

Jack Harper

Assignment: Project Management
(BMSK5014)

Word count: 4174 (excluding executive
summary, references)

Submission date: 06/09/2026

Planning a Himalayan Research Expedition: A Project Management Report

Executive Summary

This report presents a project management plan for The Himalayan Expedition, a six-month scientific project to establish high-altitude climate monitoring stations in the Nepalese Himalayas. Using established project management theories and models, the report looks at how different methodologies, tools, and techniques apply to expedition projects in extreme environments. The analysis covers project initiation, environmental analysis, work breakdown structures, communication planning, risk management, and project closure. The report also looks at what makes a good project manager, includes an honest self-audit based on my own experience, and sets out a personal development plan (PDP) to address my weaknesses. The main argument is that while traditional predictive methods give essential structure to expedition planning, combining these with agile principles and strong risk management is necessary when working in volatile, high-altitude environments where uncertainty is basically guaranteed.

1.0 Introduction

Project management is the application of knowledge, skills, tools, and techniques to project activities to meet requirements (Project Management Institute [PMI], 2021). Managing expedition projects in extreme environments such as the Himalayas creates unique challenges that standard project management often struggles to deal with. These include unpredictable weather, complex logistics, physical limits on team members, political issues, and the simple fact that mountain conditions cannot be controlled (Meredith & Mantel, 2020).

This report uses The Himalayan Expedition as a case study. The expedition aims to install three automated weather stations above 5,000 metres in Sagarmatha National Park, collect ice core samples from the Khumbu Glacier, and deploy twelve researchers for a sixteen-week field season. The budget is £850,000, and the project is a collaboration between a British university, the Nepal Academy of Science and Technology, and international climate research groups. The report follows the project lifecycle from start to finish. Section 2 defines the project idea. Section 3 is the main analysis, looking at methodologies, initiation, environmental analysis, work breakdown structures, tools and communication, risk management, and monitoring and closure. Section 4 identifies key project manager attributes, includes my self-audit, and presents my PDP. Section 5 offers some final thoughts.

2.0 Defining the Project Idea: The What and the Why

2.1 Project Definition and Scope

The Himalayan Expedition is a time-bound, multidisciplinary scientific project with specific deliverables, a fixed budget, and a tight operational window dictated by Himalayan weather patterns. The what includes four main deliverables: installing and commissioning three weather stations at 5,200m, 5,800m, and 6,400m; extracting and preserving ice core samples from the Khumbu Glacier; collecting biometric data from team members to study altitude physiology; and publishing preliminary findings within twelve months of returning.

The project is unique and complex. Unlike routine data collection, high-altitude expeditions involve new combinations of technical, logistical, and human factors that make each one different (Turner, 2014). The temporary nature of the team, brought together for this specific purpose and disbanded afterwards, also shows that this is a project rather than an ongoing operation (PMI, 2021).

2.2 Strategic Rationale and Justification

The why comes down to scientific need and institutional strategy. Scientifically, the Hindu Kush-Himalaya region is a major gap in global climate models. Current estimates suggest High Mountain Asia could lose two-thirds of its ice by 2100, which would affect water security for nearly two billion people (Immerzeel et al., 2020). Installing high-altitude monitoring stations will provide real data to improve these models and check satellite measurements against ground truth.

Institutionally, the expedition fits the university's research priorities in climate science and extreme environments. It also creates capacity-building opportunities for Nepalese partners and should produce high-impact publications that improve the university's reputation and help secure future funding (Shenhar & Dvir, 2007). The business case therefore rests on three things: scientific value, institutional strategy, and international collaboration. These need to be balanced throughout the project.

3.0 Project Management Philosophies and Processes

3.1 Project Management Methodologies: A Critical Review

Choosing a methodology is one of the most important decisions in project planning because it shapes governance, reporting, and how the team adapts to change. For expedition projects, this choice is difficult because there is a tension between the need for detailed upfront planning, essential in remote areas where improvisation is expensive, and the reality that the environment is unpredictable and demands flexibility.

