A cross-cultural analysis of Brazilian and German planning orientations

Friederike Konstanze Trautmann

Dissertation written under the supervision of Dr. Álvaro Bruno Cyrino

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of requirements for the International Master of Science in Management, major in Marketing, at CLSBE, at the Universidade Católica Portuguesa and for the Executive Master in Business Administration at FGV, at the Escola Brasileira de Administração Pública, Fundação Getúlio Vargas, February 6th, 2017.

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Abstract (English)

This thesis investigates whether time orientation (long-term orientation versus short-term orientation) moderates the relationship between conscientiousness and planning orientation (process orientation versus outcome orientation) among Brazilians and Germans. According to Hofstede (2001), Brazilians are short-term oriented, whereas Germans are highly long-term oriented. An online survey was conducted with 103 Brazilian and 106 German participants. The survey included the HEXACO-60 model's conscientiousness items, self-developed items based on Hofstede's time orientation summary (Hofstede, 2001), and Woolley's measures for planning orientation (Woolley, 2009a, 2009b). Regression analyses, frequencies, and independent samples t-tests were conducted with SPSS, with conscientiousness, time orientation and nationality as predictors and planning orientation as dependent variable. Demographic control variables were analyzed with ANOVA and multiple regression. Neither was there a significant relationship between conscientiousness and planning orientation, nor was this relationship moderated by time orientation or nationality. There was no significant positive relationship between conscientiousness and process orientation in either of the two country samples. Time orientation did also not have a direct impact on planning orientation. Brazilians were not more likely to display outcome orientation, and neither were Germans more likely to display process orientation. The demographic control variables failed to consistently and significantly predict planning orientation. A surprising finding was that other than proposed by Hofstede (2001), Germans scored as high on short-term orientation as Brazilians. Research limitations, implications for practice, and recommendations for future research were explored by the author.

Keywords: Conscientiousness, Planning, Process Orientation, Outcome Orientation, National Culture, Long-Term Orientation, Short-Term Orientation, Brazil, Germany

Abstrato (Português)

Esta tese investiga se o foco temporal (foco no longo prazo versus foco no curto prazo) influencia a relação entre conscienciosidade e o foco do planejamento (foco no processo versus foco no resultado) entre brasileiros e alemães. De acordo com Hofstede (2001), brasileiros focam no curto prazo, enquanto alemães são altamente focados no longo prazo. Uma pesquisa online foi feita com 103 participantes brasileiros e 106 participantes alemães. A pesquisa incluiu os itens de consciência do modelo HEXACO-60, itens autodesenvolvidos baseados no sumário de foco temporal de Hofstede (Hofstede, 2001) e nas medidas para foco do planejamento de Woolley (Woolley, 2009a, 2009b). Análises de regressão, frequência e testes-t de amostras independentes foram conduzidos por meio do SPSS, com conscienciosidade, foco temporal e nacionalidade como preditores e foco do planejamento como variável dependente. Variáveis de controle demográfico foram analisadas por meio do ANOVA e múltiplas regressões. Não foi encontrada relação significativa entre conscienciosidade e foco no planejamento, tampouco foi esta relação influenciada pelo foco temporal ou pela nacionalidade. Não houve relação direta significativa entre conscienciosidade e foco no processo em ambos os países analisados. O foco temporal também não demonstrou um impacto direto no foco do planejamento. Brasileiros não demonstraram ser mais propensos ao foco no resultado e nem alemães demonstraram ser mais propensos ao foco no processo. As variáveis demográficas de controle falharam em predizer o foco do planejamento de forma significativa e consistente. Uma descoberta surpreendente foi que, diferentemente do proposto por Hofstede (2001), alemães pontuaram tão alto quanto brasileiros em foco a curto prazo. Limitações de pesquisa, implicações práticas e recomendações para o futuro foram exploradas pela autora.

Palavras-chave: Conscienciosidade, planejamento, foco no processo, foco no resultado, cultura nacional, foco no longo prazo, foco no curto prazo, Brasil, Alemanha

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my parents, Prof. Dr. Matthias Trautmann and Dr. Michaela Ruhnke-Trautmann, who have been great role models to me throughout my life with their dedication, intelligence, and ever-present curiosity to learn and develop.

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Finally, I want to express my profound gratefulness to my family for their unwavering emotional and financial support throughout my academic journey, both while studying in my home country of Germany and abroad in the United States, Portugal, and Brazil. These achievements would not have been possible without them.

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List of Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Meaning
BRA	Brazil
C	Conscientiousness
DEU	Germany
MNE	Multinational enterprise
LTO	Long-term orientation
NC	National culture
n.d.	No date
OO	Outcome orientation
PNC	Perception of national character
PO	Process orientation
Pl.O	Planning orientation
RGE	Reference group effect
STO	Short-term orientation
TO	Time orientation

1. Chapter: The Topic in Perspective

1.1. Introduction

During the last decades, the number of international collaborations has grown exponentially, supported by technological developments such as the Internet, video calls and smartphones, as well as the emergence of multilateral free-trade agreements (e.g. the 1957 "European Economic Community" - today European Union, the 1992 Southeast Asian "ASEAN Free Trade Area", and the 1994 "North-American Free Trade Agreement"). Today, companies frequently collaborate with partners and clients situated in other countries, despite physical distances of several thousand kilometers and numerous time zones, as well as cultural distances.

As international business ventures have become more common, so has the occurrence of cross-cultural challenges. The concept of inherent psychological differences between national cultures is somewhat controversial, due to its historic misappropriation as a basis for racism (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004). However, if research is conducted in a responsible and ethical manner, it has the potential to improve cross-cultural understanding (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004). In a 2014 Forbes interview (Goman, 2014), global cross-cultural management consultant Dr. Karine Schomer underlines the importance of recognizing different planning styles in international teams:

> "[...] **there are differences in how people from various cultures approach carrying out projects and getting things done**. These divergences in fundamental mindset need to be understood, appreciated and negotiated [...]. If you don't, you're likely to experience considerable frustration and performance failures on global projects. [...] If you can anticipate that **certain members of your team may have a [...] cultural preference for improvisation and spontaneity, while others are culturally more comfortable with systematic and long-term planning,** you can work with them to bridge this gap and create a hybrid culture of collaboration. What you need to do is to create among them an awareness of these differences in approach. Above all, don't turn a blind eye to these deep cultural differences or assume that, given time and contact, they will automatically disappear."

While there is a fair amount of academic research regarding planning in wealthy Western cultures, particularly the U.S., researchers have only recently begun to explore how planning differs across cultures. Emerging economies such as Brazil are very much underrepresented in planning research, despite their growing economic importance. There appears to be a "Western focus on planning" (Hofstede, 2005; Milosevic, 1999 - both as cited in Rees-Caldwell & Pinnington, 2013). Apart from individual experiences and anecdotes, little information appears to be available for developing countries. Furthermore, the available research on planning in wealthy Western countries focuses strongly on the U.S. Comparatively little is known about Europe, even economic powerhouses such as Germany.

Due to the high number of business collaborations between Brazil and Germany, these two countries were chosen for cross-cultural investigation in this thesis. As of September 2016, there are over 1,300 German companies active in Brazil, among them automotive suppliers Bosch and Daimler, car manufacturer Audi, engineering company Siemens, and chemical companies BASF and Bayer ("Beziehungen zwischen Brasilien und Deutschland", 2016). What is more, popular stereotypes indicate highly different planning cultures: While Germans are renowned for their thorough planning, they are also sometimes criticized for their rigidity and inflexibility. In contrast, Brazilians are habitually perceived as being flexible and spontaneous, and not to engage in too much planning. Even Brazilian newspapers and experts have blamed a variety of issues on lack of planning, from construction problems before the 2014 Soccer World Cup and 2016 Olympic Games, to poor-quality public infrastructure, to the 2015 water crisis ("A falta de planejamento", 2013; Lanna, 2015; Sá, 2014; Sorima Neto, 2015; Streit, 2014).

A significant predictor for planning is conscientiousness. Those individuals who score high on conscientiousness tend to engage in more elaborate planning than those who score low (Prenda & Lachman, 2001; Rogers, Creed & Glendon, 2008). Planning orientation can be differentiated into process orientation and outcome orientation. Process-oriented individuals focus on the separate steps needed to achieve an outcome (e.g. creating a detailed study plan to achieve a good grade), whereas outcome-oriented individuals focus on the final goal (the good grade). Whereas process orientation achieves better results when there is a single goal that requires certain steps, such as achieving a good grade in an exam (through studying), outcome orientation leads to better results in environments that demand flexible adjustments while working on a project (Freund & Hennecke, 2012 - as cited in Freund & Hennecke, 2015; Freund & Hennecke, 2015; Freund, Hennecke & Riediger, 2010; Oettingen & Wadden, 1991 - as cited in Freund & Hennecke, 2015; Pham & Taylor, 1999; Taylor et al., 1998; Woolley, 2009a, 2009b).

Hofstede's cultural dimensions are among the most common variables used to investigate cultural differences. In this case, time orientation, i.e. long-term orientation versus short-term orientation, was considered the most applicable variable. Long-term orientation refers to cultures that emphasize the future and plan long in advance. They focus on perseverance to achieve good results in the long run. Cultures high on a short-term orientation emphasize the past and presence. They expect to achieve quick results when working on a task.

This thesis will investigate the relationship of conscientiousness, time orientation (long-term orientation versus short-term orientation), and planning orientation (process orientation versus outcome orientation). Multiple hypotheses are employed to investigate these relationships. These include hypotheses that explore the relationship between conscientiousness and planning orientation, the moderating effect of time orientation on this relationship, and the direct impact of time orientation on planning orientation.

In the following, an overview about academic literature will be given regarding planning and planning orientation, conscientiousness, time orientation, as well as the relationships of conscientiousness and time orientation with planning. Subsequently, the author will deduct hypotheses detailing how these variables potentially relate to each other in Brazilian and German cultures. The hypotheses will be tested through both qualitative research (interviews) and quantitative research (survey), with the quantitative data being analyzed with SPSS. The results will be discussed, including their limitations. Implications for practice and recommendations for future research will be given as well.

1.2. Justification

In recent years, Germany and Brazil have become ever more important economic partners. There are over 1,300 German companies active in Brazil, accounting for 8-10% of the Brazilian industrial GDP ("Beziehungen zwischen Brasilien und Deutschland", 2016; "República Federal da Alemanha", n.d.). In the state of São Paulo alone, there are more than 800 German companies present who generate more than 250,000 direct jobs ("República Federal da Alemanha", n.d.). Officials say that São Paulo is the largest German industrial city outside of Germany ("Mitgliedschaft", n.d.). Brazil is Germany's most important Latin American trading partner ("Brazil", 2016). Additionally, Brazil counts Germany as its main trading partner in Europe and the fourth most important trading partner globally ("República Federal da Alemanha", n.d.). In 2015, Brazilian exports to Germany were worth €8.5 billion, whereas German exports to Brazil were worth €9.9 billion ("Brazil", 2016).

Considering the great importance of Brazilian-German business relationships, it is vital to know what makes collaborations between the two countries successful, and what aspects could present challenges. Child (1981) found in a meta-analysis that while organizations worldwide converge, divergence remains between the people working for them. This means that even though on a macro-level, organizations become more similar in terms of structure and technology, on a micro-level cultural differences persist. The author's German nationality and personal experiences during her extended stay in Brazil, where she was confronted frequently

with cross-cultural differences between Germans and Brazilians, provided her with a personal understanding of the importance of cross-cultural research.

Academic literature implies that almost all organizations engage in some type of planning (Brock, Barry & Thomas, 2000). Numerous studies (Kargar, 1996; Veliyah & Shortell, 1993), commentaries (Alexander, 1995; Ansoff, 1994; Mintzberg, 1994), and meta-analyses (Miller & Cardinal, 1994) recognize the usefulness of planning (all authors as cited in Brock, Barry & Thomas, 2000). Due to MNEs' complex managerial levels, large number of organizational factors, and diverse industry factors, planning problems can easily arise (cf. Brock & Thomas, 1998 - as cited in Brock, Barry & Thomas, 2000).

Furthermore, difficulties are particularly likely to develop in cross-cultural collaborations, as cultural values often influence organizational norms and decision-making procedures (Lachman, Need & Hinings, 1994 - as cited in Brock, Barry & Thomas, 2000). Various studies have shown the impact of NC differences during the planning phase on a project's outcome (Enshassi & Burgess, 1990; Milosevic, 2002, 1999; Yasin et al., 1997; Zwikael, 2009; Zwikael et al., 2005 - all as cited in Rees-Caldwell & Pinnington, 2013). Since planning was found to be an important factor for a project's success (Zwikael & Globerson, 2006), it is a topic that should be given importance. However, despite the issue's relevance, the influence of culture on planning has been little discussed in academic research (Brock, Barry & Thomas, 2000).

In order to understand better how Brazilian and German planning orientations differ, and whether this difference can be explained by NC, the subsequent study will be carried out. The author's German nationality and extended stay in Brazil allow her insights into both cultures, as well as contact to a large sample pool for her qualitative and quantitative research.

1.3. Objectives

General objectives. This thesis attempts to understand whether Brazilian and German planning orientations, i.e. process orientation versus outcome orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO), differ, and whether national culture (NC) can explain these differences. Ultimately, the paper seeks to be of preparatory help for Germans working with Brazilian business partners and vice-versa. Improved understanding of cultural differences facilitates dealing with cross-cultural challenges and can ultimately lead to more successful collaborations.

