working for an international group and they employed this general manager to manage this organisation because he is trusted and capable. So why wouldn’t I respect and trust him. For me, work is like a military system, you respect your superiors and you respect the hierarchy. I never*
let my personal life interfere in my professional one. Friends outside the work zone but while at work one should be responsible. Friendship has nothing to do with work if you want something you follow the procedures and send a ticket or an inquiry same as anyone else”. Working in a multi-cultural environment, it also involves interactions between employees from different countries and even between Moroccans from different regions. Initiating trust depends on the employee’s personality and through interactions trust develops. It is about dealing with some traits or behaviour that is manifested on the person in question, that either attracts others to them or tries to avoid. First impression help in initiating trust given that a new employee for example is more attracted to a nice welcoming person than an upset negative face. Then through people’s actions the new employee start positioning others on giving them a certain degree of trust based on their interactions as explained by Y5: “The first impression plays a role in establishing this first trust initiation level and then with time either it develops this trust, it reaches a stagnation level or you just avoid the person”. Y4 for example believe that cultural influence is very important stating that “our Moroccan culture you say: “Your father is my friend” to open doors for you which means someone from the director’s side or the director comes and mentions this or that person of course he will give priority to his family and people he knows, it is normal because he will put his trust on them not on a stranger”. This was indirectly linked to the aspect of commitment and respect of hierarchy that in order to interact with an employee, certain criteria should be present to facilitate these interactions.

- **Cultural mixture:** From the reasons mentioned earlier, there are some cultural implications to trust influencing employees positively or negatively over time. Yet, this being said, 85% of total interviewees admit change in Moroccan culture in terms of
reducing its negative influence at work. They defend their position from the fact that Moroccan employees from all Moroccan regions work together in most international companies. This sub-cultural mixture is claimed to be influencing positively employees’ adaptation in such culturally varied working environment. L4 justifies this sub-cultural influence given that he is coming from a multi-cultural city where people are able to adapt pointing out: “I come from Casablanca, which is a mix of all the Moroccan spirits, we are not patriotic; it is a mix”. According to him, coming from the same city, having family links or even coming from a well-known family does not add any privileges and it is not a criterion to consider in the trust building process: “And now when dealing in multinational organisation, I noticed that foreigners take all these cultural elements into consideration in such a way that these things don’t exit. You may come from the northern cities, Fes or the Sahara, everybody is the same, people are used to the mix, so these criteria don’t exist, and they don’t mean anything. It’s a matter of merit”. Coming from a specific Moroccan region known with specific characteristics could be misleading. St1 explains this point in relation to trust: “Let’s say, you tell me that we are looking for someone to take the position of treasurer, be certain I will not hire someone from a region who manifests a dominant behaviour of cheating or betrayal... The person is the son of their environment, from where they were raised” justifying in which way culture plays a role in the process of trust.

- **Influence of the organisational culture:** From previous examples, misuse of trust could show a negative side in the Moroccan culture. Yet, when it is about clarifying the influence of culture in the trust building process if any, 57% are strictly refuting the idea of culture having any kind of influence on trust. This figure involves employees from all organisational levels, different age and educational level, building trust is related to
the personality of the employee in question, their behaviour and actions at work. Trust for them has nothing to do with nationality, patriotism, culture and any tribal considerations. From a non-Moroccan point of view, M1 supports what was stated above confirming that in such work environment, employees are treated equally without any cultural considerations. It is about the culture within the company following policies and practices. Y1 for example was very firm, given his position as a managing director, not allowing traditions and cultural considerations to take place where diversity is welcomed everyone is judged based on their competences showing that respect of the organisation’s vision lead to treating employees fairly, hence trust is initiated without any cultural involvement. From a leadership point of view, Sn1 believes it is the manager’s responsibility to reduce the impact of culture and improve relationships between employees to reach optimal results in relation to performance and it is through such interactions that trust is developed. Y6 concentrates on respecting rules and procedures set by the company to eliminate or avoid any cultural constraints by being fair and transparent at a horizontal and vertical level insisting about the reason of being part of the group pointing out: “you should see the interest of the company and be fair, follow the procedures of the company”. This emphasizes the quality of work employees provide is another way to measure trust like St5 “from a professional point of view, once we wear the uniform it is not who you know that matters, if you do not have any skills and you do not understand the purpose of the job then you are not worth other employees’ trust. What is important is not who you know but how professional you are. In our job, what you accomplish is what makes you trusted by your manager and other employees”.

Colonisation’s influence and language diversity: Less than 15% of total interviewees still experience the influence of the Moroccan culture in an international
work environment and M4 established a link between this point and the effect of colonisation not only for the case of Morocco but all colonised Arab countries. He refers to the rigid systems that the French colony implemented following the concept of “separate them so you can lead them” and the lack of trust is coming from these borders “made once the colony came to our countries, even when they left, they left physically but they stayed in how things are implemented”. Colonisation has led to language barriers as another cultural element that justified the role of culture in building trust. L3 gave the example of common communication as for the local language that is a part of the Moroccan culture where employees tend to approach other employees sharing their dialect: “… it is communication, it’s the language that is an obstacle for the foreigners; therefore, the first one who comes to mind is the person who understands us and it’s a reflex” leading to initiating trust faster than when dealing with non-Moroccan employees or even Moroccans from different regions. Same concept where in other scenarios linguistic differences bring employees to trust each other as stated by L7 based on his experience working in international companies: “there are some cases; they trust foreigners more than local people, and here there is no language obstacle, Moroccan people are more inclined to trust foreigners”. This contradiction is interpreted positively as being affected by foreign cultures or willing to learn from them like “there are a small number of people that follow logic and will trust a foreigner and won’t trust the person from their region because they prefer to know other people to gain experience from them and they see people’s actions” as well as seeing it from a negative angle where employees prefer to trust non-Moroccans to avoid “reaching a stage where they take risk sharing personal information that may be disclosed” which in both cases reflect cultural implications about trust.
24% of interviewees admit the influence of culture in building trust at work. They also believe in adopting new practices for change to turn the negative elements of culture into positive ones. To sum up, regardless their roots, ethnicity or nationality, this serves trust and strengthens internal relationships vertically and horizontally. Here the importance of culture comes as an element to take into account when the role of culture becomes negative or seen as a constraint. As an effect of first impression, it is likely to feel more comfortable interacting with an employee that shares common aspects either linguistic or tribal. However, the employee becomes more selective through continuous interactions over time. M3 acknowledged the emotional element given that to the process of trust involves judging a person through their actions as being subjective: “we are human beings; there is always an influence; ...Personally, I appraise the person for what he/she is; being practical more than emotional. I noticed that lately the more the company commits and makes contact with the employees through training sessions, the more such cultural influence reduces”.

5.4. Summary
This chapter reviewed the outcome of thirty interviews conducted in five international companies from different sectors operating in Morocco extracting the main factors needed in the trust building process in this international-Moroccan working context. The interviews also have explored interviewees’ perception of culture, organisation structure, leadership and communication which contributed through the found patterns to shed the light on the relationship between these elements to better understand the trust building process (See Chapter 6).
Employees’ perception of trust was measured at different levels starting with their perception of trust on the company they work for, moving to the impact of their relationships on trust and finally focusing on defining the Moroccan management style in this context. The aim of this research is not to define each of the factors that were raised separately but to highlight the link between them in a Moroccan-international context.

Results of the analysis were summarised in this schematic drawing that was designed by the author of the research, indicating an overall understanding of the role and importance of trust at work based on interviewees’ common themes. As illustrated in Figure 5.3:1, trust evolves over time depending on interactions with and interpretation of others’ actions.

**Figure 5.3:1 Overview of the Trust Building Process in an International-Moroccan Work Environment**

Figure 5.3:2 below explains in details the aspects that interviewees in general found to be important in building trust in such an international workplace. This brought more insights
on kind of preferred communication channels used, type of management implemented and how employees are motivated in a Moroccan-international work environment. Describing the process, interviewees define trust using examples from their own experiences, the process in general covers respect of a set of policies and practices. Yet, binding to these rules wasn’t the only aspect needed as without individuals’ willingness to take part in it, the process of trust will not be complete. Once it is initiated, the role of communication was revealed to be important in determining the degree of mutuality in the trust building process at both vertical and horizontal levels. The different interactions were also explored from a cultural perspective indicating employees’ awareness of differentiating between the positive influence of culture as well as its constraints. Without using direct communication channels and proper tools, these interactions would have been affected, leading to negative outcomes because of misleading interpretations. For example, drawing attention to these patterns, one of the general scenarios cited in this sample and used in such workplaces depends on the matter itself. For example, if it is an urgent request, the manager will call the employee in charge over the phone either as a reminder or to insist about the importance of that task. Otherwise if the task requires more time such as preparing a report, the outcome result will be sent by email. Therefore, choosing a less rigid communication channel with accessible methods is considered to be an efficient strategy to set a friendly environment between employees. New elements came up during the analysis where interviewees raised the term of respect when emphasizing the importance of fairness believing that both means the same. In addition to that, some have been incorporating leadership given it maintains a strong link between the identified factors in relation to motivating employees, empowering them, encouraging open communication, etc. It is not only about identifying the leadership style followed,
leadership in this specific context is related to culture given that more than 80% of managers in these international companies are Moroccan.

**Figure 5.3:2 Process of Trust as Perceived by Interviewees Involving Key Links, between Main Themes Extracted from the Dataset**

A: Assuming that policies and standards are implemented by most international companies as claimed by those participating in this research, employees are also willing to trust each other.

B: During this process, actions are first interpreted based on first impression or actions done leading to initiating trust (C) through more interaction over time (D).

After reaching point (D), first impression engenders more interactions and interpretations of actions to check whether trust should develop more (E). According to some
interviewees, the first impression plays a role where a level of initial trust is developed. For new employees for example, the process starts with understanding the company’s mission and its vision where each department will be working on their own mission, the company’s and the group’s mission. By establishing an understanding of the different missions, a long term vision is clearly set. Employees then qualify to a certain level of adaptability to the new work environment is reached, the level of stability and security increases from the various interactions with other employees and how the company react to different situations, new employees develop more trust from the trust initiated through their first impression before joining the company.

From various responses, the fact of hiding rather than sharing and discussing work-related matters openly created reservations among the team where “self-preservation measures” or cautions take place between employees which reflects the lack of trust in such work environment (F). Trust is decreased and precautions are taken where employees set filters and become formal but could be initiated again over time. In a working environment employees who are less trusted for a reason or another are not totally excluded. Managers take them in charge in order to understand the problem and find solutions as pointed out by Y4: “you try to know the problem and understand why they do that then try to find solutions because his work is related to other’s work and nothing should cause any blocking or interception”. In the case of loss of trust (G), communication becomes formal and any kind of interaction is documented as kind of back up or protection but they are still a part of the company and need to follow standards and work together to complete tasks, formally, without ever trusting the other (H).
The process is subjective given that the interpretation of actions could vary from one to another based on the person’s expectations on this trusting relationship. Employees are aware of the importance of the environment they belong to associating their relationships to work and for those who respect their engagements and are coming to work, committed to deliver what is waited from them on time, are more likely to be trusted by their colleagues. In overall, trust may decrease or increase over time depending on how frequently employees interact with each other. The common positive scenario described by most interviewees comes from their willingness to initiate a limited level of trust and the more they work together, the more information is shared work and personal related. This illustration of trust, explored through interviewees’ experience, will be discussed more in the next chapter to merge it with what was found in theory through the literature to come up with the final conclusion to answer the research questions.
Chapter Six

Discussion
6.1. Introduction

Moving from the analysis of the data collection to a discussion of the main factors found to be related to trust building; this chapter interprets the research findings in an international-Moroccan work environment, as illustrated in figures 5.3:1 and 5.3:2 (See Chapter 5), framing found key patterns in the trust building process with the literature regarding the development of trust and the factors related to it. Following an interpretative approach, this chapter is divided into two sections to answer the research questions: first section will explore the components of trust and second section will generate a better understanding of the process of trust building and shed the light on Arab management in an International-Moroccan work environment.

6.2. The Meaning of Organisational Trust in an International-Moroccan Work Environment

There is substantial body of literature on trust, as detailed in Chapter 2, but given the complexity of the topic, many studies have failed in providing a clear general definition to it. This presented a dilemma in approaching and reviewing the literature, as mentioned in Chapter 1 and Chapter 2. For example, some authors such as Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence (2012) and Mostovicz et al. (2011) defined trust as a personal decision, not forced, to accept a person’s judgement based on interpreting their behaviour from taken actions in specific situations. Knights and O’Leary (2006) and Morrison (2001) stated that integrity is the foundation of trust and without it leaders will not develop a sustainable global work environment since without integrity, employees will not trust their managers as actions interpreted by employees affect their decision in their willingness to initiating trust (Brenkert, 1998; Schoorman et al., 2007). From behavioural integrity’s definition (See section 2.3., Chapter 2), trust is processed over time where depending on the person in question, the one interpreting that person’s daily actions discern specific aspects like
keeping promises and respecting commitment. This interpretation leads to initiating the process of trust based on previous positive experiences while working together. Starnes et al. (2016) in their introductory book on organisational trust linked the human values like integrity, faith, honesty, personality traits and justice as high standard characteristics to creating of organisational trust. Yet none has formulated a clear and formal definition to describe the process. In this spirit, when it comes to providing a definition of trust, interviewees, although clearly not familiar with the literature, also could not find a proper statement to explain it. They were using examples where trust was described within a given situation. This included the qualities or reasons that led them to initiating the process of trust. Hence, interviewees, through their examples describing the process of trust, expressed their willingness to initiate trust based various elements, such as first impressions, good communications, etc. These have been classified as religious and social/cultural elements.