Traditional Predictive Methodologies. The PMBOK Guide and PRINCE2 are the main predictive approaches, focusing on detailed upfront planning, stage-gate reviews, and lots of documentation (PMI, 2021; AXELOS, 2017). These offer advantages for sequencing complex logistics and providing review points before irreversible decisions (Kerzner, 2022). However, their assumption that requirements can be defined at inception ignores the fact that Himalayan conditions introduce variability that cannot be fully predicted (Highsmith, 2009). As Cicmil et al. (2017) point out, the iron triangle of time, cost, and scope becomes almost meaningless when the environment can override human schedules.

Agile and Hybrid Approaches. Agile methods focus on iterative planning, adapting as you go, and giving the team autonomy (Cohn, 2009). Pure agile does not really work for expedition logistics because you cannot iteratively order oxygen cylinders or helicopter permits, but agile principles are useful for the scientific phase. The idea of time-boxed sprints could be applied to data collection, letting the team adjust sampling strategies based on early findings or changing weather windows (Larson & Gray, 2021). A hybrid approach, using PRINCE2 for governance and agile for the scientific phase, seems the most suitable for The Himalayan Expedition. This fits with Morris's (2013) argument that modern project management needs methodological pluralism, picking and combining approaches based on context. Yet as Hass (2007) notes, agile and predictive methods are built on different cultural assumptions. Making them work together requires active negotiation, not just saying you are using both.

Critical Assessment. Methodology literature often treats the choice as a technical exercise, as if you just pick the right method from a menu. In expedition contexts, methodology choice has to account for what funders expect, what international partners are comfortable with, and what the team needs psychologically when under stress (Crawford, 2005). The best methodology might simply be the one the team can actually use without it becoming a burden.

3.2 Project Initiation

Initiation turns a vague idea into an authorised, resourced project. For The Himalayan Expedition, this involves three linked processes: writing the business case, getting the project charter signed off, and identifying stakeholders.

The business case sets out the investment logic, including cost-benefit analysis, risk-adjusted returns, and strategic alignment. For scientific expeditions, benefits are often non-financial and long-term, so valuation is tricky (Turner, 2014). The business case for the expedition tries to quantify scientific impact through expected citations, usefulness to climate modelling groups, and potential policy influence, while admitting that these projections are uncertain. It also needs to show how the project aligns with institutional strategy and international partnership goals, because funders want to see that their money supports broader objectives.

The project charter formally authorises the project manager to use organisational resources. In expedition contexts, the charter needs to explicitly cover who has decision-making authority in an emergency, something standard templates often miss (Meredith & Mantel, 2020). For The Himalayan Expedition, the charter sets out a clear escalation protocol: the Expedition Leader holds operational authority up to defined risk thresholds, but beyond that authority transfers to an Emergency Response Committee back in the UK. This matters because in a crisis, the person on the ground may be hypoxic or sleep-deprived, and having a clear backstop prevents dangerous solo decision-making.

Stakeholder analysis at initiation means mapping everyone with an interest in or influence over the project. Beyond the obvious ones like funders, research partners, and team members, the expedition has less visible stakeholders: Sherpa communities whose livelihoods and sacred landscapes are affected, Nepalese regulators, downstream populations who depend on glacier water, and mountaineering groups worried about environmental damage (Bourne & Walker, 2005). If these stakeholders are not engaged early, you get resistance, permit delays, and reputational damage that no project management tool can fix later. As Eskerod and Jepsen (2013) emphasise, stakeholder management is not just a phase but an ongoing political process.

3.3 Environmental Analysis

Projects do not happen in a vacuum; they are shaped by the environment around them. For The Himalayan Expedition, I have used PESTLE and SWOT frameworks, adapted for expedition contexts.

PESTLE Analysis. Political factors include UK-Nepal diplomatic relations and permit requirements from the Nepalese Ministry of Tourism and Ministry of Science. Economic factors cover currency fluctuation, inflation in expedition costs, and the need for economic stability to protect multi-year funding. Social factors include cultural sensitivity around sacred mountains, local employment expectations, and team psychology under isolation and stress. Technological factors involve equipment reliability in extreme cold and satellite communications. Legal considerations span liability, insurance, international research ethics, and environmental protection laws. Environmental factors, ironically both the subject and the context of the project, include climate variability, glacial hazards, and ecosystem fragility (Johnson et al., 2017).

