THE IMPACT OF CULTURAL DIFFERENCES ON BUSINESS
DECISION-MAKING OF PROSPECTIVE MANAGERS:
A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF GERMANY
AND THAILAND

Anna Ahnert

A Thesis Submitted in Partial

Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

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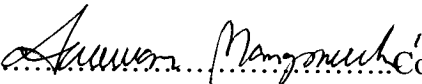National Institute of Development Administration

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ABSTRACT

Title of Thesis	The Impact of Cultural Differences on Business Decision-Making of Prospective Managers: A Comparative Study of Germany and Thailand
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The internationalization of the world business brings managers and companies from different countries and cultures together. Hence, the importance of intercultural competences of employees and managers grows significantly. Based on this fact, the paper picks up cultural differences of Thailand and Germany by using Hofstede's cultural dimension theory and illuminates different ways of decision-making. The research examines how business decision takes place and whether and how cultural aspects influence business decision-making of prospective managers among the two countries. Multiple regression analysis was used in order to provide a better understanding of how business decisions are made along with cultural influences among prospective managers from Germany and Thailand. As a result, the German as well as the Thai prospective manager seem to decide mostly rational, but combine their rationality with non-rational decision-making approaches. In addition to that, the cultural impact on decision-making was not as strong as it could have been expected due to Hofstede's differing outcome of both cultures. Further, this paper provides some recommendations for practitioners in enabling them to cope with cultural differences in business decision-making within different cultural contexts and to be sustainable successful in business.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER 1

MOTIVATION, PROBLEM DISCUSSION AND
OVERALL PURPOSE

"As more markets internationalize, more nations become integrated into the international world economy and more businesses choose to expand their operations across national borders" (De Cieri et al., 2005, p. 584). The internalization of the world business brings managers and companies from different countries and cultures together. "Culture affects how people behave and provides distinctions between different groups" (Cano, 2013, p. 722). People out of different cultures have different expectations, norms and values what might influence their behavior and the way they make decisions (Briley, 2007).

The importance of intercultural competency of the single employees grows significantly. If a company wants to interact successfully in a global business environment, it has to develop cross-cultural awareness to understand different perspectives and to use the knowledge for sustainable business relations. Multinational companies that try to reach a cultural unity by imposing the same norms on all its foreign facilities will probably fail (Mead, & Andrews, 2009). Managers must be able to rethink how to deal with international business partners. Based on this fact, the present paper picks up cross-cultural differences in business decision-making as a crucial consideration in a global business environment where cooperation and mutual understanding of the cultural differences are success factors for a flourishing international business.

However, culture is only one of many factors that determine success of an organization. It is likely to have an influence on how an organization responds to its environment and how its members make decisions, but there are also other internal and external factors that influence an organization. An understanding of culture does not guarantee successful decision-making, but reduces it the possibilities to failure (Mead & Andrews, 2009).

The paper compares the results of one of the most common culture models from Hofstede for the two research relevant countries Germany and Thailand. Germany with its important role in the European Union and Thailand as an emerging market and a representative of the ASEAN community, play a relevant role in the global economy and need more inquiries in research topics. Further, rational decision-making and non-rational decision-making approaches were discussed.

By comparing Germany and Thailand, this research aims to provide a better understanding of how decision-making in both countries can be described. It also investigates how cultural aspects influence business decision-making of working experienced students and alumni as representatives of the future top performers in companies of both countries. Further, this paper gives recommendations on how this gained knowledge can be used for practitioners to be sustainable more successful in business and to understand how to deal with cultural differences in decision-making context.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the following chapter first fundamental theoretical basics of culture, the cultural specifies of Germany and Thailand and different decision-making approaches were discussed. Later on the relationship between culture and decision-making is described and illuminated in the conceptual model.

2.1 Culture

"All people are the same. It is only their habits that are so different."Confucius. By definition, culture describes the values, "ideas, customs, and social behavior of a particular people or society" (Oxford Dictionaries, 2014). According to Hofstede, culture is defined as "the collective programming of the mind distinguishing the members of one group or category of people from another" (Hofstede, 2014a). "The 'category' can refer to nations, regions within or across nations, ethnicities, religions, occupations, organizations, or the genders" (Hofstede, & Hofstede, 2007). Such mental programming includes special thinking, feeling and action patterns that characterize a particular culture (Hofstede, 2001b).

Even though there are many different ethnic backgrounds in the world, there is only a limited number of behavior patterns. This enables to categorize and compare societies and their cultures (Thomas, 2008). Most culture models rely on similar assumptions. They affect dimensions that deal with individualism and collectivism, relationships to authorities, conflict solving mechanisms and the attitude towards space and time (Schneider, & Hirt, 2007). This paper refers to national culture and focuses one of the most popular cultural frameworks with country specific results, Geert Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory.

2.1.1 Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions Theory

Professor Geert Hofstede's cultural dimensions model is the most cited cultural model as it has done a lot to advance the understanding, provide insight and gives some indication about the basic assumptions of the dynamics of culture in a time where cultural theories were not very common (Jones, 2007). Hofstede identified and developed his cultural dimensions model in 1980. His research was based on a worldwide survey with 117,000 IBM employees in the 1960s and 1970s (Thomas, 2008). Hofstede developed dimensions that are based on respective basic problems, with which all countries and cultures are confronted (Hofstede, 2001a). The comparison of opposing extremes and the ideal types forms the foundation of every dimension (Hofstede, 2001b). From his results Hofstede reasoned indices for each country which reflect typical characteristics according to his dimensions (Andrews, & Siengthai, 2009).

Hofstede uses his dimension power distance (PDI) in order to measure the extent to which the less powerful members of organizations and institutions (like the family) accept and expect that power is distributed unequally. This represents inequality (more versus less), but defined from below, not from above. It suggests that a society's level of inequality is endorsed by the followers as much as by the leaders (Clearly Culture, 2014a). The high power distance societies are characterized by the tolerance for inequality and the members of such societies agree that power should be unequally shared. The people with higher social positions obtain numerous privileges and it is considered as something right and natural. On the other hand, the low power distance societies are those in which inequality is less tolerated. The privileges connected with the position are not easily accepted. In the cultures with low power distance independence is more valued than the conformity (Mead, & Andrews, 2009).

The concept of power distance is not only used to explain the cultural differences between different countries, but has been used in numerous disciplines. For example, in the discipline of human resource, power distance can be viewed as the level of acceptance of an uneven distribution of power by those enjoying less power. It also impacts empowerment and team participation, both of which are crucial to innovative performance in research and development companies. In accordance with the result of this study low power distance generally implies empowerment and

team participation, however, it was empirically found that high power distance actually leads to higher team participation (Zhanga, & Begleya, 2011). Other research examined power distance and cross cultural context for example, one study relating to the area of psychology examined three types of empowerments which include discretion empowerment, psychological empowerment, and leadership empowerment (or empowerment leadership behaviors). The study sample uses employee surveys that were conducted in Canada (a society low in power distance) and in China (a society high in power distance) in order to assess the effects of power distance on these three types of empowerment. The results revealed that the effect of discretion empowerment on employee satisfaction was less pronounced in China. However, the effect of the leadership empowerment on employee satisfaction via the competence facet of psychological empowerment was found to be more pronounced in a society with lower power distance in Canada (Fock et al., 2013).

The dimension of Individualism (IND) versus Collectivism reflects how much a person depends on his own resources in order to achieve a good life and accordingly how much his success depends on a group (Mead, & Andrews, 2009). Collectivistic societies integrate people from their birth onwards into strong cohesive in-groups. Extended families which protect the individual in exchange for unquestioning loyalty mark a collectivistic society whereas individuals of individualistic societies mainly take care of themselves and emphasize welfare, interests and goals only of their core family and themselves (Sagie, & Aycan, 2003; Clearly Culture, 2014b). Individualistic cultures believe that individuals have the potential and the power to change things on their own. However, collectivistic societies consider that only group effort brings changes and the entire group is held responsible for the actions of individual members. Therefore, individuals are not allowed to make decisions on their own without the approval of the whole group (Sagie, & Aycan, 2003).

According to Heller et al. (1998), in the case of cultural dimensions and decision-making, the dimensions of power distance and individualism have the strongest influence on participative decision-making. The research of Sagie and Aycan (2003) contends that power distance influences the extent to which participation in decision-making is practiced whereas the dimension of individualism helps identifying the participants in the decision-making process. While managers

from individualistic societies are expected to involve sole workers in decision-making, managers from collectivistic cultures address whole teams. Combining both dimensions in their research, Sagie and Aycan identified different forms of participative decision-making. But, they also realized that each decision-making style is not limited to a particular country - just like the characteristic of the relevant cultural dimensions is not absolutely fixed. The style and characteristic can vary within subcultures, industry sectors, companies or even company departments (Erez, 1986; Sagie, & Aycan, 2003). As a conclusion of their research they propose that each level of culture helps shaping the dominant form of participative decision-making, but also that no one-to-one relationship between the cultural dimension and decision-making form can be drawn. They stated that also other factors like employee personality or the leaders' technical knowledge influence the process (Sagie, & Aycan, 2003).

Masculinity (MAS) versus Femininity is Hofstede's third dimension. He uses these terms in a technical sense. Masculinity in a society stands for a preference for material reward for success, heroism, assertiveness and achievements. Feminine societies give more importance to cooperation, caring for the weak, quality of life and modesty (Hofstede, 2001). In societies with a high masculinity score, the members were ego-oriented and call "living in order to work" as their mantra. On a political or economic level economic growth has a high priority and force instead of conversation is used to solve conflicts. On the other hand feminine societies prioritize e.g. environment protection. In a business environment, masculine societies were characterized by demands of higher wages, large gender wage gaps and fewer women in management. Feminine societies promote women in management, minimize gender wage gaps, prefer fewer working hours and do not treat a failure as a disaster (Andrews University, 2014).

An and Kim (2006) examined in their research the cross-cultural differences in gender role portrayals in web ads in Korea and the USA on the basis of Hofstede's masculinity dimension. They came to the conclusion that a greater percentage of ads from Korea, a feminine society, featured characters in relationship themes, featured women as a main character, and portrayed them in family and recreational roles. Their result validates the use of Hofstede's classification to a large extent. Practitioners in

advertising but also in other business divisions could benefit by using the target country's position on Hofstede's masculinity index as a guideline for their operations.

Uncertainty avoidance (UCA) expresses the degree to which members of a society feel uncomfortable in unstructured situations that are novel, unknown, surprising or different from usual. Societies with a strong UCA try to minimize the probability of these situations occurring by setting rules, laws as well as safety and security measures (Clearly Culture, 2014c). They also keep up rigid codes of belief and often are intolerant of unorthodox behavior. A weak parameter value of uncertainty avoidance stands for a more relaxed attitude of people in which practice is more relevant than principles (Hofstede, 2001).

For the great interest of UCA dimension for business and management studies, speaks that the scores were used for marketing, advertising and consumer behavior issues as well as for the validation of research results (De Mooij, 2010; De Mooij, 2011; Minkov, & Hofstede, 2014). The study of MacNab et al. (2007) examined for example the influence of uncertainty avoidance on ethics management, especially whistle blowing and internal reporting. As a result, they found a positive relation of UCA to whistle blowing and reporting. The individuals with a high uncertainty avoidance perspective are likely to be more comfortable using established organizational mechanisms for reporting abuse in organizational contacts. The development and adherence of rules is therefore important to them as they will seek organizational and other avenues to rectify a possible offense (MacNab et al., 2007).

The fifth dimension, short-term versus long-term orientation (LTO), which contains the temporal orientation towards life, was added in 1987. It is also called the Confucian dimension and contrary to the other dimensions, it was tested in only 23 countries (Mead, & Andrews, 2009). A high score of long-term orientation indicates that this society attaches more importance to the future. Thrift, capacity for adaptation, perseverance and persistence are valued (Hofstede, & Hofstede, 2007). Relationships were ordered by status and observed by this systematic (Clearly Culture, 2014d). Members of a short-term orientated society often are focused on the present or past, prefer steadiness, pay respect to tradition and value the current social hierarchy as well as fulfilling their social obligations. Additionally, short-term

oriented people care more about immediate gratification than long-term fulfillment (Education Portal, 2013; Hofstede, & Hofstede, 2014).

The first four dimensions were really popular and generated enormous numbers of replications, citations and discussions but also refinement and criticism. Fang (2003) published an article about the critique on Hofstede's fifth dimension. Hofstede's fifth dimension, the dimension of LTO does not seem to be received enthusiastically by the cross-cultural-community. Only a few studies adopted the new dimension. Newman and Nollen (1996) state: "LTO is the most difficult because it is the newest of the dimensions and the least familiar to Western researchers." (Newman, & Nollen, 1996, p. 776). As an argument for the criticism Fang (2003) quoted the different statistical techniques. Whereas the data of the first four dimensions was validated by factor analysis, the fifth dimension used other validation techniques. Also the sample background was different with firstly IBM employees as subjects and later students. Fang (2003) concludes that the fifth dimension is questioned and its relevance to the cross-cultural management research and practice has been found and will remain limited. Minkov and Hofstede (2014) faced the critique and the items that seem to capture the concept on LTO and tried to replicate the dimension by analyzing the World Values Survey items. In their study they came to the conclusion that even though their replication was not perfect, they had achieved their goal of obtaining a version that is close to the original LTO (Minkov, & Hofstede, 2014).

In 2010 Hofstede added two more dimensions, pragmatism versus normativity (PRA) and indulgence versus restraint (IND). But, as they were not established in cross-cultural management yet, they were not further considered in this paper.

Even though Hofstede's model is one of the most popular cultural frameworks, there were some points of criticism which were discussed in the following chapter.

2.1.2 Critical Acclaim

Cultural frameworks can be used to define variations and as a basis for explaining and predicting behavior of different people (Thomas, 2008). No other model has gone so far into detail across such a wide number of different cultures like

Hofstede's model of cultural dimensions. His research results cover a broad variety of different countries and his findings were backed by over 100,000 participants taking place in his research (Jones, 2007). But, Hofstede's research focused on a single industry, the computer industry and therefore represents only a small target group (Schneider, & Hirt, 2007). All participants were working in the same company. Presumably most of the participants of the study were educated middle class employees. One the one hand, this enables the comparison of the results across the different countries what is the reason why Hofstede's model can especially be adopted by companies that are dealing in a similar business environment like IBM. On the other hand, this states the problem that other target groups were underrepresented. For other branches than the computer branch it is really difficult to use the results of Hofstede's study directly to the advantage of their company (Mead, & Andrews, 2009). Additionally, the one-sidedness of Hofstede's research constitutes the risk for overgeneralization to other groups of the same national culture who didn't work at IBM (Mead, & Andrews, 2009).

Also, frameworks cannot be used to describe individuals in detail. Findings indicate which orientation most of the members of a culture have when they deal with routine situations (Mead, & Andrews, 2009). The heterogeneity within one culture cannot be measured by these results (Thomas, 2008). Another point of criticism is that Hofstede's framework neglects that not all dimensions have the same local value to the people. He assumes that only the degree of the characteristic varies but not the dimension's relevance (Mead, & Andrews, 2009).

Anyway, each of Hofstede's dimensions can be considered as relevant for the management (Mead, & Andrews, 2009). Hofstede's five dimensions are understandable and therefore ease understanding culture from different perspectives for a general public. Moreover, his dimensions were applicable to everyday life, as well as to specific situations like business or educational situations. Hofstede could register a remarkable affect on academics but also on practical business life (Jones, 2007). Even though his results were the average scores of all 50 participating countries (Thomas, 2008), the findings are helpful indications to identify cultural patterns and enables managers dealing efficiently with business decisions in cross-cultural situations.

As the understanding of cultures and their differences is influenced by studies of national differences, limitations of frameworks have to be minded. Only relying on the theories might lead to rash prejudices and stereotypes. Each result should be modified individually with additional information gained about the target group (Thomas, 2008).

In the next two sections Germany and Thailand were described out of a cultural and business perspective by using the results from Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory.

2.1.3 Germany

The dominant belief of Western countries is that everybody is equal and should have equal opportunities (Andrews, & Siengthai, 2009). Germany, as an example for a Western country can be described as a low power distance, truly individualistic, masculine and short term oriented country with a moderate preference for uncertainty avoidance.
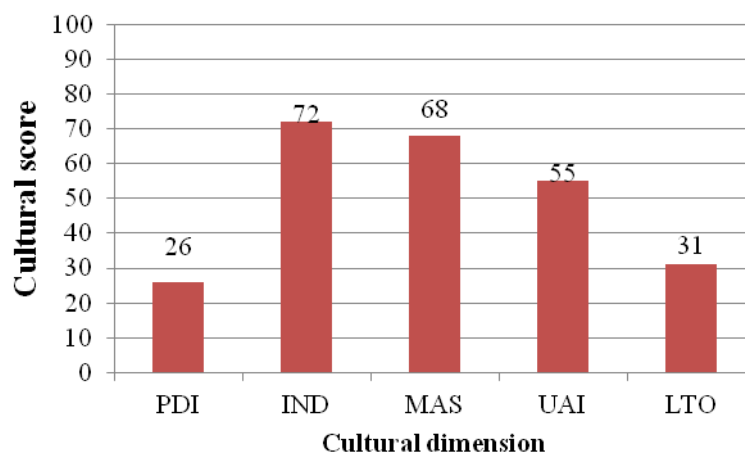
Figure 2.1 Hofstede's Results for Germany
Source: Own Figure, Referring to Hofstede, 2014b.

Germany lies among the lower power distant countries with a score of 26 on power distance index. Traditionally, Germany is highly decentralized and supported by a strong middle class. In business life German employees are used to a direct, participative communication. They benefit from extensive co-determination rights and

dislike control. Leadership is best accepted when it is based on expertise and managers are challenged to show their know-how (Hofstede, 2014b). For German employers it is very important that everyone, even in high ranked positions, must categorically comply with structures that are valid for each situation. There is no exception just because of the hierarchical status. In any case hierarchy does not really matter for Germans; they try to keep their relationships as balanced as possible. In addition, they do not tolerate inequality and try to avoid dependency whenever it is possible (Schroll-Machl, 2008).

In general, the lower the power distance index is, the more individuals will expect to participate in the organizational decision-making process. That can be approved by Germany, where participation plays an important role of daily business life (Hill, 2007 quoted in Andrews, & Siengthai, 2009)

As the German people are truly individualistic with a score of 72 (Hofstede, 2014b), their individualism is often apparent at first sight. Members of the German society tend to be very self-centered and feel little dependency on others (Andrews, & Siengthai, 2009). Each person acts autonomous; most of them maintain a certain separation from others to preserve their interests (Schroll-Machl, 2008). This attitude is backed by the common living form in Germany, which is usually constituted by a small family with a focus on the parent-children relationship (Hofstede, 2014b). Even in the family life there is an individualistic structure, each individual arrogates private sphere which is truly respected by every family member. From a very early age Germans learn to think critically, make own decisions, become independent and do things alone (Schroll-Machl, 2008). So, the German pursuit of self-actualization is really strong, they seek their fulfillment through their own goals which they can reach with their personal strengths (Andrews, & Siengthai, 2009). German employees are self-sufficient, take responsibility and have a distinct internalized control. They are able to decide whether they can fulfill a particular rule or better refuse a task (Schroll-Machl, 2008).

Another important value for the Germans is their loyalty which is based on personal preferences. Characterizing is also their sense of duty and responsibility which influences the German style of working strongly and defines the contract of employee and employer. The Germans remain true to their principles and for

communication themed by "honesty, even it hurts" is lived for. Germans are prepared to see their mistakes, acknowledge and learn from their wrongs, but the same willingness they expect from their counterparts as well (Hofstede, 2014b).

With a score of 68 Germany is classified as a masculine society where performance is highly valued and early required (Hofstede, 2014b). Values like achievement, success, money and competition determine their ideals and prevail over feminine values like warm personal relationships (Hill, 2007 quoted in Andrews, & Siengthai, 2009). Germans rather "live in order to work" than "work in order to live". They draw a lot of self-esteem on their tasks and recognition of their results is highly appreciated. Management and leadership style is expected to be precise and assertive. For Germans their status in society is very important which can be expressed in tangible goods like cars, watches or technical devices (Hofstede, 2014b).

The uncertainty avoidance index scores 55 for Germany, which indicates a slight preference for uncertainty avoidance. German people are rule oriented and have a strong preference for deductive thinking, presenting or planning. To gain a systematic overview at the beginning of a project is appreciated. Details are important to create certainty what applies to projects as well as private plans (Hofstede, 2014b). According to the low power distance, employees have to justify their decision on their own and cannot hide behind their bosses' larger responsibility. Combining this fact with the slight preference for uncertainty avoidance, Germans prefer to compensate for their higher uncertainty by strongly relying on know-how (Hofstede, 2014b). They also want to be properly informed to avoid possible problems as in the very achievement oriented German society asking for help may be interpreted as a sign of weakness and helplessness (Schroll-Machl, 2008).

Germany is a rather short term oriented country that scores 31 on LTO-index. Germans pay great respect to traditions. They have relatively small propensity to save because a high social pressure to "keep up with the Joneses" is embossing the German culture. Also, there is a distinct impatience for achieving quick results and a strong concern for establishing the absolute truth (Hofstede, 2014b).

2.1.4 Thailand

According to Hofstede, Thailand is a hierarchal, collectivistic, feminine and long-term oriented country with moderately high needs to avoid uncertainty (Andrews, & Siengthai, 2009).
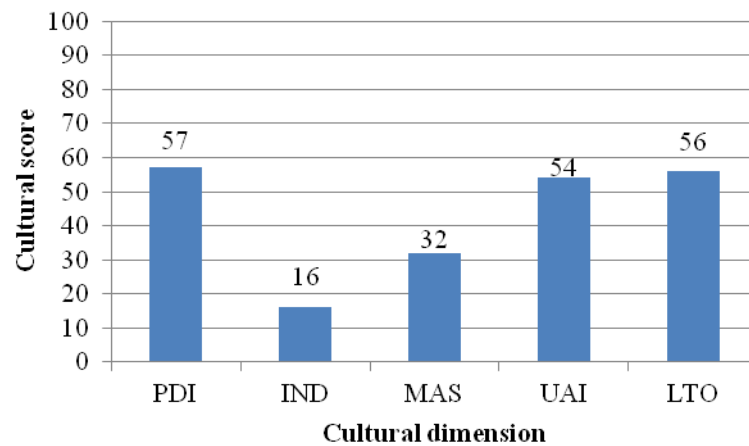
Figure 2.2 Hofstede's Results for Thailand
Source: Own Figure, Referring to Hofstede, 2014c.

In Thailand inequalities are mostly accepted. The country scores 57 on power distance index, which is a lower score than other Asian countries with an average result of 71 (Hofstede, 2014c). For the Thais, seniority and status are related to wealth, power, professional rank, age, social connections and general appearance. From their childhood, Thais are trained to be a functioning member of the society, learn what rank they hold and which duties and treats go along with this social position (Holmes et al., 1997 quoted in Andrews, & Siengthai, 2009).

Understanding the social and vertical structure of a company is essential for doing successful business with the Thais. Participants of Thai organizations of whatever rank expect and even prefer there to be significant hierarchical gaps between various management levels. Only little information and decision authority is delegated by the top management (Andrews, & Siengthai, 2009). Thai employees are non-confrontational, they show respect, loyalty and defense for their superiors and in return they experience protection and guidance (Hofstede, 2014c). As the structures of most companies are hierarchical, the way to succeed in business is to observe the

rules of hierarchy (Toews, & McGregor, 1998). For better understanding Thais also try to place strangers directly into their hierarchy ranking to ensure that they are treated appropriate. Thais therefore use common informal conversations and do not hesitate to ask – for other cultures – very personal questions to file their counterparts (Andrews, & Siengthai, 2009).

Opposed to Western countries, individualism in Thailand is very less marked. With a score of only 16, the Thais are a highly collectivistic country where long term commitment to member groups like families is very important. Caring and taking responsibility for fellow members of their group form strong values. Like in the business environment, loyalty is paramount to most other social rules and regulations (Hofstede, 2014c). Thais can rather be expected to be dependent on a power figure, both in work and at home. Extended families, often with patriarchal structures and a head of the family who exercises a strong moral authority characterize Thailand (Andrews, & Siengthai, 2009). Also, Thai relationships are long lasting, consistent and a prerequisite for doing business (Hofstede, 2014c).