6.2.1. The Religious Aspect

Law in most Arab countries is based on Islamic and civil systems; Islamic law is more embedded socially whereas the civil law, as a result of colonisation or Western influence, is present at an economic and management levels. The literature only covered management in these countries as following Western models initiated through international partnerships and MNCs operating in the Arab World, as well as influenced by Arab cultural norms (Branine and Pollard, 2010; Weir, 2000). Yet the aspect of religion and Islamic practices in this context was not covered in the literature as supported by the authors. For the case of this research, the religious element was present in most answers where Moroccan interviewees, believing in the power of religion, have trust in Allah—God. Religion encourages them to have good intentions and therefore initiate trust with good intentions. As an illustration of these two points, Y3 used example from Quran
that teaches about many aspects of trust like trust in God in Surat Al’Imran (3:122) “When two parties from among you were about to lose heart, but Allah was their Wali (Supporter and Protector) and in Allah should the believers put their trust” and about having good intentions in the same chapter (3:159) “And by the Mercy of Allah, you dealt with them gently. And had you been severe and harsh-hearted, they would have broken away from about you; so pass over (their faults), and ask (Allah’s) Forgiveness for them; and consult them in the affairs”.

This explains Hofstede’s dimension of uncertainty avoidance where he regrouped Arab countries in one group due to similar characteristics they have in common as elaborated in previous chapters (See Section 1.3.1.1. in Chapter 1 and Section 2.3.3. in Chapter 2). Taking Morocco as a separate case from the other Arab countries, Hofstede’s scored the Moroccan uncertainty avoidance 68. This score reflects the Moroccan culture as accepting the unknown without feeling threatened with what might happen in the future (Hofstede, 2015b). Hence, Moroccans’ belief and trust in Allah (God) is high and it was clearly noticed during the interviews in the way they deal with uncertainty like when most Moroccan interviewees were involving religion to justify their choices. In this sense, using expressions such as ‘In Shaa Allah’ at the beginning or at the end of their sentences which is translated as ‘If Allah wants’ explains their behaviour leaving the future or the unknown “as it is in Allah’s hands given that Allah knows the best and He is the best planner”. The way Moroccan were raised by their parents and following religion kept Moroccan united and this is shown in how the Green March was initiated to obtain Morocco’s independence as it was run by Moroccan who started the March from the North of the country carrying Quran (Islamic Religious Book), showing trust in Allah and walking in big groups till the South of Morocco showing that trust is what brought them back together. The religious aspect was again present when interviewees were using
religion as a justification to what they do or as a one of the main reasons for trusting others. Also it shows how grateful they are to Allah for what they are having, the reason why they are being good to others and to show positive behaviours towards others. The fact of using religion in a way that they keep saying ‘Alhamdolillah’ and ‘in shaa Allah’ and insisting about the role of religion to be who they are and how they are in tough situations (supporting each other, being understanding to other people’s situations, etc.)
This emotional approach has a cultural explanation that gives credits to Hofstede’s work to some extent.

Dietz et al. (2010) have raised this aspect during their article about the complexity of trust when considered from a cultural perspective in the case of a partnership between Iranian and German firms. The authors questioned the Iranian female manager in dealing with the German managers during a meeting and were questioning whether her behaviour as a loyal and committed professional has anything to do with her religion, culture, education, nationality and age. What was interesting in this article is that authors started with a broken down structure separating religion from culture to explore trust building across cultures then ended up with one cultural sphere which includes belief and values. In the other hand, Ali (2005), in his book on management and organisation from an Islamic perspective, provided a classification on Islamic values and his classification is based on Quran and the Prophet Mohammed’s sayings (peace be upon him). He also associated Islamic values at work to spiritual, moral, social and economic behaviour. To some extent, this contradicts the author’s findings in the Moroccan-international case where Moroccan employees, even though their religion is interpreted through their actions and views, they still differentiate between their own culture and religion in the way they behave respecting the organisational culture and its values. Hence the importance of the cultural aspect.
6.2.2. The cultural Aspect

Employees believe in hierarchy and to some extent would trust their “superior” at work: one of the reasons why hierarchy is respected is the position-related respecting the element of hierarchy. Others might believe in the power of the system in the international company they work for and what it has to offer from policies, structure, rights and facilities compared to local companies. An organised structure incites employees to trust it more and therefore they are willing to initiate trust with decision makers and other employees. Accepting the element of power is also considered in Hofstede’s power distance dimension. It is a characteristic that reflected some interviewees’ intentions in respecting the superior. Yet, it contradicts Hofstede’s generalisation and interpretation of this behaviour as a cultural aspect where use and fear of power are cultural constraints. Interviewees rather showed respect to power and hierarchy assuming superiors know better and have more experience than them. Hofstede also scored Morocco’s power distance 70 and considered the society as hierarchical. This being said, Hofstede considers employees in a Moroccan work environment will be told what to do and a manager is pictured as an autocrat boss giving orders. The way Hofstede interpreted the Moroccan culture with regards to this dimension was misrepresented considering the analysis of this research’s sample. The resulting score is not representative if we consider the analysis of the data collected from Moroccan employees working in international companies. Power, as reviewed by Ali (2005), does not have the same meaning as in the Islamic Work Ethics in line with practices manifested through examples in Quran and by the Prophet Mohammed (pbuh). Because of internal and external forces, use of power in Muslim societies has evolved too; complying with economic and political pressures. However, power in this research sample, even if it is at a smaller scale, is positively taken, understood and respected without being forced as incorporated in Hofstede’s work being a cultural issue at work (Hofstede, 2015b). Hence, the sample of employees in this
specific international-Moroccan scenario based their trust on managers (Moroccan and none-Moroccan) and the system through their respect and acceptance of hierarchy. This leads to measuring this trust from their perspective.


Referring to the importance of trust in the literature and with regards to its main components as explored in Chapter 2 through many research by authors such as Barner-Rasmussen et al. (2014), Ince and Turan (2011), Aguilera (2007) and others who came up with the conclusion that trust is important and contributes to the company’s success (See section 2.1.). There is a strong correlation between what was discussed in the literature and the qualitative evidence extracted from the analysis of the data collected subject to this research. It showed the effect of communication, culture and organisational structure in building trust as perceived by interviewees. Reviewing response in overall, it was agreed that trust is not only important between employees but also at an organisational level in terms of structure, policies and practices.

6.3.1. Role of Organisational Structure

The organisational structure was highlighted in the interviews from various angles. It emphasizes the impact of the company’s type, leading to initiating trust in the company, its procedures, employees and decision makers. For example, in the first section of the interview, interviewees were asked about their position and personal information moving to the second section where they elaborated on their trust in international companies and their leaders.

Interviewees who used to work in specific international firms like Spanish or French owned businesses preferred working for the American or Japanese ones. Characteristics
of businesses in trust building was examined by Bachmann (2010) in a comparative study investigating trust building in two business environments in the UK and Germany. Supporting the research findings, it was found that levels of trust is relatively linked to the unity of business systems and societies. In other words, type and level of trust defined in business relationships is influenced by social and institutional norms. The reason why interviewees who worked for Spanish and French companies left was to work for more regulated but less authoritative systems. Not trusting the Spanish and French systems has historical justifications as mentioned in Chapter 1.

Drawing on the German experience in Ukraine, Mollering and Stache (2010) recognise that the Ukraine with all the challenges and differences in systems, is still an attractive destination for German organisations. The Ukrainian market offer low cost skilled labour, accessibility to raw materials and geographic location. In the same context but instead of focusing on what attract international companies in Morocco, this research brings local employees’ opinion on what attract them in working in international firms. Interviewees who used to work in Moroccan companies showed high preference to working in an international company rather than a local firm. Most interviewees focused mainly on differentiating between the local and international companies as the second ones provide more security and option to advance. Comparing both companies and employees’ views about local and foreigner choices; when international companies go for a local management team for the reasons cited earlier; interviewees from their side and based on their own experience, believe that Moroccans prefer to work in international companies rather than local or public ones. Main reasons for their choice are listed in Table 6.3:1. This of course does not contradict the international companies’ choices in employing local management team but question the cultural challenges facing Moroccan employees with local companies.
Table 6.3:1 Reasons Why Moroccan Employees Prefer Working for International Companies in Morocco

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Main reasons behind choosing to work in international companies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sn1</td>
<td>+Strongly integrates the human component.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+Invests a lot in organisation and technologies to assure a certain level of comfort at work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M1</td>
<td>+You are treated as a part of the team and you are trained and can be promoted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+We are more employee-oriented and maybe because of the size, we can approach each other easily like I can contact the top management team in our headquarters by phone whenever I want and all the management team know each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L8</td>
<td>+What I can say is that I like here. You work comfortably even with the workload and pressure but it is good. You spend the day and time just flies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+It gives more value to employees from an operator to a manager, all treated the same way and this is what I like about it which I don’t think it exists in any other multinational especially in this sector.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y1</td>
<td>+It is not about money, it is more about accessing values turning around money.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It is true that money is important but it is not central, not number 1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+My social responsibility towards the company is a very important criterion and when I say social responsibility it’s with respect to everyone; staff, work environment where we evolve, friendly environment, moral and social values that are important. This helps me be myself, with my own moral and human values which allows me in this environment to develop myself and evolve in an easy and smooth way.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
“... salary wise, there is a huge difference compared to Moroccan or public companies.”

Findings show that what was stated by all participants’ responses belonging to M-Company about the importance of the company to be consistent with the internal satisfaction survey conducted internally by the HR department where the HR manager stated “Among the points that we receive that have the highest score is “I am proud to work with M-Company”. This acknowledgment towards the chain already shows many things. There are quite a number of questions that – in relation to the chain – reveal that “90% (not to say 100%) are proud to work here”. Emphasizing their international choice, the structure that international companies offer is important especially that the human spirit has lot of importance. The World Economic Forum’s report (2014) acknowledged that Arab youth are more attracted to working in the private sector than the public sector. Being characterised as motivated, responsible and independent also creates an easy integration to international structures. This harmony, as found in this research findings, was seen in this report as positive given the opportunities it provides national and non-national workforces with to build trust in such work environment.

According to Cohen (2010) who conducted a literature review of how organisations develop strategies to lead culturally diverse teams and expand globally, the increase of companies migrating to low-wage countries transformed their labour force into a more talented and better-trained workforce. According to Branine and Pollard (2010), local labourers are attracted to the Western style which led them to easily adapt to Western management practices. In this respect, Moroccan employees showed interest in the international working environment, mainly in terms of procedures and standards applied in international companies operating in Morocco. Additionally, from interviewees’
responses, hierarchy is not felt and standards provide more guidance and protect their rights. With regards to Maslow’s hierarchy of needs explained in Chapter 1, the basic needs are fulfilled by these companies providing employees with a safe and secure working environment. Knowing that their rights and protected within the company, it is an important element presenting employees’ willing to initiate trust with the company. Rights are protected, functions are well defined in the job description and employees are insured. Saying so, the representation of the Islamic Administrative theory in Chapter 1 directly reflects, in this case, the economic and individual needs to be taken into account when interpreting employees’ needs. These characteristics also refer to Maslow’s hierarchy of needs mainly the safety, social and esteem needs. For example, interviewees who have considered working for the American and Japanese companies are attracted by the procedures and regulations because employees’ rights are secured in the company. Overall interviewees still prefer the companies they work for the benefits they have which are missing in local or previous companies they worked for.

6.3.2. Role of Culture

The cultural element, strongly present either directly or indirectly, appeared from the first section of the interviews. It was reflected through interviewees’ responses and engagement during the interview. When they were asked about their age, those who are married from both gender shared more information about their marital status, the number of children they have, children’s age and names. Culturally speaking, this reflects their welcoming nature expressing their willingness to share information by being open. This being said, many studies questioned to what extent cultural differences influence trust building. Ferrin and Gillespie (2010) believe that organisations all over the world are involved in international alliances and with the technological progress; business operations are dealt by a culturally diverse workplace. At an inter-organisational level,
the influence of power and institutional systems in trust building could be interpreted differently, with what countries like Morocco have to offer, as highlighted during the pilot study with the South Korean company operating in Morocco and by Y4 during the interview claiming that international companies, to access the Moroccan market, international companies sign trade conventions with the local government and this creates many challenges. For example, Mollering and Stache (2010) raised the institutional differences in the trust development considering the German and Ukrainian business relationships. Oppositely to the German system, the Ukrainian system is politically unstable and corrupt and this is one of the reasons why few German firms are established in Ukraine. However, there are successful German examples in Ukraine who could use the cultural differences positively in building trust rather than reacting to the different stereotypes or cultural classifications such as Hofstede’s. For instance, when it comes to dealing with new practices or procedures, some interviewees believe that their culture reflects on the way they apply these new procedures. According to them, they see it as important for their learning and development and it is there because it is good therefore it is important to implement it. The fact of accepting things with good intentions from the beginning is found to be representative to the Moroccan culture as explained earlier. This cultural awareness and adaptation was also raised during the interviews and knowing the importance of trust to stimulate positive relationships at these levels, it appears to be successful in practice at the Moroccan-International business context.

At an individual and interpersonal level and according to several interviewees, the company they work for tried incorporating their own international management team who did not succeed in managing Moroccan employees as they could not understand the Moroccan culture. M6 for instance stated her own view on this matter: “There was a problem that involved a French manager and a Saudi veiled woman. The manager did
not accept her to wear veil at work. The culture is clear; the manager left [actually sent to another location following the rotation system] - not the employee, because you should bear in mind this kind of issues. At the end it’s a business, they have to respect the country’s way somehow. When you go to a certain country you respect its norms”. This was also explored in Dietz et al. (2010) paper when the Iranian male managers were shocked from the hand shake German manager gave to their woman colleague as it is considered as inappropriate in Iran to shake hands with strangers. That situation, according to the authors, affected trust building at that stage. Cerimagic (2012) raised the cross-cultural challenges for Australian managers in the UAE. She highlighted the obstacles facing expatriates in understanding the Emirati’s culture due to the lack of training. In the other hand, as reported by Dewhurst et al. (2012), even skilled manpower in emerged economies like in Canada, Germany, the UK and the USA do not accept relocation. In short, cultural, communication and structural barriers have urged international companies to reconsider their staffing strategy. Hence and from the sample of international companies in Morocco, instead of bringing their own teams, Moroccan managers are strongly present in international organisations which according to participating managers, are more aware of how to deal with Moroccan employees given they know about the culture and the country’s laws, rules and procedures. In this spirit and as part of the headquarters’ strategies and practices, when international companies opt for local management teams to insure common cultural grounds in the workplace, it becomes local managers’ task to introduce the company’s culture and vision to their employees. Geppert and Williams (2006) pointed out the importance in involving local management in MNCs as an international strategy to empower local resources but also put pressure on them to implement standardised practices and global processes. This explains the adaptation that was extracted from the analysis of the sample in this research and to what extent it influences culture and the organisational structure in the process of
trust building. It was found that without the element of communication, these aspects wouldn’t have been strongly representative as discussed in the next sections.