SWOT Analysis. Strengths include the technical expertise of the research team, existing partnerships with Nepalese institutions, and reliable equipment. Weaknesses include limited high-altitude experience among junior team members, dependence on single suppliers for specialised equipment, and budget constraints that limit redundancy. Opportunities include follow-on funding, possible data commercialisation, and capacity-building for Nepalese science. Threats include

altitude sickness, equipment failure in extreme cold, permit withdrawal due to political instability, and the catastrophic risk of avalanche or crevasse incidents (Hillson, 2003).

What stands out to me is that expedition projects face compounded uncertainty: they have to manage normal project risks while operating in an environment that is itself unstable and is also the thing being studied. Standard environmental analysis tools were designed for relatively stable business contexts, so they need to be supplemented with scenario planning and stress-testing to be genuinely useful in expedition management (Schoemaker, 1995). Flyvbjerg (2014) also shows in his analysis of megaproject failure that optimism bias systematically distorts environmental assessments. I think our own planning for the expedition is probably vulnerable to this bias because we want the project to succeed, and that desire might make us underestimate how hostile the environment really is.

3.4 Work Breakdown Structure

The Work Breakdown Structure breaks deliverables down into manageable work packages, providing the basis for scheduling, resource allocation, and cost estimation. For The Himalayan Expedition, the WBS is organised by deliverable rather than by phase, because logistical and scientific activities are so interdependent.

Level 1 covers the four main deliverables: Meteorological Station Installation, Ice Core Extraction, Physiological Data Collection, and Knowledge Dissemination. Level 2 breaks these into work packages. For Meteorological Station Installation, Level 2 includes Equipment Procurement and Testing, Transport Logistics, Site Preparation, Installation and Calibration, and Data Link Establishment. Level 3 then breaks down Transport Logistics into International Freight to Kathmandu, Customs Clearance and Warehousing, Domestic Transport to Lukla, Portage to Base Camp, and High-Altitude Transport to Installation Sites.

Expedition WBSs must include packages absent from standard projects: medical screening and acclimatisation protocols, emergency evacuation planning, cultural liaison activities, and cold-weather equipment testing (Kerzner, 2022). One weakness I see in standard WBS practice is that soft activities like maintaining team cohesion and managing stakeholder relationships tend to be under-represented, even though in expedition contexts these might determine success more directly than technical execution (Baccarini, 1999).

The WBS becomes more useful when integrated with the Organisation Breakdown Structure and Responsibility Assignment Matrix. For The Himalayan Expedition, a RACI matrix assigns ownership across the international team, clarifying who decides what and reducing ambiguity that causes conflict in high-stress environments (Larson & Gray, 2021). However, as Maylor (2010) cautions, excessive

decomposition creates micro-management cultures that stifle initiative. The WBS needs to be detailed enough to prevent things being forgotten, but not so detailed that it becomes a straitjacket. I find this balance hard to judge in advance.

3.5 Project Management Tools and Communication Plan

The range of project management tools has grown massively with digital technology, but how useful each tool is depends heavily on context. This section looks at the tools selected for The Himalayan Expedition.

Scheduling and Planning Tools. Microsoft Project and Primavera P6 offer sophisticated critical path analysis valuable during planning. Yet in the field, their utility drops: internet access is patchy and day-level planning becomes less important than making tactical decisions based on the weather (Burke, 2013). Gantt charts can create false precision in expedition contexts, suggesting a linear timeline that high-altitude operations simply do not allow.

Earned Value Management. EVM brings together scope, schedule, and cost performance, giving early warning of problems through metrics like Cost Performance Index and Schedule Performance Index. For the pre-expedition phase, EVM provides useful budgetary control. During field operations, though, it becomes problematic: the value of scientific data is not realised until analysis is complete, and recovering lost time in remote environments does not cost the same as in a normal project (Fleming & Koppelman, 2016). EVM assumes future performance will follow past trends, an assumption that breaks down when projects hit genuinely new conditions, which expeditions do all the time. As Anbari (2003) argues, EVM works best when scope is stable and performance is predictable, conditions that are rare above 5,000 metres. I am therefore reluctant to spend much administrative effort on EVM during the field phase, though I would keep using it for pre-expedition financial control.