Masculinity in Thailand is not very distinct. With 32, the lowest score within Asian countries that score 53 on average, Thailand is considered to be a feminine country (Hofstede, 2014c). In those countries sex roles are less sharply distinguished and there is only little difference between men and women in the same job (Hill, 2007 quoted in Andrews, & Siengthai, 2009). Competitiveness and assertiveness are not strongly marked, traditional values are considered to be more important and significant (Hofstede, 2014c). Traditionally, women were underrepresented in management positions and Thai business life in general. This changed, now equal rights and protection were fostered and an increasing number of Thai women get access to higher education and hold professional positions (Andrews, & Siengthai, 2009).

Thai people have a higher need to avoid uncertainty than other nations (Andrews, & Siengthai, 2009). They try to avoid uncertainty by the adoption of strict rules, laws, policies and regulations. Thais like to control in order to eliminate unexpected circumstances. The Thai society is with a UCA score of 54 not ready to accept changes easily and tries to avoid risks (Hofstede, 2014c). This tendency tightened after the financial crisis in Asia 1997. Thai industrials were even more

constraint of taking risks and got too cautious. Most investments nowadays come rather from multinational enterprises than from domiciled companies. This development faces a problem for the Thai economy that suffers now from losses because of the lack of risk-taking spirit in the industrial sector (The Nation, 2007; Andrews, & Siengthai, 2009).

Even though respect and tradition play an important role for the Thais, Thailand is classified as a long-term oriented country with a LTO score of 56. For Thai people values like hard working, investing a lot in personal relationships, protecting someone's face and having a sense of moderation are dominant. Concerning business, this implies that deadlines are as fluid as limitations and timescales. Negotiations are mostly flexible and pragmatic, Thais do not search for one truth; more solutions are always possible (Hofstede, 2014c).

2.1.5 Culture in International Management

To conclude, national culture represents an important environmental factor that affects people's behavior and their activities within a company. Due to the increasing importance of internationality, cultural aspects often are even regarded as a separate part of international management, the "intercultural management".

Hasenstab (1999, p. 120) defines intercultural management as follows:

"The research field of intercultural management deals with all questions and problems for the management process that means for steering business management organizations that arise from the diversity of the cultural environment and the confrontation of people and institutions with different cultural background".

So, culture is seen as an external size, acting on all parts of the company and therefore must be considered in all company-relevant tasks and functions like managing, planning, controlling and recruitment (Perlitz, 2000). It becomes clear that, due to the increasing international operations of companies, managers in a transboundary context face significantly more complex planning and decision-making situations (Zentes, & Swoboda, 1997).

In the following chapter first different decision-making approaches were described, before the impact of culture on decision-making will be discussed.

2.2 Decision-Making

Selection and recruitment of new employees, allocation of resources and initiation of new projects are only some examples of decisions that managers have to face every day (Thomas, 2008). Decision-making can be described as "the thought process of selecting a logical choice from the available options" (BusinessDictionary.com, 2014). The process of decision-making is influenced by various internal and external factors. Whereas e.g. organizational culture, the history of an organization and internal policies influence the decision-making process within an organization, decisions made from competitors, suppliers, customers, changes on the labor market and aspects of national culture affect decision-making from outside a company. Theoretically internal and external factors can be abstracted clearly. However, in practical business life it is difficult to distinguish between the two; the boundaries are fluid (Mead, & Andrews, 2009).

The research on decision-making has provided an enormous number of "empirical investigations, descriptions, prescriptions, structuring techniques, and analytical tools" (Nutt, 2011, p. 6). But, despite these notable distributions and efforts, only a few coherent approaches could be developed (Nutt, 2011). So, decision-making can in general be divided in rational and non-rational or irrational approaches respectively (Simon, 1993). Rational approaches were also known as normative theories. By trying to identify the most rational decision in order to maximize the benefits, normative theories pursue to describe what individuals ought to do in a given decision-making situation (Mishra, 2014). On the other hand, decision-making, influenced by political behavior or intuition and additionally, often in the case of limitations e.g. time or information restrictions, is known as non-rational. In the following chapters both approaches were illuminated.

2.2.1 Rational Decision-Making

There are plenty of different definitions of what rationality means. Dean and Sharfman (1993) characterized rationality as behavior which is logical and beneficial for the pursuit of goals (Elbanna, 2006). "So-called rational approaches to decision-making are marked by their formality. They make extensive use of logic, with theories being derived from axioms, and they use mathematical models to represent decision situations" (Smith, 2003, p. 32). The aspiration of the rational model is to identify the optimal choice between specific alternatives (Thomas, 2008). In order to reach utility maximization, people should select the most highly valued alternative (Smith, 2003). Therefore they should follow specific rules and keep to the six steps in which rational decision-making usually proceeds (Harrison, 1996; Phatak et al., 2005).

Table 2.1 Rational Decision-Making Process

Step	Necessary Tasks
Problem definition	· Identify problem
	· Realize need for decision-making
Identification of decision criteria	· Clarify what are the objectives
	· Identify all criteria that need to be considered
Weighting of criteria	· Prioritize criteria
Generate alternatives	· Identify all possible alternatives that meet the criteria
Evaluate alternatives	· Evaluate each alternative against weighted criteria
Select optimal solution	· Chose optimal alternative according to your evaluation

Source: Own Table, Referring to Thomas, 2008, p. 94.

A problem usually comes up when there is a difference between the actual and the desired situation. So, the first step is to locate the problem that needs to be solved and recognize the need for a decision to be made. In the second step the decision criteria need to be identified. What are the objectives? How many objectives have to

be considered? For a rational decision all possibly relevant criteria have to be regarded. Usually not all of the criteria have the same importance, which is the reason why the factors should get prioritized in the third step. Fourthly, all potential alternatives should be generated. In the next step each alternative gets evaluated against the weighted criteria. This is the most important, but on the same hand, most difficult step because the decision-maker needs to prognosticate the potential outcome and consequences out of each alternative. By multiplying the expected effectiveness of the alternative with each criterion and summing up the score, each alternative gets a rank. Finally the optimal solution with the highest score can be selected (Thomas, 2008).

The rational decision-making model is a common approach that shows how business decisions ought to be made. There is a traditional tendency to emphasize rational rather than non-rational or intuitional decision-making as to many researchers intuitive approaches fall into the domain of the irrational or paranormal (Khatri, & Ng, 2000 quoted in Tsang, 2004).

But sure there also is a weakness of the rational decision-making approach, its limited applicability (Smith, 2003). In a world of dynamic changes, a lot of limitations to rational decision-making were set. Managers frequently have to deal with incomplete information or time restrictions. Sometimes they are even confronted with the limited cognitive capabilities of themselves. Although the decision-maker wants to follow the given procedure, limitations will detain him using the rational model (Elbanna, 2006; Thomas, 2008). For that reason rational models do not perform satisfactorily any more. Due to the limited rationality of choices of the future, organizations are searching for new decision-making techniques what leads to non-rational decision-making approaches (Hayward, & Preston, 1999; Sinclair, & Ashkanasy, 2005).

2.2.2 Non-Rational Decision-Making

In the following, two non-rational decision-making approaches were illuminated. Elbanna (2006) speaks of political behavior and intuition with its three implications reliance on judgment, experience and gut feeling.

Political behavior among decision-makers has long been recognized as an influencing factor in the decision-making process (Child, & Tsai, 2005 quoted in Elbanna, 2006). A number of theories for example by Pettigrew (1973) and Pfeffer (1992 quoted in Tsang, 2004) emphasize the power and politics of decision-making. Nutt (1989, p. 1149) stated: "When opposition is present, decision appears politically difficult and is less likely to succeed." Whereas, "when opposition is missing, political difficulty would seem to ease".

The power in organizations is often demonstrated by the intervention in decision-making situations. Disregarding the best interest of the organization or the rationality of decisions, the self-interest of the involved managers prevails. Politically influenced decision-makers prefer informal processes of negotiation, bargaining and other political activities rather than rational replicable approaches (Tsang, 2004). So, whenever there are conflicting goals, preferences or important decisions to be made, political influence on the decision-making process needs to be considered.

A second approach of non-rational decision-making often occurs when there is a lack of required information or a quick solution needed. In these cases, the role of intuition as an influencing factor in decision-making processes increases. According to Khatri and Ng (2000) intuition is part of every decision. "Intuition is a genuine phenomenon that involves understandings and processes that are non-hierarchical, not based on formal education, (...) non-analytic, unpredictable, is quick and easy, and is made without extended conscious deliberation" (Williams, 2012, p. 48).

Khatri and Ng (2000) provide three implications of intuition:

1) Reliance on judgment: This implication suggests that whenever necessary information cannot be obtained and no precedent is present, the decision-maker should rely on his judgment (Butler, 2002 quoted in Elbanna, 2006).

2) Reliance on experience: Managers draw their attention not on the actual effects but on their previous experience and knowledge (Nutt, 1989). There is also a relation between intuition decision approaches and the years of work experience of the decision-maker. The more experience the decision-makers have, the more they rely on their own skills (Elbanna, 2006).

3) Use of gut feelings: Some "decision-makers simply know that they are right, or they have a strong feeling about the decision" (Elbanna, 2006, p. 11). In this case they rely on their gut feeling.

For the non-rational approaches there is only little empirical research, but anyway intuition plays an important role in decision-making processes (Elbanna, 2006). Even though, rational decision-making was preferred for a long time, recent advances in cognitive science and artificial intelligence suggest that there is nothing mystical about intuitive approaches. They are neither irrational nor paranormal. Quite contrary to former suggestions, intuition now is seen as an outcome of long periods of learning and experience. A study by Simon (1987) furnished empirical evidence that experienced managers make use of intuition when solving problems (Tsang, 2004). Also Andersen (2000) did research on the intuition in managers. He came to a similar conclusion like Simon (1987) - almost 25% of all in his research participating managers were primarily intuitive when solving problems and making decisions (Andersen, 2000). Other researchers arrived earlier at a similar conclusion: intuition is most useful in the case of conflicting facts or inadequate information (Agor, 1984 quoted in Sinclair, & Ashkanasy, 2005). But, although many managers use intuitive techniques for decision-making the findings cannot be generalized as intuitive decision-making approaches were mostly non-replicable. The reliance on intuition differs by job category, culture and personal characteristics (Agor, 1984 and Parikh et al., 1994 quoted in Sinclair, & Ashkanasy, 2005).

To summarize the non-rational approaches of decision-making, it can be pointed out that they necessarily have to be considered in decision-making context because in a world of dynamic changes and globalization there are always limiting factors that impede rational decision-making. Moreover, there is an empirical proof by Isenberg (1984) and Burke, & Miller (1999 quoted in Sinclair, & Ashkanasy, 2005) that in uncertain situations or in case of limitations decision-makers tend to use intuition in conjunction with rational analysis.

2.3 Relationship between Dependent and Independent Variables

Culture as independent variable influences people from the very beginning. Parenting, education and academic training influence the way how people behave and react. Culture is learned; shapes people over a long period of time and therefore also determines how people behave in business situations.

Decision-making, as a good example of an important day-to-day business action, forms the dependent variable. The meaning of the importance which is given to culture in a decision-making process depends on the person who is making the decision. His needs and interests and therefore the individual interpretation of a situation affect the decision-making process strongly. The behavior of the responsible person is directed and influenced by the values he appreciates in his culture (Mead, & Andrews, 2009).

Managers from different cultures have varying perceptions of defining a problem. Whereas managers from a country with a 'doing attitude' like the USA or Germany identify problems early and try to solve them quickly, managers from 'being countries' like Malaysia or Thailand need more reaction time. They wait much longer before they start to tackle a problem (Thomas, 2008). Also the amount of required information before coming to a conclusion differs. Usually East Asian countries have a much more holistic point of view and need more information than most Western countries. Less information might therefore in East Asian countries lead faster to the rejection of rational decision-making and a stronger influence of non-rational approaches.

Culture also influences the way of identification and weighting of criteria. Values as well as personal experiences play an important role and have an effect on what people expect of criteria. While for short-term oriented countries criteria also tend to be short-term oriented, long-term oriented countries prefer long-term criteria. The creation and evaluation of alternatives vary by different cultural backgrounds. Cultures with a strong past orientation put more emphasis on alternative solutions than others (Thomas, 2008).

Kim and Drolet (2003) indicate in their research that also the extent to which people use choice-rules for their decision-making process varies (Kim & Drolet,

2003). Unlike in collectivistic embossed countries, in individualistic countries, it is more likely to use a variety of different choices-rules (Thomas, 2008).

Culture does not only affect rational decision-making. Also the application of non-rational approaches e.g. the reliance on intuition is related to culture as the research of Agor (1984) as well as from Parikh et al. (1994 quoted in Sinclair, & Ashkanasy, 2005) proved. Additionally, the required time for the whole decision-making process differs as well. US-Americans for example come rather quickly to a conclusion, whereas people from Arabic cultures tend to be slower.

Vertical individualistic (low power distance and individualistic) countries like the US or France tend to give the decision authority only to a few high ranked managers, whereas horizontal collectivist countries (high power distance and collectivistic) like Israel involve a lot more people and push their decisions down in the organization structure (Thomas, 2008).

The research of Kim and Drolet (2003), Sagie and Aycan (2003) as well as from Thomas (2008) indicate that culture has a considerable impact on decision-making. By these results can be emphasized that decision-making is likely to reflect the cultural based view of the decision-maker.

In the following part, the research relevant variables were interrelated and illustrated in the conceptual model.

2.4 Conceptual Model and Hypotheses

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES
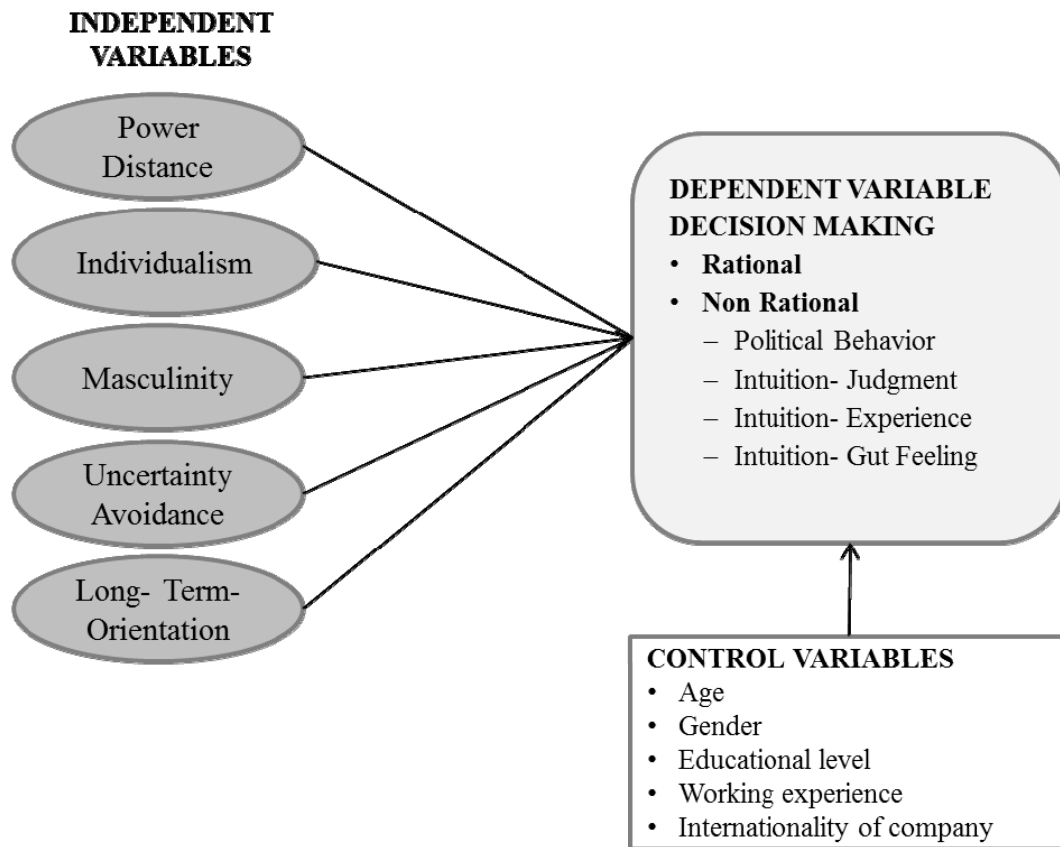
The cultural dimensions of power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance and long-term orientation form the independent variables in this research. Its influence on the dependent variable decision-making with its divisions rational and non-rational approaches is examined in this research. In addition, control variables like age, gender, educational level, working experience and internationality of company were introduced in order to evaluate and clarify the relationship between the dependent and independent variables.

The hypotheses contain the impact of culture on decision making. Therefore this research also wants to prove whether Hofstede's estimation of the German and the Thai culture is applicable with the same characteristics to the context of decision making as well. So, as both countries are culturally almost the opposite, their decision-making approaches were expected to vary as well. Further, the concrete characteristics of each dimension might influence decision-making rather to a more

rational or non-rational way, respectively. According to Hofstede's results the following hypotheses should be proven for the Germans:

1) Power distance is negatively associate with both, rational and non-rational decision-making for prospective managers from Germany.

2) The German's individualism is positively correlating with rational and non-rational decision-making.

3) The dimension of masculinity is positively linked to rational and non-rational decision-making of German prospective managers.

4) Uncertainty avoidance is positively correlating with rational decision-making but negatively related to non-rational decision-making.

5) The dimension of long-term orientation is negatively correlating with rational and non-rational decision-making.

For the Thai prospective managers the following hypotheses should be proven:

6) The dimension of power distance is positively correlating with rational, but also non-rational decision-making of Thai prospective managers.

7) Individualism is negatively associate with Thai rational and non-rational decision-making.

8) Thai Masculinity is negatively correlating with both decision-making approaches.

9) Uncertainty avoidance is positively correlating with rational decision-making, but negatively associate with non-rational decision-making.

10) The dimension of long-term-orientation is positively correlating with rational and non-rational decision-making of prospective managers of Thailand.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Before the empirical research could be accomplished, extensive preparatory work was required. The first task was to work out the research questions, which should be clarified by the empirical survey. How do prospective Thai and German managers describe their business decision-making behavior? Which influence do cultural aspects have on the procedure of business decision-making? The research design is specified in a, for the research question appropriates mixture of quantitative and qualitative empirical investigations in a questionnaire.

The samples composed of young professionals and working experienced students from Germany and Thailand who may become future executives. They must have already reached a professional qualification such as a Bachelor's degree and working experience for at least one year. The questionnaire was sent to 100 persons of each nationality. 76% of the Germans answered, the response rate of the Thais was 63%. Finally the sample contained 139 responds in total. The empirical study was a primary survey. An overview of the study design illuminates the methods characteristics in Appendix A.

The focus of the research relied on quantitative methods as the object of the study was already known from the outset. Also the regional diversity of the subjects suggests a quantitative research. The target was to understand the connection between the variables. A quantitative data collection with a standardized survey makes it possible to ensure comparability and to determine statistical correlations.

The survey instrument is divided into two main parts and brief demographic and company related questions. General questions about the typical behavior of business decision-making form the first part, culture-specific behavioral anchors on decision-making and business life, derived from Hofstede's cultural dimensions the second part of the query. The procedure and the considerable statements of the

questionnaire base on the contents of chapter two, the literature review. As described in the literature review in chapter 2.2.1, there is a consensus that rational decision-making process takes place in six steps.

Table 3.1 Rational Decision-Making and Measurement

Step	Measurement in questionnaire
Problem definition	
Identification of decision criteria	Question 15
Weighting of criteria	Question 32
Generate alternatives	Question 17
	Question 19
Evaluate alternatives	Question 20
	Question 33
Select optimal solution	Question 38

In addition, there were some more general statements to examine closer how decision-making behavior of the subjects of the research takes place.

Table 3.2 Measurements of Decision-Making Behavior (Rational, Non-Rational)

Measurement in Questionnaire	
Question 13	Rational
Question 18	Rational
Question 23	Rational
Question 27	Non-Rational
Question 31	Non-Rational
Question 37	Non-Rational

The non-rational decision-making is according to Elbanna (2006) divisible in political behavior and intuition. To prove which implication non-rational decision-making approaches have on the subjects of the research, the following statements were enquired.

Table 3.3 Non-Rational Decision-Making and Measurements

Non-Rational Decision-Making Aspects	Measurement in Questionnaire
Political behavior	Question 16
Opposing goals and different interests affect decision-making and make it less likely to succeed (Nutt, 1989)	Question 28
Intuition Judgment	Question 24
Whenever necessary information cannot be obtained and no precedent is present, the decision-maker relies on his judgment (Elbanna, 2006).	Question 30
Intuition Experience	Question 14
Managers draw their attention not on the actual facts but on their previous experience and knowledge (Nutt, 1989).	Question 29
	Question 34
	Question 35
Intuition Gut feeling	Question 21
"Decision-makers simply know that they are right, or they have a strong feeling about the decision" (Elbanna, 2006, p. 11).	Question 22
	Question 26

Furthermore, to create more knowledge about the own experiences of prospective managers concerning their decision-making behavior, questions 39, 40, 41 and 42 were added. From the following table, the measurements of the cultural impact on decision-making could be inferred.

Table 3.4 Hofstede's Dimensions, Measurement and Characteristics

Dimension	Germany	Thailand	Measurement in questionnaire and characteristic
Power Distance the degree to which less powerful members of a society accept and expect that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede, 2001).	Low	High	Question 43 (high) Question 46 (high) Question 54 (low) Question 57 (low) Question 62 (high)
Individualism reflects how much a person depends on his or her own resources in order to achieve a good life and accordingly how much his or her success depends on a group (Mead, & Andrews, 2009).	Individualistic (ind.)	Collectivistic (col.)	Question 25 (ind) Question 49 (ind) Question 50 (col) Question 51 (ind) Question 52 (col)
Masculinity stands for a preference for material reward for success, heroism, assertiveness and achievements (Hofstede, 2001).	Masculine (mas)	Feminine (fem)	Question 44 (fem) Question 53 (fem) Question 55 (mas) Question 61 (fem)
Uncertainty avoidance the degree to which members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity (Hofstede, 2001).	Medium	Medium	Question 47 (high) Question 58 (high) Question 59 (low) Question 60 (low)
Long-term orientation contains the temporal orientation towards life (Mead, & Andrews, 2009).	Short-term oriented	Long-term oriented	Question 45 (short) Question 48 (long) Question 56 (short) Question 63 (long)

In addition to these statements, open questions, number 64, 65 and 66 were asked to extent the cultural part.

Largely a metric rating scale such as the Likert scale was used for the statements of the survey. A further question that was posed during the development of the questionnaire was whether a seven or a five point scale should be applied. In the latest research often seven point scales were used and also recommended as it provides more diverse and precise answering opportunities. Especially in the case that a questionnaire contains mostly single item statements a seven point scale should be preferred. But, as in this case only multiple item statements and behavioral anchors were posed a five point scale was adequate. Additionally, the statements and behavioral anchors were formulated general and therefore a tendency towards agreement or disagreement was sufficient for the evaluation. After clarifying the scale, the results were coded on an unbalanced scale from one to five in order to give the participants the opportunity to give a neutral response. If there won't be a neutral category, the result would be falsified. However, this middle score also involves the risk that the respondent cannot commit oneself to an answer and use the neutral category only as a way out.

After developing the research instrument the result was submitted independent persons for reviewing. The questionnaire then was modified according to the comments of the probands. The final overall query can be looked up in Appendix B.

Following, the data collection could be completed; the data was processed and analyzed by using Microsoft Excel and the statistical software SPSS. The evaluation first was carried out with descriptive statistical methods. Therefore, it is only possible to make probability statements for this part (Raab-Steiner, & Benesch, 2010). Later multiple regressions were run to evaluate the results with inductive statistical methods.