6.3.3. Impact of Communication

The image that was drawn by Branine and Pollard (2010) about relationships in MNCs between expatriates and local employees in Gulf countries raise many problems from both parties. Expatriates who are feeling homesick and isolated from locals, complain about the lack of commitment of locals, reason why they don’t trust them. They even prefer to work with foreigners who are hardworking and easy to interact with which facilitate the process of trust. As reported by the authors, locals from their side, also have a negative idea about expatriates being arrogant, disrespectful and materialistic. It clearly supports the individualistic versus collectivist characteristics in Hofstede’s dimensions (2016). However, considering the findings from the sample of this research, relationships and interactions were perceived differently thanks to communication which seems to provide a rich place for learning and development in many ways. It proposes a mutual linguistic exchange between local and international employees as stated during the interviews example were given about employees sent from the headquarters in a mission to Morocco and how local employees feel proud teaching them few words in Arabic. They appreciate it more when during the emails they exchange afterwards, they keep using the words they have learnt in Morocco. This linguistic and cultural exchange is mutual as it shows employees’ openness towards other cultures. This openness was supported in many studies such as Forstenlechner (2010), Budhwar and Sparrow (2002) and others where in Neal’s (2010) article, he suggested that diversity in an Arab workplace helps in improving relationships between Arabs and expatriates. This diversity is not only in terms of skills but it is related to the diverse values implemented within the organisation. However, this diverse linguistic openness is not always considered as positive. In this context,
employees exchange files and documents in French, in English and sometimes in Spanish and through this exchange, there is always loss of information. That was also raised by Neal (2010) as they are still communication issues to cover especially in the case of expatriates in Gulf countries. 30% of the interviewees in the Moroccan scenario agreed on this. For instance, when communicating with another manager whose mother tongue language is English, it will be in English. It is seen by local employees as a kind of integrity where language is an optional tool of communication for international employees whereas for local employees, it represents openness and a way of communication even if there cannot express themselves freely as in Arabic - their mother tongue language.

The open aspect in communication was found to be supported by these international companies as an internal strategy. For instance, the HR department organises sport or social events involving all departments to support the social aspect. Another example is when inaugurating a new plant or when a department achieves objectives as set by their managers, all the other departments share their success in a positive and encouraging manner. The reason behind this support is the social aspect which is well developed again support Hofstede’s collectivist dimension (2016). Dalton and Druker (2012) explored the transferred practice of MNEs in Romania through a similar approach. It creates a balance between personal and professional life for employees in such an international environment. This also was reflected in the Moroccan context in how information circulates from the HR department to managers, then to their teams to keep communication active and open. Another aspect of encouraging open communication is through social activities, like activities managers organise within their departments or general events organised by the HR department. It helps in breaking barriers and being in a good working atmosphere with other teams all together. Another aspect highlighting
the link between trust, communication and learning, interviewees found communication
to be a solid platform to strengthen relationships between employees which if trust is
involved, they would be open enough to ask advice on their career advancement or even
recognise their mistakes. Learning from others’ mistakes by encouraging communication
lead to better practice as emphasized by M6: “If you did wrong we rectify the mistake...
If you don’t make mistake does not mean we are perfect, you should learn more to do
better... I clearly explain the things that are happening and the things that are not; if
there are problems we discuss them as not to make matters worse”. Crespo et al. (2014)
investigated the mechanisms that positively influence vertical and horizontal interactions
in MNCs’ subsidiaries. As found in this research, communication does not only have an
impact on these interactions but also maintains a cultural understanding which also
support learning and development. Nevertheless, communication may be a factor that
affect trust building negatively. For instance, to some extent, the objectives of all
departments are different even though they share the same vision as a company or group.
So without communication between departments, the information is lost and so trust.

Communication is an important component and if it is positively used, information will
be quickly shared creating a strong platform to develop trust. In this spirit, direct or face
to face contact generates situations where employees develop trusting relationships
between each other through their continuous interactions. Therefore their preference of
informal face to face contact explains the reason behind considering emails as a
mistrusting communication tool used between employees to keep track or “protect one’s
back” if anything happens. Exchanging information via email is not encouraged and it
appears to be a general misconception about the use of emails between colleagues.
Choosing the right communication was found to be important to build rapport between
employees in order to respond to the company’s needs. Iglesias et al. (2011) also sees
communication as relevant to initiating trust. Interviewees focused on identifying the most important aspects of internal communication which led to identifying the main process involving communication to build trust building. This being said, interaction between employees initiates a certain solidarity between employees and relationships become more personal. It was found to be beneficial and a daily practice chosen by employees. From a trust perspective, the face to face interactions between employees are a kind of informal approach where they can share information in a direct way. It creates a sense of belonging to family where personal problems could be shared, discussed and even employees try to help each other by finding solutions not only between employees from same hierarchical level but between employees and their managers where managers try to help and this is how trust is initiated. Such opportunities initiate links of support between employees which is felt to be important in building trust. This shows a clear pattern between communication, organisational structure and national culture of employees in addition to the organisational culture of these companies.

6.3.4. Patterns between Communication, Organisational Structure and National Culture

6.3.4.1. Communication between Culture and Organisational Structure

Clarifying the link between culture and communication, international companies from their side, raising the importance of organisational culture, add practices embedded in the work conditions, procedures, raw materials to forge an international common figure to the human aspect coming for various environments. Based on Dalton and Druker’s (2012) study, management practices implemented in international companies are associated with effective leadership involving managers within a structure that facilitate communication and employees’ engagement. Interviews like M6 agree with that and consider the work environment in international organisations as generally organised supplying a clear easy
structure and this influences other aspects such as the nature of communication itself between manager and employees or among the employees themselves to be as smooth and well kept. Without communication this cultural implementation would not have been understood by local employees. An example was given by St1 in a way to highlight the importance of communication in this case, as without considering it, there will be a kind of deviation where managers think in a way and employees think in another way. Tahir (2014) argue that communication in an international business context between two different cultures cause problems in terms of evaluating, interpreting and perceiving the meaning of words and beyond, such as the case of non-verbal communication. As mentioned in Chapter 5, direct exchange is a favourite communication tool chosen by interviewees as it supports their daily communication. It insures the clarity of the message received followed by an email for documentation purposes and transfer of information in written to respect the company’s standards and policies. It also shows the level of understanding in which the headquarters adapt policies to fit in a specific cultural context. This explains for instance the way communication of information is processed between employees in Morocco as explained by M1, managing director of company M who is not Moroccan: “In Swiss offices, I can just leave a memo and everyone knows what to do but in Morocco, it requires more communication to achieve the task”. The team sharing the same workspace use emails only when files have to be shared or documents to be revised internally or for formal purposes like sending outlook recorded invitations for meetings. Therefore, on a daily basis, emails are not used much as the face to face approach. The literature emphasized on the importance of face to face interactions in Arab cultures which in a work environment, produces direct contact between employees as a way of sharing support and developing trust (Branine and Pollard, 2010; Xie et al., 2009; Mustaffa, 2013; Selmier and Oh, 2012). Highlighting the role of communication in understanding the company’s vision in this international context, participants listed the
main reasons behind their views where, some consider communication as a way of clarifying tasks and that the follow up limits information loss in the process. In overall, if writing memos is a way to remember and follow up a task, the verbal and face to face communication encourages a better understanding. Choosing to communicate verbally or in writing depends on the situation and the degree of urgency where to engender an urgent action proactively, it is reported in writing to give it more weight.

Overall, it was noticed that standards and practices set by international companies following formal approaches is balanced with informal human interactions encouraged between employees and this to respect procedures and apply them as well as building strong relationships mainly between managers and their subordinates, managers from different departments and top management and managers, which concerns relationships: top management – middle management and middle management – low management as stated by Sn1 who usually have a team building activity every six months to encourage such informal practices. To sum up, communication was found to be related to all the other themes. When communication is encouraged by the company and also applied by employees, information circulates quickly.

6.3.4.2. Culture and its Impact on Organisational Structure

In relation to culture and its impact on following the company’s practices, Khetab (2014) in his study about Moroccan companies between innovation and entrepreneurship challenges, examined the element of culture and to what extent it influences innovative approaches. Contrary to the theory, the author did not find any conclusion relating culture to innovative practices or to performance in Moroccan companies. This supports interviewees’ responses when asked about their perception of the current company they work for. Away from any cultural considerations, by sharing the company’s strategic
vision, employees integrate work and take part in this vision. However even if there is a standardisation of processes implemented in all subsidiaries, companies still adapt to the national culture in a positive way, given the Moroccan culture is a part of employees’ daily life. The company also supports such initiatives encouraging talented people and rewarding new ideas. According to interviewees, this adaptation is clearly demonstrated through bonuses that are given to employees to celebrate a special religious or national event like during Ramadan when the company organises Iftar (Dinner to break fasting) for employees working night shift, when companies hang the Moroccan flag during the Green Marche or the Independence Day, etc. This approach, supporting trust building process, is interpreted by employees positively considering their employer as committed, open and communicative. Choudhary et al. (2012) reported the example of an international company in India, learning from the Chinese experience and from what happened to many companies in India, instead of forcing the implementation of its global practices, these companies learnt to incorporate the Indian style through investing in local talents and empowering the local management. However, it appears that talents in emerging economies are hard to find with the linguistic and managerial skills required by multinationals like the case of China (Dewhurst et al., 2012). Yet, very little is said about this adaptation in the Arab World as most of the literature shows the role of MNCs in spreading global practices across borders as stated by Geppert and Williams (2006); where some employees are still resisting these practices.

There is a general negative perception of culture with regards to practices in Arab countries as suggested Sheppard et al. (2013). Branine and Pollard (2010) consider interpersonal relationships affect the implementation of practices in organisations. The priority is given to friends and family members rather than considering qualifications and performance. Analysing the category of interviewees claiming that culture has nothing to
do with trust, culture was interpreted negatively. Some even avoid having family members in the same company they work for just not to be in a situation where other employees question their relationships or create problems of any kind at work. Even if they visualise trust as a process where culture is taken into account, the way they see culture questions their position. Like the fact they believe in treating everyone at work equally, then prefer not to deal with employees from the same region at a personal level or show any kind of favouritism on their regards not to be judged by others or be misunderstood as it could impact on their trusting relationships. Many examples in the literature about the Arab culture refers to it as a negative component that refrains Arab countries from progressing globally. Alkahtani et al. (2013), in a discussion about the impact of culture in a business environment, while defining the Saudi culture, neglected the positive aspects on this culture and focused only on the barriers that affect performance such as nepotism, hierarchy, fear of losing face, etc. This behaviour in itself is a cultural reaction to fit within an international work environment avoiding practices that are sometimes not as negative as they first appear. Overall, adaptation of standards with the Moroccan culture was positively considered through the responses showing satisfaction with the standards and procedures set by the company they work for. This was justified given the company provides a better clarity compared to a local company. It was also found that interviewees believe in following the organisational culture given they work in that specific international environment. The national culture is reflected in the way they respect this organisational structure and its culture engaging more with the organisation’s culture following its policies and procedures. Some show their respect because they work for an international company with a powerful name or renowned for its reputation. This implies that it is likely to have good standards and to be well organised as stated by M8. This cultural acceptance is also related to the way employees are
motivated and respected, engaging as part of the leadership followed by its organisational structure.

6.3.5. Motivation and Leadership: Cultural and organisational considerations

6.3.5.1. Leadership

The concepts in “Prophetic-Caliphal Model of Leadership” and “Great Man Theory of Leadership” examined in the literature review (See Sections 1.3.2. and 1.3.3., Chapter 1) shows clearly respondents’ general perception about leadership, its relation to their perception of trust and to what extent this affects the development of trust. Both models are related to trust as explained in Chapter 1 by Khadra (1990), Eckman (2005), Rusell (2011), Sabri (2011) and others where the characteristics of the great man represent leader’s traits and behaviours. The same is proposed in the Caliphal model adding the element of religion. This was reflected in the way interviewees involved religion in defining their perception of trust such as trust in Allah (God), trust in hierarchy and leaders which is voluntarily initiated coming for their beliefs, values or the environment they were raised in. So what factors might influence the development of trust, after the initiation phase, depends mainly on the leader’s actions or the organisation’s vision and management style. With time, employees relate their initial perception to the leader, company or colleague’s actions, whether they respect their promises, receive support from them, feel secure working in such environment, etc. All these elements were raised by interviewees showing that trust could be perceived differently like coming from a religious belief or from a first impression about a great man, but what can influence its development is the continuous interactions between the parties involved in the process where through interpretation of actions, trust could be developed or not.
The aspect of leadership came up while raising this point, where the way managers manage their teams was discussed. According to managers involved in this sample, they usually know about what happened once the issue is solved or when they need more support from the manager. To link the importance of leadership in encouraging open communication between managers and employees, L7 refers to how their manager approaches them to discuss employees’ concerns: “You feel that someone listens to you but most of the time we find solutions together. He shares his point of view and I share mine; then we compromise and find something convenient for both”. Yet, this shows that managers have a certain understanding of management and try to apply it as appropriate without being able to classify their leadership style to a specific type. In this spirit, being open about discussing their personal concerns at work explains once again the importance of the element of trust in this exchange sharing personal topics and the cultural aspect of the Moroccan work environment is reflected by the way employees support each other trying to find solutions to discussed problems as a community who cares for each other.