Specific objectives. In particular, the author will investigate:

- How conscientiousness (C) and planning orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO) are related. Existing academic literature confirms that individuals that score high on C engage in

more planning activities than individuals that score low, and that an individual's Pl.O can be categorized as either process orientation (PO) or outcome orientation (OO). However, no studies have investigated so far if there is a significant relationship between C and Pl.O, i.e. if individuals high on C are more likely to display a certain Pl.O than individuals low on C.

- Whether time orientation, i.e. long-term orientation versus short-term orientation (TO: LTO versus STO), moderates the relationship between an individual's C and Pl.O. TO is used as a proxy for national culture (NC). This means specifically that it will be examined whether C has a different relationship with Pl.O in the Brazilian and German sample that could be explained through the moderating effect of TO.
- Whether TO (LTO versus STO) has a direct relationship with Pl.O. This means that it will be examined whether individuals from a culture high on LTO (Germans, according to Hofstede, 2001) will exhibit more PO, and individuals from a culture high on STO (Brazilians, according to Hofstede, 2001) will exhibit more OO.

2. Chapter: Literature Review

2.1. Planning

Planning is a method for individuals and groups to "control and structure their lives" (Prenda & Lachman, 2001). For millennia, there have been groups that put a lot of emphasis on planning, and others that did less. The ancient Egyptians, who depended highly on the Nile as a water source, engaged in water resources planning in order to guarantee successful harvests (Simonovic, Fahmy & El-Shorbagy, 1997). In contrast, some religious scripts such as the Bible seem to discourage from planning, containing phrases such as "Do not be anxious about tomorrow, tomorrow will look after itself. Each day has troubles enough of its own" (Matthew 6:34, King James Version - as cited in Prenda & Lachman, 2001). In today's developed Western economies, the importance of planning continues to increase, with the emergence of services such as vacation planning, wedding planning, and even baby planning (Kunde, 1998 - as cited in Prenda & Lachman, 2001).

Academic interest in planning research has increased, but it remains a somewhat controversial topic. Different researchers have defined and measured planning differently (Ansoff, 1994; Mintzberg, 1994 - as cited in Brock, Barry & Thomas, 2000). The Merriam-Webster Dictionary defines it as "the act or process of making a plan to achieve or do something". Most authors agree that (managerial) planning includes defining steps to achieve goals and collecting information (Ghoshal & Westney, 1991 - as cited in Brock, Barry & Thomas, 2000). Furthermore, planning's impact on performance remains disputed. While numerous academic papers recognize the usefulness of planning (Alexander, 1995; Ansoff, 1994; Kargar, 1996; Miller & Cardinal, 1994; Mintzberg, 1994; Veliyah & Shortell, 1993 - all as cited in Brock, Barry & Thomas, 2000) or find planning to be an important predictor of project success (Zwikael & Globerson, 2006), other authors question its impact on success (Armstrong, 1982; Barry & Elmes, 1997; Boyd, 1991; Pearce, Freeman & Robinson, 1987 - all as cited in Brock, Barry & Thomas, 2000). However, academic literature implies that almost all organizations engage in some form of planning. Furthermore, there is agreement that planning should be "carefully conceived to be effective, […] limited in scope, and suitable for the [respective] context" (Brock, Barry & Thomas, 2000).

Individuals' tendency for planning has generally been measured by self-report items (Prenda & Lachman, 2001; Rogers, Creed & Glendon, 2008). Examples would be questions such as "I find it helpful to set goals for the near future", "I live one day at a time", and "I

believe there is no sense planning too far ahead because so many things can change" (Prenda & Lachman, 2001).

2.1.1. Process Orientation versus Outcome Orientation

Cognitive psychology research has shown that different areas of the brain focus on processes and outcomes (Mishkin & Ungerleider, 1982 - as cited in Woolley, 2009a). An inclination for procedural system reasoning (processes) was found to be slightly negatively correlated with declarative system reasoning (outcomes). People are unlikely to change their preference easily from one reasoning style to the other, meaning that they usually stay focused on either processes or outcomes at least for a certain period (Blajenkova et al., 2006; Kozhevnikov et al., 2005 – both as cited in Woolley, 2009a). In academic research, 27 of 35 studied teams showed either a definitive process orientation (PO) or outcome orientation (OO) (Woolley, 2009b). The remaining teams, rather than being dual-focused, largely seemed to be unfocused, and performed significantly worse than teams with a definitive focus (Woolley, 2009b). It should be stressed that exhibiting a preference for one orientation does not mean completely ignoring the other; rather, it is about the relative importance that is given to one orientation over the other (Woolley, 2009a).

This means that during planning, an individual usually puts more emphasis either on the process or on the outcome (Freund & Hennecke, 2015; Pham & Taylor, 1999; Thompson, Hamilton & Petrova, 2008). PO is defined as "the degree to which a person attends to the aspects of the goal that are related to the means" and OO as "the degree to which a person attends to the desired outcomes and consequences of goal pursuit" (Freund & Hennecke, 2015). Process-oriented individuals identify their actions at a low level, e.g. considering specific necessary tasks and the project schedule. In contrast, outcome-oriented individuals focus on high-level actions, such as the goal and success criteria (Woolley, 2009b). An example would be an individual that wishes to lose weight: A process-oriented dieter would plan in detail what kind of healthy food to eat and what workout routine to follow. An outcome-oriented dieter would think more about her attractive appearance after the weight loss (Freund & Hennecke, 2015).

There has been research on the effects of PO and OO in experiments with individuals and teams. These studies have shown that both orientations have advantages and drawbacks, and that it depends on the project's nature which orientation will achieve more favorable results. The figure below provides an overview about the two planning orientations.

Process focus	Outcome focus
Means/actions	End state/consequences
Proximal/concrete	Distal/abstract
Contextualized	Decontextualized
Provides no standard of comparison between actual and desired state	Provides clear standard of comparison between actual and desired state
Guides goal-related actions	Provides direction and meaning

Note: Adapted from "On Gains and Losses, Means and Ends: Goal Orientation and Goal Focus Across Adulthood," by A. M. Freund, M. Hennecke, and M. Mustafić, 2012, in R. M. Ryan (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of human motivation* (p. 285). Copyright 2012 by Oxford University Press. Adapted with permission.

Figure 1: Main Differences between Process Orientation and Outcome Orientation

Source: Freund & Hennecke, 2015

2.1.2. Effects of Process Orientation

Many researchers praise the effects of process orientation (PO). Process-oriented planning was found to lead to improved goal pursuit and achievement when there is a single goal that requires certain steps, such as maintaining a diet (through the process of eating healthily and working out) or achieving a good grade in an exam (through studying) (Freund & Hennecke, 2012 - as cited in Freund & Hennecke, 2015; Freund & Hennecke, 2015; Freund, Hennecke & Riediger, 2010; Oettingen & Wadden, 1991 - as cited in Freund & Hennecke, 2015; Pham & Taylor, 1999; Taylor et al., 1998). This is likely owed to the fact that PO directs attention to the necessary steps rather than the momentarily distant goal, and thus facilitates adherence to these steps (Freund & Hennecke, 2015). Process-oriented individuals also tend to be more discerning in information usage (Escalas & Luce, 2003 - as cited in Thompson, Hamilton & Petrova, 2008).

Additionally, PO can improve team performance. Woolley (2009b) found PO to be more effective for team projects with very subjective outcome criteria (e.g. scientific research), as in those circumstances the outcome needs to be defended based on a well-conducted process (e.g. deduction of sound hypotheses, choice of representative sample size, etc.). Outcome-oriented teams risk neglecting to organize themselves before beginning to work, which can diminish efficiency because they then have to specify roles and tasks during the project (Bray & Brawley, 2002; Steiner, 1972; Weingart, 1992 - all as cited in Woolley, 2009b).

Yet there are also some contradictory academic findings. Some authors found PO to be more effective than OO to learn new tasks (Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 1997, 1999 - as cited in Freund & Hennecke, 2015). Furthermore, PO was found to be more effective than OO to

perform difficult tasks (Vallacher, Wegner & Somoza, 1989 - as cited in Freund & Hennecke, 2015). In contrast, Woolley (2009b) concluded that PO is particularly helpful for routine tasks, as it allows individuals to focus on established successful practices, and to begin working efficiently without losing time evaluating alternatives. A reason for this discrepancy could be that the former studies (Vallacher, Wegner & Somoza, 1989; Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 1997, 1999 – both as cited in Freund & Hennecke, 2015) focused on individuals in their research, whereas the latter (Woolley, 2009b) examined teams. It is likely more challenging for a whole team to agree on goals, tasks and roles than for an individual working alone. Thus, PO may have a different effect in team work than in individual work.

Regarding negative impacts, PO is less effective when individuals are forced to make a trade-off between two alternatives (e.g. choosing between a large apartment far away from work and a small apartment close to work). In such scenarios, process-oriented individuals were found to experience greater decision-making difficulty, lower decision satisfaction, and increased likelihood of postponing decision-making and choosing a compromise (Thompson, Hamilton & Petrova, 2008).

2.1.3. Effects of Outcome Orientation

Just like process orientation (PO), outcome orientation (OO) can have positive effects as well. During the phase of goal setting, prior to goal pursuit, OO can lead to better decision-making, as it allows individuals to evaluate how realistic different goal alternatives are (Freund et al., 2012 - as cited in Freund & Hennecke, 2015). Additionally, in experiments, outcome-oriented teams showed greater apitude for problem identification and more flexibility for process adaptation during a project than process-oriented teams (Woolley, 2009a). While there were no significant performance differences between the two types of teams in the case of membership change during the project, outcome-oriented teams performed significantly better than process-oriented teams in case of material loss (the respective experiment involved construction). This was owed to the fact that they proved to be more flexible coming up with alternative solutions to achieve their goal (Woolley, 2009b). The positive effects of OO have been recognized to the extent that even national intelligence organizations have been restructured to become more objectives-focused to increase their flexibility (Clark, 2004 - as cited in Woolley, 2009a).

Yet again, there are some contradictory findings: Some authors state that OO achieves better results on easy tasks and that PO is more effective for difficult tasks (Vallacher, Wegner & Somoza, 1989). Others find OO to be positively related to performance on complex, open-

ended tasks (Woolley, 2009b). A potential reason for this discrepancy could be that the former study (Vallacher, Wegner & Somoza, 1989) investigated individuals, whereas the latter examined teams (Woolley, 2009b). Complex, open-ended tasks require the creation and combination of new knowledge. By nature, a team consisting of numerous individuals will be more likely to bring a larger variety of knowledge to the table and to come up with new ideas than a single individual will. Due to this, OO could have a different effect in team work than in individual work.

2.2. Conscientiousness and Planning

How an individual plans is significantly affected by personality (Prenda & Lachman, 2001; Rogers, Creed & Glendon, 2008). An academic concept widely used to evaluate personality is the Big Five Personality Factors concept, which states that personality consists of five main factors: neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (C) (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004). The Big Five concept can be used globally to evaluate individuals' personalities, as it has been found to be a human universal (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004; McCrae & Costa, 1997 - as cited in Hofstede & McCrae, 2004; McCrae & Terracciano, 2005). Across national cultures (NCs), similar gender differences were found (Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001 - as cited in Hofstede & McCrae, 2004), personality appeared very stable throughout adulthood and was largely unaffected by adult life experiences (McCrae & Costa, 2003 - as cited in Hofstede & McCrae, 2004). This makes the personality factor conscientiousness (C) a valid variable to use in cross-cultural research.

Out of the five factors, C was found to be the most important predictor for planning. Individuals high on C engage in more planning than respondents with a low C score (Prenda & Lachman, 2001; Rogers, Creed & Glendon, 2008). Various studies found that C moderates the relation between behavioral intention and behavior (Ajzen, Czasch & Flood, 2009; Conner, Rodgers & Murray, 2007; Rhodes, Courneya & Jones, 2005 - all as cited in Trinh, n.d.). C also correlates positively with goal intention (Conner & Abraham, 2001), goal commitment (Barrick, Mount, & Strauss, 1993; Barrick, Stewart & Piotrowski, 2002), motivation to learn (Colquitt & Simmering, 1998), and test performance (Biderman, Nguyen, & Sebren, 2007) (all as cited in Trinh, n.d.).

C can be divided into the following facets (Costa & McCrae, 1992 - as cited in Trinh, n.d.; Costa, McCrae & Dye, 1991):

1. Competence: The degree to which an individual is capable, sensible, and accomplished (e.g. "I am efficient and effective at my work" – Trinh, n.d.).

2. Order: The extent to which an individual keeps her environment neat and well organized (e.g. “I keep my belongings neat and clean” – Trinh, n.d.).
3. Dutifulness: The degree to which an individual strictly adheres to standards of conduct (e.g. “When I make a commitment, I can always be counted on to follow through” – Trinh, n.d.).
4. Achievement striving: The extent to which an individual strives for excellence (e.g. “I strive to achieve all I can” – Trinh, n.d.).
5. Self-discipline: The degree to which an individual is able to persevere and continue with a task despite frustration, boredom, or distractions (e.g. “I’m pretty good about pacing myself so as to get things done on time” – Trinh, n.d.).
6. Deliberation: The extent to which an individual is cautious and thoughtful (e.g. “I think things through before coming to a decision” – Trinh, n.d.).

A very conscientious person would rank highly on these facets. It should be pointed out that it is possible for two individuals to receive the same overall C score, but to rank quite differently on the six C facets (Costa, McCrae & Dye, 1991). It is important to connect specific facets correctly with the respective context’s criteria. For example, in a job selection context, dutifulness and self-discipline may be more important if face-time is important, whereas achievement striving may be more important if the job includes many competitive situations (MacCann, Duckworth & Roberts, 2008).