Communication Planning. The communication plan covers three areas: internal team communication in the field, communication between the field team and home base, and external stakeholder communication. Internal communication uses VHF radio and satellite messengers with daily briefings. The field-to-base link uses satellite internet for data transmission and scheduled voice calls. External communication distinguishes routine updates from emergency notifications.

Looking at communication tools critically, I see a tension between transparency and cognitive load. Digital platforms make it possible to stay connected constantly, but in expedition contexts excessive reporting takes attention away from operational safety and the actual science (Müller & Turner, 2007). The communication plan therefore needs to be minimal viable, enough to keep everyone informed and confident, but not so much that it becomes an administrative burden. There are also cultural dimensions to consider: the British research team and Nepalese support staff may

have different assumptions about authority and feedback, and digital tools tend to favour low-context communication that might make these differences worse (Hofstede, 2011). As Connaughton and Shuffler (2007) note, multicultural teams need explicit communication protocols that acknowledge differences in power distance and uncertainty avoidance. I plan to discuss communication expectations directly with Nepalese partners during initiation rather than assuming one protocol will work for everyone.

3.6 Risk Identification and Management

Risk management is especially important in expedition projects because a minor incident in a remote, hostile environment can escalate into something catastrophic. The framework follows ISO 31000 principles: identification, analysis, evaluation, and treatment (ISO, 2018).

Risk Identification. Techniques include expert judgment from previous expedition leaders, structured brainstorming with the full team, mountaineering checklists, and scenario analysis looking at combinations of bad events happening at once. Identified risks cover health and safety including altitude sickness and trauma, technical risks like equipment failure, logistical risks such as transport disruption, environmental risks including avalanche and extreme weather, financial risks like currency fluctuation, and reputational risks.

Risk Treatment. Treatment follows the hierarchy: elimination, substitution, engineering controls, administrative controls, and personal protective equipment. For The Himalayan Expedition, elimination means avoiding routes with unacceptable avalanche risk; substitution means using lower-altitude alternatives if conditions worsen; engineering controls include redundant equipment and satellite emergency beacons; administrative controls include acclimatisation protocols; and personal

3.7 Monitoring and Project Close Down

Monitoring and Control. Monitoring tracks actual performance against the plan so corrective action can be taken. For The Himalayan Expedition, monitoring uses a balanced scorecard covering safety metrics like incidents and near-misses, scientific metrics like data quality, operational metrics like schedule adherence and budget spend, and human factors like team cohesion and wellbeing. Daily safety briefings give rapid feedback on operational risks, while weekly scientific reviews check data quality. However, monitoring can become performative, data collected because the plan says so, not because it actually changes anything (Kerzner, 2017). The real test is whether it changes behaviour.

Project Closure. Closure involves demobilisation from the field, shipping equipment back, archiving data, reconciling finances, and organisational learning. Formal sign-off against acceptance criteria confirms completion. For this expedition, closure

includes a hot wash debrief within 48 hours of return, capturing immediate impressions before memory fades, followed by structured after-action review and documentation (Collier & Follett, 2018).

Standard advice often prioritises administrative closure over psychological closure. Team members returning from isolated, high-stress environments often struggle to readjust. Effective closure therefore needs to include pastoral support and reintegration help (Sutherland, 2019). As Sydow et al. (2004) note, closure is not merely an ending but a transition into new relationships, particularly in international collaborations where partnerships must continue after the project formally ends.

4.0 Project Manager Attributes, Self-Audit and Personal Development Plan

4.1 Key Attributes of the Expedition Project Manager

The project manager for an expedition like The Himalayan Expedition needs to combine technical competence, leadership ability, and psychological resilience. Based on competency frameworks and expedition leadership literature, six attribute clusters seem critical.

Technical and Contextual Competence. The expedition project manager does not need to be the top scientific expert, but needs enough domain knowledge to evaluate technical decisions, judge whether risks are credible, and communicate with specialists (Crawford, 2005).

Cognitive Complexity and Decision-Making. Expedition environments require quick decisions under uncertainty, often with incomplete information and serious consequences. The effective project manager needs analytical ability, pattern recognition, and tolerance of ambiguity (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2005).