First, a reliability analysis of all variables was conducted and the non-reliable behavioral anchors eliminated for the evaluation. For each cultural dimension the two most reliable questions were maintained, for the dependent variables as much as possible reliable statements were kept for the evaluation. The modified questionnaire with all evaluable behavioral anchors for each variable can be inferred from Appendix C.

Then a coding of the non-numeric data was necessary to make them useable for the evaluation. So, the power distance items were coded to measure high power distance, the items of the individualistic dimension measure the score of individualism, results from the masculinity dimension score the characteristic of masculinity, behavioral anchors relating to the uncertainty avoidance index score the preference for high uncertainty avoidance and items of the dimension of long-term orientation measure long-term orientation. For further statistical analysis of the quantitative results mostly average values were considered. Frequency tables completed the analysis on the position parameter of the results. The representation of the relationships between the variables was carried out in a crosstab. In the inductive evaluation part, first possible correlations were tested with Spearman's correlation coefficient and later multiple regressions were run. In this case also fixed variables, the control variables age, gender, education level, working experience and internationality of company were added to the analysis in order to clearly identify the relationship between the dependent and independent variables.

To analyze the qualitative elements of the questionnaire, the findings were clustered and grouped into similar answers and then described.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

In the following chapter the results of the comparative research were presented and analyzed. At first the focus lies on the characteristics of the sample groups, German and Thai prospective managers. Secondly, the decision-making behavior with rational and non-rational tendencies of both sample groups is discussed before thirdly the cultural impact on decision-making is illuminated. For the evaluation at first descriptive analyzing methods were used to describe, structure and compare the results of both sample groups before later on the correlation between the dependent and independent variables is tested by the statistical method of multiple regression. The scale of measurement indicates the score 5 as strong agreement whereas the score 1 stands for strong disagreement.

4.1 Characteristics and Comparison of the Respondents

4.1.1 Characteristics of the German Respondents

76 Germans participated in answering the questionnaire. The German respondents were at average 25.92 years old and exhibit a standard deviation of 2.57 years. The gender distribution can be inferred from the following table.

Table 4.1 Gender Distribution of German Subjects

	Frequency	Percent
male	46	60.5
female	30	39.5
Total	76	100.0

The educational qualification of the prospective managers differs. While most participants had a Bachelor's degree, the second most common answer was Master's degree, followed by Diploma which is a common previous form of university degree in Germany. None of the German participants gave PhD as an answer.
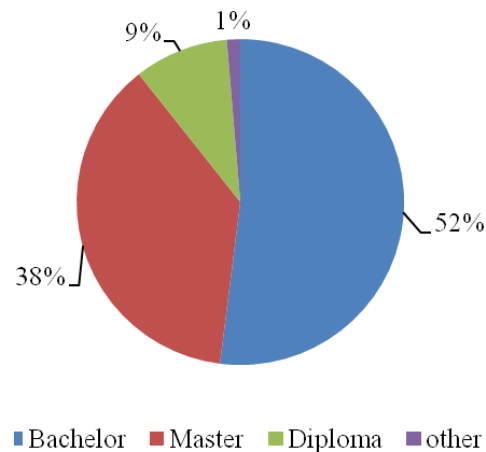
Figure 4.1 Educational Qualification of German Participants **(**N=75)

The German subjects (N=73) worked for 3.32 years at average. The answers vary from a minimum of 1 year to a maximum of 10 years working experience.
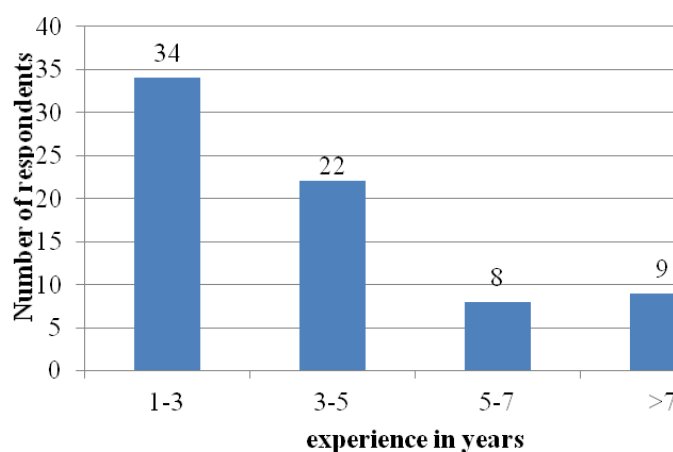
Figure 4.2 Distribution of Working Experience of German Participants (N=73)

As Figure 4.2 shows, most of the Germans worked for one to three years, the second most common cluster form three to five years of working experience. 2.7% were working in their first company, but most of the participants (N=73) worked in one (30.1%) or two (28.8%) companies before. The career positions (N=73) of the Germans varied a lot. Most participants stated that they gained their working experience through internships, as consultants or as working students. The entire distribution of the career positions can be inferred from Appendix D.1.

The companies where the subjects (N=76) worked at, were mostly operating international (78.9%). 66% of the international acting companies operated worldwide, 34% at least in various countries. Also most of the companies (N=76) were a subsidiary of another company (64.5%). The size varied from very small companies with only two employees to very big companies with 275,000 employees. Anyway, the graph shows that mostly 50% of the participants work in smaller companies with less than 1000 employees, 18% of them even in companies with less than 100 employees. On the other hand, more than 30% worked at very huge companies with more than 10,000 employees.
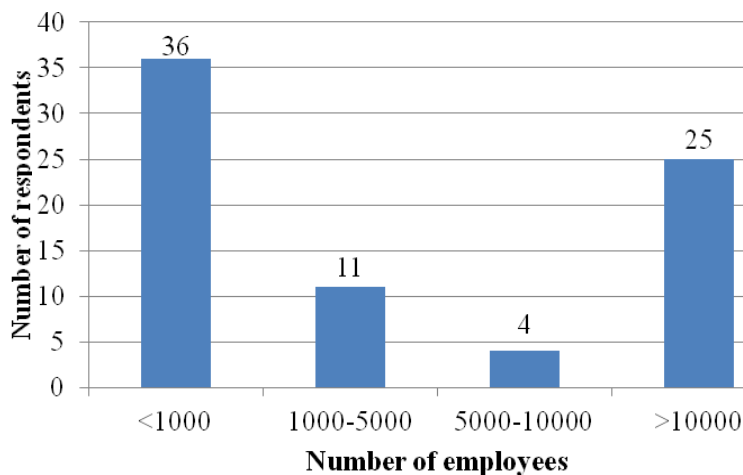
Figure 4.3 Size of Companies (Classified) (N=76)

In the following chapter the features of the Thai respondents were presented and compared to the German characteristics.

4.1.2 Characteristics of the Thai Respondents

The respond quote of the Thais was 63%. The Thai subjects were at average 28.51 years old, which is around 2.5 years older than the German participants.
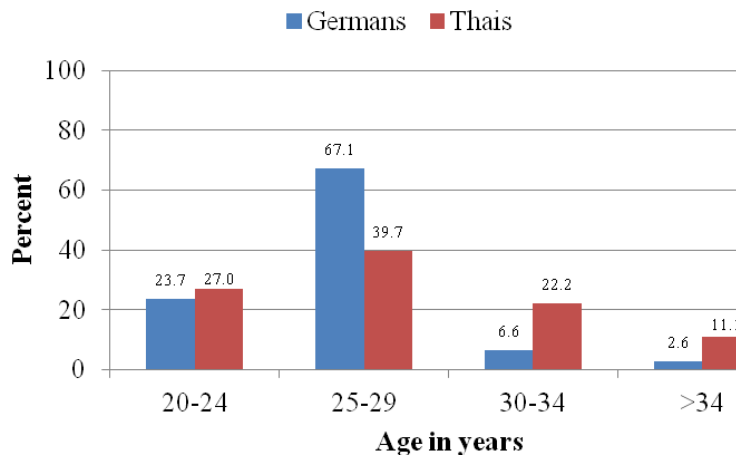
Figure 4.4 Age Distribution of German and Thai Participants in %

A closer look to the age distribution of both sample groups illustrates that about one third of the Thai respondents were older than 30 years whereas for the Germans this percentage is only 9.2%. Further, the gender distribution of the Thais which can be inferred from the following table illuminates the differences of the participants of both samples.

Table 4.2 Gender Distribution of Thai Subjects

	Frequency	Percent
Male	26	41.3
Female	37	58.7
Total	63	100.0

Contrary to the German subjects where 60% of the respondents were male, the Thai gender distribution was nearly reverse.

Compared to Germany where Bachelor was with 52% the most common educational qualification, for the Thais with 40 mentions and a percentage of 63%,

Master's degree is the most common qualification. 22 Thais gave Bachelor's degree as an answer, followed by one PhD.
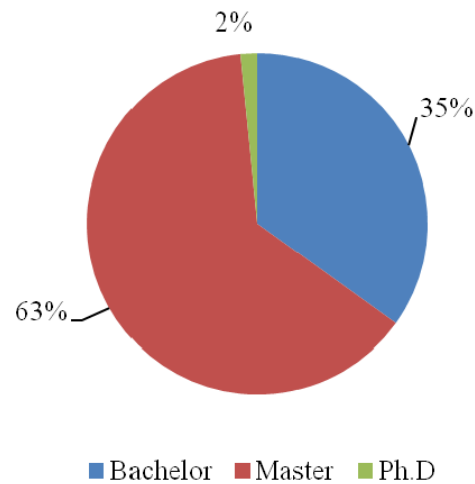
Figure 4.5 Educational Qualification of Thai Participants (N=63)

The Thai participants (N=62) had 5.4 years of working experience at average, which is around two years more than the German participants. This difference may relate to the older average age of the Thai participants. The Thai answers vary from a minimum of one year to a maximum of 20 years working experience. About 30% of the Thais work each for one to three years and more than seven years.

54 Thais participated in answering the question in how many companies they worked before. For 13% it is their first company, which is a huge percentage compared to Germany's 2.7%. Most of the Thais worked with 26 mentions (48%) in one or two companies before. Compared to the German results, the job changing behavior is quite similar as most of the Germans also worked in one or two companies before. Additionally, around 19% of the Thai participants worked already in four or more companies which is comparable to the German percentage of 21%.

The Thai participants, just as the Germans worked in a lot of different positions. Most of them described themselves as classical clerical employees, followed by assistant managers and superiors. All career positions of the Thai participants can be inferred from Appendix D.2.

The companies of the Thai participants (N=62) mostly operated international (60%), but not as strong as the German's companies with an international operations percentage of almost 80%. 34% of the Thai subjects' companies operated in various countries, 26% worldwide. Most of the companies were, contrary to the Germans enterprises, no subsidiaries of other companies (N=61, 59%). 80% of all Thai participants (n=60), compared to almost 50% of the Germans, worked in companies with 1000 or fewer employees, 41% of the Thais even in companies with 100 employees or less. For the Germans this percentage is 18%. The biggest named Thai company had 7000 employees, the biggest German enterprise 275,000. In the smallest companies of both sample groups worked two people.

In the following chapter the results of the empirical study and its interpretation is documented.

4.2 German Decision-Making Behavior

4.2.1 Most important Factors for German Decision-Making

For this research it is a prerequisite to determine the most important factors for the Germans decision-making. 55 German participants answered. The answers could be clustered in three categories.

For most of the subjects having all relevant information is the determinant factor for making a decision. Reliable facts that support and justify the decision are as important as trying to find out all available details and information to define possible chances and risks of the decision (e.g. through SWOT-Analysis). The German subjects also mentioned to consider several possible solutions and depending on what kind of decision should be made, involving other people in the decision-making process. These answers can be interpreted as rather rational decision-making behavior.

But, another relevant topic for the subjects was the feeling during and after the decision. A lot of participants stated that it is really important for them to have a good feeling after making a decision. They deem a good feeling and the fact that they can take responsibility for their decision as relevant factors for their satisfaction.

However, this factor could indicate a more non-rational decision-making approach where the decision-makers tend to rely on their feelings.

The company's success as well as the outcome of the decision forms the third big cluster. The subjects declared the consequences like getting a good result that creates some benefit and success to the company, related parties or for the own future as very important. Some subjects also mentioned that not only profit as the ultimate goal for the company should be considered, but also ethics and sustainability.

For some participants there were no general facts that are important, they answered that it is very much depending on the situation with its special requirements. So, as a conclusion from this point, a general preference of the Germans for rational or non-rational decision-making cannot be assumed.

4.2.2 Rational Decision-Making Behavior of Prospective German Managers

The reliability score of the German rational decision-making results can be inferred from Appendix E.1. Focusing on the rational decision-making process of Germans it becomes clear that they mostly agree to statements of rational decision-making process. The mean scores 3.75.
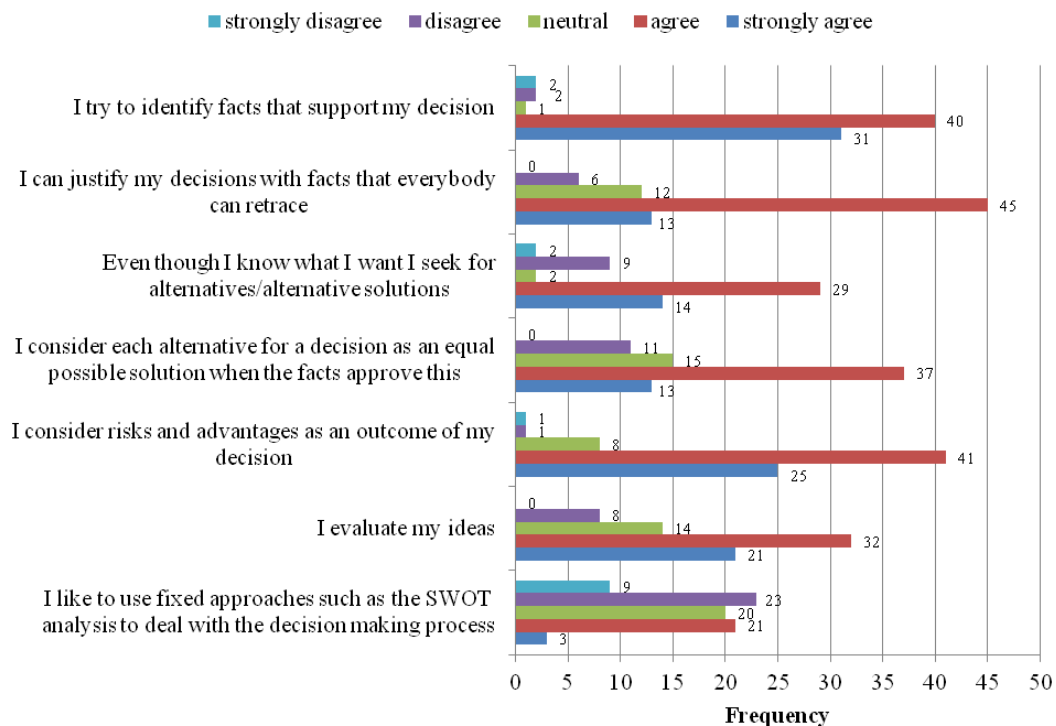
Figure 4.6 German Results for Rational Decision-Making Process (N=76)

71 participants agreed or strongly acknowledged identifying facts that support their decision. Furthermore, the majority of the Germans (58 of the 76 participants) concurred with the statement that they can justify their decisions with facts that everybody can retrace. These two statements refer to step two of the rational decision-making process, the identification of decision criteria

It is not unusual that decision-makers have a first intention for a possible solution of a decision. Nevertheless, 43 of the Germans follow the fourth step of the rational decision-making process, the generation of alternatives when they agreed or strongly agreed to the fact that they search for alternative solutions. Additionally, most of the Germans (50 respondents) consider alternatives even as equal possible solutions when reliable facts approve this.

As company success is named as one of the most important factors for decision-making, the majority of German decision-makers (66 agreed/strongly agreed) consider risks and advantages carefully as an outcome of the decision. Additionally, most of the Germans stated that they evaluate their ideas what is related to the fifth step of the rational decision-making process.

The next statement for the rational decision-making process forms the question whether the participant in general like to use fixed theoretical approaches like SWOT analysis to get to a decision. Contrary to the previous, rather rational decision-making supporting results, a lot of the Germans (31) did not agree to use fixed theoretical approaches. 20 subjects chose a neutral position for this statement. To create more knowledge, the participants were asked in an additional open question, in case they use fixed theoretical approaches for evaluating decision alternatives, which one they prefer.
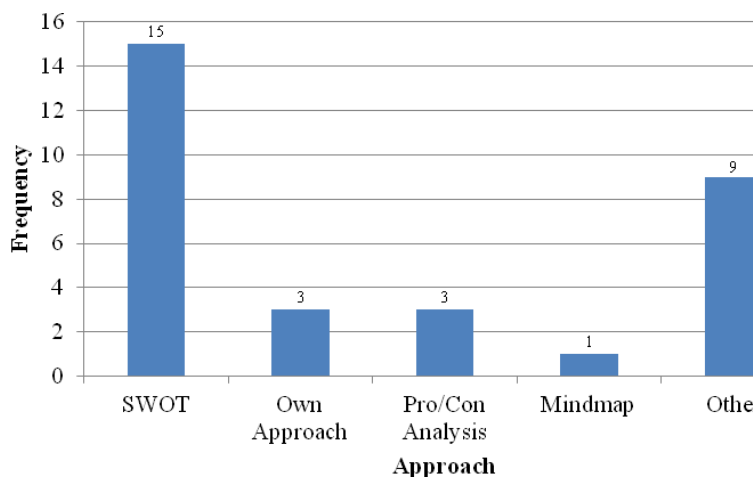
Figure 4.7 Fixed Approaches for Germans Evaluation of Decision Alternatives
    (N=31)

Most of the participants prefer using the SWOT approach for evaluating their decision alternatives. Further, three people each stated that they use their own approach or a pro/con analysis to get to a decision. One respondent indicated that a more creative way of decision-making by creating a mindmap is used. Nine subjects use other approaches like T-Charts, classical cost/benefit analysis, Porter's five forces model or the net present value (NPV).

After figuring out which approach the participants mostly use for evaluating their decision alternatives, also the way how they evaluate their outcome of decisions was under examination. 46 participants answered.

A lot of them use discussions with colleagues and superiors for evaluating their results. They give feedback to each other, think - even after the decision -

together of risks and opportunities and reflect what could be improved the next time. Not uncommon for the German subjects is the use of techniques and tools for result evaluation. They named trial and error method, sales figures and financial outcomes, custom metrics, appraisal interviews, KPI and cost/benefit calculations as part of project controlling as the most common techniques and tools. Some participants indicated that they have no fixed method but follow their own approach by making task lists with potential outcomes and later check the desired condition with the actual state.

Contrary to these results, some participants do not use these more or less rational methods to evaluate. They stated that experience, the feeling at and after the decision and gut feeling is their preferred evaluation method.

To examine the tendency towards rational decision-making further, additionally the following behavioral anchors were evaluated. The mean scores 3.63.
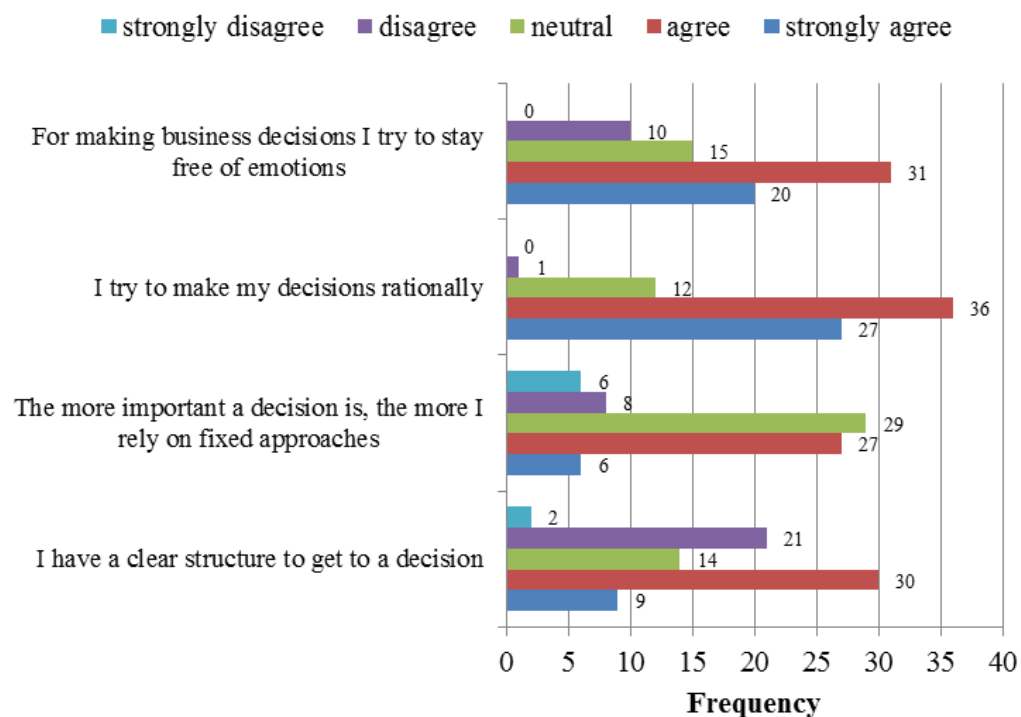
Figure 4.8 German Results for Rational Decision-Making Behavior (N=76)

51 of the participants try to avoid the influence of emotions on business decisions. Even more (63) stated that they try to make their decisions rationally. Not

so resolute were the Germans when it comes to the question whether they prefer relying on a fixed approach for important decisions (33 participants agreed, 29 professed a neutral position). Anyway, most of the Germans (39 participants) confirmed their clear structure to reach a decision.

4.2.3 Non-Rational Decision-Making Behavior of Prospective German Managers

The following chapter focuses on German motivation for non-rational decision-making and evaluates the research results. The non-rational decision-making reliability score can be inferred from Appendix E.2.
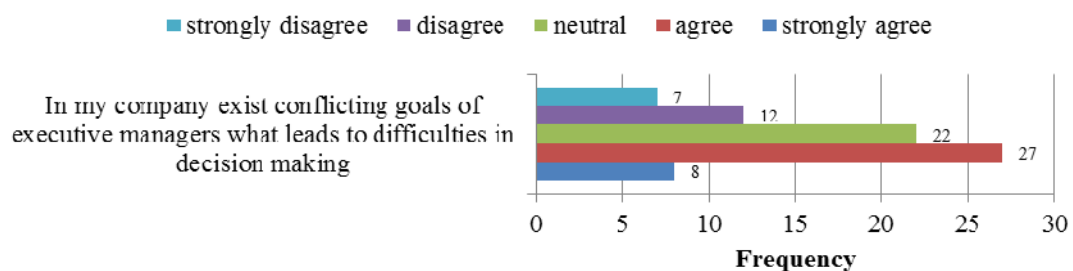
Figure 4.9 German Results for Political Behavior (N=76)

All in all, with a mean score of 3.22 political behavior seems to exist in the companies of the German subjects and affects decision-making behavior. To the question whether in the subjects' companies exist conflicting goals what leads to difficulties in decision-making, 35 agreed or strongly agreed, 22 placed a neutral position.

To get to know more about what the German participants would do when opposing goals affect their decision-making, an open question was added to this topic. 45 persons responded.

The majority of the German participants try to prioritize the goals mostly after their importance to them personally or to the company's success. For this evaluation process also the superior can be involved in the decision-making. The decision will then be taken by priority. To this process also the considerations of benefits, risks and

general impact on the company, the company's future and themselves were mentioned as important.

For the German respondents a second possible solution to this problem was the trial of finding a compromise. They stated that they would try to figure out where the disagreement is located, try to put themselves in the other one's position, talk to the responsible parties and suggest what in their opinion would be the best way to solve the conflict. Sometimes an arrangement of both ways and the creation of a new alternative is a good advice for the German subjects too.

The participants were clear about the fact that ideally opposing goals should not exist in a company. But, realistically they do. Some respondents would like to consider the main values of the company and decide then what to do. In this context, also company success plays an important role. Several subjects stated that they want to think thoroughly about the conflict and then try to make the most holistic decision in terms of achieving company success or the most important or most valuable goal for the company, respectively.