While the C facets defined by Costa & McCrae (1992 - as cited in Trinh, n.d.) are the most widely used ones, there are authors who have defined them slightly differently. For example, Ashton & Lee (2009) divided conscientiousness into four facets:

1. Organization (“I plan ahead and organize things, to avoid scrambling at the last minute” – Ashton & Lee, 2009). This facet can be related to Costa & McCrae’s “Order” and “Dutifulness” facets.
2. Diligence (“I often push myself very hard when trying to achieve a goal” - Ashton & Lee, 2009). This facet can be related to Costa & McCrae’s “Self-Discipline” facet.
3. Perfectionism (“I always try to be accurate in my work, even at the expense of time” - Ashton & Lee, 2009). This facet can be related to Costa & McCrae’s “Achievement Striving” and “Competence” facets.
4. Prudence (Reverse-keyed: “I make decisions based on the feeling of the moment rather than on careful thought” - Ashton & Lee, 2009). This facet can be related to Costa & McCrae’s “Deliberation” facet.

There are various other authors with their own definitions of conscientiousness facets (e.g. MacCann, Duckworth & Roberts, 2008), but due to space restraints and their relative unimportance for this study, these diverging definitions will not be described here.

2.3. National Culture: Long-Term Orientation versus Short-Term Orientation

Hofstede (2001) defines culture as a collective "programming of the mind" that is "at least partly shared with people who live or lived within the same social environment, which is where it was learned". It is a collective rather than an individual characteristic, and distinguishes one group of people from another. Culture is revealed in behaviors, and shared by some but not all people (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004).

There is a wide variety of means to measure cultural differences, such as the ones developed by Hall (1959), Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961), and Trompenaars (1993). However, one of the most widely used framework remains the one developed by Hofstede (2001), which classifies national cultures (NCs) according to six dimensions: power distance, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, uncertainty avoidance, long-term orientation versus short-term orientation (LTO versus STO), and indulgence versus restraint. Brock, Barry & Thomas (2000) state that

> "While not without its critics (e.g., Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Punnett & Withane, 1990) this framework has stood the test of time and subsequent work has amplified its utility rather than contradicting it (Leung & Bond, 1989; Søndergaard, 1994; Smith & Bond, 1999). Also, it is appealing because of its relative ease of application."

The dimension deemed most relevant for the determination of planning orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO) is time orientation (TO: LTO versus STO). The LTO versus STO concept was introduced in 1987 by Bond in collaboration with Chinese scholars (Bond, 1987 - as cited in Hofstede, 2001), who felt that the original four dimensions (power distance, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism versus individualism, masculinity versus femininity) failed to capture cultural differences entirely, particularly between Western and Eastern cultures. The idea behind the concept is that every national culture (NC) must find ways to preserve a connection with its past, while dealing with the present and future (Hofstede, 2001). LTO versus STO describes the degree to which a culture has a future-oriented, pragmatic point of view (LTO), or a more past- and present-oriented, normative perspective (STO) (Dong & Lee, 2007). NCs high on LTO adapt traditions easily to changing circumstances, exhibit high perseverance to achieve results, and value thriftiness and investing for the future. In contrast, NCs high on STO value traditions and are rather suspicious of changes. They consider it important to fulfill social

obligations, and focus on achieving quick results (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004). Hofstede (2001, p.359) defines LTO versus STO as follows:

> "Long Term Orientation stands for the fostering of virtues oriented towards future rewards, in particular, perseverance and thrift. Its opposite pole, Short Term Orientation, stands for the fostering of virtues related to the past and present, in particular, respect for tradition, preservation of 'face' and fulfilling social obligations."

LTO scores are strongly correlated with national economic growth in the period of 1965-1985, and even more so in the period of 1985-1995 (Hofstede, 2001, p.351).

Germany has been found to be one of the most long-term oriented countries in the world, whereas Brazil is classified as moderately short-term oriented (Hofstede, 2001). As can be seen in the graph below, LTO versus STO is also the most significant difference between Germany and Brazil. All scales range from 0 to 100, with 0 signifying maximum STO and 100 signifying maximum LTO.

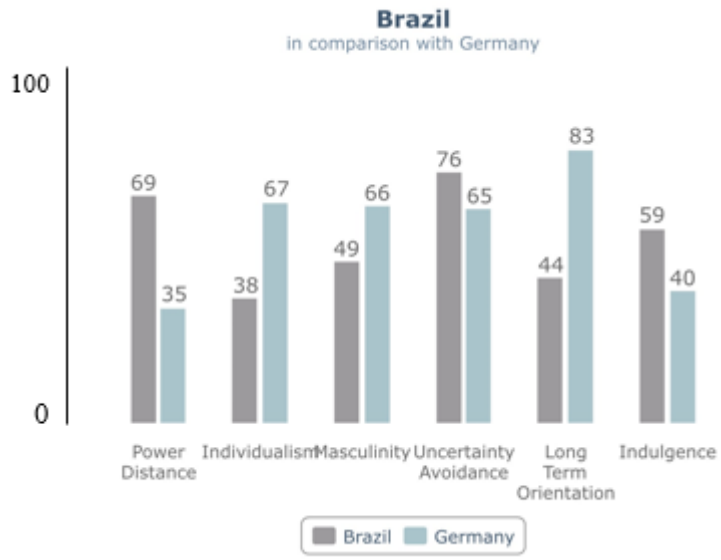

Figure 2: Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions – Brazil and Germany in Comparison

Sources:
Hofstede, G. (n.d.). What about Brazil? Retrieved from https://geert-hofstede.com/brazil.html
Hofstede, G. (n.d.). What about Germany? Retrieved from https://geert-hofstede.com/germany.html

The other variables' values can be explained as follows:

- Power distance: 0 = minimum power distance, 100 = maxium power distance
- Masculinity versus feminity: 0 = maximum feminity, 100 = maximum masculinity

- Uncertainty avoidance: 0 = minimum uncertainty avoidance, 100 = maximum uncertainty avoidance
- Indulgence versus restraint: 0 = maximum restraint, 100 = maximum indulgence

Generally, Latin American countries exhibit STO (Argentina: 20; Brazil: 44; Chile: 31; Colombia: 13; Mexico: 24; Peru: 25; Venezuela: 16), whereas the Germanic cluster exhibits LTO (Austria: 60; Germany: 83; Switzerland: 74) (Hofstede, 2001). It should be pointed out that Brazil is not officially part of Hofstede's Latin American cluster, as it differs from the other Latin American countries on various dimensions.

McCrae (2000) states that the study of personality and culture "is no longer a matter of documenting how culture shapes personality; instead, it asks how personality traits and culture interact to shape the behavior of individuals and social groups". In line with this, it was decided that the cultural variable TO may provide useful insights in examining the relationship between C and Pl.O among Germans and Brazilians.

2.4. National Culture and Planning

> "Mismanaging cultural differences can render otherwise successful managers and organizations ineffective and frustrated when working across cultures. When successfully managed, however, differences in the culture can lead to innovative business practices, faster and better learning within the organization, and sustainable sources of competitive advantage."
>
> (Hoecklin, 1996 - as cited in Zwikael, 2009)

While people across the world may hold similar job positions, the way they conduct their work can differ widely (Zwikael, 2009). Significant differences regarding planning were found between national cultures (NCs) (Zwikael, 2009; Zwikael et al., 2005). During international collaborations, it is likely that the amount of NCs involved, the extent of their respective cultural distance, and the relationships between the NCs will influence the interactions (Brock, Barry & Thomas, 2000). If individuals or multinational enterprises (MNEs) based on rather different NCs interact, conflicts may emerge, as people are likely to defend their own working style and ignoring the other party's one (Mintzberg, 1994, pp.161-166 - as cited in Brock, Barry & Thomas, 2000). Various studies have shown the impact of NC differences in the planning stage on project outcome (e.g. Enshassi & Burgess, 1990; Milosevic, 2002, 1999; Yasin et al., 1997 – all three as cited in Rees-Caldwell & Pinnington, 2013; Zwikael, 2009; Zwikael et al., 2005).

Most academic research regarding planning in different NCs compared the planning behavior of managers in different countries. For example, Japanese managers were found to focus more on formal communication and cost management, while Israeli managers

emphasized scope and time management processes (Zwikael et al., 2005). A relatively small part of cross-cultural planning literature attempts to connect the exhibited preferences for certain planning process with the underlying cultural reasons. While there is no particular research available for Brazil and Germany, there is some research that is related to Hofstede's (2001) time orientation (TO: LTO versus STO).

Hofstede (2001) classified the African countries for which data is available as short-term oriented. In line with this, African project managers were found to consider timelines useless since "only God knows the future" (Milosevic, 1999 - as cited in Rees-Caldwell & Pinnington, 2013). Saudi-Arabia was also categorized as short-term oriented (with no TO data available for other Arab countries) (Hofstede, 2001). Arab managers exhibited a similar approach to planning as African managers, with their plans relatively short-term and less detailed than Western ones (Gray & Larson, 2002 - as cited in Rees-Caldwell & Pinnington, 2013). This was because Arab managers considered excessive planning to go against fate (Loosemore & AlMuslmani, 1999 - as cited in Rees-Caldwell & Pinnington, 2013). Furthermore, while future-oriented NCs were found to focus on preventive action by delivering high quality products from the start (such as the Japanese Kaizen approach), present-oriented NCs tended to emphasize corrective action (Milosevic, 1999 - as cited in Rees-Caldwell & Pinnington, 2013).

There is also some research available regarding Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck's (1961) time orientation, as well as Hall & Hall's (1990) monochronic versus polychronic time orientation. Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck's (1961) time orientation differentiates NCs according to whether they mainly focus on the past, present, or future, whereas Hall & Hall (1990) analyze the way in which NCs structure their time. Monochronic NCs consider time to be inflexible and prefer doing one thing at a time. Polychronic NCs perceive time as flexible and are comfortable with handling multiple tasks at the same time. Furthermore, polychromic NCs consider personal relationships more important than schedules (Dahl, 2004). Intuition suggests that particularly Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck's (1961) time orientation may be somewhat related to Hofstede's (2001) TO (LTO versus STO). However, there is not sufficient empirical data about Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck's (1961) and Hall & Hall's (1990) cultural dimensions to verify this notion. Nonetheless, since there is not a lot of research regarding the impact of TO (LTO versus STO) on planning, the following paragraph gives a short overview about the impact of these other time orientations on planning.

Future-oriented and monochronic managers were found to be more likely to emphasize scope, time planning, and planning in general, than past-oriented and polychronic managers,

who valued communication higher (Lane et al., 2005; Milosevic, 1999 - both as cited in Rees-Caldwell & Pinnington, 2013; Rees-Caldwell & Pinnington, 2013; Walker et al., 2003 - as cited in Rees-Caldwell & Pinnington, 2013). These findings match the experience of global cross-cultural management consultant Dr. Karine Schomer, who explained that in her experience, flexible collaborations require constant communication in order to work out, whereas projects that have been planned thoroughly allow members to work more independently (Goman, 2014). Mutual frustration can emerge during collaborations between monochronic and polychronic cultures (Hurn, 2007; Shachaf, 2008 - both as cited in Rees-Caldwell & Pinnington, 2013). Managers from future-oriented, monochronic NCs may get the impression that their counterparts from present-oriented, polychronic NCs lack interest in the collaboration. On the other hand, present-oriented, polychronic managers may experience their partners as working too hurriedly and planning unnecessarily far ahead (Hall, 1960 - as cited in Rees-Caldwell & Pinnington, 2013).

2.5. Theory Summary and Hypotheses Development

There is little academic literature available about planning outside developed Western economies, particularly outside the U.S., and the underlying cultural reasons for different planning preferences across national cultures (NCs). No major studies regarding planning among Brazilians have been conducted, and there is little planning research about Germans. The lack of research leaves many questions unanswered that should be of interest to both managers and scientists, as the rapidly progressing globalization makes cross-cultural collaborations increasingly common.

The positive correlation between conscientiousness (C) and planning has been proven in psychological research. However, these studies did not differentiate between process- and outcome-oriented planning (Pl.O: PO versus OO), even though the two were found to lead to significantly different results. This leaves a gap in academic literature, as no studies have investigated whether different C scores may lead to different planning orientations (Pl.O). Furthermore, it is probable that NC somehow moderates the relationship between C and Pl.O, but its exact impact remains unclear. It is likely that time orientation (TO), i.e. long-term orientation versus short-term orientation (LTO versus STO) is the most important cultural moderator. Whereas Germany is one of the most long-term oriented cultures in the world (scoring 83 out of 100 on TO, with 100 indicating maximum LTO), Brazil is more short-term oriented (scoring 44 out of 100 on TO, with 0 indicating maximum STO). There is reason to believe that even if a German and a Brazilian individual receive the same C score, it may be

possible for them to exhibit a different Pl.O due to a moderating effect of their cultural TO. There might also be a direct relationship between TO (as a proxy for NC) and Pl.O, as managers from different NCs have been found to emphasize different planning aspects in various studies (in terms of communication, scope, time planning, etc.). The current gap in cross-cultural planning literature, combined with the increasing economic collaboration between Germany and Brazil, appear as a strong rationale to explore this issue.

These thoughts lead to this study's core question: How does time orientation (TO: LTO versus STO) moderate the relationship between conscientiousness (C) and planning orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO)? To investigate this question, the following hypotheses will be tested with Brazilian and German sample populations.

- *Hypothesis 1:* Conscientiousness (C) and planning orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO) are related.
- *Hypothesis 2.1:* Time orientation (TO: LTO versus STO) will moderate the relationship of conscientiousness (C) and planning orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO).
- *Hypothesis 2.2:* Among Germans (high on LTO according to Hofstede, 2001), conscientiousness (C) will be more significantly positively related to process orientation (PO) than among Brazilians (high on STO, according to Hofstede, 2001).
- *Hypothesis 3.1:* Time orientation (TO: LTO versus STO) will have a direct relationship with planning orientation (Pl.O).
- *Hypothesis 3.2:* Brazilians (high on STO, according to Hofstede, 2001) will be more likely to to exhibit outcome orientation (OO).
- *Hypothesis 3.3:* Germans (high on LTO, according to Hofstede, 2001) will be more likely to to exhibit process orientation (PO).