How managers follow up work with their employees is a choice made by managers who usually prefer to approach it informally like Sn1 who pointed out “supervisors of each team gather each month outside working hours for a briefing to inform their team members about what is happening in the group at an international level and share results. In return, the supervisor checks how things are within the group”. L8 follows the open door strategy where employees are welcome to talk about any of their concerns knowing that employees take this opportunity to be heard.

6.3.5.2. Motivation

Where motivation was embedded in the literature as part of leadership in Chapter 1, it is raised here separately to highlight its importance in this business context. Shuaib (2012),
reviewing management practices and the influence of culture and comparing both individualistic and collectivist approaches, drew attention to the way the reward system is used to recognise employees’ hard work. According to the author, systems in collectivist cultures recognise team work effort and reward the team rather than individuals whereas in individualistic cultures, reward is based on personal merit as a way to encourage individual talents. Contrary to what has been said, when interviewees shared their opinion about the way companies they work for support them, many aspects were raised. Motivation could be interpreted differently especially that each employee has needs that are somehow different from others’ needs. In other words, the way employees use the company’s support and accept what the company offers is mainly related to employees’ needs which is clearly support Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (See Chapter 1).

Bartels et al. (2010) discussed the results of a study they conducted in the Netherlands about the main elements present in horizontal and vertical communication. It was found that vertical communication is more related to trust, support of the organisation and credibility of the senior management whereas horizontal communication is identified through openness and frequency of interactions between employees. It appears that motivation is also linked to the organisational structure where vertical and horizontal relationships, encouraged by the company, are an essential element in the process of trust building in the Moroccan-international context. International companies operating in Morocco are revealed to be giving more considerations to the human element as mentioned by L8: “It gives more value to employees from an operator to a manager, all treated the same way and this is what I like about this company”. When employees are recognised and motivated by their managers, it creates a positive behaviour where the employee believes more in the system and trust more his/her manager. Recognition is another motivational tool as when the manager recognises the employee’s efforts and acknowledges their hard work. Being fair is essential in this process as because it could
have a negative impact on other employees if recognition is not fair. Like for example if the person is not doing things properly and correctly and the manager compliments this person, it will demotivate the others. This is why motivation is a double-edged tool where the aspect of fairness can have a positive or negative effect on employees. In this context, motivation was another indicator of trust building between employees.

Even the company’s vision and practices implemented are there to encourage and motivate them to advance in their careers. It was claimed by some interviewees in M-company that they benefited from training sessions and night classes to obtain higher degrees. It was found that total sample is highly educated with most common specialisation in engineering, finance or business adding more certificates in business and management while working for their current companies. Garg and Rastogi (2006) supported these practices in their article as a way to motivate employees and increase their performance. They relate motivation to increasing employees’ satisfaction at work therefore leading to a level of responsibility felt by them as a valuable contribution, and giving their work more meaning. That was visible through most responses, however, opportunities that international companies offer them from learning and development, to career advancement and promotions are more evident at the middle and top management levels, than in the low management level. It reflects the dimension of power distance in Hofstede’s (2016) work and inequality as referred by Tahir (2014) with regards to the cultural differences in international joint ventures the author discussed in his article. Senior managers in this sample related that to the workload employees have in such sectors especially the low management levels as the reason why they do not attend enough training or courses as they want to. Saying that, with a structure that adapts its procedures, where managers are encouraged to support their employees in their careers, it is important to consider the few negative comments from interviewees mainly from the low
management level, who feel more changes to be considered as stated by St5 “Apart from this, everything else is fine, we lack of nothing, we like it here, there is flexibility, our rights are protected such as the right to have some time off. All our rights except for the salary and trainings, these are the two drawbacks and they need to be considered”. These concerns were raised by few interviewees from all participating companies and this shows that there is still work to be done and focus more on resources in the low management level where the company could be providing support to a category of employees for career advancement and continuous development like M5 who considers training a necessity as quoted: “since there is a huge gap in terms of skills, this year we did a training session on payroll. However, if you ask for a special training same as I did, I paid for it myself whereas they should be paying for it. If I had a good salary I would have got a better degree. The procedure to ask for training takes a long time”. Managers on the other hand take these incentives as a way of challenging the other employees and motivating them to become better. This brings Branine and Pollard’s (2010) classification of Arab managers describing them as being very authoritarian or very consultative. Y4 who was unhappy about the situation claimed that recognising people’s effort in the Moroccan culture is difficult: “When you acknowledge that someone is working hard, in our culture you don’t thank them a lot but you say “good but...”. This “but” means that you have done good but still not enough. Without feeling it, our culture controls us”. The impact of culture on motivation does not seem to be a general issue are most interviewees were feeling motivated by their managers and their colleagues and it is how trust develops.

Working for an international company is rewarding especially when the company strongly integrates the human component in their strategy. These companies invest in setting a proper working environment and technologies to assure a certain level of comfort at work like stated by Sn1. On the other side, it requires lot of responsibilities too because
you have to follow the vision the company has implemented in all their structure. Learning and development is another aspect where employees in this sample are seeking upper levels of education to advance in their career. From the interviewees’ responses, it shows that it was not only for a specific category of management but all employees in international companies use the facilities provided for their learning and development when it is available. For instance, one participant who could not receive any financial help from the company had to apply for night classes as a personal initiative, to acquire another bachelor degree in Business Administration. Another way of learning, other employees believe that training programmes should be more frequent and for a larger number of employees. As a consequence, the learning element is unlimited where employees gain new experiences during their learning and development. This on-going learning was found to be important in a way that strengthens interaction with others to keep everyone updated in addition to information sharing involved in the process where others include the element of being supervised and into a hierarchical and organised system that also offers opportunities.

6.3.5.3. Patterns between Motivation, Leadership and Trust

Chiu et al. (2002), like in Shuaib’s (2012) study about reward systems, examined motivational approaches used in China and Hong Kong to retain and motivate employees through financial and non-financial rewards. Money, representative to employees’ needs, seems to be a motivating tool to attract employees to improve performance especially to increase of quality in these countries. International organisations, in the case of Morocco, offer various approaches to motivate and integrate local employees like organising cultural events to encourage employees and emphasize loyalty each time they celebrate a traditional event. The implications of such reward systems raised the loyalty aspect in Chiu et al. (2002) paper as an indicator that also strengthens employees’ integrity within
the company like L7 who states: “It is stable, I find it better and the employee has more freedom and you work comfortably”. This aspect raised by most participants is their willingness to be a part of a company where the human spirit has lot of importance. Another interpretation of respect from a cultural perspective shows patterns with leadership, motivation and trust. For example, less than 10% from interviewees linked motivation to leading and treating employees with respect. This means that when warning is given to an employee for something that he or she has done wrong, it is to be discussed in private as this plays a role in the team’s spirit. If the employee is reprimanded in front of his/her colleagues, it is considered as a humiliating act to the whole team members not only to the concerned employee. Being a member of the team and from a cultural perspective, it touches the dignity of the person either man or woman. Therefore, the manager, being aware of the culture of the country and respecting the employee, deals with the situation accordingly. As discussed earlier from interviewees’ responses about motivation, various types of motivation were directly related to initiating, developing, increasing or decreasing trust.

Sheppard et al. (2013) investigated the main issues identified in international leadership and its implications for managers in an international work environment. The fast expansion of organisations globally, facilitated the understanding of some key factors such as cultural differences, religious, social and economic considerations, etc. They finally suggested a model that incorporated these factors in choosing the right leadership skill to face issues that might arise. Sharing such vision at an international scale as pointed out by the authors leads to trust building. From a leadership perspective and according to interviewees, they share more values and they are all respected from a simple operator to a manager, all treated the same way. This point is related to how employees perceive trust where the element of fairness is among the aspects to consider in trust building.
According to most interviewees, they prefer an employer who is employee-oriented treating them as a member of the team offering training programmes and promotions like M9: “I started with them since the opening in 2001 (13 years) and I have been in my current position since January 2014 (less than a year). I previously used to occupy the position of Quality and Training Manager” and Y1: “I have worked for 6 years as associate director and it has been 5 years now that I am taking the direction of the Group in here. At the same time I assure functions at the corporate level... I spent 15 years in total in this company and I started as a financial director then moved to HR, then Logistics to IT and then Sales”. These companies are applying a strategy that encourages work spirit with an open and accessible approach which is rewarding from various aspects as you can build a career with promotions opportunities, when applicable. There are others who are attached to their company and even though they are receiving better offers elsewhere but did not go and this reflects their needs’ satisfaction as illustrated in Maslow’s hierarchy of needs explained in detail in Chapter 2. Moreover and in a way of openness to other cultures, from participants’ point of view justifying their choice to stay in the same company as a feeling of belonging to an international group where they learn to be more open to other cultures especially and as stated by one of the participants: “We don’t work with one ethnicity or one racial group but with all nationalities and it is rich in terms of culture. It summarises the intellectual development and the development of our personality and we feel that with time you understand different group of people and we learn. It forms the power of the group”. As highlighted earlier, managers also claim in this case creating a friendly environment where for instance delegation and empowerment are approaches used. It was justified that these aspects are considered to encourage and motivate employees and at the same time initiate and develop trust with time in the organisation and its structure. To sum up, communicating openly and being
fair are important aspects in motivating employees and this is another process in trust building.

6.4. Summary

Using qualitative evidence, the research has answered the two research questions interpreting the relationship between factors influencing the development of trust in order to first, better understand trust building and development, second, outline the implications of these findings both in theory and in practice and finally to bring a detailed exposition of the importance of trust to management in an international-Moroccan organisational setting. The research has explored management practices in that specific environment, especially how Arab/Moroccan managers interact with employees in the international business context in Morocco. The research identified a clearer picture of the Moroccan management style supported by evidence and examples taken from real cases and actors.

While exploring the process of trust in international organisations operating in Morocco, few patterns have emerged such as motivation and the role of leadership identified as important constructs in the process of trust between employees. For example, it was found that motivation in this specific business context is not anymore a matter of financial support, the feeling of achievement develops more confidence in the employee, leading them to perform better and follow their managers’ instructions and advice. This is when the element of communication interferes with the organisational structure and leadership, creating another reaction to employees’ trust building. The leadership aspect also brought rich insight to the research itself understanding the role of trust between employees in this context. It brings more insight on the Arab management style which was more linked to Islamic ethics as stated by Branine and Pollard (2010) who explored MNCs’ human resource management in Arab countries and its implications on Islamic practices. Most
Arab countries are not following Islamic law but a combination between Islamic and civil law which influenced these countries in importing Western management models rather than developing their own Islamic or Arab management. The research findings introduced the Moroccan management style and drew clearer picture to what has been already identified and acknowledged in many studies where authors like Weir (2001), Hutchings and Weir (2006), Al-Kazemi and Ali (2002), Ali (1990) and others.
Chapter Seven

Conclusions,

Recommendations and

Future Research
7.1. Introduction

This research explored key business practices in leading and managing employees in international organisations based in Morocco. It investigated the factors that led to the development of these practices focusing in particular on understanding the role of trust in the process. This chapter summarises the findings of the research in relation to the literature and the proposed conceptual framework. It also presents key conclusions, implications in theory and practice, main limitations and opportunities for future research.

7.2. Summary of the Research Key Findings

The findings of this research indicate that there is a clear pattern of behaviour in firms in an international-Moroccan context; where the various elements influencing management and leadership, are critical to the development of human resources. These elements are culture, which mainly involves the national more than the organisational culture, organisational structure, communication and perceived trust by employees working in such an international-Moroccan work setting. Objectives of this research were met and a summary is presented in the next sections.

7.2.1. The Influence of Culture, Communication and Organisational Structure in Building Trust

Much of the previous research into trust building emphasises overcoming cultural differences, yet these studies do not explore how this is managed in practice. In this research, it was found that different national cultures can have a positive impact on the development of trust, rather than as suggested by Hofstede’s (2001), Trompenaars (1996) and the GLOBE project (House et al., 2001; Javidan and House, 2001; Javidan and House, 2002; Javida et al., 2006; Javidan and Dastmalchian, 2009), whose research suggest that there are significant limitations on employee interactions between different cultures. Although some of Hofstede’s dimensions have been confirmed through this research, for
example, in the way Moroccan employees choose their communication channels, the justification that Hofstede has given to explain the cultural phenomenon, have not been found in this study. This might be because of the way culture is regarded by non-Arab researchers in Arab states, what was perhaps influencing Hofstede’s cultural studies was not the broad dimensions or the classification given to a group of countries (i.e. Arab countries classified in one group) but rather his interpretation of different behaviour in these cultures as discussed in Chapter 6. This created a misconception among researchers who were influenced by Hofstede and others, which this research contributed on clarifying. This research found a more open acceptance of the foreign organisation’s values by Moroccan employees, a positive aspect to be considered in future collaborations. In addition, the research found that the Moroccan national culture is modified by individual employees and through the company’s policies and standards. In this way, international companies in Morocco are able to avoid some of the less helpful aspects of Moroccan culture and to some extent; in this way, trust develops more easily between the foreign business and the Moroccan employees when “wasta” is not practiced. This drew attention to the element of trust, the development of which was found to have a significant impact on the way employees respected and were prepared to implement international standards.