Some participants would like to avoid this conflict and try to focus on more realistic goals. Others stated to rely on their gut feeling first and later look for arguments that underline the own opinion. For lot participants in case of opposing goals, talking to colleagues is regarded as helpful. The focus lies mostly on figuring out together what is the most important goal to conform to.

The results to this question show that even in the case of opposing goals the Germans mostly try not to rely only on their feelings. The majority named rational measures to solve this kind of conflict but some also want use a combination of both approaches.

As there were further influencing factors that lead according to Elbanna (2006) to non-rational decision-making, in the following the impact of intuition with its for the German's reliable implications, reliance on experience and gut feeling were discussed.
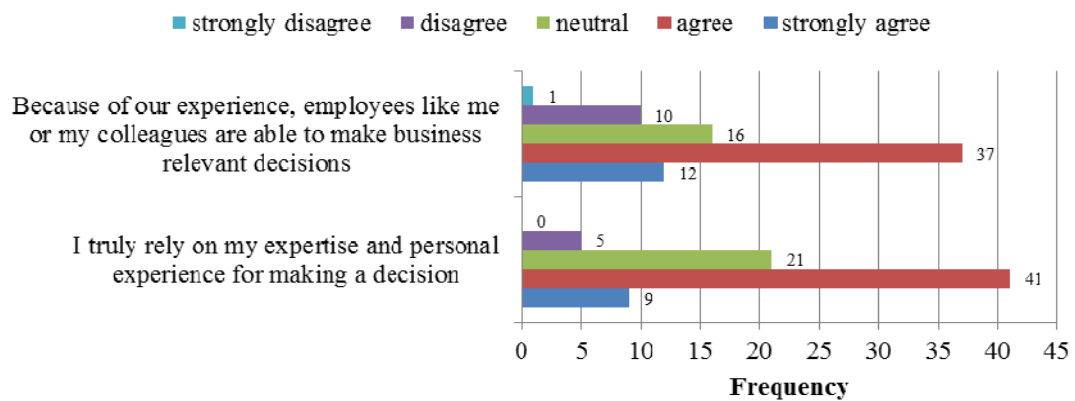
Figure 4.10 German Results for Intuition-Experience (N=76)

The results of the behavioral anchors that link to the Intuition-Experience category show with a mean score of 3.68 that there is mostly acceptance for the particular statements. A lot of German subjects (49) were self-assure and dare to make business relevant decisions. Consequently the same number of participants truly relied on their expertise and personal experience.

For the last implication factor to intuition, the impact of gut feeling, at first an open question was added in order to get some information about the cultural and educational influence on decision-making.

The majority of the German subjects had the opinion that culture and education affects their decision-making behavior. Six subjects shared this opinion with no further comments. Only four out of 46 responds did not agree.

Several Germans indicated their certainty that culture influences especially the relationships towards superiors, hierarchical higher employees and colleagues. For them, culture and education affects the scope of responsibility they take and how much decision-making freedom and flexibility they have. Through their education and culture the subjects felt self-confident and were not afraid of being responsible for decisions they made on their own. Additionally, the subjects emphasized the impact of cultural education on their perception of hierarchy. Certain participants stated that in Germany the decision-making process in general is hierarchical. The superior's decisions were leading through all other decisions in the company.

Further, the respondents also stated that their companies have a lot of regulations and administrative plans. They described themselves generally as very structured and well-organized. Usually they do not tend to spontaneous reactions and decisions. Germans are very result oriented, think a lot about potential consequences and want to see the direct outcome of their decisions. Moreover, the subjects declared that Germans in general tend to avoid risky decisions and mistakes and therefore are very bureaucratic and safety sensitive. By using a lot of structured checklists they try to avoid uncertainty and unforeseen risks. The participants confirmed this by stating that they were taught to be always on the safe side and therefore now avoid taking risks. In the case they cannot avoid taking risks the subjects would try to spread the hazard by involving other people and profit from their experience.

Furthermore, the respondents professed that in their opinion higher educated people take more time to make a decision and therefore get usually better results. For them, this refers to the academic education in Germany. The students get to know a lot of theoretical approaches like SWOT analysis and other evaluation theories. Therefore, Germans take a lot of economic and strategic effects as possible outcomes into account, consider a lot of different solutions and search for alternatives. Especially learning how to gain objective information, without paying too much attention to personal circumstances is according to the participants influenced by education and culture. This avoidance of personal influence is also linked to the business culture in Germany where personal communication is only common at a very low level. To conclude, the subjects see their education as training for future rational decision-making and feel like they have a more direct way to make decisions than other cultures. Additionally, they adopted a lot from the behavior of their parents, friends and people in their closer social environment and use this as a base for making their decisions.

Besides this rational education with a strong outcome focus, several subjects mentioned that they think of the affections of their decision to their team members as well. This indicates that emotions and feelings cannot totally be excluded from decision-making. For that reason, the influence of emotions and first intuition on decision-making was further examined.
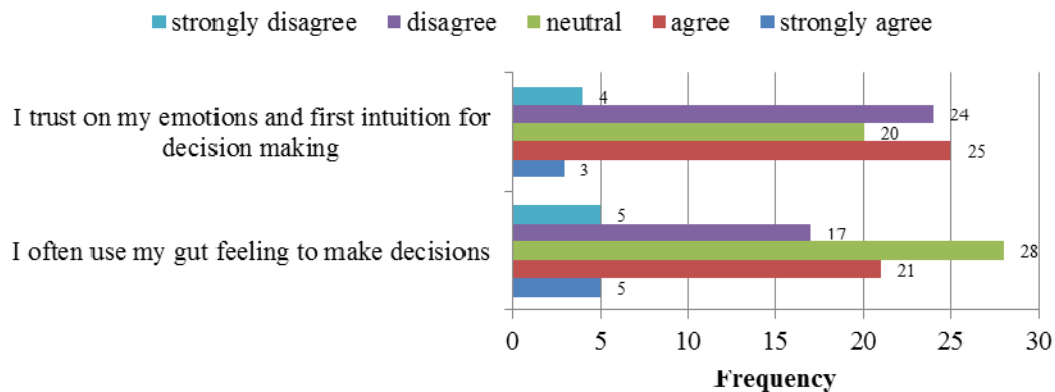
Figure 4.11 German Results for Intuition-Gut Feeling (N=76)

28 persons agreed to trust on their emotions and first intuition to make a decision, but the same number of subjects disagreed to this statement. Also, 22 subjects disagreed to use their gut feeling to make decisions whereas 26 agreed. To get more information about non-rational approaches the following behavioral anchors were questioned.
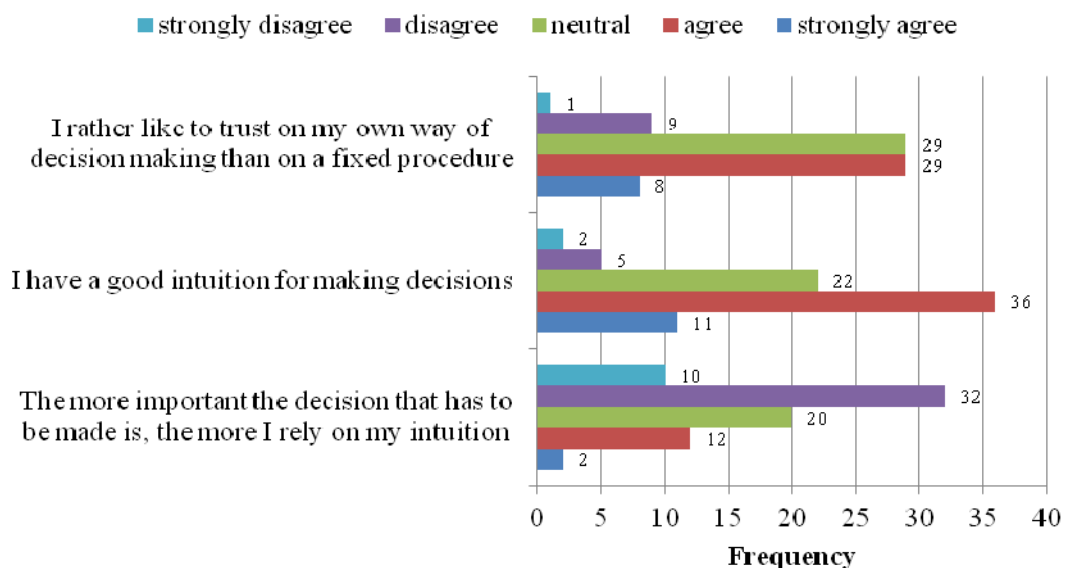
Figure 4.12 German Results for Non-Rational Decision-Making Behavior (N=76)

A total mean score of 3.21 indicates a mostly neutral position with a slight tendency towards accordance with the non-rational behavioral anchors. Most of the Germans in the survey preferred to use their own decision-making approach. Even though 47 persons think that they have a good intuition for making decisions, only 14 agreed that they like to rely more on their intuition the more important a decision is.

As the results up to now show, Germans generally tend stronger to rational decision-making. But, from the literature can be seen that especially when it comes to limiting factors for decision-making, non-rational decision-making gains importance. So this matter of fact needed to be advanced examined.

The first task was to find out what the German participants do when there are time restrictions for decision-making. The majority of the 58 answers professed that they would trust on their intuition. A lot of them made good experiences by relying on their gut feeling. For sure, they also try to gather as much information as possible - through their own experiences and by taking advantage of colleague's knowledge, but for the majority the final decision is led by emotions and feelings.

The second most frequent mentioned aspect was the involvement of colleagues. A lot of participants maintained that they ask their colleagues for their opinions but also for their arguments and experiences. Similar decisions that have been made in the past were also considered by some participants as a good source for gaining more information. The involvement of colleagues goes so far, that the prospective German decision-makers would seek support from their colleagues and for example delegate a part of the research to them. Some also want to try methods that do not take much time like brainstorming or mind mapping alone or together to gain more information and clarify pros and cons of a decision. Also scenario plays with the involvement of colleagues were mentioned as a possibility to illuminate different outcomes and ease the decision-making with time restrictions. Only a few participants took into account to involve their superiors and would ask them for possible solutions.

The more rational led subjects stated that they try to evaluate all the available facts, advantages, disadvantages and possible solutions. Then they would concentrate on the key facts and therefore come to a conclusion. They would also prefer a strict decision-making plan or using a defined approach for time critical decisions.

Another small group of participants would like to put the decision on hold and come back to it later. Others just professed that they would ignore the restrictions and take the time they need to make the decision with the approved methods. If this is not possible they would even consider night shifts and overtime to come to a conclusion.

The results show that in the case of time restrictions non-rational approaches with strongly relying on intuition and gut feeling becomes more important. But still, for some participants a combination of rational and non-rational approaches seems to be the best solution.

Further, a lack of information for decision-making as a second limitation was examined. 51 participants answered the question of what they would do in this case.

Again the help of colleagues forms a common answer cluster. Through discussions and brainstorms with colleagues or other people who are experts in the particular field of interest, a lot of additional information can be gathered. Additionally, a lot of the German respondents would like to involve their superior to inform him about the lack of information and get some good advice.

One respondent had the opinion that there always is enough information for making a decision. Other respondents who did not share this opinion indicated that they would by all means try to get more information. For this, they prefer sources like Google, literature and other research canals to search for best practice examples and gain more knowledge about the decision topic. Former results of equal situations and experiences were also important in the case of lacking actual information.

In the case that it is not possible to get more information, several participants said that they would make assumptions to create a better decision-making base or just rely on their intuition.

The answers to this question show that also in the case of limited information, rational but also intuitional approaches were used for decision-making. Sure the subjects use all available informational and try to get more info but a lot of the participants stated in this question as well that their gut feeling is the final intention for making the decision.

4.2.4 Conclusion of German Decision-Making Behavior

To sum up the general German decision-making behavior, it can be pointed out that most of the German participants try to decide rational. This can be proved by the huge accordance with the behavioral anchors of the rational decision-making process and further general rational statements.

In the case of limitations the impulse for non-rational decision-making gets stronger but the Germans still keep rational decision-making to some degree in mind as for example in the case of opposing goals where the Germans prioritize the goals or try to find a compromise with all involved persons. However, for the question what the subjects do when they have not enough time to decide, the reliance on intuition, expertise and own or colleagues' experiences were the most common answers, followed by the evaluation of all possibilities. That suggests mostly the assumption of non-rational decision-making. The study comes to the same result in the case of limited information where the German prospective managers ask colleagues for their help and experience, involve their superior or conduct further reserach. This just covers the findings of Elbanna (2006) in chapter 2.2.2, where she states that limitations set boundaries to the rational approach and therefore lead to non-rational decision-making. But, as the participants often also mentioned rational and non-rational approaches at the same time, a combination of both seems likely.

The presented findings for the German decision-making behavior form the first part of the research results. The following chapters focus on Thai decision-making behavior.

4.3 Thai Decision-Making Behavior

4.3.1 Most Important Factors For Thai Decision-Making

When it comes to the question what the most important factor for making a decision is, 48 Thais participated in answering this question. The answers enabled to form three clusters.

For the majority of the Thais, the outcome and with this the achievement of a defined goal is the point of matter for decision-making. Further, the minimization of

risks, maximization of benefits, adherence to schedules or even the personal feelings about the outcome are factors that are important for the Thai subjects. The way how to get the best results, for the company or for themselves personally is considered by many participants and comes along with a strong company relation and conformity to the company's regulations. Additionally, to make a good decision, for the Thai respondents the decision-making process should be perceived as correct due to the company's regulations.

Sufficient information was mentioned as the second most important factor for decision-making. The possibility to gather all the relevant information and facts is a basic postulate for the Thai participants.

Being rational was also named as a really important. The Thai subjects think that feelings might affect decisions in a negative way. Reasonability and the freedom to make decisions beyond hierarchical issues were therefore required for decision-making. Only a few Thais mentioned that the good feeling after a decision is most important for them. In general, the Thais seem to pay more attention to the opinion that others might have of them as decision-makers than on their own emotions.

As the previous results show, the Thai participants seem to have a preference for rational decision-making. Information and reasonability of the motives for decision were besides the outcome the most frequent mentioned factors. Anyhow, there needed to be supplementary research on the decision-making behavior to come to a conclusion. So, in the following chapter the decision-making behavior of the Thai participants was further examined by using behavioral anchors.

4.3.2 Rational Decision-Making Behavior of Prospective Thai Managers

The reliability score of the Thai rational decision-making results can be inferred from Appendix E.3. The evaluation of the single statements of the rational decision-making process shows with a mean score of 4.0 a broad acceptance for the rational decision-making approach, proceeding in six steps.

■ strongly disagree ■ disagree ■ neutral ■ agree ■ strongly agree
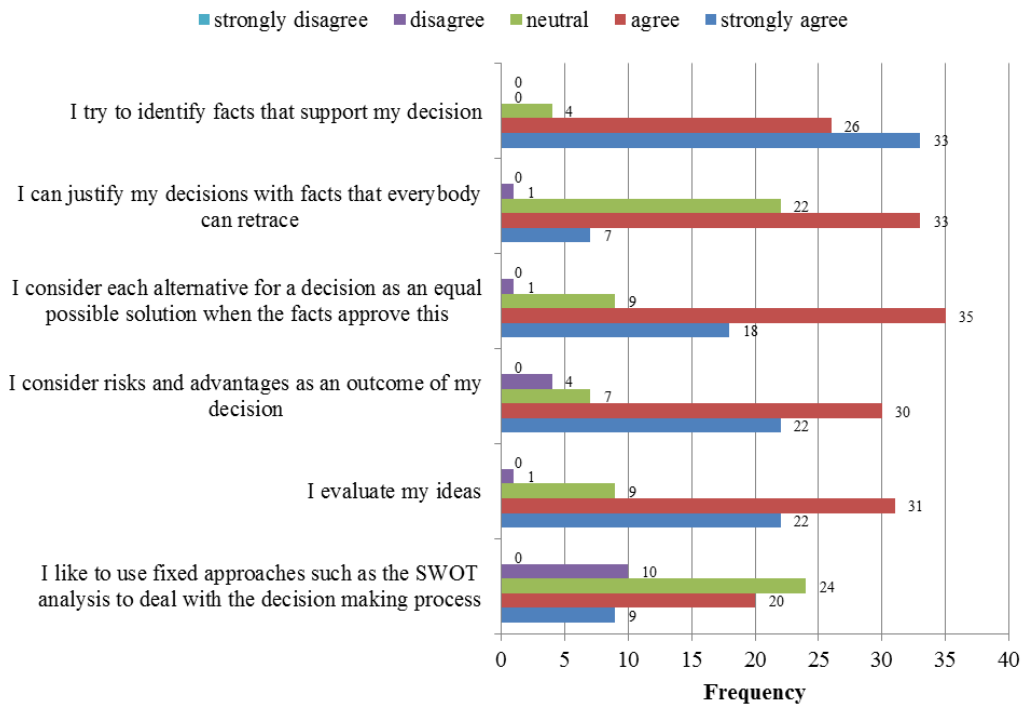
Figure 4.13 Thai Results for Rational Decision-Making Process (N=63)

The great majority of Thai participants tried with 59 mentions to identify facts that support their decisions. 40 respondents answered that they can justify their decisions with facts that everybody can retrace. So there seems to be a huge acceptance for the careful identification of decision criteria which forms the second step of the rational decision-making process.

Also, most of the participants (53 persons) maintained that each alternative is considered as an equal possible solution when the facts approve this. Further, 52 of the Thai subjects professed that they consider risks and advantages as an outcome of their decision and another 53 agreed to evaluate their ideas. This also refers to the rational decision-making process and forms step five.

The answers to the question whether the participants like to use fixed approaches differs. While 29 persons agreed, 24 chose a neutral position and 10 disagreed. As the agreement for theoretical approaches exceeds, an inquiry which theoretical approach is used for evaluating alternatives was posed.
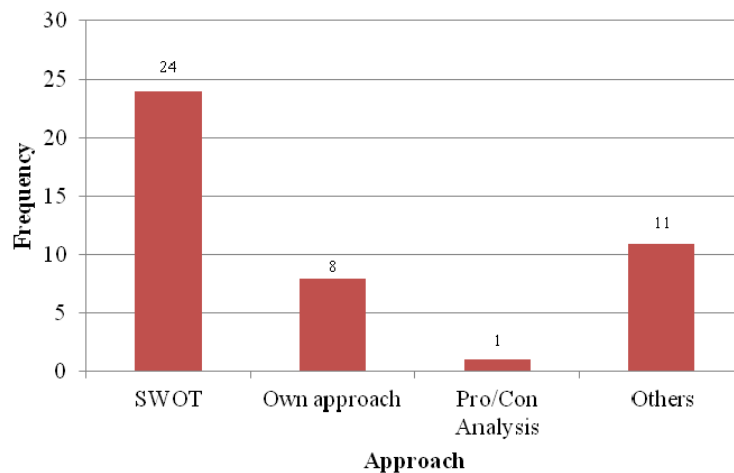
Figure 4.14 Fixed Approaches for Thais' Evaluation of Decision Alternatives (N=44)

Most of the Thai subjects preferred the classical SWOT analysis. Another eight participants indicated that they use their own approach to evaluate alternatives. For a reason they stated that in their opinion conventional models never lead to innovation or that they have to decide within very special conditions, which makes it impossible for them to use classical theoretical approaches. One person maintained to use a pro/con analysis. Another 11 subjects stated that their approach depends on the situation and therefore they vary in using other popular approaches like Porters five forces model, PESTEL analysis, discount cash flow analysis or the six sigma economic theory.

Further was examined how the Thai participants evaluate their decisions. 46 Thais answered to this question. Most of them use the outcome to appraise decisions. The achievement of the defined goal is the most popular option for using the outcome as a reference of a successful decision. By evaluating the pros and cons of the result or defining various key objective indicators, the measurement of the outcome can be eased. In this case SWOT or other project controlling tools are popular evaluation methods.

Besides these possibilities, the participants were also considering experiences and lessons learned from former similar decisions or the feedback of colleagues, superiors and customers. Nonetheless, for the Thais a good feeling about the decision and for some as well the influence of the decision on the working atmosphere are important factors for evaluating decisions.

Besides the statements to the rational decision-making process, an evaluation of the following behavioral anchors was interrogated. The mean scores 3.86.
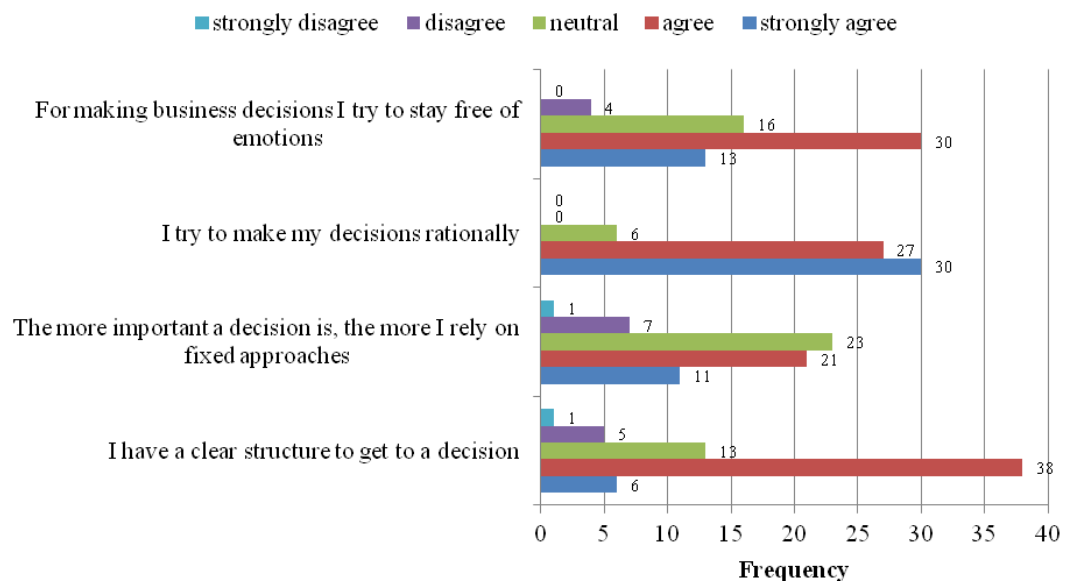
Figure 4.15 Thai Results for Rational Decision-Making Behavior (N=63)

Generally 43 participants agreed to try staying free of emotions when it comes to business decisions. Even more try to make their decisions rationally. The Thai subjects also agreed with 32 mentions that the more important a decision is, the more they rely on fixed approaches. A great number of subjects professed additionally that they have a clear structure to come to a decision. Only 6 persons disagreed.

4.3.3 Non-Rational Decision-Making Behavior of Prospective Thai Managers

The reliability score of the Thai non-rational decision-making results can be inferred from Appendix E.4. As potential motivations for non-rational decision-making behavior political behavior and intuition with its implications judgment, experience and gut feeling were considered.
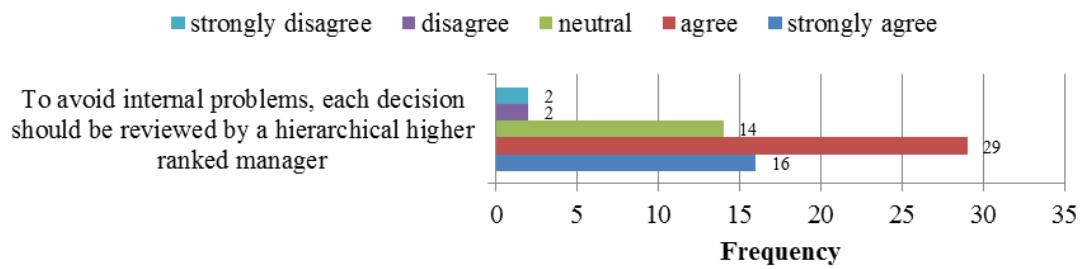
Figure 4.16 Thai Results for Political Behavior (N=63)

With a mean score of 3.87 polticial behavior affects decision-making of the Thai participants. To avoid internal problems, the majority of the Thais (45 respondents) concurred that each decision should be reviewed by a hierarchical higher ranked manager.