The graphs shown in the following seek to clarify the proposed hypotheses further. Figure 3 depicts the proposed relationship of time orientation with conscientiousness and planning orientation.

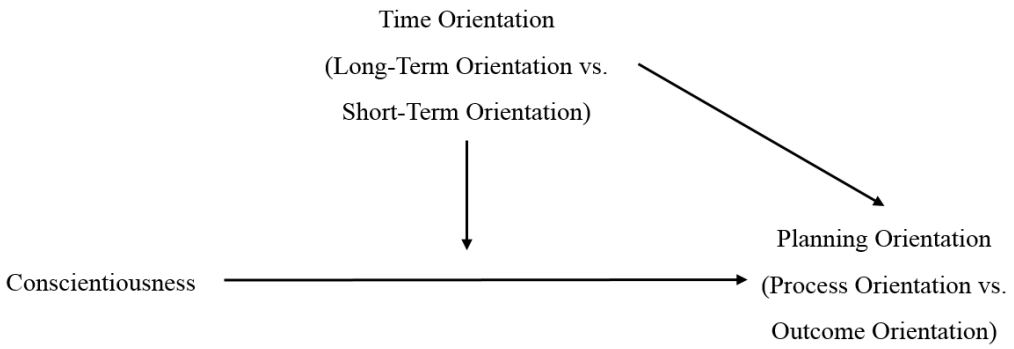

Figure 3: The Proposed Relationship of Time Orientation with Conscientiousness and Planning Orientation (Hypothesis 1, 2.1 and 3.1)

Source: author

Figure 4 depicts the proposed relationship of conscientiousness and process orientation in the Brazilian and German sample.

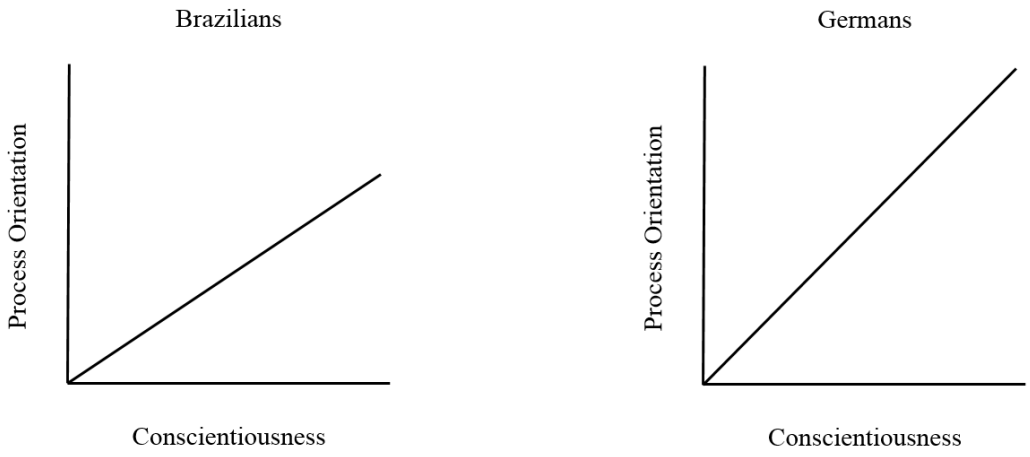

Figure 4: The Proposed Relationship of Conscientiousness and Process Orientation in Brazilian and German National Culture (Hypothesis 2.2)

Source: author

3. Chapter: Primary Research

3.1. Methodology

Both qualitative and quantitative research were used to investigate the issue. Qualitative research allowed to ask exploratory (open-ended) questions rather than just descriptive ones. This was considered important, as cross-cultural research is a complex issue: At least part of the overall research should be sensitive and flexible enough to capture nuances in respondents' perceptions, habits and attitudes. Respondents had a chance for reflection and immediate clarification of doubts with the author, allowing them to explain their answers more clearly. Understanding participants' reactions enabled the author to optimize the subsequent quantitative research. Interviews were chosen due to time constraints and the logistic challenge of assembling both Germans and Brazilians for a focus group. All Brazilian interview partners were interviewed in person, whereas all German interview partners were interviewed via video call. It was decided to interview five Brazilian and five German respondents to gain sufficient insights, while still being mindful of logistical and temporal restraints. Ultimately, the number of German respondents increased to six.

Quantitative research was vital in order to make empirically valid statements regarding the hypotheses. Its design was based on the insights gained during the qualitative research. Only descriptive items were applied to allow for an effective data analysis through SPSS. In order to reach a large and diverse number of both Brazilian and German respondents in a timely and cost-efficient manner, it was decided to conduct an online survey. For validity purposes, a minimum of 100 Brazilian and 100 German participants was set (in terms of complete responses, not considering number of dropped out participants).

3.2. Qualitative Research

3.2.1. Sampling Process and Participants

The sampling process was quota-based, meaning that the author employed judgmental sampling to identify adequate respondents and set a minimum number of five respondents per NC to achieve insights, while considering temporal and logistical restraints. Participants were categorized according to their nationality, with the target population being Brazilians and Germans. Potential respondents were approached mindful of the need for diversity in terms of gender, age, education level, and income level. Ultimately, five Brazilians and six Germans were interviewed. The selected samples included both male and female respondents from

different age groups, with different educational levels and different income levels. However, all participants had at least completed a bachelor's degree or a vocational training course (in Germany called "Ausbildung" and lasting 2-3 years; the closest equivalent in Brazil is the "curso técnico", also lasting 2-3 years). Please refer to Appendix 1.1: Respondent Demographics for an overview of the respondent demographics. All interviews were conducted within a 6-day period, with each interview lasting about 15 minutes. The interviews with German respondents were conducted via video call by the author in German; the interviews with Brazilian respondents were conducted in person by the author in Portuguese in the presence of a Brazilian assistant. The presence of a Brazilian native speaker ensured that all questions and answers were understood and received correctly by the Brazilian respondents and the author.

3.2.2. Data Collection Measures

The interviews followed a structured interview guide that consisted of three main parts: Conscientiousness (C), time orientation (TO: LTO versus STO), and planning orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO). Demographic information was collected as well, namely gender, age, income, number of dependants on that income, and education level. To ensure that all participants fully understood the questions, the items were translated into German and Portuguese by native speakers, and translated back to ensure correctness. The complete interview guide in English can be found in Appendix 1.2: Interview Guide.

Conscientiousness. One of the most common scales to measure the Big Five personality factors is the NEO-PI-R, a 240-item self-report questionnaire that respondents answer on a 5-point Likert scale (Costa & McCrae, 1992 - as cited in McCrae & Costa, 1997). However, this test is both very extensive and only available at a high financial cost. Thus, a similar personality test, the HEXACO-60, was chosen, which only consists of 60 self-report items. Despite the comparative brevity, its scales were found to be internally consistent and reliable (Ashton & Lee, 2009). Furthermore, the matches between self-reports and observer reports were reasonably high, and the HEXACO-60 C scales were found to correlate strongly with their NEO-FFI counterparts, a shortened version of the NEO-PI-R (Ashton & Lee, 2009). Thus, the HEXACO-60 was considered an adequate substitute. Since for this project only C is of relevance, only the ten C items were kept. Participants were asked to answer the items in a way that most accurately described their personality, e.g. "I always try to be accurate in my work, even at the expense of time": 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) (Ashton & Lee, 2009). A total C score was calculated by reversing the six items that were phrased as negations, then

adding the individual item scores and dividing them through the total item number of ten (Ashton & Lee, 2009).

Time orientation. TO (LTO versus STO) was measured through items that the author developed based on Hofstede's (2001) summary of LTO versus STO characteristics. Hofstede did not conduct the primary research for this dimension himself. Rather, he collected and summarized results from a variety of other studies, creating an overview about which worldviews corresponded more to which cultural TO. For example, national cultures (NCs) high on LTO value saving money for the future and perseverance, whereas NCs high on STO prefer spending money and expect quick results. After eliminating two items of Hofstede's summary which were considered relatively irrelevant in Western culture and more applicable to Asian culture (the concept of shame and protecting one's face), twelve items were retained. Each item consisted of two opposing statements on a bipolar scale of 1 (high STO) to 5 (high LTO), e.g. "It is important to have respect for traditions" (1) versus "Traditions should be adapted to new circumstances" (5) (Hofstede, 2001). Respondents were then asked to rate with which side they agreed more and to what extent.

Planning orientation. Pl.O was measured threefold: through an open-ended perception of national character (PNC) question, an action identification example used by Woolley (2009b), and an adapted version of Woolley's (2009a, 2009b) self-rating items.

1. PNC: Respondents were asked to freely describe how they personally perceived planning to occur in their social environment.
2. Action identification: The example described the hypothetical scenario of working on an individual project, investigating an issue relevant for small companies. Requirements were that representatives from at least ten small companies had to be interviewed, and that a report would have to be submitted at the end, including a literature review, data collection description, results, and managerial recommendations. Participants were then asked what they considered the three main goals of the project, with their responses being rated according to action focus (Woolley, 2009a). A low-level action focus is related to process orientation (PO) (e.g., "interview ten managers"), whereas a high-level action focus is related to outcome orientation (OO) (e.g. "contribute to academic literature on my chosen topic"). In Woolley's team experiments (2009b), there was significant self-observer agreement regarding planning orientation (Pl.O).
3. Self-ratings: Participants were given nine statements about their planning style and ask to rate these on a 7-point Likert scale, depending on how much attention they usually paid them during planning (1: no attention at all, 7: maximum attention). The items were

based on the ones Woolley (2009a, 2009b) used in her planning orientation research. Since her research focused on team work, her questionnaire items were adapted to be applicable for individual work.

Demographic control variables. The demographic variables collected were nationality, gender, age, income, dependants, and education. These variables were based on Hofstede's (2001) research.

1. Nationality: Nationality was a categorical variable with two categories (Brazilian; German).
2. Gender: Gender was a dichotomous variable (male; female).
3. Age: Age was a categorical variable with eight categories (under 20 years; 20-24 years; 25-29 years; 30-34 years; 35-39 years; 40-49 years; 50-59 years; 60 years or over).
4. Income: Monthly income after taxes was recorded both in US dollars and the respective respondents' home currency (Reais and Euros) to facilitate correct answers. Income was a categorical variable with 14 categories (no own income; <$1,000; $1,000 to < $1,500; $1,500 to < $2,000; $2,000 to < $2,500; $2,500 to <$3,000; $3,000 to < $3,500; $3,500 to < $4,000; $4,000 to < $4,500; $4,500 to < $5,000; $5,000 to < $6,000; $6,000 to < $8,000; $8,000 to < $10,000; $10,000 or more).
5. Dependants: Number of dependants on this income was a continuous variable.
6. Education: Education was a categorical variable with seven overall categories (primary school; high school; vocational training course - "Ausbildung" / "curso técnico"; bachelor's degree; master's degree; doctoral degree; postdoctoral degree). For the German sample, there was a total of eleven categories due to the country's more complex educational system. There are three types of high school diplomas ("Hauptschulabschluss", "Realschulabschluss", "Abitur / Fachhochschulreife"). During the analysis, these three categories were summarized in the overall category "high school". Furthermore, prior to the introduction of the bachelor's and master's degree system in 2002, the country used a "Diplom" degree system, a degree that is considered equivalent to a master's degree. Professions such as teachers, lawyers, and pharmacists finish their degree with a German government licensing examination called "Staatsexamen". Again, this degree is considered equivalent to a master's degree. Thus, "Diplom" and "Staatsexamen" were summarized under "master's degree".

3.2.3. Results

3.2.3.1. Conscientiousness

Respondents self-rated their agreement with conscientiousness (C) items on a 1-5 Likert scale, with 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree. Brazilian participants rated themselves remarkably higher than German respondents on diligence (Brazilian mean=4.50; German mean=3.83). German participants rated themselves particularly higher than Brazilians on perfectionism and slightly higher on organization and prudence (Brazilian sample: perfectionism mean=3.60, organization mean=3.80, prudence mean=3.80; German sample: perfectionism mean=4.25, organization mean=3.92, prudence mean=4.00). Overall, the Brazilian sample reached the higher C score of 3.70, with the German sample scoring 3.42 (please refer to Appendix 1.3.1: Conscientiousness Scores for a complete overview). Since five participants per NC results in a lack of empirical validity, no standard deviations and statistical significance were calculated. Means were calculated to give the reader an overall impression of respondents' tendencies.

One commonality between all respondents was that they at least had completed a bachelor's degree or a vocational training course (2-3 years), i.e., possessed relatively high education. It is also worth noticing that Brazilian respondents were quite quick in giving their answers, and overall displayed high confidence in their abilities. German participants tended to carefully consider their choice and appeared less confident. One Brazilian respondent actively emphasized that while he thought there were many fellow Brazilians that somewhat fulfilled stereotypes (e.g. spontaneous, flexible), he considered himself very different. Only one Brazilian respondent appeared comfortable admitting to perceived flaws (i.e., giving low self-ratings to some items), whereas the other Brazilians seemed somewhat uncomfortable with that and usually gave neutral to high self-ratings. In contrast, while German participants also tended to self-rate their traits neutral or better, if there was a "flaw" that they thought they exhibited (e.g. doing just enough work to get by, or sometimes having difficulties due to being disorganized), they admitted freely to it and seemed to feel no embarrassment about this.