Emotional Intelligence. Isolated, stressful conditions amplify interpersonal friction and emotional volatility. Goleman's (1998) framework of self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skill provides a useful way of thinking about what expedition leadership requires.

Resilience and Stress Management. The project manager needs to model resilience, staying able to make decisions and keep emotionally stable despite sleep deprivation, cold, altitude, and uncertainty (Müller & Turner, 2007).

Ethical Integrity. Expedition projects involve power imbalances between international researchers and local support staff, potential conflicts between scientific goals and environmental protection, and life-or-death decisions where self-interest and team welfare may conflict. Ethical clarity is therefore essential, not just nice to have (Frame, 2002).

Adaptive Leadership. Drawing on Heifetz's (1994) distinction between technical and adaptive challenges, the expedition project manager needs to recognise when a problem has a standard solution and when it requires new learning, experimentation, and tolerance of temporary instability.

4.2 Self-Audit

Doing an honest self-assessment against these attributes is uncomfortable but necessary. I have never led a Himalayan expedition. What follows is not a generic competency checklist but an attempt to place myself, my actual experiences, my documented failures, and my genuine uncertainties, against what this role demands.

Cognitive Complexity. I trust my analytical skills. I did well on systems thinking assessments, and I enjoy mapping interdependencies. But I also know I am prone to analysis paralysis. During fieldwork in Iceland in 2023, I spent forty minutes debating the optimal sampling grid while the weather got worse around us. My supervisor eventually stepped in and said to collect what we could and adapt the methodology. He was right. In the Himalayas, there will not be a supervisor to override my hesitation. The glacier does not wait for perfect data.

Emotional Intelligence. I think I am a good listener. Team members on previous fieldwork have told me they feel heard. But empathy in a university lab, where the stakes are deadlines and minor annoyances, is not the same as empathy at 5,800 metres when a teammate is frightened and insisting they can keep going. I do not know how I will react when someone else's fear triggers my own. During a group hike in Snowdonia last year, I snapped at a friend who was moving slowly on a ridge because I was cold and anxious about losing daylight. It was a small thing, but it showed that my patience depends on my own comfort. That is not expedition leadership.

Resilience and Stress Management. This is my biggest unknown. I have never dealt with sustained sleep deprivation combined with hypoxia and cold. I run half-marathons and consider myself fit, but fitness is not resilience. In 2022, on a solo camping trip in the Lakes, I got genuinely frightened by high winds at night. I packed my tent at 3 a.m. and walked out. It was the safe choice, but it was also an avoidance choice. I did not manage the stress; I escaped it. In the Himalayas, escape is not always an option. I do not know whether I have the physical and mental reserves to lead when I am suffering too.

Decision-Making Under Pressure. I have made operational decisions before, but never when lives were at stake. During a previous field season, a teammate developed mild altitude sickness. I was not the leader, but I noticed first. I reported it immediately, which was the right thing to do, but I also felt huge relief that the decision to descend was not mine. That relief worries me. It suggests I am not ready to hold absolute authority over safety decisions.

Adaptive Leadership. I am comfortable with structured problems. Give me a Gantt chart and a risk register and I will work hard. But adaptive challenges, where the problem itself is unclear and the solution has to be invented, unsettle me. I prefer to know the rules. The Himalayas do not have rules, only probabilities and consequences.

4.3 Personal Development Plan

The PDP below is not just a list of training courses. It is a set of deliberate, experience-based commitments designed to address the specific gaps I have identified.

Objective 1: Physiological Stress Inoculation and Altitude Acclimatisation. I need to know how my thinking degrades under hypoxia before I am responsible for others. Actions: complete the Alpine Skills Course through the British Mountaineering Council by March 2025; undertake a preparatory expedition to the Cordillera Blanca in Peru, reaching 5,500m while keeping a daily cognitive journal; engage in deliberate cold exposure training. Timeline: Months 1 to 10. Success criteria: ability to explain, using journal evidence, how my decision-making changes above 4,500m; completion of Winter Mountain Leader assessment.