In studying the development of trust, this research then identified the means and frequency of interpersonal communication as critical, with regards to Moroccan leadership and management practices in a way that adds a valuable contribution to the growing literature on management in Arab countries. The findings supported the view of pivotal role of interpersonal communications in an organisational context, agreeing with many studies as reviewed in Chapters 1 and 2. For example and according to Sykes et al. (1997), communication facilitates internal interactions between employees. El Mansour
and Wood (2010) also raised the impact of learning and development strategies in international companies in Morocco in relationships between employees, especially encouraging information sharing between employees. As highlighted by Yang (2014), it is not only about interactions, it is about the quality and quantity of information shared between involved parties as well as the level of cooperation communication requires and this may stimulate the trust building. The more employees, in a Moroccan-international workplace, know about each other at a personal and professional level, the more relationships are strengthened and the better opportunities there are to adjust to the work environment and initiate the process of trust. Moroccan employees, in this study, clearly emphasized employees’ face-to-face preferences as direct ways for communication instead of exchanging emails. Emails are purely used to share formal documentations as a practice implemented within the international group and respected by Moroccan employees too. On the other hand, exchanging frequent emails instead of direct interactions is also foreseen as a way of showing caution and mistrust and hence strongly not encouraged.

The second key factor critical to the development of trust in international organisations in Morocco is the influence of the organisational structure. As discussed in Chapter 1, previous research such as that of Kannan-Narasimham and Lawrence (2012) described the Arab organisational structure as rigid and hierarchical. This was also confirmed in this study where evidence shows that Moroccan organisations are hierarchical and as described by Weir (2008); the element of authority is highly present where decision makers do not involve their subordinates in the process: “…position and seniority are more important than ability and performance in business and management in the Arab World and that decision-making is located in the upper reaches of the organisational hierarchy, with authoritarian management styles predominating”. Even though Hutching
and Weir (2006) linked such management style to the aspect of loyalty where in such centralised structures, as described in the literature, managers dictatorial behaviour is accepted by employees because it is a part of their culture. This to some extent put many restrictions against implementing practices that initiate empowerment, innovation and learning and development.

Interestingly, this was found by this research to be one of the main reasons why Moroccan employees prefer to work for international organisations, where there is a more clearly defined and organised structure. This research also shows that employees’ needs, following Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, change from the need of satisfying basic elements to requesting better working conditions and better safety, through better contracts and then moving to social and self-esteem needs, looking for training and learning and development opportunities to advance in their career as illustrated in Figures 5.3:1 and 5.3:2. This is a significant indicator that shows Moroccan employees’ adaptation to practices when the organisation provides them with better working conditions. Many of the organisations offering the employees these opportunities are the foreign-owned companies.

The third critical influence on the leadership and management of employees in Morocco was found to be the influence of religion. This was raised when it comes to respecting authority in general and at an organisational system level in particular, which in most previous cultural studies was related by the researchers to fear and other cultural misinterpretations. Moroccan employees strongly believe in the authority of Allah (God) and for that very specific reason, they follow and respect the standards and practices embedded in the organisations they work for. Additionally, the religious aspect is regarded as a practice itself, where employees approach others, support each other and
interaction is seen as a good thing to do, precisely because good intentions are encouraged in the religion. When they are in a challenging but fair work environment, with clear rules and better working conditions, they become more thankful as being blessed by Allah in working in such foreign-owned organisations. Their trust in Allah leads Moroccan employees to show their gratitude by working harder and treating others fairly and being honest towards their employer. The role of religion was one of the main aspects integrated in Ali’s (1995) work where in his paper about Arab management thought quoted Ibn Khaldun, a famous Tunisian philosopher and historian in the Arab World: “Consider the moment when religion dominated their policy and led them to observe a religious law designed to promote the moral and material interest of civilization. Under a series of successors to the Prophet, how vast their empire became and how strongly it was established”. This research found that Moroccan employees working in the foreign owned international companies based in Morocco would totally support this perspective, a perspective that changes how non-Muslim and non-Moroccan/Arab academics and international companies conceive religion in Moroccan/Arab employees’ life and its impact on their professional life.

Apart from the religious aspect that Moroccan employees integrate in their daily life, the findings also indicate that because of the terms and conditions international organisations offer to employees, trust is initiated, to some extent, more so than in local organisations. There are no evidence to show any link between the organisational structure of these international companies in Morocco and the Islamic administrative theory even though the main aspects of this theory is about using authority to define responsibilities and create a work environment between employees based on consultation. In the Moroccan case, it was clearly found that main aspects leading to trust in such organisations is the defined responsibilities offered in international structures, where roles are clearly determined and
protected, standards in corporate strategies encourage an open door approach, horizontal and vertical communication is encouraged. All these aspects initiate the development of trust by Moroccan employees in the foreign-owned organisations.

As for the ability to building and maintaining trust over time, several factors are particularly relevant (Cullen et al., 2000) and that is not an exception in the Moroccan context. Understanding the different behaviour of employees from different hierarchical levels is significant to interpreting the relationship and this research strongly contributed to better understand the process of trust and the role of communication, culture and organisation structure in its development. Trust positively encourages information sharing where for example managers share their mid and long term goals in the organisation involving employees in this process. This constitutes a fair exchange where both employees and managers gain something from this trusting relationship (Luo, 2002).

Additionally, as supported by Knights and O’Leary (2006) and Morrison (2001), integrity was found to be the foundation of trust. Moroccan employees prefer following leaders who create a sustainable global work environment, since without integrity, employees will not trust their managers. Managers are judged by what they do, which is important for managers to understand and consider. Employees interpret their managers’ actions, which then affects their decision in initiating trust or not (Brenkert, 1998; Schoorman et al., 2007). This leads to another aspect influencing trust building where frequent direct communication between two parties increases the development of trust. Moreover and as pointed out by Drucker (1999), “the most important thing in communication is to hear what isn’t being said” highlighting the importance of nonverbal communication too bringing the importance of leadership in this process.
To sum up, this section does not only provide a clearer picture of the influence of all these aspect on trust building but also answer the first objective of this research in understanding the process of trust building as illustrated in Figure 5.3:2 showing the interactions and role of the key constructs in this process. The proposed conceptual framework for trust building was related to an international-Moroccan work environment, which may be relevant to other settings in the Arab-international context. The importance of these findings will be shown in the next sections about the practical and theoretical implications and contributions that this research adds to trust and international business studies.

7.2.2. The Importance of Trust in Applying Management Practices in an International-Moroccan Work Environment

The second objective was covered by answering the second research question with regards to the role of trust in applying management practices and identify key aspects of Arab management practices, when appropriate. A real contribution was added in this sense as authors such as Glaister et al. (2009) described the Arab management system as being rigid, linking relationships between employees, based on their cultural values and behaviour. Hutchings and Weir (2006) also identified that relationships are based on connections and “wasta” which reflects the way Arabs do business. The impact of culture on leadership was found that, contrary to what was found in previous research and considering the Moroccan context, good Moroccan leadership decreases the negative impact of foreign culture at work where local managers, with cultural sensitivity and language competence are therefore more likely to be successful in understanding their employees’ needs, are employed by international organisations in Morocco. This research found that many international organisations in Morocco employ a local management team given that Moroccan managers can easily interpret and understand the cultural reactions
of employees and deal with it accordingly without any linguistic or cultural barriers. This approach by senior managers, which increased interactions between employees, has also been found to be a way to secure trust. The findings of this research are consistent with previous research about leadership reviewed in Chapter 1. Both Western great man theory and Arab prophetic-caliphal model of leadership show the role of the leader with specific characteristics that may have cultural and religious specifications to show a degree of persuasion and support toward employees but also a degree of objectivity and fairness in dealing with employees in order to be trusted (Penn, 2015; Mostavic et al., 2009; El-Kot and Leat, 2005). As identified by Sharfuddin (1987) and Robbins et al. (2015) who explored Khadra’s model, discussing leadership in the Arab World, this indicates the aspect of religion that was found to be important to Moroccan employees, as another indicator for researchers and companies willing to understand, and rather than being influenced by their culture, employees respect and implement the Western practices in a way they follow the leaders as described in both Western great man theory and caliphal model of leadership (Khadra, 1990).

In some studies, as discussed in the literature, like Lowrance (2015) paper that linked strict and authoritative leadership style to the educational level of leaders in the country in question in a way that following orders is the only policy allowed. This firmly contradicts with this research’s findings, where it was found that international firms employed employees with higher degree and encourage them to further develop their skills through online or night courses. This was seen as a positive indicator, motivating Moroccan employees to adapt within such different organisational culture, where leaders are be able to implement strategies of the headquarters and encourage such practices in Morocco. Hence, as identified by Holm et al. (1996), it was found the strategies and practices implemented internally by the local management team led to increasing the
likelihood of trust building between employees in the organisation. This was one of the reasons why international companies were found to have strongly supported the local management involvement in Morocco instead of being managed by international managers.

As part of employees’ development, Gardiner et al. (2001), as discussed in Chapter 1, drew attention to the role of communication in motivating employees. While the element of trust was not included in the authors’ study, this research’s findings clearly indicate patterns between these two important elements. Motivation is not only about financial rewards employees receive, Moroccan employees in international organisations have more needs that these companies are aware of. As discussed earlier, Hofstede’s dimension of collectivism was found to be consistent with employees’ motivational needs such as being complimented for achieving a task and receiving appraisal in front of the other colleagues, and so on. Agreeing with Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, employees are motivated when they are challenged, empowered and given more responsibilities and through career advancement. This creates a confident manpower that is keen to learn and improve seeking higher positions and sometimes promotion to other departments. An increase of performance and better productivity will lead companies to consider more incentives for Moroccan employees, if taken into account as highlighted in this research. This also indirectly indicates the link between the different components explored in this research which lead to establishing the process of trust between employees and trust in the organisation.

Finally and considering the Moroccan example, work is still to be done in promoting for international investors in Morocco given the need, as in many other Arab emerging economies, to creating jobs, improving the economy and building a better infrastructure
in addition to learning new skills and bring new technologies to the country. Other challenges reside in the dominance of American management theories where managers choose the most suitable management practices which may not be appropriate to the environment they operate in and if we consider a wider scale, more risks may occur as when international companies operate in another country, practices tend to be standardised. Therefore, there is a need for multinational companies to adapt new or adapted practices in the host country creating an environment where employees trust their managers more, accept new or different practices and perform better rather than just following the organisational practices, executing orders and achieving tasks without being creative or innovative (Trompenaars and Woolliams, 2003; Holm et al., 1996). Considering new models or theories as explored in Chapter 1, where Arab and some Western theories and models show certain similarities which companies should be aware of. Developing this area in research would identify new concepts or theories in this international setting, extend existing theories that might have been ignored or not well applied as part of the Arab management paradigm development.

7.3. Contribution to the Body of Knowledge

As discussed in the literature review (Chapters 1 and 2), little is known about the factors characterising trust building in international companies operating in Arab countries. This research contributes to work ethics and trust research in many ways. Firstly, exploring the perceptions of trust shed light on the organisational trust literature examined from an Arab perspective which has been relatively neglected in the literature. It also reveals other similar aspects to the Western management paradigm, emphasized in various studies such as Whitener et al. (1998) who discussed interpersonal trust in organisations and examined the challenges facing organisations to initiate trust such as when the trustor and trustee’s willingness to build this trust is affected by cultural interferences through the trustor and
trustee’s actions. Finally, this leads to exploring and explaining the link between building trust and the ethical issues facing international organisations, if any, and proposing the right leadership behaviour to adopt within a diverse workplace.

Working on improving relationships between employees for international organisation operating in Arab countries, authors such as Jones (2012) and Holt and DeVore (2005) proposed training programmes, regarding this strategic practice targeting international and local managers and employees from different cultural background to encourage fairness, openness through effective communication at all organisational levels to enhance trust building within the organisation (Iglesias et al., 2011). This was supported by research by Simons et al. (2007) who acknowledged the need of a new strategy to better manage diversity in a cross-cultural work environment, where international organisations look more seriously to soft aspects contributing to increase employees’ effectiveness by developing high levels of trust. Although Kannan-Narasimhan and Lawrence’s study (2012) focus on the importance of behavioural integrity as an essential quality in leadership, which supports their findings as the influence of strong relationships at all levels could strengthen trust and that it could be relevant to different workplaces. From this perspective, this research offers an opportunity to clarify the unaddressed questions about Arab management by revealing how Arab managers deal with employees. Choosing the appropriate leadership style within a local management team was found to play a crucial role in developing and implementing the organisation’s practices and culture. It engenders better understanding of the host country culture as well as being able to recognise employees’ needs through interaction and decrypting verbal and non-verbal signals such as implicit messages, body language, being aware of employees coming from a specific sub-culture known by specific characteristics, etc. The fact of identifying key aspects in Arab management also helps in comparing it with the Western management
style and understanding how effective trust can shape the integration of both management styles. This was clearly shown in the way Moroccan employees manage teams in international organisations. In this research and instead of engaging in known theories like the social exchange theory which is the most used theory in trust literature, this research explores the common aspects between Arab and Western theories leading to trust. Focusing on similarities rather than differences between the Arab and Western management is another contribution that can support managers further in understanding the main barriers that stop or affect the development of trust, considering the elements they share such as in the leader’s characteristics as discussed in Chapter 1.

Given the importance of international management in the Arab World, this research contributes to knowledge adding new perspectives for scholars and international management students, taking the results of this research further to measure the interaction of work ethics and management from both Arab and Western perspectives. This also leads to examining the feasibility of integrating Arab and Western approaches and questioning Hofstede’s dimensions’ of culture in the Arab context.

In addition to the significant contribution this research add to theory and in a way to engage more with practitioners, this research clearly shows the importance of adapting management practices through the local management team who is more suitable to interpret the cultural behaviours and employees’ actions. At an international level, given the current global political and economic events, Dunning (2002) stressed that a better understanding of the role of international business between MNCs and host countries became prominent as this cooperation will strengthen collaboration between both MNCs and the host country’s systems. This research also leads to a more effective collaboration between employees and for this, building a trusting work environment is essential for a
better openness to the global market. Trust has been found to be strongly reinforced through team building activities and social events may be another way to reduce the cultural and hierarchical barriers employees may face in such international work environment. This may also facilitate the interactions between employees making the process of trust building easier. The findings of this research brought important implications for Moroccan and international managers to take into account:

- International companies willing to invest in Morocco are highly encouraged to consider a local management team to simplify implementation of management practices, strategies and vision of the headquarters.