3.2.3.2. Time Orientation

Respondents self-rated their agreement with the opposing long-term orientation (LTO) and short-term orientation (STO) statements on a bipolar scale from 1 to 5 (1: complete agreement with STO item; 2=moderate agreement with STO item; 3=neutral; 4=moderate agreement with LTO item; 5=complete agreement with LTO statement). Brazilian respondents

self-rated slightly higher on LTO than their German counterparts (Brazilian mean=3.03, German mean=2.82). This comes as a surprise, as Hofstede (2001) rated Brazil as tending towards STO (on a scale from 0-100, 0 representing maximum STO and 100 maximum LTO: 44/100), whereas Germany was rated as favoring very much LTO (83/100).

Brazilian respondents emphasized the importance of perseverance (Q10) and thriftiness (Q3, Q7), items that indicate LTO. On average, German participants gave more importance to respecting traditions (Q5) than Brazilian respondents, and agreed more strongly with children being taught tolerance and respect for others at home instead of thriftiness (Q7). Both of these items indicate STO. However, other LTO items found more agreement among German respondents than Brazilian ones, such as the valuation of personal adaptability (Q4) and the belief that most important events in life will occur in the future (Q9). No clear distinction could be made out between the two country samples. Yet it was certainly interesting that German respondents agreed with a relatively high number of STO items. For a complete overview, please refer to Appendix 1.3.2: Time Orientation Scores.

The impression arose that Brazilian participants were more comfortable with this interview section than the one about conscientiousness (C), as they were questioned with opposing, but neutral statements about their worldviews. In contrast to Brazilian respondents, German respondents were equally comfortable with this section as with the prior one. Furthermore, overall few respondents chose 3=neutral as an answer, and some of them also seemed reluctant to choose an "extreme" answer, i.e. 1=complete agreement with STO item or 5=complete agreement with LTO item. This gave the impetus to extend the bipolar scale from 1-5 to 1-7 in the subsequent quantitative research in order to achieve more differentiation.

3.2.3.3. Planning Orientation

The section about planning was threefold, with an open-ended question related to the concept of Perception of National Character (PNC), a hypothetical example, and self-ratings.

PNC. Respondents were asked to talk about how they generally perceived planning to occur in their country, in accordance with the concept of PNC. Talking not about themselves, but instead about other people was thought to encourage respondents to be more straightforward and less embellishing in their answers. Due to space restraints, some answers were condensed. Please refer to Appendix 1.3.3.1: Perception of National Character for the complete answers.

There was consensus among Brazilian respondents that their countrymen did usually not plan far ahead into the future. Respondent A said that he found bureaucracy hindered people's motivation to plan:

> "**I think usually Brazilians do not plan much**. For example, many Brazilians don't use agendas. When they work on a task, they usually divide which steps need to be done, but a rigid timeline is rarely established. Things are done when there is time for it. During my internship [at a major engineering company], for example, I saw that **even when there was a timeline, it was very difficult to keep up**. It was not always the fault of the people working on the task, because project progress was often **hampered by internal or external bureaucracy**. [...] Faced with this, many people did not think it made sense to create a timeline, as they had little control over the project's execution. **Even the Brazilian government seems very incompetent when it comes to timing**. We see daily that deadlines and budgets are not being met due to lack of estimates, even with important projects. Now, if detailed planning is not done for projects worth billions, why would we plan day-to-day activities?"

Respondent B shared similar experiences. Like Respondent A, she also thought bureaucracy hindered planning, and added a second potential explanation: the national trauma of hyperinflation (1980-1994).

> "From my experience at work, I can confirm that **it is difficult to meet a timeline** in the public service, **mainly due to bureaucracy**. Generally, Brazilians do not plan their activities in the long run, there is no such habit and **people struggle to make plans**. Brazilians went through a very difficult phase in the '80s, when there was hyperinflation. During that time, it was impossible to plan anything, everything changed so fast. For example, Brazilians could not plan what to buy, how to save… I think that Brazilians' difficulty with planning partially stems from this historic fact. The **hyperinflation changed and intervened in the habits of that time** and the new generations were influenced."

Respondent C agreed with respondent A and B and indicated outcome orientation (OO), saying:

> "**Here in Brazil we do not plan - we just jump in!** We start working and for example in the middle of the project, we think 'now it is better to close a deal'. We do not think 'we should allocate this much time to this task' or 'now we should focus on this path'. **We just know we are going to solve that** - we start thinking about how after beginning to work on the process."

Respondent D had a similar opinion, but emphasized that he was an exception from the rule:

> "The typical way of planning in Brazil, from my point of view, is immediate. Or rather, **people tend not to plan** and end up making decision that have negative consequences in the future. Of course I am talking about the majority of people that I know, because **I consider myself to be different**. I tend to plan and organize myself excessively, in such a way that in some situations, I end up hurting myself or losing an opportunity.''

Respondent E also acknowledged a usually intermediate planning style, and made the interesting observation that she thought there were regional planning differences within Brazil:

> "In college [in Rio de Janeiro], **our group project organization was intermediate**. A bit last minute, but it always worked out. [...] **In Maranhão** [the respondent's home state] **I think it is a little different from here**. People take arranging [private] meetings more seriously. Here in Rio de Janeiro it is kind of, ah, let's meet up sometime, very open. And sometimes you end up really arranging a meeting, sometimes you do not."

A common theme in German respondents' answers was that planning is highly valued and seems to permeate daily life. Many stated that they not only planned extensively in their professional lives, but also in their private lives, e.g. setting up meetings with friends weeks in advance through agendas.

According to Respondent B, Germans generally engage in extensive planning, actually more than she considers necessary:

> "I think that in Germany, **a lot of importance is placed on planning and the associated security**. Due to this, for example, appointments are organized a long time in advance, which in my opinion does not necessarily equal success. I like a certain degree of planning in everyday life, but it should not determine the entire life."

Respondent C thought that planning is an essential part of German culture, but that this strong focus on planning sometimes causes problems in collaboration with other cultures:

> "I love to-do lists, and all of my female friends own agendas. I also really like study plans. **I think Germans cannot be happy without plans**. However, I also often throw plans overboard and create new ones. I think it is no exaggeration to say that planning is an important part of German culture. Yet **it often creates problems when collaborating with other nationalities**, because they do not understand why Germans place such extreme value on plans and timelines. I usually do not only have a plan A and plan B, but rather a plan A to Z."

Respondent D agreed with Respondent C that planning is a vital part of German culture. She stated that even her private meetings were scheduled weeks in advance through an agenda.

> "For me, an agenda is very important, among my friends as well. [...] In my private life, I usually plan meetings with friends in advance - I have already planned some well into the coming month - but every now and then I also meet friends spontaneously. But that is relatively rare. I also always use to-do lists, that is really important for me. **I think in Germany everything is done according to a plan** - very very rarely something is done without any plan whatsoever, that is the exception."

Respondent E confirmed that she, too, always organized meetings with friends well in advance through her agenda. She added an interesting perspective by pointing out that she thought the extent and thoroughness of planning might also depend on one's social class.

> "**Among my friends, everyone has an agenda, and it is almost impossible to set up a meeting without one**, because everyone has so many appointments - both professional and private ones. People also stick to these agreed meetings. [...] Among my friends, almost everyone is very organized and punctual, also when it comes to private meetings. Of course there are exceptions. [...] In general, planning culture in Germany is rather goal-oriented and precise, but it is difficult [to generalize], **maybe also dependent on the social class**. Regarding general business-related issues, I do think that we in Germany act precisely and exactly, and that everything is reliable and people stick to rules and agreements. However, what a cleaning lady told me about the transportation company she works for, everything is very chaotic there. **A different type of people with a different idea of reliability works there**. I find the question [to describe Germany's general planning culture] difficult. But at least the people that we [the respondent's social circle] come in contact with stick to rules, and planning security must be guaranteed."

Respondent F also always set up meetings with friends through his agenda. He offered a new insight by stating that implementation of plans often took many years, and cited examples of poor planning on the German government's behalf:

> "When you want to meet up with friends, you have to set it up using your agenda several weeks in advance. When we work on something [at work], there is always a timeline, and projects are carried out step-by-step. In the public service, **decision are made quickly, but the implementation often takes years.** Quite generally, **it cannot be said that planning in Germany is always done well** - just look at the Berlin Brandenburg airport or the Elbe Philharmonic Hall in Hamburg. What is also terrible in Germany is the flood of regulations." [1]

[1] Author's note: The two construction projects mentioned by the respondent have become notorious examples of poor planning in Germany, particularly because both were largely publicly funded. (1) The Berlin Brandenburg airport construction began in 2006 and was scheduled for completion in 2011, however currently postponed to 2017. Costs were initially calculated to be €1 billion, but readjusted in 2015 to reach €6 billion. (2) The Elbe

Respondent A differed from other participants regarding the fact that he engaged in extensive planning in his professional and academic life, but did not like planning in his private life. He also made an interesting observation by pointing out differences in planning that he perceived between genders:

> "[...] Personally, I plan professional and university-related decisions very precisely. However, **for each plan A there must also be a plan B**, I always consider this beforehand. In my leisure time however I am reluctant to plan long in advance, in that area of my life I prefer things to be simple and spontaneous. Meetings with friends are usually organized at short notice. My girlfriend is very different in terms of planning, she organizes everything early on and precisely, and easily becomes nervous if something is not planned. That is exactly the same in my environment. The men plan little and organize at short notice, but are usually successful with that. The women organize long in advance, discuss their plans a lot, and in the end are also usually successful. I think we Germans differ in how much we plan in advance, **particularly between genders there are big differences**. The commonality however is: **With us Germans, plans usually work out well in the end.**"

Hypothetical example: action level identification. Respondents were given the hypothetical example of having to work on an individual project that investigated a freely chosen issue important for small companies. Respondents were asked what they considered the three most important things to achieve in this project (please refer to Appendix 1.3.3.2: Hypothetical Action Level Identification Example for all goals and their action level categorization). In accordance with Woolley (2009a), answers were classified on a 3-point scale (high level action identification; neutral; low level orientation). The action level was identified by the author according to whether it was possible to accomplish the goals in many different ways or if the realization options were limited. A high-level action would be e.g. "identify the companies' main issues and underlying causes", a goal that can be achieved through a wide variety of ways. This indicates outcome orientation (OO). A low-level action would be e.g. "conduct a literature research about the topic", which offers far less realization options. This indicates process orientation (PO).

Three Brazilian respondents identified mostly high-level actions (associated with OO), whereas two other Brazilian respondents identified mostly or only low-level actions (associated with PO). Four German respondents identified mostly or only high-level actions (associated with OO), whereas two other German respondents identified mostly or only low-level actions (associated with PO). Overall, only a minority (three) focused exclusively on high-level or low-level action. The majority (six) gave mixed answers. This goes in hand with the fact that being focused on one orientation does not mean completely ignoring the other; rather, it is about the relative importance that is given to one orientation over the other (Woolley, 2009a).

Philharmonic Hall's construction began in 2007 and was scheduled for completion in 2010, but only finished in 2016. Costs were originally calculated to be €186 million, but were readjusted to finally reach €575 million.

Thus, Brazilian and German respondents' levels of action identification were similar, and no clear distinction between two two country samples could be made. In terms of content of answers, there were also no significant differences. It should be added that most participants found it challenging to imagine a hypothetical example, and somewhat struggled to immerse themselves in the scenario. More distinctive results may have been achieved through a real-life experiment, as Woolley did in her research (Woolley, 2009a, 2009b). Due to logistical and temporal restraints, this option was not available to the author.

Self-ratings. Finally, respondents were asked to evaluate a series of statements based on Woolley's research (2009a, 2009b). They self-rated how much attention they usually paid to different aspects of planning while working on a project on a 1-7 Likert scale (1=no attention at all; 2=very little attention; 3=little attention; 4=neutral; 5=moderate attention; 6=a lot of attention; 7=maximum attention). Please refer to Appendix 1.3.3.3: Self-Ratings for all items and their mean ratings.

Academic research has proven that individuals tend to display either more process orientation (PO) or more outcome orientation (OO), and that dual orientation is uncommon (Blajenkova et al., 2006; Kozhevnikov et al., 2005 - both as cited in Woolley, 2009a; Woolley, 2009b). Despite this, Brazilians rated in total only a single item with 2=very little attention. All other items received at least a score of 3=little attention, but mostly between 5=moderate attention and 7=maximum attention. Regarding mean ratings, only one OO item, "Q: What is the relative importance of the different parts of the projects to the final score?" received a mean rating of 4.00 by Brazilian respondents. No item received a mean rating below that value. The highest mean score was received by the OO items "Q9: What information will be helpful to me in working on this project?" (mean=6.20) and "Q8: What will the final version of my project look like?" (mean=6.00). Overall, Brazilians scored a mean=5.40 on PO and a mean=5.28 on OO. As with the conscientiousness (C) items, there seemed to be a concern of embarrassment by admitting that they did not pay much attention to some aspects.

The phenomenon of respondents rating most items of both orientations highly repeated itself in the German sample. Only one German respondent rated one item with 1=no attention at all. All other items received at least a score of 3=little attention. Regarding means, only one PO item ("Q4: When will you complete each of the subtasks?") received a mean rating of 4.00, and none below that value. The highest mean scores were received by the PO item "Q1: What are each of the subtasks that need to be completed?" (mean=6.00) and the OO item "Q8: What will the final version of your project look like?" (mean=6.00). Overall, Germans scored a mean=5.47 on OO and a mean=5.00 on PO. This means that they scored higher on OO than

Brazilian participants (German mean=5.47; Brazilian mean=5.28), and lower on PO than Brazilian respondents (German mean=5.00; Brazilian mean=5.40). Due to the small sample size, these values lack empirical validity, but means were calculated to give the reader an overall impression of respondents' tendencies.