Objective 2: Crisis Decision-Making Competence. I need to move from analysing to deciding. Actions: complete a Crisis Resource Management course adapted from aviation medicine; take part in three high-fidelity simulation exercises involving expedition emergencies; conduct a structured case study of the 1996 Everest disaster, writing a reflective essay on how my own cognitive biases match those observed. Timeline: Months 3 to 12. Success criteria: improved simulated crisis response times and decision quality assessed by instructors.

Objective 3: Technical Mountaineering Competence. I cannot lead what I cannot do. Actions: reach Scottish Winter Climbing Grade III through guided instruction in the Cairngorms; obtain Mountain Rescue Committee-certified crevasse rescue and avalanche awareness qualifications; shadow an experienced expedition leader during the planning phase of another research expedition. Timeline: Months 2 to 14. Success criteria: certified competence; positive feedback from qualified guides on my judgment under physical stress.

Objective 4: Adaptive Leadership and Tolerance of Uncertainty. I need to get comfortable with not knowing. Actions: monthly executive coaching with someone experienced in extreme environment leadership; deliberately take on leadership roles in ambiguous, low-stakes situations to practise improvising decisions; keep a structured reflective journal throughout preparation, reviewed quarterly with my academic supervisor, focusing on moments where I chose control over adaptation.

Timeline: ongoing. Success criteria: documented evidence of at least three occasions where I deliberately chose an adaptive approach rather than a technical one.

5.0 Conclusion

This report has presented a project management plan for The Himalayan Expedition, covering the full lifecycle from concept through to closure and personal development. Several conclusions come out of this analysis, though I am aware this plan is a starting point rather than a finished product.

First, expedition projects in extreme environments need methodological pluralism. Neither purely predictive nor purely agile approaches work on their own; instead, a hybrid framework that uses predictive rigour for logistics and governance while allowing adaptive flexibility for the science seems the most robust option. The key criterion for choosing a methodology is not theoretical elegance but whether it fits the context and whether the organisation can actually execute it. As I have argued, combining methodologies is not frictionless because it requires negotiating their contradictory assumptions, and I am not sure I have resolved all of these tensions in the plan above.

Second, project management tools vary enormously in usefulness across different expedition phases. While work breakdown structures, critical path analysis, and risk registers are essential during planning, their value needs to be reassessed during field operations where environmental volatility makes precise prediction impossible. The most valuable tools are those that improve situational awareness and decision quality without creating unsustainable administrative work.

Third, risk management for expedition projects has to go beyond checklist compliance and build organisational humility and reserve capacity. The Himalayan environment will throw up challenges that no amount of planning can fully predict; the project manager's job is to build enough resilience, both organisational and personal, to meet those challenges when they arise. The idea of mindfulness, from high-reliability organisation theory, offers a stronger foundation for expedition safety than mechanical risk registers alone, though I accept it is difficult to put into practice. Finally, the project manager is still the critical success factor. However sophisticated the tools and methodologies, they are carried out through human judgment and relationships.

The Himalayan Expedition is both a scientific opportunity and a serious test of project management ability. Success will not just be measured in data delivered and papers published, but in the safety, growth, and integrity of everyone involved.

References

- Anbari, F. T. (2003). Earned value project management method and extensions. *Project Management Journal*, 34(4), 12–23.
- AXELOS. (2017). *Managing successful projects with PRINCE2* (6th ed.). The Stationery Office.
- Baccarini, D. (1999). The logical framework method for defining project success. *Project Management Journal*, 30(4), 25–32.
- Bourne, L., & Walker, D. H. T. (2005). Visualising and mapping stakeholder influence. *Management Decision*, 43(5), 649–660.
- Burke, R. (2013). *Project management: Planning and control techniques* (5th ed.). Wiley.
- Cicmil, S., Cooke-Davies, T., Crawford, L., & Richardson, K. (2017). Exploring the complexity of projects: Implications of complexity theory for project management practice. Project Management Institute.
- Cohn, M. (2009). *Succeeding with Agile: Software development using Scrum*. Addison-Wesley.
- Collier, P., & Follett, R. (2018). Learning from projects: A review of the literature. Project Management Institute.
- Connaughton, S. L., & Shuffler, M. (2007). Multinational and multicultural distributed teams: A review and future agenda. *Small Group Research*, 38(3), 387–412.
- Crawford, J. K. (2014). *Project management maturity model* (3rd ed.). Auerbach Publications.
- Crawford, L. (2005). Senior management perceptions of project management competence. *International Journal of Project Management*, 23(1), 7–16.
- Dulewicz, V., & Higgs, M. (2005). Assessing leadership styles and organisational context. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 20(2), 105–123.
- Eskerod, P., & Jepsen, A. L. (2013). *Project stakeholder management*. Gower Publishing.
- Fleming, Q. W., & Koppelman, J. M. (2016). *Earned value project management* (4th ed.). Project Management Institute.
- Flyvbjerg, B. (2014). What you should know about megaprojects and why: An overview. *Project Management Journal*, 45(2), 6–19.