To get to know more about possible strategies to elude internal problems the Thai participants were asked what they do when opposing goals affect their decision-making. 45 persons responded.

Only a few participants mentioned finding a consensus between the particular goals as a possible solution to this conflict. The most common strategy for the participants is to consult their superior at an early stage of decision-making and get some advice. A lot subjects mentioned that for them their superior is always right and therefore they will agree with his attitude towards the decision.

Another possibility for the subjects was to contact their colleagues for getting some assistance or create new knowledge via brainstoming. They also hope to benefit from their colleague's experience to come to a conclusion. However, if they feel confident with their decision, the respondents indicated that they will point out what they know, especially the advantages and try to convince the other ones of their decision. In general, the Thai subjects stated that they would do their best to solve the problem.

A number of subjects professed to think reasonably, consider long-term effects and finally prioritize the alternatives as an action of rational decision-making. For this strategy, the results and potential outcomes of all alternatives were evaluated by using fixed approaches like SWOT analysis. For some respondents the company's success

is the most important goal to aspire, but other subjects stated that they would also take group benefits and the maintaining of relationships with colleagues into account.

Another behavioral pattern which was conceivable for certain Thais was to change their goal, seek to avoid this situation for the next time, try to eliminate the opposition or just wait what will happen without any intervention.

Moreover, the influence of judgment and experience on decision-making was further examined.
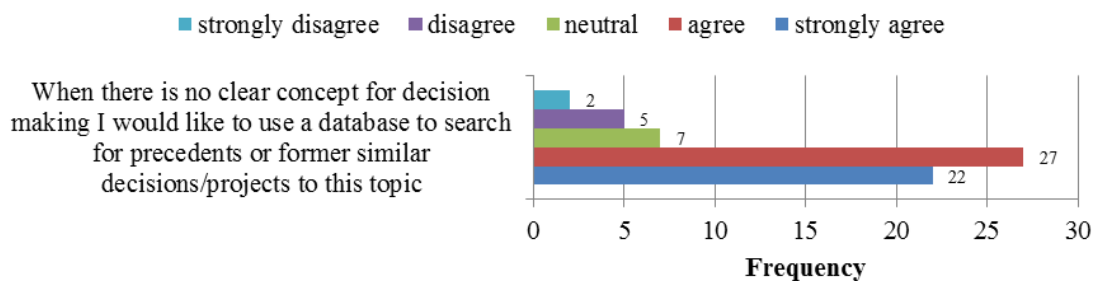
Figure 4.17 Thai Results for Intuition-Judgment (N=63)

The majority of the Thai participants (49 respondents) with a mean of 3.98 would like to use a database with precedents or former similar projects or decision to their topic in the case there is no clear concept for decision-making.
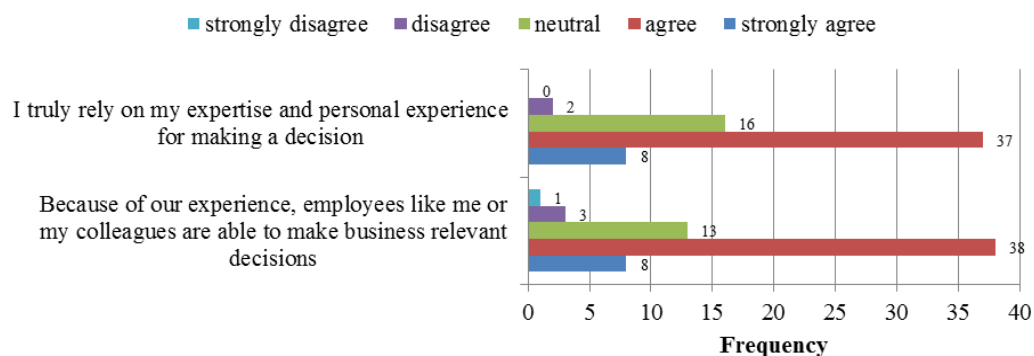
Figure 4.18 Thai Results for Intuition-Experience (N=63)

45 subjects professed that they have a strong confidence in their expertise and personal experience. So, the Thais manifested themselves as rather self-confident and

concurred that because of their experience, employees like them or their colleagues are able to make business relevant decisions.

The next part contains the impact of gut feelings on decision-making. With an open question was examined how education influences Thai decision-making style and additionally which role culture plays in this context. 45 subjects participated in answering this question.

Already in their childhood the participants got to know which values were accepted in their culture. But, they were aware of the fact that these principles were not necessarily also common in other countries. The respondents stated that education eases decisions as the students get to know a lot about decision-making techniques and strategical instruments. By improving process thinking of decision-making and focussing on hard facts like cost and benefit or risk and return, the individual decision-making behavior is influenced in a more rational way than it might be in its origin.

Also the subjects maintained that they believe that decisions from persons with a high level of education are more reliable and reasonable. Moreover, the participants stated that culture affects how they handle with criticism. The Thai subjects described themselves as conflict avoiding what makes it sometimes hard to deal with opposing goals or differing requirements. Especially when it comes to conflicts or criticism of a hierarchically higher ranked persons, Thais think that their superior is always right and therefore are more likely to go along with other decisions rather than making their own that might be unpopular.

As a society, formed by collectivistic values, the benefits to the team are important for the Thai subjects. They pay attention that the decision contributes to the working group and do not impair the working atmosphere.
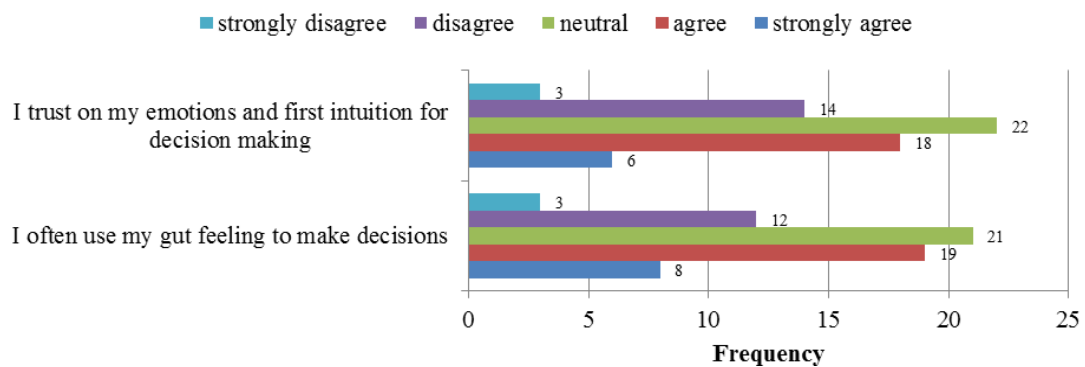
Figure 4.19 Thai Results for Intuition-Gut Feeling (N=63)

24 subjects agreed to trust on emotions and first intuition for making decisions. Anyway a lot of Thais chose a neutral answer (22 respondents) and 17 even disagreed to this statement. Nearly the same result was figured out for the use of gut feelings for decisions where 27 professed that they use their gut feeling, 21 took a neutral position and 15 disagreed or strongly disagreed.

To conclude the examination of Thai non-rational decision-making behavior, the following general non-rational behavioral anchors were investigated.
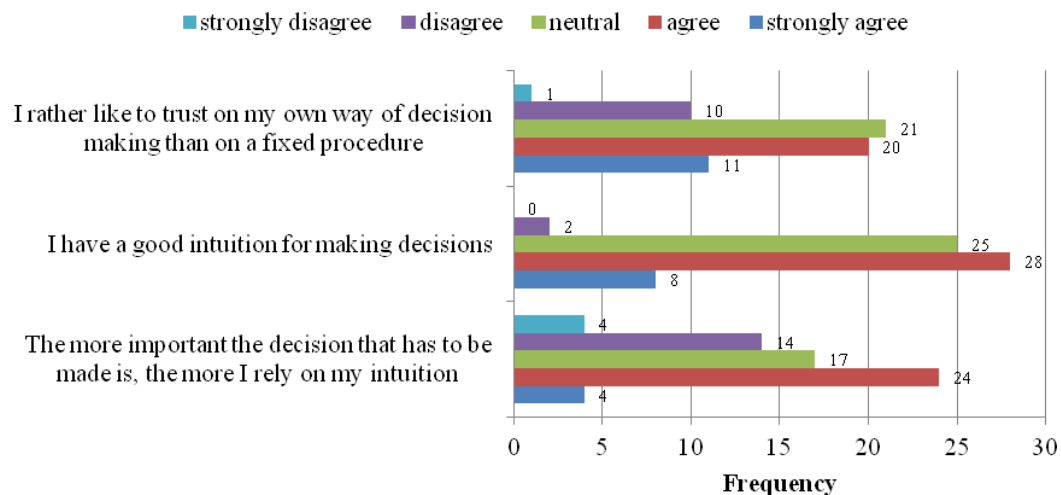
Figure 4.20 Thai Results for Non-Rational Decision-Making Behavior (N=63)

As an example of more general behavioral anchors for non-rational decision-making, the participants were asked whether they like to trust on their own way of

decision-making rather than on a fixed procedure. A lot subjects concurred to prefer their own approach. but 21 also chose a neutral answer.

36 think about themselves of having a good intuition for making decisions. Additionally, most Thais (28 respondents) agreed to rely more on their intuition the more important the decision is, 18 disagreed.

As the results up to now show, the Thais generally tend to rational decision-making. But, from the literature can be inferred that especially in the case of limitations, there might be a tendency for non-rational decision-making. So this fact needed to be further examined.

A limitation of time is a relevant factor that influences the decision-making behavior. As a possibility what the subjects do in this case, the Thais answered mostly that they contact colleagues or experts in the relevant topics to get some assistance. Asking for their suggestions and advices, collective brainstorming and group discussions are only some of the mentioned options. Additionally, the Thais like to access to former experiences of themselves or from colleagues, experts or superiors with similar topics in order to ease the rational decision-making procedure.

A lot subjects professed as well that they also contact their superior to get some recommendations. As one possibility they would ask him about his advice and the further proceeding, but there were also some respondents that indicated a preference for conferring the whole decision in order to shuffle them out of responsibility

Another mentioned possibility how to deal with time limitation is calm down first and avoid hecticness in order to prevent from mistakes. The Thai subjects try to maintain the usual decision-making process and take the time they need. If there is no other possibility than making a quick decision they would like to collect all available information and try to make the best out of it. Whereas for some it is most important to choose the alternative with the least possible risk, others focus on the most promising solution for company's success.

Trying to follow a fixed structure and company policies is important for the Thais but they also consider their personal intuition for making a decision. Their feeling about the decision is relevant and can even overlay the weighting of the consequences of the decisions for some of the respondents.

In the case of restrictive information to make a proper decision the participants mostly answered to conduct further research until they feel confident with it. Not only online research but also referring to case studies, articles in journals or books were possibilities for the subjects to gather more information. If this is not possible, they will try to make the best possible solution under consideration of the factual situation. Some participants stated that they would also evaluate the alternatives as best as they can by using theoretical instruments like SWOT analysis.

The involvement of friends or colleagues also forms a big cluster of answers. The consultation of experts in order to get different suggestions as well as discussions or brainstorms with colleagues and hierarchical higher ranked persons were promising solutions to counter a lack of information. Another popular attempt that was often mentioned was the involvement of the superior where some Thais just want to get some advice but others prefer conferring the whole decision to their superior. Only few participants rely on their own experience and personal judgment, much more subjects considered avoiding the decision totally.

4.3.4 Conclusion of Thai Decision-Making Behavior

According to the research results, Thai decision-making behavior can be described as rational. The agreement with the rational decision-making process and further rational behavior anchors is strong and mostly all of the statements were assessed with a high score.

On the other hand, the influence of non-rational factors cannot be neglected. When the Thai participants were confronted with opposing goals they professed to involve their superior or colleagues to get some advice but also stated to prioritize the goals. The normally rational decision-making behavior of the Thai participants is in the case of limitations strongly affected by intuition and external influence e.g. through colleagues and superiors, but also through the preference of avoiding the decision. The subjects were confident of their good intuition for decision-making and especially in the case of very important decisions they stated relying on their intuition. So, in the case of limitations the Thai subjects tend, just like estimated from the literature, to non-rational decision-making approaches but without totally losing rationality.

In the next chapter the cultural impact on decision-making of the German subjects, followed by the results of the Thai participants is presented and discussed.

4.4 Cultural Impact on German Decision-Making

The aggregated value of PDI scores 2.28, a score that indicates low power distance in decision-making context. This result corresponds with the expectations of Hofstede who scored Germany in general as a low power distance society. The reliability score of German PDI can be inferred from Appendix E.5.
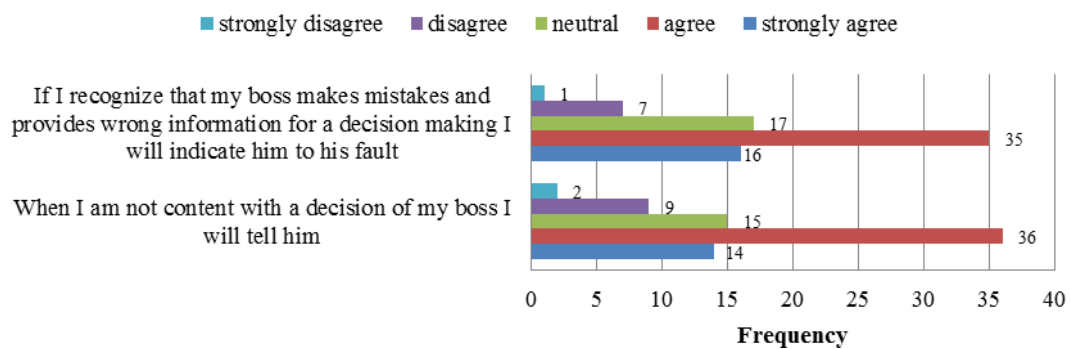
Figure 4.21 Behavioral Anchor Results for German Power Distance (N=76)

The majority of the Germans (51 agreed) stated that they would indicate their boss to mistakes he makes. Further, 50 of the German participants agreed that they also would tell their superior if they were not content with a decision of him.

The mean of the individualistic dimension scores 2.49, an indication towards collectivism. This score is contrary to Hofstede's estimation of a truly individualistic German society. The reliability of the individualism statements can be looked up in Appendix E.6.
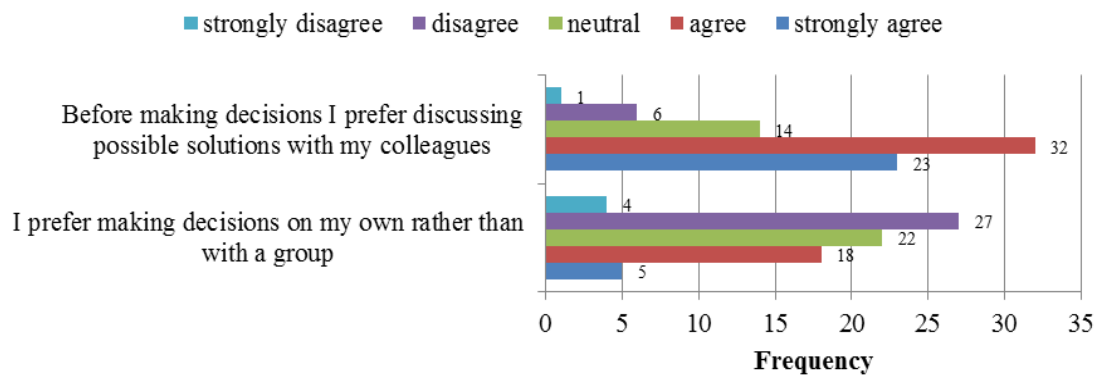
Figure 4.22 Behavioral Anchor Results for German Individualism (N=76)

Even though Germans are known as truly individualistic people, most of them (55 answers) prefer to discuss possible solutions with their colleagues before coming to a decision. Additionally, when it comes to the question whether the German subjects prefer deciding on their own, the participants mostly disagreed.

The mean of masculinity scores 2.26 and therefore indicates a more feminine attitude in decision-making than expected due to Hofstede's results. The reliability score of German masculinity can be inferred from Appendix E.7.
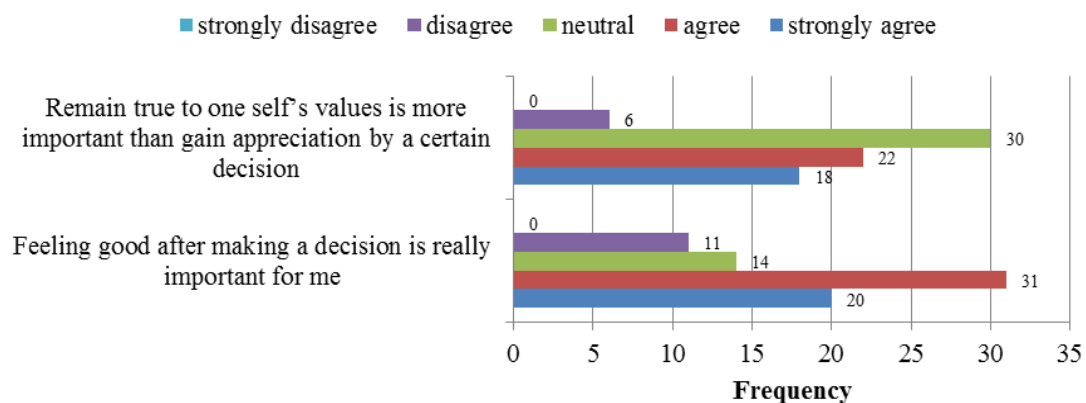
Figure 4.23 Behavioral Anchor Results for German Masculinity (N=76)

Even though for the German society achievement and appreciation are important, the subjects have a distinct tendency for staying true to their selves values (40 participants agreed). Additionally, 51 of the participants agreed or strongly agreed to the fact that it is really important for them to have a good feeling after the decision.

The German participants of the questionnaire rated the uncertainty avoidance index with 2.53 at average, a score tending towards low uncertainty avoidance. As Hofstede sees Germany in a middle range with a weak preference towards uncertainty avoidance the result in the case of decision-making differs. Appendix E.8 shows the results of the reliability analysis of German UCA.
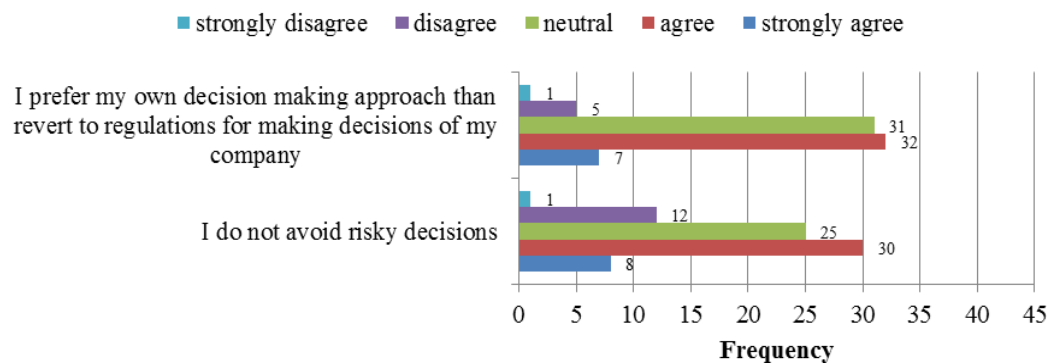
Figure 4.24 Behavioral Anchor Results for German Uncertainty Avoidance (N=76)

Most of the Germans (39 respondents) agreed to the statement that they prefer their own decision-making approach rather than company regulations. Further, with 38 agreeing participants the people mostly tend not to avoid risky decisions.

The results for the Germans long-term orientation in decision-making context scores 3.93 and therefore is not covering Hofstede's results that indicate Germany as rather short-term oriented. The score of long-term orientation statement's reliability can be inferred from Appendix E.9.
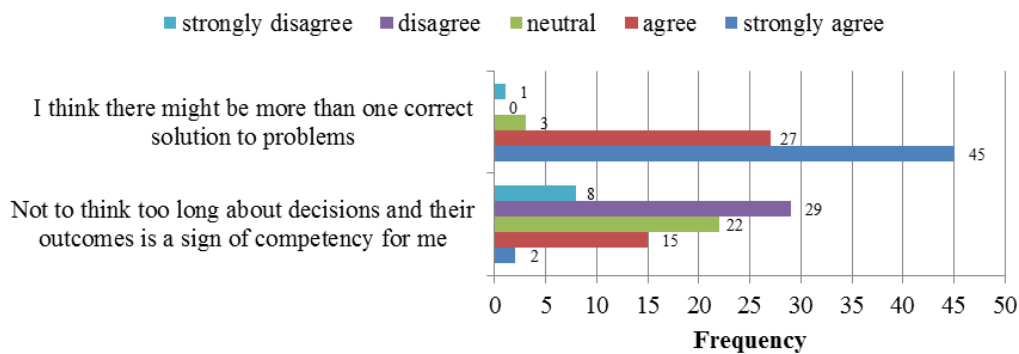
Figure 4.25 Behavioral Anchor Results for German Long-Term Orientation (N=76)

72 participants were of the opinion that usually there is more than one correct solution to a problem. Additionally, coming to a quick decision is not a sign of competency for most of the German probands.

Conclusion

To conclude, the results show that Hofstede's appraisal can only be proved right to some degree in decision-making context. His findings pertain especially for the dimension of power distance where the findings indicate a rather low power distance in case of decision-making of the German participants.

For the other dimensions Hofstede's results for the German society could not be conveyed to decision-making context. Hofstede rated the Germans as individualistic society, mostly relying on their own resources. In contrast, in this research, the Germans professed their willingness to involve colleagues in their decision-making. This indicates more groupthink than expected, but may also relate to the strong importance of participation in German business decision-making.

Also, in decision-making context the common masculine German society pays more attention to feminine values like e.g. a good feeling after making a decision. Moreover, they placed remaining true to their own values above gaining appreciation for a certain decision, which his atypical according to Hofstede's general estimation of the Germans.

The result of the uncertainty avoidance index in decision-making context also varies from Hofstede's findings. The fact, that the Germans stated to prefer their own decision-making approach rather than company regulations may result from ineffective or missing regulations in their companies as the Germans usually work very autonomous. Further, the participants stated risk-taking propensity what stands in contrast to the open question in the German decision-making behavior part, where the participants professed themselves as rather risk averse. But, as the German society in general scores a medium uncertainty avoidance, this discrepancy seems to be a good example for the diversity in uncertainty avoidance of the Germans. Especially by paying attention to the answer distribution to this question where besides agreement, also a lot neutral or refusing positions were taken.

Additonally, the by Hofstede predicted short-term orientation of the Germans cannot be transferred to decision-making context. Here it seems that the Germans take

their time to think thoroughly about their decisions. The subjects indicated their willingness to deal with problems and decisions more intense by searching more than one solution to a problem. Besides, as the Germans do not think that coming quickly to a decision is a sign of competency, they do not precipitate the decision-making. Therefore, it can be inferred that they take the time they need to examine the problem and elaborate several solutions before coming to a conclusion.

4.5 Cultural Impact on Thai Decision-Making

Hofstede classified Thailand as a country with a high power distance. With a mean score of 3.56 in decision-making context this proves Hofstede's estimation. The results of the reliability analysis of Thai PDI can be looked up in Appendix E. 10
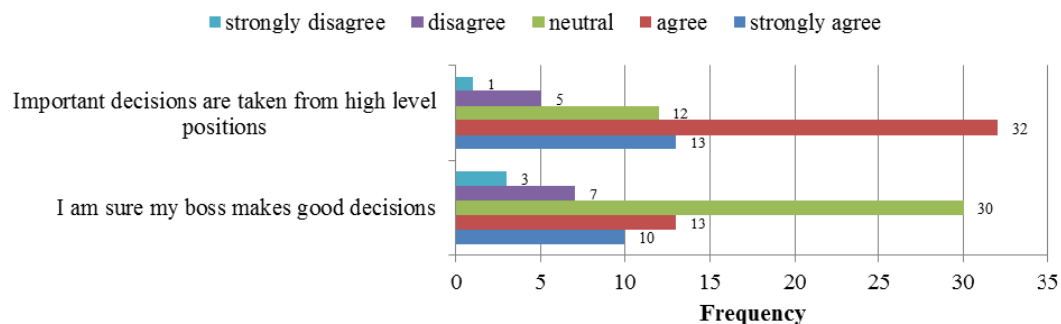
Figure 4.26 Behavioral Anchor Results for Thai Power Distance (N=63)

45 of the Thai subjects had the opinion that important decisions are taken from high level positions. Even though most of the Thai participants chose a neutral position, a lot of them (23 respondents) agreed or strongly agreed to their boss' sense for good decisions. Distinct less persons (10 subjects) disagreed or strongly disagreed.