In terms of general observations, it needed to be reiterated several times that the task was not about rating what participants thought was important, but rather what they truly paid attention to when working on a project. Despite this, respondents struggled to do so, and tended to rate all items relatively highly. This reinforced the deduction that during the subsequent quantitative research, participants would need to be forced to make a trade-off between different planning aspects, as almost all of them stated that they paid moderate to a lot of attention to almost all items. This made true differentiation between the two country samples challenging.

3.2.4. Qualitative Research Conclusion

Regarding conscientiousness (C), the Brazilian sample self-rated as more conscientious than the German sample, with Brazilians scoring a mean=3.70 and Germans scoring a mean=3.42 (on a scale from 1 to 5: 1=minimum C and 5=maximum C).

In terms of time orientation (TO: LTO versus STO), Brazilian respondents self-rated slightly higher on LTO than their German counterparts, with the Brazilian mean=3.03 and the German mean=2.82 (on a scale from 1 to 5: 1=maximum STO and 5=maximum LTO). Due to the small sample size, these values lack empirical validity, but means were calculated to give the reader an overall impression of respondents' tendencies. This tendency was surprising, as Hofstede (2001) classified Brazil as a moderate STO country (on a scale from 0-100, 0=maximum STO and 100=maximum LTO: 44/100), whereas Germany was classified as an LTO country (83/100).

Planning orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO) was measured threefold, through an open-ended question, a hypothetical action level identification example, and self-ratings. The open-ended question about planning in the two countries showed that Brazilian respondents agreed that their countrymen usually do not plan far ahead into the future, with suggested reasons being high bureaucracy, frequent delays, and the historic trauma of hyperinflation (1980-1994). A common theme in German respondents' answers was that planning is highly valued and seems to permeate daily life (both professional and private life).

Regarding the hypothetical action level identification example, there was no clear distinction between the two country samples in terms of goal-setting. Both samples displayed slightly more outcome orientation (OO) than process orientation (PO). It should be added that

most participants found it challenging to imagine a hypothetical example. More distinctive results may have been achieved through a real-life experiment (Woolley, 2009a, 2009b). Due to logistical and temporal restraints, this option was not available to the author.

In terms of self-ratings German respondents on average scored higher on OO than Brazilian participants (German mean=5.47; Brazilian mean=5.28), and lower on PO than Brazilian respondents (German mean=5.00; Brazilian mean=5.40). Due to the small sample size, these values lack empirical validity, but means were calculated to give the reader an overall impression of respondents' tendencies. It needed to be reinforced that the task was not about rating what participants thought was important, but rather what they truly paid attention to when working on a project. Respondents struggled to do so, and tended to rate all items relatively highly. This gave rise to the idea that during the subsequent quantitative research, trade-offs should be enforced to allow for more differentiated.

3.3. Quantitative Research

3.3.1. Sampling Process and Participants

As in the qualitative research, quota sampling was employed. Respondents were characterized according to their nationality, with the target population being Brazilians and Germans. A minimum quota of 100 respondents per nationality was set to achieve empirical validity.

The survey was distributed via e-mail and social media. On social media, the survey was shared in 18 groups to create maximum exposure to a diversified audience (German and Brazilian university groups and apartment sharing groups, groups targeted at Brazilians living in Germany, groups targeted at Germans living in Brazil, etc.). To incentivize participation, a lottery raffling a gift card worth €20 / R$50 for popular department store chains was included. The winner was drawn using a free online raffle tool and received the gift card electronically via e-mail. In total, 315 respondents participated: 169 Brazilians, 141 Germans, and five respondents of other nationality who erroneously chose to participate, but were immediately disqualified through the initial question regarding their nationality. In terms of complete responses, 103 Brazilian responses and 106 German responses could be retained. Incomplete responses were eliminated from the analysis. The final overall sample size was thus 209, with an almost identical number of Brazilian and German respondents (BRA: 103; DEU: 106).

While in the Brazilian sample the gender representation was very much in equilibrium (BRA: 49.5% men, 50.5% women), in the German sample, there were almost double as many

female respondents as male ones (DEU: 34.9% men, 65.1% women). The majority of respondents was relatively young, particularly in the German sample. Most respondents were aged 20-29 years (BRA: 56.4%; DEU: 74.5%). Both samples exhibited similar trends in terms of education level. The most common completed education level was the bachelor's degree (BRA: 41.7%; DEU: 33.0%), followed by the high school diploma (BRA: 26.2%; DEU: 24.5%) and the master's degree (BRA: 19.4%; DEU: 14.2%). The young age may explain why the average income was on the lower end of the scale. Most respondents earned less than US$ 1,000 per month after taxes or had no own income at all (BRA: 50.5%; DEU: 48.1%). Even if they had a monthly income, they mostly did not have to support other people with their salary (BRA: 50.0%; DEU: 82.6%). Among both samples, there was a clear regional focus. Brazilian respondents overwhelmingly identified with the Southeast of Brazil (68.0%), whereas most German respondents identified with Southern Germany (62.3%). It is worth mentioning that these regions belong to the wealthiest ones in their respective countries. For a detailed overview, please check Appendix 2.1: Respondent Demographics.

3.3.2. Data Collection Measures

Similar to the qualitative research, the quantitative research followed a structure that consisted of three main parts: Conscientiousness (C), time orientation (TO: LTO versus STO), and planning orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO). Demographic control variables were also collected. The online survey was translated into German by the author, i.e. a German native speaker, and into Portuguese by a Brazilian, i.e. a Portuguese native speaker. The usage of the sample groups' native languages, rather than English, ensured correct understanding and also helped to screen out respondents from countries other than the two targeted ones. The complete survey items in English can be found in Appendix 2.2: Survey.

Conscientiousness was measured through the personality test HEXACO-60 that was used during the qualitative research. Participants were asked to answer ten statements investigating C in the way that most accurately described their personality, e.g. "I always try to be accurate in my work, even at the expense of time": 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) (Ashton & Lee, 2009). Total C scores were calculated in the following way: The scores of the six items phrased as negations were reversed through SPSS (1=5, 2=4, 3=3, 4=2, 5=1). Subsequently, the new six reversed item scores were added to the four unchanged item scores and divided by the total amount of items (ten), resulting in a C score for each respondent. A high score indicated high degree of C, a low score low C. For a more detailed explanation and justification of the HEXACO-60, please refer to section 3.2.2.

Time orientation (TO: LTO versus STO) was measured with the same twelve items that were used during the qualitative research. These items had been developed by the author based on Hofstede's (2001) summary of LTO versus STO characteristics. The only change that was introduced was that the scale was extended from 1-5 to 1-7 to allow for more detailed differentiation. Each item consisted of two opposing statements on a bipolar scale from 1 to 7 (1=high STO; 7=high LTO), with respondents being asked to rate with which side they agreed more and to what extent. A TO score for each respondent was calculated through SPSS by adding all twelve TO item scores and dividing them through the total amount of items (twelve). For a more detailed explanation and justification of the items, please refer to section 3.2.2.

Planning orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO) was measured through an adapted version of Woolley's (2009a, 2009b) self-rating items. Respondents were asked to consider nine statements (four items measuring PO, five measuring OO) about their usual planning approach while working on a project. They were then asked to allocate a total of 40 points to these statements, depending on how much attention they usually paid them. The minimum point allocation was 1 ("no attention at all"), the maximum point allocation 7 ("maximum attention").

Demographic control variables. The demographic variables collected were nationality, gender, age, income, dependants, education, and home region. These variables were based on Hofstede's (2001) research and insights gained during the qualitative research.

1. Nationality: Nationality was a categorical variable with two categories (Brazilian; German).
2. Gender: Gender was a dichotomous variable (male; female).
3. Age: Age was a categorical variable with eight categories (under 20 years; 20-24 years; 25-29 years; 30-34 years; 35-39 years; 40-49 years; 50-59 years; 60 years or over).
4. Income: Monthly income after taxes was recorded both in US dollars and the respective respondents' home currency (Reais and Euros) to facilitate correct answers. Income was a categorical variable with 14 categories (no own income; <$1,000; $1,000 to < $1,500; $1,500 to < $2,000; $2,000 to < $2,500; $2,500 to <$3,000; $3,000 to < $3,500; $3,500 to < $4,000; $4,000 to < $4,500; $4,500 to < $5,000; $5,000 to < $6,000; $6,000 to < $8,000; $8,000 to < $10,000; $10,000 or more).
5. Dependants: Number of dependants on this income was a continuous variable on a scale from 1 to 10.
6. Education: Education was a categorical variable with seven overall categories (primary school; high school; vocational training course - "Ausbildung" / "curso técnico"; bachelor's degree; master's degree; doctoral degree; postdoctoral degree).

For the German sample, there was a total of eleven categories due to the country's more complex educational system. There are three types of high school diplomas ("Hauptschulabschluss", "Realschulabschluss", "Abitur / Fachhochschulreife"). During the analysis, these three categories were summarized in the overall category "high school". Furthermore, prior to the introduction of the bachelor's and master's degree system in 2002, the country used a "Diplom" degree system, a degree that is considered equivalent to a master's degree. Professions such as teachers, lawyers, and pharmacists finish their degree with a German government licensing examination called "Staatsexamen". Again, this degree is considered equivalent to a master's degree. Thus, "Diplom" and "Staatsexamen" were summarized under "master's degree".

7. Home region: Since a Brazilian respondent suggested during the qualitative research that there may be regional differences in planning, and Brazil in particular is a very large, diverse country, respondents were asked with which region in their respective home country they identified with the most. This was a categorical variable with five categories for the Brazilian sample (North, Northeast, Central-West, Southeast, and South) and four categories for the German sample (Northern Germany, Eastern Germany, Southern Germany, and the Western German states of Nordrhein-Westfalen and Hessen).

3.3.3. Analysis

The demographic control variables were analyzed with ANOVA and multiple regression to determine whether they were of predictive value for planning orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO). Linear and multiple regressions were conducted to examine the relationship between the main predictors conscientiousness (C), time orientation (TO), nationality, the interaction term C*TO and the interaction term C*nationality, and the dependent variables PO / OO. Frequencies were calculated to verify whether the Brazilian and German sample populations scored on TO as Hofstede (2001) proposed. Independent samples t-tests were carried out to compare the Brazilian and German sample populations' scores on C, TO, PO, and OO.

The following analyses were conducted for each hypothesis through SPSS.

Demographic Control Variables

The demographic control variables (nationality, gender, age, income, dependants, education, and home region) were analyzed regarding their relationship with PO / OO to

determine whether they would be used in the subsequent analysis of the main predictors (C, TO, and C*TO). First, ANOVA was run with PO / OO as the dependent variables to check whether there were significant differences between groups (different age groups, income groups, etc.). Second, multiple regression was conducted with PO / OO as the dependent variables to examine whether any of the demographic control variables was of consistent significant predictive value. Since all demographic variables were categorical, they were recoded into dummy variables for the regression (nationality and gender were used as binary variables). Due to lack of consistent significant predictive value, the demographic variables except for nationality were excluded from the subsequent analysis. It was decided to retain nationality due to the fact that NC is an important element of this paper's investigation, and to test its potential moderating effect in hypothesis 2.2.

Hypothesis 1

"Conscientiousness (C) and planning orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO) are related." Linear regressions for the overall sample were conducted to analyze the relationship between C and PO / OO.

Hypothesis 2.1

"Time orientation (TO: LTO versus STO) will moderate the relationship of conscientiousness (C) and planning orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO)." Multiple regressions for the overall sample were run to examine the effects of C and TO on PO / OO. The interaction effect C*TO was included in the analysis as well. To avoid multicollinearity between C, TO, and C*TO, C and TO were mean-centered prior to the interaction term's creation.

Hypothesis 2.2

"Among Germans (high on LTO according to Hofstede, 2001), conscientiousness (C) will be more significantly positively related to process orientation (PO) than among Brazilians (high on STO, according to Hofstede, 2001)." Frequencies for the Brazilian sample's and German sample's TO were computed in order to verify whether their TOs matched Hofstede's (2001) propositions. An independent samples t-test was conducted to examine whether the two country samples' TO scores were statistically different. The data was then filtered by nationality to allow for separate analysis of the two country samples. Multiple regressions were conducted to examine the relationship between each sample's C and PO, while controlling for their respective TO and C*TO.

In a second approach, the overall sample was analyzed using multiple regression. C continued to be the independent variable, PO the dependent one, and nationality was used as a

moderator. Nationality was employed as a binary variable (Brazilian: 0, German: 1). An interaction term C*nationality was included as well. To avoid multicollinearity between C, nationality, and C*nationality, C was mean-centered prior to the interaction term's creation.

Hypothesis 3.1

"Time orientation (TO: LTO versus STO) will have a direct relationship with planning orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO)." Linear regressions were applied to the overall sample to analyze the relationship of TO and PO / OO.

Hypothesis 3.2

"Brazilians (high on STO, according to Hofstede, 2001) will be more likely to to exhibit outcome orientation (OO)." Independent samples t-tests were run to compare how the two country samples scored on C, TO, PO, and OO.

Hypothesis 3.3

"Germans (high on LTO, according to Hofstede, 2001) will be more likely to to exhibit process orientation (PO)." The independent samples t-tests applied to hypothesis 3.2 was used to investigate hypothesis 3.3 as well.

3.3.4. Results

Table 1 gives an overview over the measures' means, standard deviations, and Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha did not apply to the items of C, TO, PO, and OO for the overall sample, as each sample group received the items in their respective native language. Cronbach's alphas ranged from "unacceptable" to "acceptable" according to George & Mallery's guidelines (2005) (≥0.7 = acceptable; ≥0.6 = questionable; ≥0.5 = poor; ≤0.5 = unacceptable).