Frame, J. D. (2002). *The new project management: Tools for an age of rapid change, complexity, and other business realities* (2nd ed.). Jossey-Bass.

Goleman, D. (1998). *Working with emotional intelligence*. Bantam Books.

Hass, K. B. (2007). The blending of traditional and agile project management. *PM World Today*, 9(5), 1–8.

Heifetz, R. A. (1994). *Leadership without easy answers*. Harvard University Press.

Highsmith, J. (2009). *Agile project management: Creating innovative products* (2nd ed.). Addison-Wesley.

Hillson, D. (2003). *Effective opportunity management for projects: Exploiting positive risk*. Marcel Dekker.

Hofstede, G. (2011). Dimensionalizing cultures: The Hofstede model in context. *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture*, 2(1), 1–26.

Immerzeel, W. W., Lutz, A. F., Andrade, M., Bahl, A., Biemans, H., Bolch, T., Hyde, S., Brumby, S., Davies, B. J., Elmore, A. C., Emmer, A., Feng, M., Fernández, A., Haritashya, U., Kargel, J. S., Koppes, M., Kraaijenbrink, P. D. A., Kulkarni, A. V., Mayewski, P. A., ... Shrestha, A. B. (2020). Importance and vulnerability of the world's water towers. *Nature*, 577(7790), 364–369.

ISO. (2018). *ISO 31000:2018 Risk management—Guidelines*. International Organization for Standardization.

Johnson, G., Whittington, R., Scholes, K., Angwin, D., & Regnér, P. (2017). *Exploring strategy* (11th ed.). Pearson.

Kerzner, H. (2009). *Project management: Case studies* (3rd ed.). Wiley.

Kerzner, H. (2017). *Project management metrics, KPIs, and dashboards* (3rd ed.). Wiley.

Kerzner, H. (2022). *Project management: A systems approach to planning, scheduling, and controlling* (13th ed.). Wiley.

Larson, E. W., & Gray, C. F. (2021). *Project management: The managerial process* (8th ed.). McGraw-Hill Education.

Maylor, H. (2010). *Project management* (4th ed.). Pearson Education.

Meredith, J. R., & Mantel, S. J. (2020). *Project management: A managerial approach* (10th ed.). Wiley.

Morris, P. W. G. (2013). *Reconstructing project management*. Wiley-Blackwell.

Müller, R., & Turner, R. (2007). Matching the project manager's leadership style to project type. *International Journal of Project Management*, 25(1), 21–32.

Project Management Institute. (2021). *A guide to the project management body of knowledge (PMBOK® guide)* (7th ed.). Project Management Institute.

Scheyvens, R. (2018). Decolonizing development studies. In *The Routledge handbook of development studies* (pp. 45–56). Routledge.

Schoemaker, P. J. H. (1995). Scenario planning: A tool for strategic thinking. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 36(2), 25–40.

Shenhar, A. J., & Dvir, D. (2007). *Reinventing project management: The diamond approach to successful growth and innovation*. Harvard Business School Press.

Sutherland, I. (2019). Leadership in extreme contexts. In *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Business and Management*. Oxford University Press.

Sydow, J., Lindkvist, L., & DeFillippi, R. (2004). Project-based organizations, embeddedness and repositories of knowledge. *Organization Studies*, 25(9), 1475–1498.

Turner, J. R. (2014). *The handbook of project-based management* (3rd ed.). McGraw-Hill.