- It was found that Moroccan employees prefer working in international companies because of the incentives they receive from satisfying basic needs such as a clear job description, protection of employees rights through insurance packages, transparent standards and procedures and good work conditions stable, to psychological needs offering them a better working environment with trusting relationships within and between departments, career advancement as well as learning and development opportunities to feel a sense of achievement and belonging to the organisation.

- In a way to initiate trust among employees, Moroccan and international managers should be close to their employees by taking part in social events organised by the company and even those outside work and participate in various team building activities to give employees time to know the kind of leader you are, an occasion for the manager as well to know what employees are expecting from their leader. Another way to strengthen these relationship is through fair and open practices. Using the open door strategy reveals to be a successful tool to establish, improve and strengthen communication between managers and employees and among team members.

- It was found that Moroccan employees develop trusting relationships through direct and continuous interactions which over time has a positive impact on employees’
level trust as well as their performance given that information is exchanged and shared quickly, collaborations and cooperation between employees within and between departments increase and this helps in understanding, adapting, implementing and applying current and new practices set by the international companies.

- International managers should be aware that Moroccan employees are sensitive when exchanging emails and would cause lack of trust if used inappropriately. Face to face interactions or discussion over the phone should be considered, followed by email only if documents need to be shared. Moroccan employees have a negative perception of such a tool which is not accepted to be used as a tracking tool but more preferred as an information sharing tool.

The research findings also suggest important recommendations with regards to training and this is from three levels:

- Educational level: management and business programmes developed by academics in the West should be upgraded to fit the global changes. This should reflect positively on the curriculum set by universities in the West (the word “West” in this case refers to all none Moroccan-Arab countries). For instance, more focus should be given to Arab theories and models for students to learn about. Cultural awareness should be approached in a more open way to provide students, future professionals, with better practices and skills to easily adapt in cross-cultural work environments. This could be done by designing modules that are in line with various management paradigms. Lectures and seminars should move from the traditional examples on the American experience in the Chinese, and Indian context and discuss case studies on the Moroccan/Arab partnerships in international business. This research provides academics with a conceptual framework of trust building process, an important contribution to knowledge, which could be taught to students through different channels. It is an opportunity for
students to get a theoretical training in trust and about Arab management through case studies, group work involving students from different cultural background and seminars using team building activities and scenarios to learn about diversity, communication in an Arab context, trust building process in the Moroccan context, and so on.

- International companies’ level: international companies that still hesitate in hiring a local management team should consider training sessions for the management team on their arrival to Morocco along with the Moroccan employees. Activities that bring everyone to work together starting with ice breakers to more complex activities in leadership, team building, communications, trust building, etc. It is also an opportunity for international managers to get along with their Moroccan team members, understand their needs through direct interactions. It is recommended that both parties should be open and willing to go through the activities of the training, as a helpful phase to initiate trust and develop communication channels to build upon in their future daily interactions.

- Moroccan policy makers’ level: in order to provide the market with the right human resources in terms of managers with international experience, policy makers should improve the educational system and balance it with sectors in need of resources and the market demand. Moroccan graduates should have been taught the right programmes and have acquired managerial skills to qualify to work in challenging cross-cultural environments without losing the Arab and Moroccan identity in the way they handle situations and manage work and people. At another level, Moroccan policy makers should consider training facilities for international investors as incentive to enter the Moroccan market, introducing the Moroccan management style, its advantages along with Moroccan/Arab management models advised to follow with common features to the Western style. Such initiative can be positive in the way international investors perceive the Moroccan government and encourage them to be willing to have initial trust in the Moroccan market. Finally, this will also encourage improving research and development
in Morocco locally and internationally. For this, it is important to support Moroccan researchers to introduce trust, Moroccan management style and Moroccan employees’ behaviour with high quality publications to bring valuable contribution to knowledge as well as a way to engage with practitioners and international companies encouraging certain behaviours in the Moroccan setting to achieve best practice as key strategy backed up with suitable models.

7.4. Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

As in any research, key limitations were identified, as listed below, with a strong emphasis on future research suggested, to overcome these limitations:

- First, the literature on Arab management, being an important contribution in this research, brought more insight about Arab theories and models in management and leadership. The source from where the models were extracted are valid sources such as Quran and prophetical historical references (Sunnah: based on the prophet’s actions and Sira: based on the prophet’s life). Yet, these models, with many similarities found when compared with the Western models, as discussed in Chapter 1, are under-studied in the literature and even unknown among Arab and international practitioners, which represents a limitation for this research. The limited number of articles used were rich source of information, however, more consideration to be given to such topics for future research.

- Second, very few studies investigated trust in an Arab context at an intra-organisational level and no study has covered the Moroccan case from this specific angle. It was one of the key reasons to consider this explorative research. It is an important opportunity to investigate trust more in-depth in the Moroccan context and expand to other Arab countries. For instance, the level or intensity of mutual trust was not properly
covered in this research and it still needs to be defined and examined in future research to determine whether this mutuality is required and how it is measured in an international-Arab work environment. Further research need to be considered to determine similar or other factors influencing trust building in an international work-setting and come up with a better picture of Arab management by comparing and contrasting studies in different Arab countries.

- Third, with regards to the sample, this research targeted international large companies from various sectors. The method used to initiate contact with these companies and due to the research limited time, it could not consider many companies from each sector. The findings of this research highlighted the positive aspect of culture and suggest a better implementation of management practices in a Moroccan-international business work environment. There are more questions about how companies from each sector perceive trust and how employees are managed. Future research would bring more insight to better cover trust building in each sector. It would also be a valuable contribution to trust research and international business studies in theory and practice, identifying similarities and differences of Arab management in various sectors from a trust perspective.

- Fourth, the sample size of this research is another limitation in terms of the number of participants, even though the planned time of the research and approaches used were the most convenient way to collect data. The limitation is mainly linked to the range of participants from different organisational levels (senior, middle and low management) and different age range. The percentage of participants involved from each age range and organisational level was not equally distributed and this because of the time interviews were organised, only these were available and willing to participate in the study. For example, it would have been useful to know more about the aspect of culture because the way culture is perceived, from each organisational level, is questionable. Few elements
from the sample and even in the literature like Alkahtani et al. (2013) who believe in treating each other equally and prefer not to show any kind of favouritism; and this, not to be judged by others or misunderstood because they are worried about their image or they are not willing to impact their trusting relationships. Culture in this case is interpreted negatively even though some other examples from the sample consider culture positively as a kind of openness to the other cultures. Moreover, changes in culture and adaptation to the international work environment, when youth are involved, might be perceived differently especially when youth are concerned about their identity loss, as found in this sample. Future work would add a valuable contribution explaining Moroccan employees’ views. Future research would be valuable if there is more focus on each organisational level, especially the lowest level of employees was underrepresented in the research when it comes to career advancement opportunities and the implementation of regulations and standards at low management levels in order to look at solutions for a better practice in international organisations in Morocco. It would provide more insight to international management in Morocco if this research’s findings are tested through focusing on the ways in which the strategic practices of international companies operating in Morocco develop, and supporting trust within junior managers.

To sum up, this research covered many aspects while exploring trust and its important role in applying management practices in the international-Moroccan context. It clearly added to the literature as it generated a better understanding on how trust is built in a cross-cultural work environment supported by a theoretical and empirical underpinning, which resulted in clearly identifying and explaining some misunderstood dimensions of the Moroccan culture, in the way communication is set, organisational structure is respected and in the way all these aspects are regrouped together to develop trusting relationships at an intra-organisational level. It shed the light on new areas in Arab
management and trust, not only to develop existing knowledge but also to consider new aspects of research to enrich the body of knowledge. This could bring more interest among academics to cover more aspects in this area, could be another way of learning to live in diversity through new teaching methods or new modules covered at universities for the new generation to come well prepared to integrate the international market, and also simplified and realistic models implemented in practice through better understanding of new ways to manage employees, a new technique that could be incorporated in these companies’ vision, covered in training and applied accordingly as good practice to strengthen these international-Arab partnerships.
Bibliography


314


Dik, R., (2011), “Arab Management Accounting Systems under the Influence of their Culture”, Unpublished Dissertation for the degree of Doctor rerum politicarum (Dr. rer. pol.), Faculty of Business, Economics and Social Sciences at Dortmund University of Technology.


Hancock, B., (1998), “Trent Focus for Research and Development in Primary Health Care: An Introduction to Qualitative Research.”, Trent Focus,


http://scholarworks.gvsu.edu/orpc/vol2/iss1/8


Hutchings, K., Metcalfe, B. D. & Cooper B. K., (2010), “Exploring Arab Middle Eastern women’s perceptions of barriers to, and facilitators of, international


Lassiter, L. E. & Campbell, E., (2010), “What will we have ethnography do?”,
Qualitative Inquiry, 16(9), Pp.: 757 – 767.


Lear, (2015g), “Lear Corporation – Corporate information”,


330


# Appendices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appendix</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 1</td>
<td>List of Contacted Companies in Morocco</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 2</td>
<td>List of participating companies</td>
<td>G</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 3</td>
<td>A summary of the total exchanged emails</td>
<td>H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 4</td>
<td>Interviews Details per participant – Coded</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 5</td>
<td>List of interviewees - Pilot study phase</td>
<td>K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 6</td>
<td>Coding of data collected during the pilot study phase</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 7</td>
<td>Template of the final presentation of themes and categories after coding</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 8</td>
<td>A list of Interview Questions</td>
<td>S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 9</td>
<td>Participating Companies: Introduction of the Five Case Studies</td>
<td>W</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix 1: List of Contacted Companies in Morocco Classified by Sector and Country of Origin

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company (5) – Interviewed (30)</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sn (1)</td>
<td>Automotive</td>
<td>France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St (6)</td>
<td>Equipment</td>
<td>Irish → Moroccan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y (6)</td>
<td>Automotive</td>
<td>Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M (9)</td>
<td>Hotels &amp; Hospitality</td>
<td>Switzerland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L (8)</td>
<td>Automotive – Wiring (Câblage)</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company (4) – Accepted Participation</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unilever</td>
<td>Food Processing</td>
<td>Netherlands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amphenol</td>
<td>Electronics</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IBM</td>
<td>Computer Services</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procter &amp; Gamble</td>
<td>Household/Personal Care</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company (5) – Rejected Participation</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kone</td>
<td>Construction Services</td>
<td>Finland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accenture</td>
<td>Computer Services</td>
<td>Ireland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syngenta</td>
<td>Specialized Chemicals</td>
<td>Switzerland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hilton Worldwide Holdings</td>
<td>Hotels &amp; Motels</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JESA – Jacobs Engineering</td>
<td>Construction Services</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company (5) – Awaiting for Confirmation</td>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>Country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BMW Group - SMEIA</td>
<td>Auto &amp; Truck Manufacturers</td>
<td>Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAP</td>
<td>Software &amp; Programming</td>
<td>Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schindler Holding</td>
<td>Other Industrial Equipment</td>
<td>Switzerland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boeing</td>
<td>Aerospace &amp; Defense</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DHL</td>
<td>Postal and logistics</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company (62) – Awaiting for Response</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Twin Tec</td>
<td>Industrial flooring</td>
<td>Australia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CGI Group</td>
<td>Computer Services</td>
<td>Canada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four Seasons Hotels and Resorts</td>
<td>Hotels, Restaurants &amp; Leisure</td>
<td>Canada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Huawei</td>
<td>Technology &amp; Equipment</td>
<td>China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novo Nordisk</td>
<td>Pharmaceuticals</td>
<td>Denmark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accor</td>
<td>Hotels &amp; Motels</td>
<td>France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMA CGM</td>
<td>Shipping</td>
<td>France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Framotel</td>
<td>Hotels, Restaurants &amp; Leisure</td>
<td>France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L’Oréal</td>
<td>Personal care</td>
<td>France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nexans</td>
<td>Electrical Equipment</td>
<td>France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Renault</td>
<td>Auto &amp; Truck Manufacturers</td>
<td>France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safran Groupe – Lafarge &amp; SNECMA</td>
<td>Construction Materials</td>
<td>France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schneider</td>
<td>Electrical Equipment</td>
<td>France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company</td>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>Country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Oil &amp; Gas Operations</td>
<td>France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zodiac Aerospace</td>
<td>Aerospace &amp; Defense</td>
<td>France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BASF</td>
<td>Diversified Chemicals</td>
<td>Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beiersdorf</td>
<td>Household/Personal Care</td>
<td>Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experian</td>
<td>Business &amp; Personal Services</td>
<td>Ireland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cimar – Italcementi Group</td>
<td>Cement - Construction</td>
<td>Italy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sumitomo Electric Wiring Systems (SEWS)</td>
<td>Automotive</td>
<td>Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ingelec</td>
<td>Electronic and Electrical Equipment</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palmeraie Golf Palace Resorts Hotel</td>
<td>Leisure, Travel &amp; Tourism</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Akzo Nobel (Coatings - Sikkens)</td>
<td>Diversified Chemicals</td>
<td>Netherlands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shell</td>
<td>Oil &amp; Gas Operations</td>
<td>Netherlands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inabensa</td>
<td>industrial engineering and construction</td>
<td>Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Melia Group Hotels</td>
<td>Leisure, Travel &amp; Tourism</td>
<td>Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tecnimede Maroc</td>
<td>Pharmaceuticals</td>
<td>Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atlas Copco</td>
<td>Other Industrial Equipment</td>
<td>Sweden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scania</td>
<td>Automotive</td>
<td>Sweden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tetrapak</td>
<td>Food packaging and processing</td>
<td>Sweden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STMicroelectronics</td>
<td>Semiconductors</td>
<td>Switzerland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babcock International Group</td>
<td>Business &amp; Personal Services</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company</td>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>Location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coats</td>
<td>Textile</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dewhirst</td>
<td>Clothing - Textile</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSK - GlaxoSmithKline</td>
<td>Pharmaceuticals</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loxam Access</td>
<td>Automotive - Services</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oxford Business Group</td>
<td>Research publishing</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Automatic Data (ADP)</td>
<td>Business &amp; Personal Services</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avaya</td>
<td>Telecommunications Services</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brightstar</td>
<td>Telecommunications Services</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cargill</td>
<td>Food, Drink &amp; Tobacco</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carlson</td>
<td>Hotels, Restaurants &amp; Leisure</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citigroup</td>
<td>Major Banks</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coca-Cola/NABC</td>
<td>Beverages</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colgate-Palmolive</td>
<td>Household/Personal Care</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crown Holdings</td>
<td>Containers &amp; Packaging</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dell</td>
<td>Technology Hardware &amp; Equipment</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ernst &amp; Young (EY)</td>
<td>Business Services &amp; Supplies</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HP</td>
<td>Computer Hardware</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Paper - CMCP</td>
<td>Paper &amp; Paper Products</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jacobs Engineering</td>
<td>Construction Services</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kohler</td>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kraft Foods Group</td>
<td>Food Processing</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lilly - Eli Lilly &amp; Co</td>
<td>Pharmaceuticals</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company</td>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>Country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matis Aerospace (owned by Boeing)</td>
<td>Aerospace &amp; Defense</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McKinsey</td>
<td>Business Services &amp; Supplies</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monsanto</td>
<td>Specialized Chemicals</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pfizer</td>
<td>Pharmaceuticals</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PWC PricewaterhouseCoopers</td>
<td>Business Services &amp; Supplies</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC Johnson &amp; Son</td>
<td>Household &amp; Personal Products</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simmons</td>
<td>Bedding manufacturer of mattresses and related bedding products</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xerox</td>
<td>Business Products &amp; Supplies</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Information extracted from companies’ respective websites*
### Appendix 2: Chosen companies participating in the data collection phase classified by sector and country of origin