Table 1: Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD), and Cronbach's alphas (α) of the Main Measures

Measure	n	M	SD	A
Conscientiousness Scale	209	3.7464	0.54473	n/a
Conscientiousness Scale Brazilians	103	3.7301	0.57732	0.799
Conscientiousness Scale Germans	106	3.7623	0.51334	0.760
Time Orientation Scale	209	3.5510	0.61465	n/a
Time Orientation Scale Brazilians	103	3.5040	0.66394	0.497

Table 1: Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD), and Cronbach's alphas (α) of the Main Measures

Measure	n	M	SD	A
Time Orientation Scale Germans	106	3.5967	0.61894	0.577
Process Orientation Scale	209	4.2428	0.87942	n/a
Process Orientation Scale Brazilians	103	4.2961	0.88475	0.398
Process Orientation Scale Germans	106	4.1910	0.87529	0.398
Outcome Orientation Scale	209	4.6057	0.70354	n/a
Outcome Orientation Scale Brazilians	103	4.5631	0.70780	0.145
Outcome Orientation Scale Germans	106	4.6472	0.70023	-0.008

Source: Author

Demographic Variables

None of the collected demographic variables (nationality, gender, age, income, dependants, education, and home region) was of consistent predictive value for PO / OO. ANOVA showed that the only variable that exhibited significant between group differences was "dependants" (p[PO]=0.033; p[OO]=0.033). None of the other demographic variables showed significant between group differences (PO: all p-values between p=0.127 and p=0.794; OO: all p-values between p=0.127 and p=0.794). Multiple regression, for which the categorical demographic variables were recoded into dummy variables (nationality and gender were used as binary variables), showed that none of them was of consistent predictive value (PO: all p-values between p=0.053 and p=0.991; OO: all p-values between p=0.053 and p=0.991). For "income", the dummy variable "US$6,000 to $8,000" exhibited p=0.009. However, since none of the other income dummies was significant and ANOVA had revealed that there were no significant between group differences for "income", it was decided to eliminate this variable as a control variable. All other demographic variables except for nationality were eliminated from further analysis as well. It was decided to retain nationality to investigate its potential moderating effect in hypothesis 2.2 Please refer to Appendix 2.3.1: Demographic Variables for the complete analysis of the demographic variables.

Hypothesis 1

"Conscientiousness (C) and planning orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO) are related." The standardized betas of C for PO / OO seemed to indicate that C had opposing effects on

planning orientation: The standardized beta of C for PO was b=0.116, while for OO it was b= - 0.116. This suggested that C was positively related to PO, and negatively to OO. However, the p-values showed these relationships were not statistically significant (PO: p[C]=0.096; OO: p[C]=0.096). The corresponding SPSS output can be found in Appendix 2.3.2: Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 1 can thus be rejected.

Hypothesis 2.1

"Time orientation (TO: LTO versus STO) will moderate the relationship of conscientiousness (C) and planning orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO)." TO and the interaction term C*TO did not significantly moderate the relationship of C and PO / OO (PO: p[TO]=0.746; OO: p[TO]=0.746; p[C*TO]=0.597). The corresponding SPSS output can be found in Appendix 2.3.3: Hypothesis 2.1.

Hypothesis 2.1 can thus be rejected.

Hypothesis 2.2

"Among Germans (high on LTO according to Hofstede, 2001), conscientiousness (C) will be more significantly positively related to process orientation (PO) than among Brazilians (high on STO, according to Hofstede, 2001)." Different from what Hofstede (2001) proposed, the German respondents did not score overly high on LTO. On the TO scale from 1 to 7 (1=strong STO; 4=neutral; 7=strong LTO), the mean score was 3.5967 with a standard deviation of 0.61984. This means that on average, Germans tended more towards STO than LTO, thus defeating the original idea behind the hypothesis. Regarding the Brazilian respondents, as proposed by Hofstede (2001) they tended more towards STO. On the TO scale from 1 to 7 (1=strong STO; 4=neutral; 7=strong LTO), the mean score was 3.5040 with a standard deviation of 0.66394. Another interesting detail was that while the German sample scored a higher mean for TO (m[TO_DEU]=3.5967) than the Brazilian sample (m(TO_BRA)=3.5040), this difference was not statistically significant (p=0.298). This means that it could not be proven that Brazilians and Germans exhibit a different degree of STO.

Controlling for TO and C*TO, it could be seen that in neither country sample was there a significant positive relationship between C and PO (Brazilian sample: p[C]=0.211, p[TO]=0.769, p[C*TO]=0.806; German sample: p[C]=0.318, p[TO]=0.801, p[C*TO]=0.653).

In a second approach, the overall sample was analyzed, with nationality instead of TO as a moderator for the relationship between C and PO. Neither was there a significant positive relationship between C and PO (overall sample: p[C]=0.184), nor did nationality moderate this

relationship (overall sample: p[nationality]=0.362). There was also no interaction effect between conscientiousness and nationality (overall sample: p[C*nationality]=0.911). The corresponding SPSS output can be found in Appendix 2.3.4: Hypothesis 2.2.

Hypothesis 2.2 can thus be rejected.

Hypothesis 3.1

"Time orientation (TO: LTO versus STO) will have a direct relationship with planning orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO)." TO did not have a significant impact on PO / OO (PO: p[TO]=0.618; OO: p[TO]=0.618). The corresponding SPSS output can be found in Appendix 2.3.5: Hypothesis 3.1.

Hypothesis 3.1 can thus be rejected.

Hypothesis 3.2

"Brazilians (high on STO, according to Hofstede, 2001) will be more likely to to exhibit outcome orientation (OO)." When comparing the respective country sample means for OO, it could be seen that Brazilians on average actually scored lower on OO (mean[OO_BRA]=4.5631) than Germans (mean[OO_DEU]=4.6472). However, this difference was not statistically significant (p=0.389). This means that it could not be proven that Brazilians and Germans exhibit a different degree of OO. The corresponding SPSS output can be found in Appendix 2.3.6: Hypothesis 3.2 & Hypothesis 3.3.

Hypothesis 3.2 can thus be rejected.

Hypothesis 3.3

"Germans (high on LTO, according to Hofstede, 2001) will be more likely to to exhibit process orientation (PO)." When comparing the respective country sample means for OO, it could be seen that Germans on average actually scored lower on PO (mean[PO_DEU]=4.1910) than Brazilians (mean[PO_BRA]=4.2961). However, this difference was not statistically significant (p=0.389). This means that it could not be proven that Brazilians and Germans exhibit a different degree of PO. The corresponding SPSS output can be found in Appendix 2.3.6: Hypothesis 3.2 & Hypothesis 3.3.

Hypothesis 3.3 can thus be rejected.

4. Chapter: Discussion, Implications and Recommendations

4.1. Discussion

In the following, the research results will be discussed. First, it will be examined which results were in alignment with the hypotheses, and which were not. Drawing on this, surprising and unpredicted results will be discussed. Finally, it will be analyzed how the results fit with the existing academic research on this topic.

The research findings imply that other than proposed, conscientiousness (C) and planning orientation, i.e. process orientation versus outcome orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO) were not significantly related (hypothesis 1). Also other than predicted, time orientation (TO) did not moderate the relationship between C and Pl.O (PO versus OO) (hypothesis 2.1). In neither of the two country samples was C significantly positively related to PO, and nationality did not moderate the relationship between C and PO in the overall sample (hypothesis 2.2). Finally, TO did not have a direct influence on Pl.O (PO versus OO) (hypothesis 3.1). Neither were Brazilian respondents more likely to exhibit OO (hypothesis 3.2), nor were German respondents more likely to exhibit PO (hypothesis 3.3). All hypotheses were thus rejected.

The rejection of all hypotheses means that there were many surprising and unpredicted results. Different from what intuition suggested, the personality factor C was not significantly related to Pl.O (neither PO nor OO). TO and nationality had no predictive value for Pl.O as moderators of the relationship between C and Pl.O, and neither was TO of predictive value for Pl.O as an independent variable (i.e. direct predictor).

Additionally, other than hypothesized, it could not be proven that there were significant differences in Pl.O between Brazilians and Germans. The qualitative research had suggested that Brazilians and Germans indeed approached planning rather differently: Brazilian respondents mentioned the challenge of planning in an environment plagued by bureaucracy, frequent delays (e.g. budget approval, product delivery), and the historic influence of long-time hyperinflation. It was mentioned that tasks were usually completed, but that there was rarely a strict timeline. This suggested outcome orientation (OO). German respondents, on the other hand, exhibited a strong focus on agendas and structuring their lives well. Several stated that detailed planning was of high importance to them, and that plans were usually adhered to. This suggested process orientation (PO). However, during the qualitative research's second and third measure of planning orientation (hypothetical action level identification example and self-ratings), no clear difference between nationalities emerged. This lack of significant differences between Brazilian and German respondents was reinforced by the results of the quantitative

research. It thus seems that while there may be differences between the two nationalities, these differences do not affect planning orientation.

Another surprising finding was that, other than Hofstede (2001) had suggested, German respondents did not score high on long-term orientation (LTO). Rather, they tended more towards short-term orientation (STO). Indeed, there was no statistically significant difference regarding time orientation (TO) between the Brazilian and German sample. Both scored very similarly and tended towards STO. A potential explanation may be that the concept of TO and the corresponding research were published in 1987 (Bond, 1987 - as cited in Hofstede, 2001), almost three decades ago. It seems that since then, TO among Germans has shifted towards a more short-term oriented perspective. Another idea was that since the majority of respondents were relatively young (BRA: 56.4% aged 20-29 years; DEU: 74.5% aged 20-29 years), the diverging results might be explained by a younger generation embracing different values than their parents and grandparents.

This seemed realistic, given that in the German sample, respondents aged 50 years and older had exhibited the least STO tendencies. (Interestingly enough, in the Brazilian sample, this was inverted: Respondents aged under 20 and 20-29 years had exhibited the least STO tendencies, whereas respondents aged 30 and older scored tended much more towards STO). However, ANOVA showed the differences between age segments regarding TO were not statistically significant, neither in the overall sample, nor in the Brazilian or German sample (p-value overall sample: 0.733; p-value Brazilian sample: 0.296; p-value German sample: 0.344). Furthermore, multiple regression also confirmed that TO was not consistently significantly predicted by age, neither in the overall sample nor in the Brazilian or German sample (p-values overall sample: between 0.238 and 0.992; p-values Brazilian sample: between 0.022 and 0.260; p-values German sample: between 0.018 and 0.567). The corresponding SPSS output can be found in Appendix 2.3.7: Time Orientation according to Age Groups.

A possible explanation for the results diverging from the hypotheses and Hofstede's proposals is that the measures of TO and Pl.O may have been inadequate. Cronbach's alphas were calculated for C, TO, and PO / OO. Cronbach's alpha for C, which was measured through the C items of the HEXACO-60, was deemed "acceptable" (≥0.7) according to George & Mallery's guidelines (2005). Yet the measures for TO and PO / OO were deemed "poor" (≥0.5) for TO among the German sample and even "unacceptable" (≤0.5) for TO among the Brazilian sample. The measures for PO / OO among both samples were also classified as "unacceptable" (≤0.5). Regarding TO, this may be due to the fact that the measures drawn on by Hofstede (2001) were not exactly replicated in this study, since he used a wide variety of different studies

by other authors to support his findings. Still, it is surprising, since the TO measures used in the present study were closely based on Hofstede's (2001) summary of LTO versus STO characteristics. Concerning PO / OO, the explanation for the extremely low Cronbach's alpha may lie in the fact that during this part of the survey, respondents were forced to make trade-offs by distributing a maximum number of points among the statements. This may have led to less internal consistency than if a Likert scale had been used, as Woolley (2009a, 2009b) had done in her research. However, it had been deemed necessary to force respondents to make trade-offs in the PO / OO section: The qualitative research had shown that there was a strong trend to give high ratings to all statements, despite the fact that research has shown people usually focus on one or the other (Blajenkova et al., 2006, Kozhevnikov et al., 2005 - both as cited in Woolley, 2009a).

Next it will be discussed how the results tie into existing academic research. Previous research has shown that how an individual plans is significantly affected by personality, that C is the most significant personality factor in predicting planning, and that individuals high on C engage in more planning than respondents low on C (Prenda & Lachman, 2001; Rogers, Creed & Glendon, 2008). Based on this, it was predicted that C would also be related to an individual's planning orientation, which could not be confirmed. Demographic variables such as nationality, gender, age, income, dependants, education, and home region were also examined, but failed to consistently and significantly predict Pl.O, and were thus excluded from the main analysis. There was no previous research specifically investigating these relationships, meaning that this was a new contribution to literature.

Prior research found significant differences between national cultures (NCs) regarding planning (Zwikael, 2009; Zwikael et al., 2005). Regarding specifically TO, Milosevic (1999 - as cited in Rees-Caldwell & Pinnington, 2013) found that African managers, who according to Hofstede (2001) rank high on STO, considered timelines useless. Gray & Larson (2002 - as cited in Rees-Caldwell & Pinnington, 2013) discovered that Arab managers, who also rank high on STO according to Hofstede (2001), generally planned more short-term and less detailed than Western managers did. This gave rise to the notion that TO may moderate the relationship between C and Pl.O, as well as influence Pl.O directly, and that different countries may score differently on Pl.O (PO / OO). However, there was no previous research into these hypotheses, and this study found neither evidence that TO moderated the relationship of C and Pl.O, nor that it had a direct impact on Pl.O. Furthermore, nationality did not have a moderating effect on the relationship between C and Pl.O. There were no significant differences regarding PO / OO between the Brazilian and German sample.