The mean of the individualistic dimension scores 4.23, which indicates a strong individualistic tendency in decision-making. Hofstede estimated Thailand to be a collectivistic country. Appendix E.11 shows the reliability score of Thai individualism.
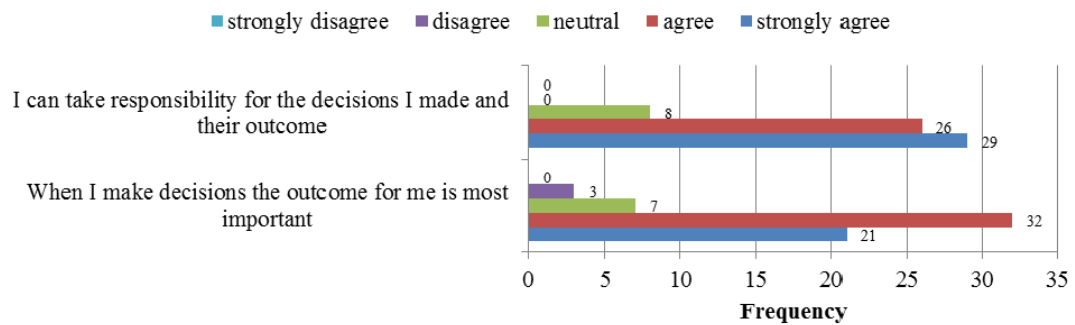
Figure 4.27 Behavioral Anchor Results for Thai Individualism (N=63)

Very clear for the respondents was the fact that they can take responsibility for the decisions they make and for their outcome. 55 subjects agreed to this statement. Contrary to the collectivistic estimation of Hofstede, most of the Thais agreed to the fact that the decision output for them (not necessarily for the group) is most important.

The Thai society is from Hofstede's position scored as a feminine country. With a mean score of 2.07 for the dimension of masculinity, this estimation can be confirmed in decision-making context. The result of the reliability analysis can be inferred from Appendix E.12.
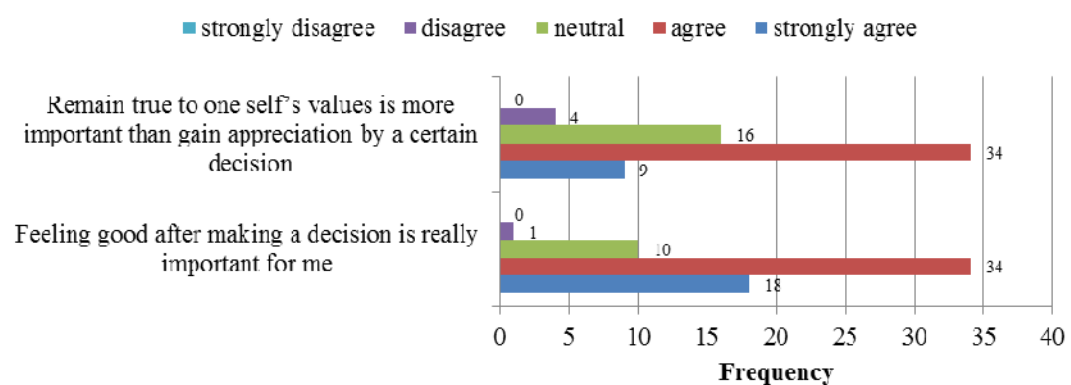
Figure 4.28 Behavioral Anchor Results for Thai Masculinity (N=63)

The majority of the Thai participants (43 respondents) agreed or strongly agreed that remaining true to their individual values is more important than gaining

appreciation for a certain decision. Further, great agreement was indicated for the good feeling after a decision what seems to be really important for the Thais.

The mean value for the uncertainty avoidance dimension scores 3.63 which indicates a preference for risk avoidance in case of decision-making. In general, Hofstede identified Thailand as a society with a moderate but existing preference for uncertainty avoidance. Appendix E.13 shows the reliability score of the Thai uncertainty avoidance statements.
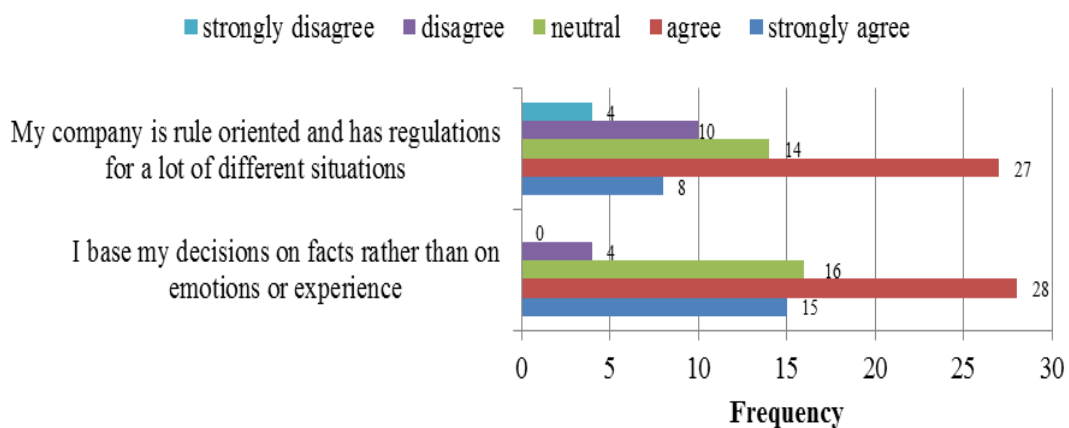
Figure 4.29 Behavioral Anchor Results for Thai Uncertainty Avoidance (N=63)

The companies of the Thai subjects seem to be quite rule oriented as 35 respondents stated that there are a lot of regulations for different situations in their company. For the preference for risk avoidance militates also that 43 participants agreed that their decisions mostly were based on facts rather than on emotions or experience.

From Hofstede's results Thailand tends to be long-term oriented. In the case of decision-making, this dimension scored a mean of 2.30 which stands in contrast to Hofstede's general findings. The results of the long-term orientation behavioral anchor's reliability analysis can be looked up in Appendix E.14.
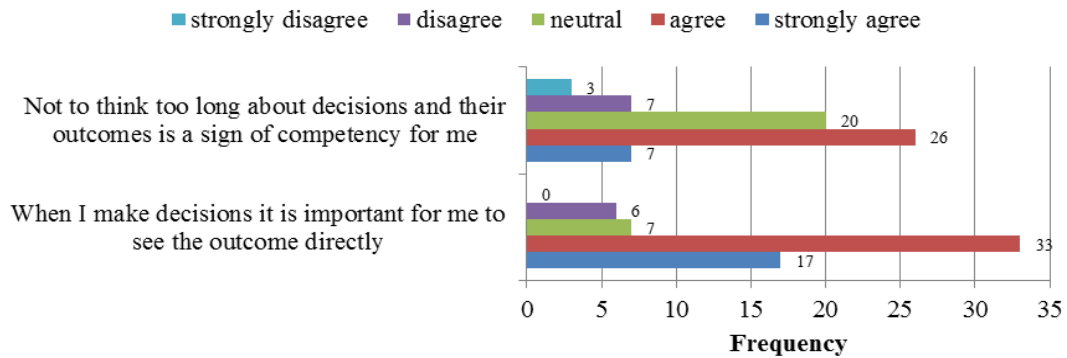
Figure 4.30 Behavioral Anchor Results for Thai Long-Term Orientation (N=63)

33 of the Thai participants stated that not to think too long about a decision and their outcomes is a sign of competency for them. Furthermore, the majority (50 subjects) professed that they want to see the outcome of their decisions directly.

Conclusion

To conclude the results of the cultural impact on decision-making, Hofstede's appraisal for the country in general needs to be linked to the actual findings for decision-making.

For the majority of the dimensions, Hofstede's results can also be proved right in the context of decision-making. Hofstede's estimation for Thai power distance was a high score. Also in decision-making context, the high power distance of the Thai participants can be deduced. The participants stated that important decisions were usually taken from high level positions. Additionally, a lot of the subjects were sure that their boss makes good decisions. These results may link to the general attitude towards hierarchies in Thailand. Employees in Thai organizations were aware of the usually strong hierarchy in their company and know that the way to suceed in business is to observe the rules of hierarchy. In return for their respect and loyalty towards their superiors, the employees experience protection and guidance and might therefore be sure that their superiors make good decisions.

Contrary to Hofstede's estimation, in decision-making context the Thais professed a very individualistic attitude. They do not hesitate to take responsibility for their decisions, but also professed that the outcome for them individually, not necessarily for the group is most important. However, the Thais still seem to be

collectivistic to some degree as they named group benefits as well as the maintaining of relationships with colleagues as really important when it comes to conflicts due to opposing goals.

For the dimension of masculinity, Thailand scores mostly feminine values for decision-making which was also proposed by Hofstede for the whole culture. Remaining true to oneselves values rather than gaining appreciation and the importance of a good feeling after making a decision indicate a feminine attitude of Thai society. Values like competitiveness and assertiveness seem also in decision-making context not as strong marked as traditional values, in this case, the own values and feelings.

The dimension of uncertainty avoidance shows a preference for uncertainty avoidance. This estimated tendency towards risk avoidance can be proved by the results of the behavioral anchors that concern the rule orientation of the Thai companies and the preferred reliance on facts rather than emotions and feelings for decision-making. This correlates with the expected need to avoid uncertainty of Thai people. They try to avoid uncertainty by adopting and implementing strict rules, laws, policies and regulations - also in business life. By relying on facts rather than on feelings and by using the established regulations it might be easier for the Thais to justify their decisions.

However, the subjects did not approve Hofstede's predicted long-term orientation of the Thais in decision-making context, but approved his results to some degree anyway as they stated a disctinct flexibility in business situations. A lot of Thais prefer not to think too long about decisions as quick decisions suggest competency to them. Additionally, they stated that seeing the outcome of decisions directly is important for them.

4.6 Descriptive Comparative Conclusion of Germany and Thailand

4.6.1 Decision-Making Behavior

In the following, by comparing the results of the research, a cross-country analysis with the dependent and independent variables will help to illuminate the differences and similarities between the two countries in decision-making context.

The characteristics are referring to the mean score of each variable. The scale of measurement indicates the score five as strong agreement whereas one stands for strong disagreement.

Table 4.3 Comparison of Rational Decision-Making Behavior

	Rational Decision-Making Process	**General Rational Decision-Making**	**Rational Decision-Making total**
Germany	3.75	3.63	3.70
Thailand	4.00	3.86	3.95

The comparison in the table shows that both sample countries have a strong endorsement for rational decision-making. Especially the in the literature described rational decision-making process is applied by participants of both sample groups. The higher mean scores of the Thais indicate an even higher practice of rational decision-making than the Germans.

Table 4.4 Comparison of Non-Rational Decision-Making Behavior

	Political Behavior	**Intuition Judg-ment**	**Intuition Expe-rience**	**Intuition Gut Feeling**	**General Non-Rational Decision -Making**	**Non-Rational Decision-Making total**
Germany	3.22	no score	3.67	3.02	3.21	3.28
Thailand	3.87	3.98	3.79	3.21	3.43	3.58

On the other hand, having a closer look to the variables of non-rational decision-making, it can be inferred that the Thais have a stronger tendency to use non-rational decision-making approaches. They scored each variable higher than the German reference group. The individual mean scores of all behavioral anchors of both samples for the dependent variables can be looked up in Appendix F.1.

In the next table the answers to qualitative questions concerning decision-making were compared by presenting the most common answers.

Table 4.5 Comparison of Decision-Making- Qualitative Results

	Most important factor for Decision-Making (Question 66)	**Opposing goals (Question 40)**	**Time restriction (Question 39)**
Germany	. Information . Feeling about decision . Outcome	. Prioritize goals . Find compromise	. Trust intuition . Involve colleagues . Evaluate all possibilities . Ask colleagues for their experience and help
Thailand	. Outcome . Information . Rationality	. Consult superior . Contact and ask colleagues for advice . Prioritization	. Contact superior what to do . Disregard limitation, keep on usual process (rational)
	Information restriction (Question 64)	**Theoretical approach for alternative evaluation (Question 41)**	**Evaluation of decision (Question 42)**
Germany	. Ask for help from colleagues . Involve superior . Further research	. SWOT . Other	. Evaluate via dialogue with colleagues . Use fixed approaches
Thailand	. Further research until they were confident . Involvement of colleagues . Involve superior	. SWOT . Own approach	. Outcome/ result . Experiences/ lessons learned

For the Germans the most important factor for decision-making is proper information. For the Thais this is the second most important factor. The Germans

further stated that their feeling about the decision is really important, followed by the outcome whereas the Thais professed the outcome as the most important factor for decision-making and named rationality for decision-making as third common answer.

In the case of opposing goals, the Germans stated most frequent trying to follow a clear structure by prioritizing and as second commonest solution the trial to find a compromise. The Thais prefer involving their superior or colleagues and ranked prioritization of the goals as third common answer.

For time restrictions at decision-making Germans firstly trust on their intuition, secondly professed the involvement of colleagues and thirdly stated to evaluate all possibilities, whereas most of the Thai participants would also contact colleagues first but secondly consult their superior for discussing the further proceeding. The third common answer of the Thais was to disregard the time restriction and keep on following the usual, rational process.

The restrictions of information make most German's contact colleagues for assistance and secondly involve their superior. As the third frequent possibility they mentioned spending more time on research to create further knowledge. However, most of the Thais professed trying to gather more information by own research, followed by the involvement of colleagues and their superior.

For the evaluation of decision-making alternatives, the results were nearly similar for both sample groups. SWOT was the most common theoretical approach followed by a lot of different methods for the Germans and the individual approach for the Thais.

The evaluation of decisions for the Germans takes place through discussions with colleagues and secondly by using fixed approaches. The Thais prefer using the output and the result as evaluation possibility followed by the experiences and lessons learned they could gather.

Conclusion

To summarize, the preference for rational decision-making of prospective managers from both countries is distinct. However, they also seem to consider non-rational approaches as well. The total mean scores were differing, but show a similar tendency to rational decision-making. In addition to that, both sample groups mostly named similar answers but gave a different priority to them. The qualitative findings

show that rationality as well as non-rationality plays an important role for prospective managers from both nations. Even though in the case of limitations mostly non-rational approaches were named, both countries seem not to reject their rationality as they also mentioned rational solutions. From those findings a combination of the rational as well as from the non-rational decision-making approaches can be inferred for Germany and Thailand. The assumption that due to the cultural differences predicted by Hofstede the decision-making behavior of both countries varies strongly cannot be proven to the same extent as the cultural differences occur.

4.6.2 Cultural Impact on Decision-Making- Literature Comparison

Further, the similarities and differences of the cultural classification in the literature and in decision-making were illuminated in the following table through the results of this study. At first, the estimation of Hofstede's dimensions from the literature (Lit.) was documented and then the mean score based on the research results of the decision-making behavior (DCM) determined as a basis for later correlations and multiple regression analysis.

Table 4.6 Comparison of Cultural Impact on Decision-Making- Qualitative Results

	PDI Lit.	PDI DCM	IND Lit.	IND DCM	MAS Lit.	MAS DCM	UCA Lit.	UCA DCM	LTO Lit.	LTO DCM
Germany	low	2.28	ind.	2.49	mas.	2.26	medium	2.53	short	3.92
Thailand	high	3.56	col.	4.23	fem.	2.07	medium	3.63	long	2.30

The German results indicate a tendency towards low power distance in decision-making context. This proves Hofstede's estimation for the culture also in decision-making context right. In contrast, Hofstede's estimation for the whole culture could not be proved right in decision-making context for the dimensions of individualism, masculinity and long-term orientation. Hofstede also assessed the Germans to have a medium preference for uncertainty avoidance, but in the case of

decision-making the findings state an uncertainty avoidance score with a tendency towards risk-taking propensity.

For Thailand, Hofstede's findings can be proved right for power distance with a high power distance characteristic and the dimension of masculinity as the Thai subjects professed a feminine attitude in decision-making context. Also the preference for risk and uncertainty avoidance can be approved for decision-making. However, from the results, the Thais seem to prefer a more individualistic way of decision-making as well as a short, rather than a long-term orientation which stands in contrast with Hofstede's estimation. The mean scores of all behavioral anchors of both samples for the independent variables can be inferred from Appendix F.2.

The following table compares the most common answers to the qualitative question concerning cultural and educational influence on decision-making.

Table 4.7 Comparison of Cultural and Educational Influence on Decision-Making

	Cultural and educational influence (Question 65)
Germany	Relationship towards hierarchies
	Higher educated people make better decisions
Thailand	Education eases decision-making
	Handling with critics, conflicts and hierarchies

Both sample groups were agreeing that education and culture influences their decision-making behavior. For the Germans the relationships towards hierarchies and the opinion that higher educated people make better decisions were the conclusions of that influence. The Thai subjects in general stated that education eases decision-making by getting a lot of helpful theoretical input and further that it influences their handling with criticism, conflicts and hierarchies.

Conclusion

To conclude, the German results with one consistent dimension characteristic for decision-making were not as conform to Hofstede's findings as the Thais results with three consistent dimension characteristics. But, for both countries there were

significant variances in Hofstede's estimations for the culture and in decision-making context. However, both sample groups concurred that culture and education has an influence on decision-making. Especially the relationships and interaction with hierarchies was one example named by both samples. This statement could be confirmed by the results from Table 4.6 where the dimension of power distance is the only dimension where Hofstede's estimation could be proved right in decision-making context for the German and Thai participants at the same time.

The first analysis part focused on the descriptive evaluation of the research findings. In the following part the statistical correlations of the cultural variables with rational and non-rational decision-making were tested by using the method of multiple regression in order to examine the impact of culture on decision-making further.

4.7 Inductive German Analysis

4.7.1 German Correlations

Table 4.8 shows the correlation results of the variables included in this study for Germany. Based on Hofstede's cultural dimensions, for the German participants PDI and IND seem to have a significant negative correlation with rational decision-making. The dimension of power distance also seems to be significantly positive related to the dimension of uncertainty avoidance. Further, uncertainty avoidance is significantly negative correlated with non-rational decision-making. It is interesting to see that the dimension of masculinity is significantly negative correlated with rational decision-making at the 0.033 level as well as with non-rational decision-making at the 0.044 level. All of the relations were low marked.

Table 4.8 Correlations of Culture and Decision-Making of German Participants

		PDI	IND	MAS	UCA	LTO	Rational	Non-Rational
PDI	Correlation Coefficient	1.000						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.						
	N	76						
IND	Correlation Coefficient	-.066	1.000					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.571	.					
	N	76	76					
MAS	Correlation Coefficient	-.026	.118	1.000				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.825	.312	.				
	N	76	76	76				
UCA	Correlation Coefficient	.246*	.019	.101	1.000			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.032	.869	.384	.			
	N	76	76	76	76			
LTO	Correlation Coefficient	-.045	-.018	-.114	-.093	1.000		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.702	.877	.328	.423	.		
	N	76	76	76	76	76		
Rational	Correlation Coefficient	-.231*	-.233*	-.245*	.017	.037	1.000	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.044	.043	.033	.886	.749	.	
	N	76	76	76	76	76	76	
Non-Rational	Correlation Coefficient	-.186	.199	-.231*	-.423**	.058	-.070	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.108	.085	.044	.000	.619	.546	.
	N	76	76	76	76	76	76	76

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

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

Further, the correlations of the dependent and independent variables were tested with the control variables age, gender, education level, working experience and the internationality of the company. The German education level is significant positive correlated to the dimension of power distance. At the 0.008 level the dimension of uncertainty avoidance correlates with the gender of the participants. Further the education level of the German participants correlates significantly with rational decision-making, whereas the age correlates significantly with non-rational decision-making. Additionally, the working experience relates strongly with the age of the participants and on a low-level with the internationality of the company as well. The correlations of all dependent and independent variables with the control variables can be inferred from Appendix G.1.

4.7.2 Multiple Linear Regression

After clarifying the relationships between the variables from the German data set, multiple regression analysis models were run to find out whether the five cultural dimensions could predict the rational and non-rational decision-making of the Germans.

At first, the variable of rational decision-making of the Germans was tested with the independent variables PDI, IND, MAS, UCA and LTO and the control variables age, gender, education level, working experience and internationality of company. The hypotheses were at first examined for rational decision-making.

Table 4.9 Multiple Regression of Culture and Rational Decision-Making of German
Participants

Model Summary					
Model	**R**	**R Square**	**Adjusted R Square**	**Std. Error of the Estimate**	
1	.670[a]	.449	.359	.41632	
ANOVA[b]					
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8.631	10	.863	4.980	.000[a]
	Residual	10.573	61	.173		
	Total	19.204	71			

Note: a. Predictors: (Constant), internationality of company, education level, IND,
PDI, gender, age, MAS, UCA, LTO, working experience

Table 4.9 (Continued)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.574	.808		4.422	.000		
	PDI	-.188	.061	-.316	-3.096	.003	.867	1.154
	IND	-.183	.059	-.297	-3.073	.003	.965	1.036
	MAS	-.212	.073	-.288	-2.905	.005	.918	1.089
	UCA	.160	.076	.219	2.095	.040	.825	1.213
	LTO	.101	.085	.122	1.178	.243	.838	1.193
	Age	.028	.030	.135	.945	.348	.443	2.258
	Gender	-.086	.110	-.081	-.780	.438	.842	1.188
	Education level	.105	.057	.199	1.825	.073	.757	1.321
	Working experience	.002	.031	.009	.067	.947	.546	1.831
	Internationality of company	-.070	.068	-.109	-1.025	.309	.791	1.264

Note: a. Dependent Variable: Rational

The multiple regression explains 44.9% of the variance of the results. The ANOVA analysis is statistically significant at 0.00 level, so the established model may be secured from accident.

Due to the results, the regression equation for rational decision-making as dependent variable reads as follows:

=-0.316 PDI -0.297 IND -0.288 MAS +0.219 UCA +0.122 LTO +0.135 Age -0.081 Gender +0.199 Education level +0.009 Working experience -0.109 Internationality of company +3.574

As the correlations of PDI, IND, MAS and UCA were significant, their influence can be further interpreted. In the case that rational decision-making rises by one unit, the power distance declines by 0.316. This indicates, the more rational people decide, the lower their power distance. For the German participants hierarchies are no obstacle, therefore the Germans do not hesitate to indicate their superiors to mistakes and signify their opinion when they are not content with their boss' decisions. Also, according to Hofstede (2014b) the German employees are used to a

direct, participative communication. Leadership is best accepted when it is based on expertise and the Germans do not hesitate to challenge their superior to show their know-how. So, the hypothesis that power distance is positively associate with rational decision-making for prospective managers from Germany can be proven right.

With the increase of rational decision-making, the German score of individualism shrinks by 0.297. That reflects that the more rational people decide, the more their success depends on the group. Most of the Germans professed to prefer discussing possible solutions with their colleagues before coming to a decision. By deciding more rational, this preference also increases. Additionally, the Germans stated to prefer making decisions with a group, rather than alone. Both statements indicate an attitude towards collectivistic decision-making with increasing rationality what stands in contrast to Hofstede's estimation for the German culture. Therefore, the second German hypothesis which contains increasing individualism with rational cannot be proved right.