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company ID (5) – Interviewed (30)</th>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sn (1)</td>
<td>Automotive</td>
<td>France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St (6)</td>
<td>Equipment</td>
<td>Irish → Moroccan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y (6)</td>
<td>Automotive</td>
<td>Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M (9)</td>
<td>Hotels &amp; Hospitality</td>
<td>Switzerland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L (8)</td>
<td>Automotive – Wiring (Câblage)</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Information extracted from companies’ respective websites*
**Appendix 3:** A summary of the total exchanged emails between the researcher and participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Number of exchanged electronic mails</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interviewed</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accepted Participation but not interviewed</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rejected Participation</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awaiting for Confirmation</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awaiting for Response</td>
<td>192</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix 4: Interviews Details per participant - Coded

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Company -ID</th>
<th>Interview Length</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sn</td>
<td>Production Manager</td>
<td>Sn</td>
<td>Written Copy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St1</td>
<td>Spare parts Director</td>
<td>St</td>
<td>52:23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St2</td>
<td>Head of Division</td>
<td>St</td>
<td>27:56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St3</td>
<td>Commercial Assistant – Back office</td>
<td>St</td>
<td>29:11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St4</td>
<td>Warranty and Support Administrator</td>
<td>St</td>
<td>44:06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St5</td>
<td>Engineer</td>
<td>St</td>
<td>25:57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St6</td>
<td>Assistant Storekeeper</td>
<td>St</td>
<td>29:43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y1</td>
<td>Managing Director</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>1:08:39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y2</td>
<td>Finance Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>50:41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y3</td>
<td>HR Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>36:20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y4</td>
<td>Supervisor – HR Department</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>54:47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y5</td>
<td>IT Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Note taking – Not recorded (1hour)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y6</td>
<td>Production Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>38:26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M1</td>
<td>General Manager</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>42:30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M2</td>
<td>IT Assistant</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>43:09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M3</td>
<td>IT Manager</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>59:44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M4</td>
<td>Operations Manager</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>1:22:20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M5</td>
<td>Chef concierge</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>43:21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M6</td>
<td>Assistant Front Office</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>1:47:49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M7</td>
<td>Assistant HR Manager</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>37:35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M8</td>
<td>HR Secretary</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>24:56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M9</td>
<td>HR Manager</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>33:36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>Launch Manager</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>29:29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>HR Manager</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>40:41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L3</td>
<td>Engineering Manager</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>50:52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L4</td>
<td>Project Manager</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>28:23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L5</td>
<td>Assistant Finance Manager</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>33:33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L6</td>
<td>Finance Manager</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>41:26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L7</td>
<td>Accountant</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>34:28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L8</td>
<td>HR Assistant</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>22:32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Appendix 5: List of interviewees during the first stage of data collection undertaken by the author of this research**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Company Code</th>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Company Origins</th>
<th>Date/Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I1</td>
<td>Director - Investment department</td>
<td>RCI</td>
<td>Moroccan</td>
<td>Governmental institution</td>
<td>02/01/2013, 15:00-16:30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I2</td>
<td>Director - Managing projects department</td>
<td>AMDI</td>
<td>Moroccan</td>
<td>Governmental institution</td>
<td>04/01/2013, 09:00-10:00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I3</td>
<td>Head of Section – Investment Committee Secretariat</td>
<td>AMDI</td>
<td>Moroccan</td>
<td>Governmental institution</td>
<td>04/01/2013, 10:00-11:30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I4</td>
<td>Partner</td>
<td>BR</td>
<td>Real estate</td>
<td>Moroccan</td>
<td>07/01/2013, 14:30-16:00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I5</td>
<td>Researcher</td>
<td>University IT</td>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>Moroccan</td>
<td>08/01/2013, 14:00-16:00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I6</td>
<td>Head of the Communication Division</td>
<td>ANAPEC</td>
<td>Moroccan</td>
<td>Governmental institution</td>
<td>08/01/2013, 17:00-18:30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I7</td>
<td>Minister counsellor</td>
<td>Ministry of IC&amp;NT</td>
<td>Moroccan</td>
<td>Government</td>
<td>14/01/2013, 14:30-16:00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Position</td>
<td>Company</td>
<td>Industry/Field</td>
<td>Nationality</td>
<td>Date/Time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I8</td>
<td>Business Development and Planning Manager</td>
<td>PM Maroc</td>
<td>Tobacco industry</td>
<td>American</td>
<td>16/01/2013, 14:30-15:30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I9</td>
<td>Managing Director for Lilly in Morocco and</td>
<td>ELS Maroc</td>
<td>Pharmaceutical</td>
<td>American</td>
<td>16/01/2013, 16:30-17:00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>West Africa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I10</td>
<td>Minister</td>
<td>Ministry of IC&amp;NT</td>
<td>Moroccan Government</td>
<td>Moroccan</td>
<td>18/01/2013, 16:30-17:30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I11</td>
<td>Deputy General Manager</td>
<td>D E&amp;C</td>
<td>Industrial construction</td>
<td>South-Korean</td>
<td>19/01/2013, 10:00-14:00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Appendix 6: Coding of data collected during the pilot study phase**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Companies</th>
<th>Moroccan Local Co. (Business Realities)</th>
<th>1st American Co. (Eli Lilly)</th>
<th>2nd American Co. (Philip Morris)</th>
<th>South Korean Co. (DAEWOO)</th>
<th>Gov. Institutions</th>
<th>Academic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ID</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key issues</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>T.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expertise/Competences - Qualified resources</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is a need in providing clear, faster and simplified procedures (public administrations)</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corruption/Transparency – Bureaucracy</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need of training programmes – Human resources development</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>change : Resistance/Acceptance</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness/Adaptation of employees to international companies</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptation/understanding of international companies to the host culture through employees</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job creation</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic factor</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational culture, organisational change and organisational structure</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitiveness</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respect of deadlines – Time management</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Build trust and respect</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Moroccan market offers/lacks of specific profiles</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International companies follow a harmonised structure and practices applicable in their offices worldwide</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer of knowledge</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home-based employees understand the organisational structure/culture of the International company via training programmes or by experience</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management positions/profiles in demand – Human resources management limited</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reorganisation of laws and regulations</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Given its strategic location, Morocco is a strong business destination for investors coming from Europe, the Middle East and the USA.</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of communication/cooperation between departments or different actors</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment process</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment through private agencies</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International companies consider the cultural aspect while investing in Arab countries - Learning about the host country’s culture</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee satisfaction feedback</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strict practices in commercial law (hiring practices, land acquisition)</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco is culturally open compared to other Arab countries</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of recruitment services</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence of investors/employees</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouraging innovation and creativity</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving incentives motivate employees to increase performance</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversity</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-services</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment through public agencies</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>√</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge employees by setting objectives to achieve: management by objectives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importing labour – qualified technician/profiles not available in host country</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong Networking system – Social network</td>
<td>√</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment through networking</td>
<td>√</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment through forums</td>
<td>√</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative leadership</td>
<td></td>
<td>√</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidentiality - Integrity</td>
<td>√</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement of objectives using a coach model</td>
<td>√</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal opportunities through e-recruitment</td>
<td></td>
<td>√</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision/strategy/Objectives</td>
<td></td>
<td>√</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design strategies for development from western practices/approaches</td>
<td></td>
<td>√</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 7: Template of the final presentation of themes and categories after coding as considered by the author of this research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Sub-categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>A1</td>
<td>A11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A2</td>
<td>A21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A3</td>
<td>A31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>B1</td>
<td>B11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>B12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>B13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B2</td>
<td>B21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>B22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>C1</td>
<td>C11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>C12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C2</td>
<td>C21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>C22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 8: A list of Interview Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code:</th>
<th>Transcription of the interview with:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Date:</td>
<td>Time:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:

Section 1: Personal Information

Q 1: Could you please tell me more about you: What is your age? What is your nationality? What is the highest educational level you have attained? Your job title? How long have you been in your current position, with your current company?

Age:
Nationality:
highest educational level:
Current job title:
Period spent in your current position:
Period spent in your current company:

Section 2: Description of the Company You Work For

Q 2: In your opinion, how do you see your company as an employer? How does your company manage employees?
| Q 3: How formal and developed your organisation’s HR policies are defined and known to all the employees in the company? How these HR policies are communicated? |
| Q 4: How frequently do you formally meet with other employees? What usually happen in these meetings? How do you formally share information? |
| Q 5: How often do you meet informally? Please cite examples. Is it encouraged by the company? |
| Q 6: Does your company organise social events? How much are these social events encouraged? Does it involve all hierarchies? |

**Section 3: Information about Employees Working in your Current Company**

| Q 7: How do you inform your subordinates about objectives of a task they are undertaking? |
| Q 8: How often do you discuss with your subordinates about any concerns they may have about their job? Is it during formal or informal meetings? |
| Q 9: How do you encourage your subordinates? |
| Q 10: | Do you think there is a specific Moroccan working culture and how does it reflect in your way of doing your work in an international work environment? |

| Q 11: | Do you like working in an international company? Why? |

| **Section 4: Definitions and antecedents of Perceived Trust** |
| **Q 12:** In general, people say trust is important in the company and between employees. Do you agree with this statement? |

| **Q 13:** How do you build trust within your organisation? |

| **Q 14:** How would you define trust between employees within your company in such an international work environment? Any examples from your experience. |

| **Q 15:** Can you identify some qualities or aspects of people who are trusted in your company? |

| **Q 16:** Can you identify some specific individuals whom you think are particularly trusted in your company and say why you perceive them as such? |

<p>| <strong>Q 17:</strong> What are the aspects to build trust in your opinion – based on your own culture? Can you give an example? |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q 18:</th>
<th>What are the aspects to decrease/destroy trust in your opinion – based on your own culture?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q 19:</td>
<td>Which of the factors you listed would you consider are most, more and least important in building trust?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 20:</td>
<td>Why do you consider one factor more important than the others in influencing you to trust the company – your colleagues – your managers – your subordinates?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 21:</td>
<td>What about the importance of the following factors in building trust in your opinion: openness – fairness – Manager’s words-actions consistency (Behavioural integrity/BI) – communication?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 22:</td>
<td>Given that you are working in an international work environment where you might be dealing with employees from other cultures and different countries, do you think the following factors influence the way you trust others in an international work environment: family name, tribal traditions, royal family, kinship, connections or wasata, nationality and language?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 9: Participating Companies: Introduction of the Five Case Studies

Participating Companies

This section briefly introduces the participating companies emphasizing on their managerial strategies, organisational structure and HR policies towards employees focusing more on elements related to trust, communication, culture and hierarchy. Information is retrieved from the organisation’s official website, their YouTube videos, Twitter, Facebook and LinkedIn messages. Table 5.1:1 lists the companies’ names, country of origin and the number of participants from each company.

Table 5.1:1 Participating companies’ details

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company ID</th>
<th>Country of Origin</th>
<th>Number of Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sn</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St</td>
<td>Netherlands then Morocco</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Information extracted from companies’ respective websites

Case Study 1: Company ID - L

“L” is one of the leading automotive suppliers in the World with more than 122,000 employees worldwide manufacturing and supplying automotive systems from wires, seating, electrical components (Forbes, 2015). “L” assembles and designs systems in the automotive industry in 226 facilities in 36 countries including Morocco with three facilities located in in Kénitra, Salé and Tangier (Lear, 2015a).
Chosen as one of the best diversity companies by the readers of Diversity Careers in 2014, one of “L”’s values is diversity in terms of (Lear, 2015a; Diversitycareers, 2014). This led “L” to receive several awards in various categories as best supplier quality, delivery performance, and customers services such as “L”’s Tangier plant that received Ford's Q1 Award for sustained quality and customer service results in 2014, which reflects “L”’s employees commitment through the company’s leadership and strategy to achieve “L”’s objectives (Lear, 2015h). Employees, selected to represent the company as “Faces of “L”” in the four continents (Europe, Asia, America and Africa) where “L” is located, are also receiving awards internally. It is noticed that these employees are from diverse departments such as Quality, Business processes, sales and Human resources departments (Lear, 2015d). This diversity is not only department related but it claims that employees are from different ethnicities and backgrounds to reflect the company’s strategy and values.

Case Study 2: Company ID - Y

“Y” is one of the corporations globally known in the automotive sector. Being one of the largest producers of automotive wiring in the World, “Y” is present in more than 39 countries with 169 companies and 410 plants (Ichijo, 2007). Founded in 1941 and their first production site was established in Thailand in 1962 and since then, “Y” acknowledged the important of trust and its role in their global expansion to develop their network and relationships with stakeholders worldwide.

In line with recognising the global competition with regards to global environmental initiative, “Y” is one of the corporates claiming their commitment toward the environment as a way to support society setting a set of environmental policies showing
their concern to society’s problems and promoting environment-friendly products to gain customers’ trust (Yazaki-Group, 2015). The element of trust was again claimed to be important to the corporate as stated by “Y”’s president who believes that they owe their success to their stakeholders who trusted them not only because of “Y”’s performance but because of the values they embedded in their corporate policies with regards to their customers and the environment and to their employees’ work conditions (Yazaki, 2015).

To explain how the company incorporate the element of trust and from “Y”’s annual report, it emphasizes the social initiatives that “Y” was involved in through fundamental policies such as respect of the host country culture, take part in the social and economic development, care for the environment, etc. They are also promoting employees’ discussions as activities set by the corporate aiming at improving work conditions for employees at different organisational levels from labours to top management. This includes strategies they advertise for in their website as one of the ways of support available to “Y” employees worldwide (Yazaki-Group, 2014). Defining the concept behind these strategies, “Y” insists on developing a strong human resource building mutual trust through development so that employees understand the meaning of their jobs. By doing so, “Y” believes that once this trust is established, employees will support the corporate’s success (Yazaki-NA, 2015; Ichijo, 2007).

**Case Study 3: Company ID - M**

“M” Hotels & Resorts, since its establishment in 1948, has been expanding globally with more than 100 hotels (Movenpick, 2015a). Located in 5 countries in Europe (Germany, Netherlands, France, Turkey and Switzerland), in 8 countries in the Middle East (Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, West Bank and Bahrain),
in 7 countries in Asia (China, India, Pakistan, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam) and in 4 countries in Africa (Egypt, Ghana, Morocco and Tunisia) (Movenpick, 2015b).

In addition to being a Green certified hotel worldwide as claimed to be by many organisations, establishing a sustainable approach to support the environment, “M” is also showing the same importance to their employees as given to their guests and shareholders (Movenpick, 2015a; 2015c; 2015d). This strategy seems to be incorporated through promoting trust and integrity within “M”’s employees. Expanding globally within different locations and various cultures, “M” declares setting a learning and development strategy embraced in a diverse working environment where employees are encouraged to engage and develop their skills through continuous learning (Movenpick, 2015e). Trust is one of the key values that support “M”’s vision including fairness and integrity stating that these values, once implemented, establish strong relationship between employees (Movenpick, 2015f).

**Case Study 4: Company ID - SN**

Founded in 1981, “SN” is working in the automotive industry supplying in the fields of design, manufacturing and production. Basing their values on respect, trust, transparency, ambition and professionalism, “SN” is dealing with various automotive companies like Ford, Dacia, Audi, BMW, Mercedes-Benz, Toyota, Volvo, Volkswagen, etc. (Snop, 2015a).

SN is located in 10 countries where in France, they have a total of 17 sites, 4 sites in Spain, 3 sites each in China and Czech Republic, 2 sites each in Germany and the UK and
1 site in each of Turkey, Morocco, Italy and Russia (Snop, 2015b). Similar to the other companies in this research, diversity in terms of location and customers is a common aspect “SN” care about which incite the group to consider quality as their main concern. For this reason, “SN” addressed the quality aspect through the incorporation of various ISO certifications such as ISO TS 16949 certification to insure good quality of their products and ISO 14001 certification to follow environment-friendly standard (Snop, 2015c). “SN”’s vision appears to be more supplier quality focused given the number of awards they received such as the 2014 GM supplier quality excellence award for “SN” Igualada, 2014 Supplier Awards as best plants for 4 of their plants (Gacé, Saint-Piere de Varangeville, Nigran and Pisek) among 96 industrial sites (Snop, 2015d). In term of values and how “SN” incorporate these values internally, there was no indication in their website about it and even by searching in valid sources, it seems that “SN” is not giving details about work conditions and employees’ involvement.

Case Study 5: Company ID - ST

Established in 1953, “ST” was created to have an African commercial plant for the company’s import and distribution activities in the technical equipment industry composed of only two departments in distribution and import focusing only on importing retail brands and importing and distributing consumer goods such as electrical domestic appliances. In 1997, a Moroccan family business took control of the company. Since then, “ST” expanded its activities locally and internationally operating in the various sectors such as Agriculture, automobile and civil engineering including core business such as construction, mining, agricultural equipment, energy, automobile, etc. (Stokvis, 2014).
In addition to supporting community through sponsoring several associations such as “Association AMAL” fighting diabetes (AMAL is an Arabic word which means hope), “Association INSAF” (INSAF is an Arabic word which means justice) for child welfare and “Orchestre Philharmonique” (Philharmonic orchestra) which is a cultural programme that “ST” supports and participates in during marathons organised in Casablanca (Stokvis, 2015a). With regards to the company’s values, “ST” states five aspects: ethics, loyal and fair competition, civic and social engagement, environment’s protection and finally internal commitment considered as the core of the five values (Stokvis, 2015b). Ethics, loyalty, respect, commitment and recognition of employees’ efforts are aspects that “ST” claims relying on for its success.

Summary

To summarise the main HR practices and values the participating international companies are including in the way they present their internal vision, Table 5.1:2 lists the aspects they have in common in order to analyse them in a way to look for specific patterns and relations in comparison with the findings.

Table 5.1:2 Participating companies’ common values and HR practices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company ID</th>
<th>Number of locations</th>
<th>Total of employees</th>
<th>Vision</th>
<th>Key values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>240 locations in 35 countries</td>
<td>135,000</td>
<td>In addition to supporting communities where Lear is established, “L” aims at being recognised as the best</td>
<td>Quality, innovation, efficiency, customer focused, diversity, teamwork, integrity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier, best employer and the investment of choice.</td>
<td>and community support.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Y</strong></td>
<td><strong>Overseas Group: 101 and Group companies in Japan: 63</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>257,100</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A set of principles were implemented by the group aiming at valuing customers through implementing policies and new concept to improve their services. To contribute to supporting community in countries the company is located, “Y” claims the importance of respecting culture in these locations as key aspect to contribute positively to its economic, social and environmental development. Internally, caring for employees seems to be another practice the company has chosen in an open a fair corporate culture based on teamwork and employee’s empowerment.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Efficiency, customer valued, respect of cultures, economic, environment and social development, openness and fairness, teamwork, empowerment, corporate culture, employee focused.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

BB
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>83 locations in 4 continents (5 countries in Europe, 8 countries in Middle East, 7 countries in Asia and 4 countries in Africa)</th>
<th>16,000</th>
<th>In addition to supporting community following sustainable practices introducing Green Globe initiative, building an employee driven and customer focused culture is another aspect they introduced. The company claims to share a common goal with its people caring for people and promoting diversity, respect of culture, learning and development for career advancement opportunities using training facilities such as “M” talent development centre and graduate development programmes.</th>
<th>Quality, reliability, care, trust including fairness, integrity and respect of promises, sustainable relationships, entrepreneurship spirit including creativity, innovation and taking ownership, driven, passionate, proactive, persistent and initiative spirit.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SN</td>
<td>35 locations in 10 countries</td>
<td>4250</td>
<td>To enhance the human aspect, company’s vision is to motivate employees through teamwork introducing sustainable</td>
<td>Ambition, transparency, profitability, professionalism, respect and trust.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
solutions to ensure better work conditions as key values. To do so, training is provided to employees to ensure a secure and reliable work environment coordinating between technical and human resources. Customers represent another strategic human aspect “SN” aims to reach through optimising its systems.

| ST | 1 country with future locations considered in 4 countries. | 300 Claiming that 50% of their employees are women, average total employees is 35 years old, “ST” seem to focus on career advancement, recognition of individuals’ efforts as a strategic way to build strong relationships between employees. Respect of culture and showing care and support to communities is | Effectiveness, Gender Equity, Balanced human resources, support community, culture, high performance, training, professional and personal development. |
Selected Plants of Participating Companies

As introduced above, this research involved five large international private companies from different sectors (Tourism, automotive and industrial). Thirty interviews were conducted with participants from these companies at three managerial levels (top, middle and low management). The sample contains different nationalities working in those companies but the majority are Moroccan. In terms of nationalities, from the total sample, only one participant is not Moroccan. Reason behind this choice was mentioned during interviews by the top management that international companies in Morocco prefer to keep the team more homogenous being managed by a local. Table 5.2:1 lists other reasons as highlighted by participants during interviews and more details backed up with theoretical explanation is provided in the research Findings, in Chapter 6.

Table 5.2:1 Main reasons for international companies in Morocco to consider local management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Reasons behind incorporating a local management in international companies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M6</td>
<td>“There was a problem that involved a French manager and a Saudi veiled woman. The manager did not accept her to wear veil at work. The culture is clear; the manager left - not the employee, because you should bear in mind this...”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
kind of issues. At the end it’s a business, they have to respect the country’s way somehow. When you go to a certain country you respect its norms.”

M7 “Our problem is that managers change very often every period we have a new one who doesn’t know you. And you cannot have a raise until the manager will know you but once he knows you they change him. We had 9-10 managing directors and this rotation system is a problem.”

Y2 “… there is always loss of information... 2 years ago our central Finance was based in England, all my upper contacts were British so I was obliged to use their language.”

L2 “I have 3-4 line managers, one hierarchic, the other one functional and one in the USA. I receive all kind of requests and tasks from everywhere and it is very stressful. Each one sees it from their angle and sends you an email and if he is not satisfied, you will be in trouble from all sides... very often I am faced with contradictory decisions...”

Some of these companies have different plants in Morocco. Starting with “L” Kénitra which is a new plant specialised in electrical inaugurated in 2014 in the Atlantic free zone in Kénitra in Northern Morocco. It is interesting to explore the nature of “L”’s success internally and question the role of trust for this case. According to Lear (2015f), trust is reflected by the company and employees’ strong commitment which constitutes its success in understanding their customers and the automotive consumer’s needs.

As for the second case, “Y” Morocco has three plants located in Tanger, Kenitra and Meknes. “Y” Tanger, the one that participated in this research, is situated in Tangier Free Zone with more than 60 international companies in the automotive industry (Yazaki-
Europe, 2008; TFZ, 2013). With 3 plants, understanding “Y”’s approaches in building trust within their employees globally located will draw a clear idea of the phenomenon subject of this research.

“M” first hotel in Morocco opened in Tangier, another one opened in Casablanca in 2014 and by the end of 2015, another “M” hotel is expected to open in Marakech (MWN, 2015). From “M” introduction in section above about the key values incorporated by the company, exploring this trusting behaviour within a diverse environment and identify the factors that help its development may explain the role of trust and its importance, if applicable, as key behaviour for an international company as “M”.

“SN”, the French group, has only one plant in Tangier and it is also located in Tanger Free Zone. Even though it shows that it is more customer-oriented, “SN” is working around a sustainable way to motivate employees to work better by providing good working conditions. Understanding how and to what extent values embedded in the group’s strategy are developed internally is another contribution that might be brought to this research.

The fifth case is about “ST” headquarters which is located in an industrial zone in Bouskoura (an industrial zone 30km from Casablanca city). Exploring “ST”’s values such as trust, respect, loyalty and integrity in a work environment with such a transition from Dutch to Moroccan decision makers will also add more insight to understanding trust in the context of this research.
Before the interviews take place, the author of this research contacted the HR manager or her point of contact in the participating companies to set a day to conduct the interviews on site. The reason for choosing the interviews location in the company itself resides in the fact that companies have chosen dates and times to conduct interviews during employees’ working hours. Again and because the process was organised through these companies, given it is related to practices and relationships between employees within the company, it was decided to be on site. It was convenient for many reasons: first of all, the author of the research was able to observe and make notes on various levels such as observe relationships between employees, their work conditions, discuss with employees she met with in a social atmosphere like during lunch time in “Y” and “L” when she got to sit and have lunch with some of them, etc. Secondly, it was interesting to observe the way they communicate with each other and make notes about the working environment itself where most of them are sharing open spaces except their managers who have their own offices. Before the start of the interviews in each of these companies, I was given a separate office in a quiet area where interviews were conducted to provide a relaxing and comfortable atmosphere for interviewees. Choosing semi-structured questions was another approach to encourage participants to be open and express their ideas freely with some guidance from the interviewer to direct the conversation to relevant aspects. As suggested by Woods (2011), to insure data reliability at this stage, there was a list of standard questions in each section of the interview that were asked to all participants. During the interviews, participating employees were open and relaxed about expressing their opinion which did not affect the validity of their views. Some of the interviewees even clearly stated at the beginning of our conversation that they are willing to share their own opinion without any pressure and answer questions as honestly as possible. This was shown in the way they were providing examples to back up their views and showed some
objectivity in treating the raised matter fairly by comparing other institutions or by bringing the negative points and highlight the changes made to identify solutions or to overcome issues. Questioning the validity of this sample and how representative it is to the whole population was not clearly shown at this level but interviewees’ responses in Section One drew some patterns that were strengthened in the other sections of the interview to justify the validity of this sample. One of the main aspects is diversity in the age range, background and educational levels where employees are coming from different cities and regions of Morocco, the other aspect is through interviewees’ responses where similarities in approaching topics and views were found to be representative (More details discussing these patterns and similarities is in Chapter 6). Yet, at this initial stage, sample of this purely qualitative research is representative given the adequate size the author of the research could gather and what determined its validity is the saturation in responses leading to key themes that were populated from section to another.