Raising rationality predicts in the German decision-making case declining masculinity. The normally very materialistic and success-oriented German society seems to pay more attention to feminine values in the case of rational decision-making. Rational decision-making for only success-related reasons as ultimate goal seems less important for the Germans than their wish to be at peace with the world and their selves. These findings were contrary to Hofstede's results of masculine value shape Germans and the reason why also the third German hypothesis cannot be proved right.

Moreover, with increasing rational decision-making, the preference for uncertainty avoidance raises. The more rational the people decide, the more they follow a defined procedure - no matter if it is the process known from the literature or an individual one. This defined process eases the reaction to unpredictable and incalculable situations and therefore the uncertainty avoidance score increases by ensuring security and support in uncertain situations for the decision-makers. This result justifies the fourth German hypothesis that with increasing rationality, uncertainty avoidance raises.

In the following the multiple regression results for German non-rational decision-making behavior is described and the hypotheses were examined for non-rational decision-making behavior as well.

Table 4.10 Multiple Regression of Culture and Non-Rational Decision-Making of

German Participants

Model Summary				
Model	**R**	**R Square**	**Adjusted R Square**	**Std. Error of the Estimate**
1	.645[a]	.416	.320	.45401

ANOVA[b]						
Model		**Sum of Squares**	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
1	Regression	8.958	10	.896	4.346	.000[a]
	Residual	12.573	61	.206		
	Total	21.531	71			

Note: a. Predictors: (Constant), internationality of company, education level, IND, PDI, gender, age, MAS, UCA, LTO, working experience
   b. Dependent Variable: Non-Rational

Coefficients[a]								
Model		**Unstandardized Coefficients**		**Standardized Coefficients**			**Collinearity Statistics**	
		B	**Std. Error**	**Beta**	**t**	**Sig.**	**Tolerance**	**VIF**
1	(Constant)	2.692	.882		3.054	.003		
	PDI	-.042	.066	-.066	-.629	.531	.867	1.154
	IND	.176	.065	.270	2.711	.009	.965	1.036
	MAS	-.175	.080	-.225	-2.200	.032	.918	1.089
	UCA	-.347	.083	-.449	-4.164	.000	.825	1.213
	LTO	-.063	.093	-.072	-.677	.501	.838	1.193
	Age	.068	.033	.306	2.081	.042	.443	2.258
	Gender	.152	.120	.135	1.265	.211	.842	1.188
	Education level	.040	.063	.072	.643	.523	.757	1.321
	Working experience	-.044	.034	-.172	-1.299	.199	.546	1.831
	Internationality of company	.061	.074	.090	.816	.418	.791	1.264

Note: a. Dependent Variable: Non-Rational

According to the R square result of the multiple regression for German non-rational decision-making behavior, 41.6% of the variance can be explained through

the established model. The significant (p=0.000) value of the ANOVA analysis may secure the model against accident.

Regression equation:

= -0.066 PDI +0.270 IND -0.225 MAS -0.449 UCA -0.072 LTO +0.306 Age +0.135 Gender +0.072 Education level -0.172 working experience +0.090 Internationality of company +2.6992

The variables of individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance and the control variable age were significant. Contrary to the negative correlation with rational decision-making, in this case individualism and non-rational decision-making are positively related. The own experience and expertise seems really important in the case of non-rational decision-making and therefore forms a more individualistic than collectivistic characteristic. In this case the second German hypothesis that predicts increasing individualism with both decision-making approaches cannot be proved right for any of the decision-making approaches and therefore needs to be rejected.

With increasing non-rationality in decision-making the masculinity declines. Just like in the case of increasing rationality the German participants in general seem to tend to a more feminine attitude in decision-making, no matter which approach they prefer. Remaining true to their own values in decision-making and a good feeling afterwards appears more important to the Germans than appreciation for achievement. This result does not cover Hofstede's research results and therefore the hypothesis that masculinity is distinct cannot be proved right for both decision-making approaches.

Also in contrast to the correlation with rational decision-making, the uncertainty avoidance score declines by 0.449 with increasing non-rational decision-making. As the decision-makers do not refer to a fixed procedure and trust their own attitude, the need for the coverage of uncertainty and risks declines. With this result the Germans show a risk-taking propensity and do not cover Hofstede's results any more. Therefore the fourth German hypothesis can be proved right for both decision-making approaches.

Also non-rational decision-making is significantly predicted by the control variable age. The older the Germans are, the more they rely on non-rational decision-

making. This could be explained through the increasing working experience and the judgment they gain during the year.

4.8 Inductive Thai Analysis

4.8.1 Thai Correlations

For the Thai subjects, individualism and uncertainty avoidance seem to have a significant positive correlation with rational decision-making as can be seen in Table 4.11. Additionally, the dimension of long-term orientation is significantly negative correlated with the dependent variable non-rational decision-making. Further, a significant correlation of individualism with Hofstede's dimensions MAS (p=0.035), UCA (p=0.000) and LTO (p=0.004) in decision-making context can be inferred. Supplementary masculinity is significantly positive correlating with long-term orientation and negative in the relation to uncertainty avoidance. The dimension of power distance relates significantly with masculinity at the 0.004 level. Just like for the German results, the correlations were weakly marked except the correlation of long-term orientation and non-rational decision-making where a moderate correlation could be inferred.

Table 4.11 Correlations of Cultural Dimension and Decision-Making of Thai
Participants

		PDI	IND	MAS	UCA	LTO	Rational	Non-Rational
PDI	Correlation Coefficient	1.000						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.						
	N	63						
IND	Correlation Coefficient	.134	1.000					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.296	.					
	N	63	63					
MAS	Correlation Coefficient	-.355**	-.267*	1.000				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.035	.				
	N	63	63	63				
UCA	Correlation Coefficient	.201	.443**	-.329**	1.000			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.114	.000	.008	.			
	N	63	63	63	63			
LTO	Correlation Coefficient	-.279*	-.410**	.361**	-.170	1.000		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.027	.001	.004	.184	.		
	N	63	63	63	63	63		
Rational	Correlation Coefficient	.208	.361**	-.132	.525**	-.197	1.000	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.101	.004	.303	.000	.122	.	
Non-Rational	Correlation Coefficient	.097	.152	-.145	.170	-.295*	.054	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.448	.235	.256	.182	.019	.672	.
	N	63	63	63	63	63	63	63

Note: **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
      *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Further, all dependent and independent variables of the Thai sample were tested for correlation with control variables of the Thais. The internationality of the companies of the subjects correlates significantly positive with rational (p=0.038) as well as with non-rational decision-making (p=0.05). In addition, age and working experience also correlate significantly positive with rational decision-making. Moreover, the working experience correlates strongly at 0.00 level with the age of the participants. All correlations can be inferred from Appendix G.2.

4.8.2 Multiple Linear Regression Of Thai Results

After testing the relationships between the variables from the Thai sample, multiple regression analysis models were run to find out whether the five cultural dimensions could predict the rational and non-rational decision-making of the Thais.

Table 4.12 Multiple Regression of Culture and Rational Decision-Making of Thai Participants

		Model Summary		
Model	**R**	**R Square**	**Adjusted R Square**	**Std. Error of the Estimate**
1	.636[a]	.404	.287	.32800

		ANOVA[b]			
Model		**Sum of Squares**	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
1	Regression	3.723	10	.372	3.460	.002[a]
	Residual	5.487	51	.108		
	Total	9.209	61			

Note: a. Predictors: (Constant), internationality of company, education level, IND, PDI, gender, age, MAS, UCA, LTO, working experience

b. Dependent Variable: Rational

	Coefficients[a]							
Model	**Unstandardized Coefficients**		**Standardized Coefficients**			**Collinearity Statistics**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**Beta**	**t**	**Sig.**	**Tolerance**	**VIF**
1 (Constant)	1.958	.747		2.620	.012		
PDI	.084	.061	.172	1.388	.171	.765	1.308
IND	.111	.083	.173	1.349	.183	.706	1.416
MAS	.056	.087	.086	.645	.522	.652	1.533
UCA	.201	.063	.401	3.187	.002	.739	1.353
LTO	-.012	.070	-.023	-.166	.869	.633	1.580
Age	.015	.017	.218	.888	.379	.193	5.180
Gender	-.068	.090	-.087	-.756	.453	.890	1.124
Education level	-.046	.086	-.061	-.536	.594	.905	1.105
Working experience	-.004	.019	-.048	-.190	.850	.184	5.420
Internationality of company	.061	.056	.127	1.097	.278	.873	1.146

Note: a. Dependent Variable: Rational

According to the results of the multiple regression analysis with rational decision-making behavior of the Thais as dependent variable, 40.4% of the variance could be explained. The ANVOA analysis is significant at 0.002 level and therefore the established model may be secured from accident.

The regression equation is defined as:

$$= 0.172 \text{ PDI} + 0.173 \text{ IND} + 0.086 \text{ MAS} + 0.401 \text{ UCA} - 0.023 \text{ LTO} + 0.218 \text{ Age}$$
$$-0.087 \text{ Gender} - 0.061 \text{ Working experience} + 0.127 \text{ Internationality of company}$$
$$+1.958$$

The score of uncertainty avoidance is significant and can therefore be interpreted. By increasing rationality in decision-making, the preference for uncertainty avoidance of Thais raises as well. The Thais see their companies as very rule oriented with a lot of different regulations. They also prefer basing their decisions on facts rather than emotions. These possibilities fit to the rational decision-making process, minimize uncertainty and therefore justify the regression result as well as the ninth hypothesis that stated a positive correlation of uncertainty avoidance with rational decision-making.

Table 4.13 Multiple Regression of Culture and Non-Rational Decision-Making of

Thai Participants

Model Summary				
Model	**R**	**R Square**	**Adjusted R Square**	**Std. Error of the Estimate**
1	.565[a]	.319	.186	.45944

ANOVA[b]					
Model	**Sum of Squares**	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
Regression	5.052	10	.505	2.393	.021[a]
1 Residual	10.765	51	.211		
Total	15.817	61			

Note: a. Predictors: (Constant), internationality of company, education level,

IND, PDI, gender, age, MAS, UCA, LTO, working experience

b. Dependent Variable: Non-Rational

	Coefficients						
Model	**Unstandardized Coefficients**		**Standardized Coefficients**			**Collinearity Statistics**	
	B	**Beta**		**t**	**Sig.**	**Tolerance**	**VIF**
1 (Constant)	3.714	1.046		3.549	.001		
PDI	.036	.085	.055	.418	.678	.765	1.308
IND	-.030	.116	-.035	-.256	.799	.706	1.416
MAS	-.075	.122	-.088	-.615	.541	.652	1.533
UCA	.164	.088	.249	1.850	.070	.739	1.353
LTO	-.211	.099	-.311	-2.142	.037	.633	1.580
Age	-.010	.024	-.109	-.414	.681	.193	5.180
Gender	.095	.125	.093	.760	.451	.890	1.124
Education Level	-.011	.121	-.012	-.095	.925	.905	1.105
Working experience	.002	.027	.022	.080	.937	.184	5.420
Internationality of Company	.174	.078	.276	2.234	.030	.873	1.146

The variance of Thai non-rational decision-making can be explained with a percentage of 31.9 by the established model. At 0.021 level the ANOVA analysis is significant what may secure the model from accident.

Regression equation:

= 0.055 PDI -0.035 IND -0.088 MAS +0.249 UCA -0.311 LTO -0.109 Age -0.093 Gender -0.012 Education level +0.022 Working Experience +0.276 Internationality of company +3.714

The variables of long-term orientation and internationality were significant and can therefore be further interpreted. By increasing non-rationality the decision orientation turns to short-term orientation. A lot of the Thai subjects professed that quick decisions are a sign of competency for them. Also, they stated wanting to see the outcomes of their decisions immediately. Through these findings it seems that Thais focus strongly on the present rather than on the future. But, as following the process of rational decision-making takes some time and is not spontaneous, non-rational decision-making with reliance on judgment and experience could therefore be preferred. These results are not covering Hofstede's predictions and therefore the tenth hypothesis that the Thais' rational decision-making correlates positively with long-term orientation cannot be proved right.

The more international the companies operate, the more Thais decide non-rational. As the Thais have a preference for uncertainty avoidance, also in local companies a lot of regulations and policies were passed. This addictedness to rules seems to decline by working in an international operating company as the Thais might explore more freedom how to make their decisions. Especially in companies from countries with a low power distance, hierarchies were flat and regulations often are more flexible than in companies from high power distance countries. So, it is conceivable that the Thais take advantage of this gained independence and therefore use rather non-rational than rational approaches. Alternatively, in an international environment the local regulations and structures may not be applicable any more. Therefore, the Thais may tend more to non-rational decision-making, the more international their companies are operating.

4.9 Inductive Comparative Conclusion of Germany and Thailand

The inductive analysis of the study results did not bring many similarities of common cultural dimensions, influencing the decision-making behavior of both sample groups.

Table 4.14 Comparison of Correlating Cultural Dimensions

	Correlating Cultural Dimension		Correlating Control Variables	
	Germany	Thailand	Germany	Thailand
Rational Decision-Making	PDI IND MAS UCA	UCA	-	-
Non-Rational Decision-Making	IND UCA	LTO	Age	Internationality of Company

Whereas the dimension of uncertainty avoidance influences rational decision-making in Germany and in Thailand, the other influencing dimensions differ. The dimension of uncertainty avoidance was also the only one that was almost similar marked by Hofstede's research results. German rational decision-making behavior seems to be influenced by four out of five cultural dimensions whereas for the Thais only uncertainty avoidance could be significantly related to rational decision-making.

The German non-rational decision-making behavior is influenced by the dimension of individualism and uncertainty avoidance in the reverse way than rational decision-making. Additionally, the control variable age is significant correlated to the German non-rational decision-making behavior. The Thai non-rational decision-making behavior is influenced by only one cultural dimension, long-term orientation and the control variable internationality of company.

As the control variables of gender or educational qualification do not show a significant correlation, neither to German, nor to Thai decision-making behavior, the

differences of the participant's characteristics like for example the reverse gender distribution, do not seem to play an important role for this research.

Though the correlations of the cultural dimensions and decision-making were rather weak, according to these results, the Germans decision-making behavior seems to be influenced by more diversified cultural characteristics than the Thai decision-making behavior.

According to these results the following German hypothesis can be proved holistically right:

(4) Uncertainty avoidance is positively correlating with rational decision-making but negatively related to non-rational decision-making.

Additionally, the following hypothesis for the German prospective managers can be proved right to some degree (only for rational decision-making):

(1) Power distance is negatively associate with both rational and non-rational decision-making for prospective managers from Germany.

For the Thais no hypothesis can be holistically proved right. But, the following hypothesis can at least to some degree be proved right (only for rational decision-making):

(9) Uncertainty avoidance is positively correlating with rational decision-making, but negatively associate with non-rational decision-making.

The other developed hypotheses need according to the results to be rejected (hypothesis number (2), (3), (10)) or could not be verified as there were no significant results for the correlation of the dimension and rational or non-rational decision-making, respectively (hypothesis number (5), (6), (7), (8)).

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study examined the decision-making behavior of prospective managers from Germany and Thailand. It also investigated the influence of culture on the business decision-making process by testing Hofstede's cultural dimensions correlation with rational or non-rational decision-making, respectively.

5.1 Conclusions

5.1.1 Research Question 1: Decision-Making Behavior

The results show that the decision-making behavior of both sample groups generally can be described as rational. Prospective managers from Germany and Thailand try to exclude feelings from their decisions in general and follow a clear structure in order to make their decisions justifiable and comprehensible to others.

However, as decisions in the future will be increasingly determined by limitations which set boundaries to rationality, the importance of non-rational decision-making will raise further. It could be inferred from the findings that in these situations, the accessibility for external influence e.g. through colleagues or superior rises in both countries. Also the impact of emotions could be identified as important. "Rationality is bounded by emotions and, in any case, emotions cannot be separated from rationality in either personal or business decision-making." (Das, 2008, p. 1).

Just like the research of Isenberg (1984) and Burke and Miller (1999 quoted in Sinclair, & Ashkanasy, 2005) proved, in case of limitations or uncertain situations decision-makers tend to use non-rational approaches like intuition or experience in conjunction with rational analysis. By the results of this study, this conjunction could also be inferred for prospective managers from Germany and from Thailand. In the case of limitations, emotions and experiences seem strongly to affect the normally rational decision-making behavior of prospective managers from both countries.

However, they do not totally reject their rational decision-making, but rather combine it with non-rational decision-making approaches.

In the following part, the findings for the second research question, the cultural impact on decision-making is summarized.

5.1.2 Research Question 2: Cultural Impact on Decision-Making

It was more difficult than expected to draw the correlation of each cultural dimension on decision-making. The findings of the research indicate that the cultural impact on decision-making behavior is not as strong as it could have been expected through the differences in the national culture. Also the similarities to Hofstede's research results were not easy to draw as only to some degree the characteristics of the dimensions were applicable to decision-making context.

The influencing cultural dimensions vary a lot between both countries with the exception of uncertainty avoidance what influences according to the result of the multiple regressions German and Thai rational decision-making behavior. The German uncertainty avoidance hypothesis (number four) was also the only one that could be holistically proven right for the Germans. Also hypothesis number nine, relating to the Thai uncertainty avoidance could at least to some degree (rational decision-making) be proven right as well. However, the findings of this research gave the impression that the different influences of the particular cultural dimensions on an almost similar decision-making behavior relate to other factors like age or internationality of the company as well.

Based on the results of this study, it can be concluded that to some degree culture does have an impact on business decision-making of prospective managers from Germany and Thailand, but not in the extent that could have been expected through the cultural differences from Hofstede's cultural dimensions model.

5.2 Implications to Management

The study findings are relevant for practitioners of collaborating companies of Germany and Thailand. Employees that have to operate in an international environment could benefit from the findings how decision-making takes place in both examined countries and which influence culture has on decision-making. They could use this knowledge to estimate the decision-making behavior of business partners in order to be more successful in the future.

At first, international operating managers should be aware of the cultural differences of the countries they are working with and know the cultural specifies. Even though prospective managers from both countries state to decide mostly rational, practitioners need to avoid a generalization of the behavior of prospective managers of Germany and Thailand. Having a closer look at the decision-making behavior in the case of limitations e.g. time or information restrictions, especially prospective managers from Thailand tend stronger than Germans to non-rational decision-making behavior. Nonetheless also German prospective managers are likely to rely on non-rational techniques. Managers should make sure that enough time and appropriate information is provided in order to keep the decision-making process as rational and therefore replicable as possible. In this context practitioners also need to realize that not all knowledge is universal, it varies across cultures. Therefore, differences in kind of information or amount of time need to be considered as well.

Further, as rational decision-making aims to choose the alternative that allows the maximization of benefits, companies usually prefer rational decision-making of their employees. But, practitioners should keep in mind that their companies might also profit from a good intuition based on experience as this might ease rational decision-making for example through a better selection and weighting of alternative solutions.

To influence the German's decision-making behavior in a more rational way, it is recommendable for practitioners to keep the power distance in the business environment low. Flat hierarchies, an open communicative corporate culture and participation are possible measurements. A strengthening of groupthink could influence prospective German managers to more rational decision-making as well.

Moreover, in the case that values like caring for each other or a distinct work-life balance rather than assertiveness and achievements were related to the corporate culture, the rationality in decision-making could be influenced in a positive way. Fixing decision-making policies and regulations can help to extend rational decision-making. On the other hand non-rational decision-making could be reduced by setting the already mentioned regulations and avoid decisions as solo actions.

The Thai decision-making behavior can be influenced to a more rational way by setting regulations and policies that help to deal with uncertain situations. To lessen non-rational decision-making behavior of Thai prospective managers, especially characteristics that influence the dimension of long-term orientation should be considered. The company could therefore strengthen strategic way of thinking and emphasize the importance of perseverance and persistence for sustainable success in business.

Furthermore, it is necessary for practitioners not only to focus on the influence of culture on decision-making, but also on other influencing variables like age of the decision-makers or the internationality of the company.

To conclude, even though decision-making behavior in both countries has similar tendencies practitioners need to avoid a unification of decision-making across cultures. Similarities in decision-making do not automatically imply similar behavior in other contents. It always should be considered that the cultural background is distinctly different. The ideas, customs, and social behavior of the particular people still differ - this might lead to different reactions of prospective managers from Germany and Thailand in various business situations.

5.3 Limitations and Future Research

The results of this study cannot be considered as conclusive, but they could provide an exploratory approach to examine decision-making behavior in Germany and Thailand and to investigate the influence of culture on the decision-making behavior.

First of all, the participants included in this study came from limited regions in the two countries and mostly belonged to similar universities. So, further studies should focus more on a regional and educational diversity to get more insights and make the results more definitive. In this context it also would be helpful to translate the research questionnaire in the native languages, especially to German and Thai to ensure understandability of the participants. Further the sample groups should be extended to a larger number of subjects from both countries.

In this research, a lot of the designed behavioral anchors later needed to be excluded due to weak reliability. The future research questionnaire should therefore be containing more behavioral anchors for each cultural dimension. As culture is very complex and it is hard to create suitable behavioral anchors, the validity and reliability should be checked regularly in order to intervene in time.

Further, this research posed a lot of new questions that are worthwhile to be further examined. As Elbanna (2006) already mentioned there is only very little empirical research on non-rational decision-making and especially the influence of intuition. It could be interesting to examine these aspects further in order to give recommendations to practitioners how to deal with non-rational decision-making as uncontrollable factor. Moreover, it could be useful to know more about the correlation and conjunction of non-rational and rational decision-making indeed has.

In this research, quantitative methods were used. Future research could therefore focus on qualitative methods like interviews with experiences executives of multinational companies located in both countries to investigate how decision-making takes place by experienced employees and also to examine how they see prospective managers from different cultures in business decision-making situations.

Contrary to the expectations in the beginning, the former research of cultural effects on decision-making was not extensive. It was especially difficult to find

similar former research results that cover all of Hofstede's dimensions. For the dimensions of power distance and individualism applicable research results were found, but more attention in future research could be paid to the other cultural dimensions and their influence on decision-making. Also the underlying circumstances should be considered in further research. For example, as through the Internet and globalization borders get more flexible and culture changes faster, the examination of these factors and their influence on decision-making could be potentially important as well. Further, not only the influence of national culture, but also of corporate culture on decision-making could be interesting and therefore focused in future research.

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APPENDIX A

METHODS CHARACTERISTICS

Characteristics	Data
Population	200 possible participants were taken into consideration
Sample	76 German and 63 Thai respondents
Methodology	Standardized questionnaire with quantitative and qualitative elements to figure out how prospective from Germany and Thailand describe their business decision-making and which influence do cultural aspects have on the decision-making procedure.
Survey procedure	Try to create acceptance for questionnaire by introducing myself personally to potential subjects Forwarding the questionnaire with processing instructions and important information via e-mail and social networks to potential subjects After 7 days sending an e-mail reminder to maintain awareness to the questionnaire After termination of the survey period finishing of data collection.
Period of survey	02.-23.03.2014
Location of survey	Centrally controlled data collection, subjects of sample were distributed all over Germany and Thailand
Evaluation	Mainly using descriptive statistical methods with help of Microsoft Excel and statistical software SPSS. Subsequent interpretation of the results.

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

The Impact of Cultural Differences on Business Decision Making of prospective Thai and German Managers

The purpose of this survey is to identify the Cultural Impact on Business Decision Making of prospective Thai and German managers.

The participants of the questionnaire will not be identified and the collected data is strictly confidential. The collected data will be analyzed and used to identify a possible correlation of Cultural Differences and Business Decision Making. The survey contains questions to your personal Business Decision Making Behavior and to the experiences you gained during your education and professional experience.

The questionnaire will take approximately 10-15 minutes. Please read the particular questions intently and answer faithfully.

Thank you in advance.

Best regards,
Anna Ahnert

Part I: Personal Data

1.   **What is your home country?**

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                                                           │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

2.   **Age**

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                                                           │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

3.   **Gender**

☐   female
☐   male

4.   **What is your highest education qualification?**

☐   Bachelor
☐   Master
☐   Ph.D
     Others:

5.   **In which country did you study?**

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                                                           │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

6.   **How many years of working experience do you have?**

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                                                           │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

Company Aspects

If you are not working at the moment, please refer to your last employer.

7. How many employees work in your company?

8. Is your company operating international?

☐ no

☐ yes, in various countries

☐ yes, worldwide

9. Is your company a subsidiary of another company?

☐ yes

☐ no

10. What kind of position do you have?

11. For how many years do you work in this company?

12. For how many companies have you been working before?

Part II: Business Decision Making

The following part deals with statements about your Business Decision Making in general.

Please rate the following statements on scale 1-5 where:

1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, 5=fully agree

13. I try to make my decisions rationally

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

14. I would like to benefit from my bosses experience when I have to make decisions

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

I try to identify facts that support my decision

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

15. In my company exist conflicting goals of executive managers what leads to difficulties in decision making

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

16. Even though I know what I want I seek for alternatives/alternative solutions

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

17. For making business decisions I try to stay free of emotions

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

18. I like to use fixed approaches such as the SWOT analysis to deal with the decision making process

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

19. I consider risks and advantages as an outcome of my decision

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

20. I often use my gut feeling* to make decisions

*If you have a gut feeling, you sense something about a person or a situation, without knowing why, but you're sure what you sense is true.

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

21. My education influences my style of decision making

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

22. I have a clear structure to get to a decision

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

23. When there is no clear concept for decision making I would like to use a database to search for precedents or former similar decisions/projects to this topic

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

24. I prefer making decisions on my own rather than with a group

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

25. I trust on my emotions and first intuition for decision making

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

26. The more important the decision that has to be made is, the more I rely on my intuition

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

27. To avoid internal problems, each decision should be reviewed by a hierarchical higher ranked manager

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

28. I truly rely on my expertise and personal experience for making a decision

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

29. The process of how decisions should be made needs to be clearly defined in a company

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

30. I rather like to trust on my own way of decision making than on a fixed procedure

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

31. I evaluate my ideas

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

32. I consider each alternative for a decision as an equal possible solution when the facts approve this

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

33. Because of our experience, employees like me or my colleagues are able to make business relevant decisions

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

34. Decision makers in my company should work for several years and should have a huge expertise

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

35. The more important a decision is, the more I rely on fixed approaches
(theoretical approaches like SWOT analysis, regulations of my company)

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

36. I have a good intuition for making decisions

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

37. I can justify my decisions with facts that everybody can retrace

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

Business Decision Making

The following section deals with open questions to your Business Decision Making behavior.

38. What do you do when you do not have much time to make a decision?

| |
| |
| |
| |
| |

39. What do you do when opposing goals affect decision making?

| |
| |
| |

40. **If you use tools or theoretical approaches for your decision making, which tool do you prefer for evaluation your decision alternatives? (e.g. SWOT, own approach)**

41. **How do you evaluate your decisions?**

Part III: Cultural Impact on Business Decision Making

The following part contains statements about the Cultural Impact on Business

Decision Making behavior of you, as prospective business executives.

Please rate the following statements on scale 1-5 where:

1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, 5=fully agree

42. **I feel more comfortable when I can involve higher ranked persons in my decision making process**

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

43. **Remain true to one self's values is more important than gain appreciation by a certain decision**

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

44. When I make decisions it is important for me to see the outcome directly

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 fully agree

45. I am sure my boss makes good decisions

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 fully agree

46. I base my decisions on facts rather than on emotions or experience

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 fully agree

47. I think there might be more than one correct solution to problems

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 fully agree

48. When I make decisions the outcome for me is most important

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 fully agree

49. Before making decisions I prefer discussing possible solutions with my colleagues

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 fully agree

50. I can take responsibility for the decisions I made and their outcome

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 fully agree

51. I feel responsible for the results/outcomes of my colleagues decisions

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 fully agree

52. In my company both gender were treated equal and have the same rights to make relevant decisions when they are in the same position

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

53. When I am not content with a decision of my boss I will tell him

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

54. I am not afraid of making decisions, that are not accepted by everybody

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

55. Not to think too long about decisions and their outcomes is a sign of competency for me

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

56. If I recognize that my boss makes mistakes and provides wrong information for a decision making I will indicate him to his fault

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

57. My company is rule oriented and has regulations for a lot of different situations

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

58. I do not avoid risky decisions

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

59. **I prefer my own decision making approach than revert to regulations for making decisions of my company**

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

60. **Feeling good after making a decision is really important for me**

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

61. **Important decisions are taken from high level positions**

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

62. **I prefer planning for the future, therefore I make decisions whose outcome can first be seen in some time**

strongly disagree   1   2   3   4   5   fully agree

Cultural Impact on Business Decision Making

The following section deals with open questions to the Cultural Impact on Business Decision Making.

63. **What do you do when there is not enough required information for decision making?**

| |
| |
| |
| |
| |

64. **Do you have the feeling that your culture and education affects your decision making? How?**

65. **What is the most important factor when making your decision?**

Thank you very much for your support!!

APPENDIX C

EVALUABLE MEASUREMENTS

Table C.1 Evaluable Measurements of Cultural Dimensions

Dimension	Evaluable Measurement for Thailand	Evaluable Measurement for Germany
Power Distance	Question 46 (high)	Question 54 (low)
	Question 62 (high)	Question 57 (low)
Individualism	Question 49 (ind)	Question 25 (ind)
	Question 51 (ind)	Question 50 (col)
Masculinity	Question 44 (fem)	Question 44 (fem)
	Question 61 (fem)	Question 61 (fem)
Uncertainty avoidance	Question 47 (high)	Question 59 (low)
	Question 58 (high)	Question 60 (low)
Long-term orientation	Question 45 (short)	Question 48 (long)
	Question 56 (short)	Question 56 (short)

Table C.2 Evaluable Measurements for Rational Decision-Making Process

Step	Measurement for Thailand	Measurement for Germany
Problem definition		
Identification of decision criteria	Question 15	Question 15
Weighting of criteria	Question 32	Question 32
Generate alternatives		Question 17
	Question 19	Question 19
Evaluate alternatives	Question 20	Question 20
	Question 33	Question 33

Select optimal solution	Question 38	Question 38

Table C.3 Evaluable Measurements for Decision-Making Behavior

Measurement for Thailand	Measurement for Germany
Question 13 (rational)	Question 13 (rational)
Question 18 (rational)	Question 18 (rational)
Question 23 (rational)	Question 23 (rational)
Question 27 (non-rational)	Question 27 (non-rational)
Question 31 (non-rational)	Question 31 (non-rational)
Question 36 (rational)	Question 36 (rational)
Question 37 (non-rational)	Question 37 (non-rational)

Table C.4 Evaluable Measurements for Decision-Making Behavior

Non-Rational Decision-Making Aspects	Measurement for Thailand	Measurement for Germany
Political behavior	Question 28	Question 16
Intuition Judgment	Question 24	
Intuition Experience	Question 29	Question 29
	Question 34	Question 34
Intuition Gut feeling	Question 21	Question 21
	Question 26	Question 26

APPENDIX D

POSITIONS OF PARTICIPANTS

Table D.1 Positions of German Participants

Position	Frequency	Percent
Intern	19	26.03%
Consultant	12	16.44%
Working Student	6	8.22%
Clerical Employee	6	8.22%
Trainee	4	5.48%
Founder/CEO	4	5.48%
Position in HR	3	4.11%
Position in Purchasing	3	4.11%
Process Manager	2	2.74%
Developer	2	2.74%
Position in Marketing	2	2.74%
Position in Sales	2	2.74%
Key Account Manager	2	2.74%
Supervisor	2	2.74%
Others	2	2.74%
Product Manager	1	1.37%
Project Manager	1	1.37%
Total	**73**	100.00%

Table D.2 Positions of Thai Participants

Position	Frequency	Percent
Clerical Employee	9	16.07%
Assistant Manager	8	14.29%
Supervisor	7	12.50%
Other	7	12.50%
Position in Marketing	5	8.93%
Secretary	4	7.14%
Engineer	4	7.14%
Founder	3	5.36%
Consultant	2	3.57%
Project Manager	2	3.57%
Research Analyst	2	3.57%
Position in Sales	1	1.79%
Intern	1	1.79%
Position in HR	1	1.79%
Total	**56**	100.00%

APPENDIX E

RELIABLILITY STATISTICS

Table E.1 Reliability Statistics of German Rational Decision-Making

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.766	11

Table E.2 Reliability Statistics of German Non-Rational Decision-Making

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.714	8

Table E.3 Reliability Statistics of Thai Rational Decision-Making

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.656	10

Table E.4 Reliability Statistics of Thai Non-Rational Decision-Making

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.713	9

Table E.5 Reliability Statistics of German PDI

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.715	2

Table E.6 Reliability Statistics of German IND

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.644	2

Table E.7 Reliability Statistics of German MAS

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.250	2

Table E.8 Reliability Statistics of German UCA

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.493	2

Table E.9 Reliability Statistics of German LTO

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.268	2

Table E.10 Reliability Statistics of Thai PDI

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.466	2

Table E.11 Reliability Statistics of Thai IND

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.495	2

Table E.12 Reliability Statistics of Thai MAS

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.430	2

Table E.13 Reliability Statistics of Thai UCA

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.431	2

Table E.14 Reliability Statistics of Thai LTO

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.427	2

APPENDIX F

MEAN SCORE COMPARISONS

Table F.1 Comparisons of All Decision-Making Behavioral Anchors (Germany
N=76, Thai N=63)

Variable	Behavioral Anchor	In which country did you study?	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Rational decision-making	For making business decisions I try to stay free of emotions	Germany	3.80	.980	.112
		Thailand	3.83	.834	.105
	I try to make my decisions rationally	Germany	4.17	.737	.085
		Thailand	4.38	.658	.083
	I try to identify facts that support my decision	Germany	3.80	.980	.112
		Thailand	3.83	.834	.105
	I can justify my decisions with facts that everybody can retrace	Germany	4.26	.839	.096
		Thailand	4.46	.618	.078
	I like to use fixed approaches such as the SWOT analysis to deal with the decision-making process	Germany	3.86	.795	.091
		Thailand	3.73	.677	.085
	I consider risks and advantages as an outcome of my decision	Germany	2.82	1.092	.125
		Thailand	3.44	.929	.117
	Even though I know what I want I seek for alternatives/alternative solutions	Germany	4.16	.767	.088
		Thailand	4.11	.845	.106
	I have a clear structure to get to a decision	Germany	3.58	1.010	.116
		Thailand	3.94	.840	.106
	I evaluate my ideas	Germany	3.30	1.083	.124
		Thailand	3.68	.820	.103
	I consider each alternative for a decision as an equal possible solution when the facts approve this	Germany	3.87	.943	.108
		Thailand	4.17	.730	.092
	The more important a decision is, the more I rely on fixed approaches	Germany	3.25	1.021	.117
		Thailand	3.54	.964	.121
Non-rational decision-making	I rather like to trust on my own way of decision-making than on a fixed procedure	Germany	3.45	.885	.102
		Thailand	3.48	1.014	.128
	I have a good intuition for making decisions	Germany	3.64	.905	.104
		Thailand	3.67	.741	.093

Table F.1 (Continued)

Variable	Behavioral anchor	In which country did you study?	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Non-rational decision-making	The more important the decision that has to be made is, the more I rely on my intuition	Germany	2.53	1.000	.115
		Thailand	3.16	1.050	.132
	My education influences my style of decision-making	Germany	3.91	.867	.099
		Thailand	4.10	.946	.119
	To avoid internal problems, each decision should be reviewed by a hierarchical higher ranked manager	Germany	2.86	1.128	.129
		Thailand	3.87	.942	.119
	In my company exist conflicting goals of executive managers what leads to difficulties in decision-making	Germany	3.22	1.127	.129
		Thailand	3.78	.888	.112
	The process of how decisions should be made needs to be clearly defined in a company	Germany	3.26	1.075	.123
		Thailand	4.14	.800	.101
	When there is no clear concept for decision-making I would like to use a database to search for precedents or former similar decisions/projects to this topic	Germany	3.28	1.196	.137
		Thailand	3.98	1.039	.131
	I would like to benefit from my bosses experience when I have to make decisions	Germany	3.82	.828	.095
		Thailand	3.92	.768	.097
	I truly rely on my expertise and personal experience for making a decision	Germany	3.71	.763	.087
		Thailand	3.81	.692	.087
	Because of our experience, employees like me or my colleagues are able to make business relevant decisions	Germany	3.64	.948	.109
		Thailand	3.78	.792	.100
	I often use my gut feeling* to make decisions	Germany	3.05	1.018	.117
		Thailand	3.27	1.066	.134
	I trust on my emotions and first intuition for decision-making	Germany	2.99	1.013	.116
		Thailand	3.16	1.035	.130
	Decision-makers in my company should	Germany	3.50	1.114	.128

work for several years and should have a huge expertise	Thailand	3.84	.884	.111

Table F.2 Comparisons of All Culture Related Behavioral Anchors (Germany N=76, Thai N=63)

Variable	Behavioral anchor	In which country did you study?	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PDI	I feel more comfortable when I can involve higher ranked persons in my decision-making process	Germany	3.59	1.009	.116
		Thailand	3.87	.889	.112
	I am sure my boss makes good decisions	Germany	3.05	.965	.111
		Thailand	3.32	1.029	.130
	Important decisions are taken from high level positions	Germany	3.59	1.073	.123
		Thailand	3.81	.913	.115
	If I recognize that my boss makes mistakes and provides wrong information for a decision-making I will indicate him to his fault	Germany	3.76	.936	.107
		Thailand	3.48	1.105	.139
	When I am not content with a decision of my boss I will tell him	Germany	3.67	.999	.115
		Thailand	3.78	.991	.125
IND	When I make decisions the outcome for me is most important	Germany	3.67	1.063	.122
		Thailand	4.13	.793	.100
	I can take responsibility for the decisions I made and their outcome	Germany	4.28	.759	.087
		Thailand	4.33	.696	.088
	I prefer making decisions on my own rather than with a group	Germany	2.91	1.035	.119
		Thailand	2.97	1.031	.130
	Before making decisions I prefer discussing possible solutions with my colleagues	Germany	3.92	.963	.110
		Thailand	4.32	.692	.087
	I feel responsible for the results/outcomes of my colleagues decisions	Germany	3.01	1.137	.130
		Thailand	3.90	.797	.100

Table F.2 (Continued)

Variable	Behavioral anchor	In which country did you study?	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
MAS	Feeling good after making a decision is really important for me	Germany	3.79	.998	.114
		Thailand	4.10	.712	.090
	In my company both gender were treated equal and have the same rights to make relevant decisions when they are in the same position	Germany	4.33	.985	.113
		Thailand	3.98	.992	.125
	I am not afraid of making decisions, that are not accepted by everybody	Germany	3.72	1.015	.116
		Thailand	3.73	.987	.124
	Remain true to one self's values is more important than gain appreciation by a certain decision	Germany	3.68	.927	.106
		Thailand	3.76	.777	.098
UCA	I base my decisions on facts rather than on emotions or experience	Germany	3.59	.867	.099
		Thailand	3.86	.859	.108
	My company is rule oriented and has regulations for a lot of different situations	Germany	3.21	1.310	.150
		Thailand	3.40	1.100	.139
	I do not avoid risky decisions	Germany	3.42	.928	.106
		Thailand	3.22	1.114	.140
	I prefer my own decision-making approach than revert to regulations for making decisions of my company	Germany	3.51	.808	.093
		Thailand	3.17	.814	.103
LTO	When I make decisions it is important for me to see the outcome directly	Germany	3.24	1.005	.115
		Thailand	3.97	.879	.111
	Not to think too long about decisions and their outcomes is a sign of competency for me	Germany	2.66	1.001	.115
		Thailand	3.43	.995	.125
	I think there might be more than one correct solution to problems	Germany	4.51	.702	.081
		Thailand	4.44	.778	.098
	I prefer planning for the future, therefore I make decisions whose outcome can first be seen in some time	Germany	3.45	.870	.100
		Thailand	3.95	.831	.105

APPENDIX F

MEAN SCORE COMPARISONS

Table F.1 Comparisons of All Decision-Making Behavioral Anchors (Germany
N=76, Thai N=63)

Variable	Behavioral Anchor	In which country did you study?	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
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		Thailand	3.83	.834	.105
	I try to make my decisions rationally	Germany	4.17	.737	.085
		Thailand	4.38	.658	.083
	I try to identify facts that support my decision	Germany	3.80	.980	.112
		Thailand	3.83	.834	.105
	I can justify my decisions with facts that everybody can retrace	Germany	4.26	.839	.096
		Thailand	4.46	.618	.078
	I like to use fixed approaches such as the SWOT analysis to deal with the decision-making process	Germany	3.86	.795	.091
		Thailand	3.73	.677	.085
	I consider risks and advantages as an outcome of my decision	Germany	2.82	1.092	.125
		Thailand	3.44	.929	.117
	Even though I know what I want I seek for alternatives/alternative solutions	Germany	4.16	.767	.088
		Thailand	4.11	.845	.106
	I have a clear structure to get to a decision	Germany	3.58	1.010	.116
		Thailand	3.94	.840	.106
	I evaluate my ideas	Germany	3.30	1.083	.124
		Thailand	3.68	.820	.103
	I consider each alternative for a decision as an equal possible solution when the facts approve this	Germany	3.87	.943	.108
		Thailand	4.17	.730	.092
	The more important a decision is, the more I rely on fixed approaches	Germany	3.25	1.021	.117
		Thailand	3.54	.964	.121
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		Thailand	3.48	1.014	.128
	I have a good intuition for making decisions	Germany	3.64	.905	.104
		Thailand	3.67	.741	.093

Table F.1 (Continued)

Variable	Behavioral anchor	In which country did you study?	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
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		Thailand	4.14	.800	.101
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		Thailand	3.98	1.039	.131
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	Because of our experience, employees like me or my colleagues are able to make business relevant decisions	Germany	3.64	.948	.109
		Thailand	3.78	.792	.100
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		Thailand	3.27	1.066	.134
	I trust on my emotions and first intuition for decision-making	Germany	2.99	1.013	.116
		Thailand	3.16	1.035	.130
	Decision-makers in my company should work for several years and should have a huge expertise	Germany	3.50	1.114	.128
		Thailand	3.84	.884	.111

Table F.2 Comparisons of All Culture Related Behavioral Anchors (Germany N=76, Thai N=63)

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		Thailand	3.87	.889	.112
	I am sure my boss makes good decisions	Germany	3.05	.965	.111
		Thailand	3.32	1.029	.130
	Important decisions are taken from high level positions	Germany	3.59	1.073	.123
		Thailand	3.81	.913	.115
	If I recognize that my boss makes mistakes and provides wrong information for a decision-making I will indicate him to his fault	Germany	3.76	.936	.107
		Thailand	3.48	1.105	.139
	When I am not content with a decision of my boss I will tell him	Germany	3.67	.999	.115
		Thailand	3.78	.991	.125
IND	When I make decisions the outcome for me is most important	Germany	3.67	1.063	.122
		Thailand	4.13	.793	.100
	I can take responsibility for the decisions I made and their outcome	Germany	4.28	.759	.087
		Thailand	4.33	.696	.088
	I prefer making decisions on my own rather than with a group	Germany	2.91	1.035	.119
		Thailand	2.97	1.031	.130
	Before making decisions I prefer discussing possible solutions with my colleagues	Germany	3.92	.963	.110
		Thailand	4.32	.692	.087
	I feel responsible for the results/outcomes of my colleagues decisions	Germany	3.01	1.137	.130
		Thailand	3.90	.797	.100

Table F.2 (Continued)

Variable	Behavioral anchor	In which country did you study?	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
MAS	Feeling good after making a decision is really important for me	Germany	3.79	.998	.114
		Thailand	4.10	.712	.090
	In my company both gender were treated equal and have the same rights to make relevant decisions when they are in the same position	Germany	4.33	.985	.113
		Thailand	3.98	.992	.125
	I am not afraid of making decisions, that are not accepted by everybody	Germany	3.72	1.015	.116
		Thailand	3.73	.987	.124
	Remain true to one self's values is more important than gain appreciation by a certain decision	Germany	3.68	.927	.106
		Thailand	3.76	.777	.098
UCA	I base my decisions on facts rather than on emotions or experience	Germany	3.59	.867	.099
		Thailand	3.86	.859	.108
	My company is rule oriented and has regulations for a lot of different situations	Germany	3.21	1.310	.150
		Thailand	3.40	1.100	.139
	I do not avoid risky decisions	Germany	3.42	.928	.106
		Thailand	3.22	1.114	.140
	I prefer my own decision-making approach than revert to regulations for making decisions of my company	Germany	3.51	.808	.093
		Thailand	3.17	.814	.103
LTO	When I make decisions it is important for me to see the outcome directly	Germany	3.24	1.005	.115
		Thailand	3.97	.879	.111
	Not to think too long about decisions and their outcomes is a sign of competency for me	Germany	2.66	1.001	.115
		Thailand	3.43	.995	.125
	I think there might be more than one correct solution to problems	Germany	4.51	.702	.081
		Thailand	4.44	.778	.098
	I prefer planning for the future, therefore I make decisions whose outcome can first be seen in some time	Germany	3.45	.870	.100
		Thailand	3.95	.831	.105

CORRELATIONS

Table G.1 Correlations of Dependent and Independent Variables with Control Variables of German Answers

		PDI	IND	MAS	UCA	LTO	Rational	Non-Rational	Age	Gender	Education level	Working experience	Inter-nationality
Age	Correlation Coefficient	-.202	.145	-.089	-.121	.065	.208	.249*	1.000				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.080	.210	.446	.297	.576	.071	.030	.				
	N	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76				
Gender	Correlation Coefficient	.168	-.032	.023	.300**	.041	-.080	-.075	-.199	1.000			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.147	.785	.841	.008	.725	.492	.519	.084	.			
	N	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76			
Education level	Correlation Coefficient	-.243*	-.036	-.006	-.074	.082	.234*	.152	.120	.137	1.000		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.036	.760	.960	.527	.486	.043	.193	.305	.241	.		
	N	75	75	75	75	75	75	75	75	75	75		
Working Experience	Correlation Coefficient	-.223	.186	-.125	-.226	.045	.194	.112	.527**	-.128	.032	1.000	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.057	.116	.290	.055	.708	.099	.345	.000	.280	.789	.	
	N	73	73	73	73	75	75	75	73	73	72	73	
Internationality of Company	Correlation Coefficient	.074	-.034	.095	.177	.196	.015	.103	.085	.040	-.035	-.245*	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.526	.772	.414	.126	.090	.899	.376	.467	.728	.768	.037	.
	N	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	76	75	73	76

Note: **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
  *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table G.2 Correlations of Dependent and Independent Variables with Control Variables of Thai Answers

		PDI	IND	MAS	UCA	LTO	Rational	Non-Rational	Age	Gender	Education level	Working experience	Inter-nationality
Age	Correlation Coefficient	.069	.115	-.039	.036	-.087	.257*	-.128	1.000				
	Sig (2-tailed)	.591	.369	.764	.778	.496	.042	.319	.				
	N	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63				
Gender	Correlation Coefficient	-.076	-.060	.167	-.172	.054	-.157	.047	.140	1.000			
	Sig (2-tailed)	.553	.642	.192	.179	.672	.220	.713	.274	.			
	N	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63			
Education level	Correlation Coefficient	-.052	.071	-.068	.038	-.183	-.010	.056	.107	.166	1.000		
	Sig (2-tailed)	.684	.581	.598	.766	.152	.940	.665	.402	.193	.		
	N	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63		
Working experience	Correlation Coefficient	-.009	.095	.083	.003	.026	.268*	-.008	.827**	.143	.029	1.000	
	Sig (2-tailed)	.945	.464	.520	.979	.842	.035	.950	.000	.266	.822	.	
	N	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	
Internationality of Company	Correlation Coefficient	-.069	.063	-.099	.154	.017	.264*	.250*	.130	-.104	.024	.000	1.000
	Sig (2-tailed)	.596	.628	.446	.233	.896	.038	.050	.314	.420	.852	.227	.
	N	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62

Note: **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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