These results relate to Dahl's (2004) suggestions. While he admitted that it was likely that people from the same country will be influenced by similar values and norms (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 1991; Smith & Bond, 1998 – both as cited in Dahl, 2004), he emphasized the importance of keeping in mind that human behavior is not exclusively determined by NC. According to him, an individual belonging to a certain culture will be influenced by the NC, but is not a "slave to the culture" (Dahl, 2004). This means that while there may exist general cultural tendencies for countries (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 1991 - as cited in Dahl, 2004), these dimensions will not necessarily predict individual behavior.

4.2. Limitations

There are various limitations present in this study. Mainly, the measures for conscientiousness (C), time orientation (TO: LTO versus STO), and planning orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO) applied in this study can be criticized, since self-ratings were employed. While self-rating items are widely used in academic research, some authors question their adequacy. Hofstede & McCrae (2004) state that it is probable that national culture (NC) has an impact on the manner in which individuals respond to personality tests. This notion seemingly was confirmed during the qualitative research, when Brazilian respondents answered questions much quicker and with noticeably higher confidence in their abilities than their German counterparts did. Heine, Buchtel & Norenzayan (2008) argue that perception of national character (PNC) assessments hold higher validity than self- and peer-reported data, as those are affected by the reference-group effect (RGE; Heine, Lehman, Peng, & Greenholtz, 2002; Peng, Nisbett, & Wong, 1997 - both as cited in Heine, Buchtel & Norenzayan, 2008). They give the example of the NEO-PI-R questionnaire item "I am not a very methodical person", to which an individual's answer will likely depend on what she considers the norm for being methodical (Heine et al., 2002 - as cited in Heine, Buchtel & Norenzayan, 2008). Individuals from cultures where punctuality and efficiency are expected will likely have a different idea of C than individuals from more spontaneous, flexible cultures (Heine, Buchtel & Norenzayan, 2008).

As discussed before, the TO and PO / OO measures were adapted by the author and exhibited very unsatisfactory Cronbach's alphas. More appropriate items with higher Cronbach's alphas may lead to different results. Furthermore, respondents struggled to rate the PO / OO measures in a differentiated manner during the qualitative research, exhibiting a strong tendency to rate their behavior highly on most items, despite the fact that psychological research has shown that dual orientation is rare (Blajenkova et al., 2006, Kozhevnikov et al., 2005 - both as cited in Woolley, 2009a). While it was attempted to restrain this tendency during the

quantitative research through the allocation of a maximum number of points across the statements, the results may still be inadequate. Additionally, the maximum number of 40 was chosen after careful consideration by the author, as it was a number high enough to allow for meaningful rating, while still enforcing trade-offs between the statements. However, the PO / OO items have not been used in a trade-off measure before, so the maximum point choice of 40 can be seen as controversial. What is more, in order to gain as much information as possible, the author employed all PO / OO items used by Woolley (2009a / 2009b), which resulted in four PO and five OO items. The results were weighted accordingly, yet there may still be a slight bias. Summarizing, it can be said that actual experiments as conducted by Woolley (2009a, 2009b), where respondents interact with each other during projects under observance and are afterwards asked to rate the most discussed topics, are very likely to provide more adequate and objective insights, as this gives respondents less room to embellish their planning approach.

Additionally, both country samples were relatively homogenous. Most respondents were aged 25-29 years old, held a bachelor's degree, earned less than US$ 1,000 per month after taxes or had no own income at all and mostly had no dependants to support. Furthermore, in both country samples, respondents came overwhelmingly from one region respectively. While this similarity allowed for a more adequate comparison between the two country samples, it may have biased the results.

This leads to another limitation: This study only included two nationalities, Brazilian and German. Potentially, the inclusion of more nationalities may have led to different results.

It should be acknowledged that the author was acquainted to differing degrees with all interview partners, as well as with some of the survey respondents. This may have influenced respondents' answers. Furthermore, while being German and having spent extensive time in Brazil facilitated access to the research population, this risked biasing the author's perspective. To counteract this, the author only used questionnaire items that had been employed in prior academic research, or were based on prior research results, to investigate C, TO, and Pl.O.

Finally, there is a wide variety of other cultural variables that were not measured in this study due to time and resources constraints. In this study, TO was used as a proxy for national culture (NC), yet other studies showed that other cultural factors such power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism vs. collectivism, and masculinity vs. femininity may also affect planning in multinational enterprises (MNEs) (Brock, Barry & Thomas, 2000; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005 - as cited in Rees-Caldwell & Pinnington, 2013).

4.3. Implications for Practice

German and Brazilian multinational enterprises (MNEs) and individuals may find the results of this study useful for mutual collaborations in order to understand their business partners better. Germans and Brazilians exhibited similar levels of conscientiousness (C), time orientation (TO: LTO versus STO), and planning orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO). However, differences surfaced during the qualitative research in terms of how respondents perceived planning to take place in their respective countries: Germans emphasized the importance of agendas, backup plans, and adherence to timelines and agreements. They stated that they thought most activities in Germany were planned and that these plans generally worked out well, even though they acknowledged exceptions. Brazilians, on the other hand, shared that they thought their fellow citizens planned relatively little. According to the respondents, this was partially owed to high bureaucracy, frequent delays, as well as the historic trauma of hyperinflation.

This implies that while it could not be proven that Germans and Brazilians differ significantly in terms of C, TO, and Pl.O, external circumstances in each country may result in different planning approaches. Allik & McCrae (2002 - as cited in Hofstede & McCrae, 2004) mention this as well, stating that behavior is influenced by many factors besides personality both at the individual and at the cultural level. MNEs and individuals collaborating with partners of the respective other country should be conscious of these different external circumstances.

4.4. Recommendations for Future Research

As elaborated on during the literature review, much research remains to be done in terms of how cultural factors affect planning. While there are some studies that investigated what behaviors different cultures emphasize when planning, there is only a handful of studies that analyzed the underlying cultural factors that cause these behaviors. Thus, it is recommended to investigate further how other cultural factors besides time orientation (TO: LTO versus STO), such as power distance, may explain certain planning behaviors, in order to improve cross-cultural understanding.

Furthermore, this study only investigated two nationalities, and emerging economies are very much underrepresented in this area of research. Brock, Barry & Thomas (2000) emphasized that more research regarding culture and planning was needed. Therefore, this research should be conducted involving more countries, and not be limited to developed economies, but rather extended to emerging economies as well (e.g. China, India).

Future studies with more financial and temporal resources could investigate this matter with a larger and more diverse research population. This study had approx. 100 respondents of each culture, most of them relatively young and well-educated. Increasing the sample size and including respondents with more diverse backgrounds (e.g. older, lower education, more dependants to support) may lead to different results.

In addition, planning orientation (Pl.O: PO versus OO) should be investigated through real-life experiments (as conducted by Woolley, 2009a, 2009b) rather than through self-ratings. This is particularly recommended since the qualitative research showed that many respondents rated themselves highly on almost all Pl.O items, despite the fact that dual orientation was found to be unlikely (Woolley, 2009a, 2009b). This gives reason to believe respondents tended to embellish their answers, a risk eliminated by experiments with neutral observers.

It would also be of interest to investigate what factors influence Pl.O (PO versus OO), since none of the demographic control variables (nationality, gender, age, income, dependants, education, and home region) was of consistent significant predictive value. Woolley (2009a, 2009b) also stated in her publications that she considered more research into the factors determining PO versus OO necessary.

Finally, future research should also attempt to create measures with higher Cronbach's alphas, particularly for TO and Pl.O. This can improve the reliability of the results.

4.5. Conclusion

The aim of this research was to find out more about planning orientation, i.e. process orientation versus outcome orientation, among Brazilians and Germans. Specifically, this study investigated the relationship between conscientiousness and planning orientation, and whether the cultural factor of time orientation, i.e. long-term orientation versus short-term orientation, moderates this relationship or has a direct influence on planning orientation among Brazilians and Germans.

Previous research showed that how an individual plans is significantly affected by personality, and that conscientiousness is the most significant personality factor in predicting planning (Prenda & Lachman, 2001; Rogers, Creed & Glendon, 2008). There was no previous research specifically investigating the relationship between conscientiousness and planning orientation. Prior research also found significant differences between national cultures regarding planning (Zwikael, 2009; Zwikael et al., 2005). For example, Arab and African countries, whom Hofstede, 2001, classifies as high on short-term orientation, were found to value schedules and detailed planning less than their Western counterparts (Gray & Larson,

2002; Milosevic, 1999 - both as cited in Rees-Caldwell & Pinnington, 2013). However, no prior research investigated whether time orientation and nationality moderates the relationship between conscientiousness and planning orientation, or whether time orientation has a direct impact on planning orientation. Thus, this was a new contribution to literature.

Both qualitative and quantitative research were conducted in form of interviews and an online survey. Differences surfaced during the qualitative research, when respondents were asked to describe freely how they perceived planning to occur in their respective cultures. Brazilians acknowledged that their fellow citizens generally planned not far ahead, and that it was challenging to keep timelines due to bureaucracy and frequent delays. Germans, on the other hand, noted the importance of thorough planning in their everyday lives. Frequent themes were the usage of agendas, adherence to timelines and agreements, and having a backup plan. This suggested planning differences between the two cultures.

However, SPSS analysis of the quantitative research showed that there was no significant relationship between conscientiousness and planning orientation, that time orientation and nationality did not moderate this relationship, and that time orientation did not have a direct influence on planning orientation. There were no significant differences between the Brazilian and the German samples regarding conscientiousness, time orientation, and planning orientation. Neither sample displayed a significant relationship between conscientiousness and process orientation. The Brazilian sample was not more likely to display outcome orientation, and neither was the German sample more likely to display process orientation. Demographic variables such as nationality, gender, age, income, number of dependants, education, and home region were also controlled for, but were of no consistent explanatory value for planning orientation. A surprising finding was the fact that the German sample displayed a similar degree of short-term orientation as the Brazilian sample, despite the fact that Hofstede (2001) classified Germany as a long-term orientation country.

It is hoped that this study will be of value for improved cross-cultural understanding. It was shown that there are no significant differences between Brazilians and Germans in terms of conscientiousness, time orientation, and planning orientation, which may help to combat popular stereotypes. It can also be helpful for cross-cultural collaborations to be aware that external circumstances such as local bureaucracy and frequent delays, as mentioned by Brazilian respondents, may differ from country to country and are likely to shape local planning as well. Thus, when engaging in collaborations, these external factors should be kept in mind on top of potential cultural differences.

Appendix

Appendix 1: Qualitative Research

Appendix 1.1: Respondent Demographics

Table 2: Qualitative Research – Respondent Demographics

Demographic Variable	Respondent					
BRAZILIAN SAMPLE	Respondent A	Respondent B	Respondent C	Respondent D	Respondent E	
Gender	Male	Female	Female	Male	Female	
Age	25-29 years	40-49 years	40-49 years	30-34 years	30-34 years	
Income (monthly, after taxes)	No own income	$3,500 to < $4,000	$4,000 to < $4,500	$2,000 to < $2,500	$2,000 to < $2,500	
Dependants (incl. respondent)	N/a	3	3	1	1	
Education	Bachelor's degree	Doctoral degree	Master's degree	Bachelor's degree	Bachelor's degree	
GERMAN SAMPLE	Respondent A	Respondent B	Respondent C	Respondent D	Respondent E	Respondent F
Gender	Male	Female	Female	Female	Female	Male
Age	20-24 years	20-24 years	25-29 years	25-29 years	60 years or older	60 years or older
Income (monthly, after taxes)	No own income	< $1.000	$1.000 to < $1.500	$1.500 to < $2.000	$4.000 to < $4.500	$6.000 to < $8.000
Dependants (incl. respondent)	N/a	1	1	1	4	4
Education	3-year vocational training course	Bachelor's degree	Bachelor's degree	3-year vocational training course	Doctoral degree	Postdoctoral degree

Source: author

Appendix 1.2: Interview Guide

1 | INTRODUCTION

In recent years, collaborations and trade between German and Brazilian companies has increased significantly. There are over 1,300 German companies active in Brazil, accounting for 8-10% of the Brazilian industrial GDP. In the state of São Paulo alone, there are more than 800 German companies present. Many say that Sao Paulo is actually the largest German industrial city outside of Germany. Additionally, Brazil counts Germany as its main trading partner in Europe and the fourth most important trading partner globally.

An important aspect of successful collaborations is planning. A number of researchers have investigated whether planning is influenced by national culture, and have found planning differences between different cultures. However, most of them state that there is need for more research in this regard. Thus, this project's aim is to investigate whether the relationship of personality and planning is influenced by national culture, specifically among Germans and Brazilians.

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this interview. I am very interested in hearing your opinion on the today's discussion topics. These include aspects of your personality, your time orientation, and planning habits and preferences. The expected interview duration is approx. 15 minutes. The session will be recorded, but the footage will only be used anonymously for academic purposes.

2 | DISCUSSION GUIDE

SECTION 1 – PERSONALITY

We will start-off by discussing your personality, such as how you work and organize yourself. I will now make a series of statements about you. Please listen to each statement and decide how much you agree or disagree with it. Then please tell me your response using the following scale:

5 = strongly agree

4 = agree

3 = neutral (neither agree nor disagree)

2 = disagree

1 = strongly disagree

Please answer every statement, even if you are not completely sure of your response.

Q	Item	1	2	3	4	5
Q1	I plan ahead and organize things, to avoid scrambling at the last minute.					
Q2	I often push myself very hard when trying to achieve a goal.					
Q3	When working on something, I don't pay much attention to small details.					
Q4	I make decisions based on the feeling of the moment rather than on careful thought.					
Q5	When working, I sometimes have difficulties due to being disorganized.					
Q6	I do only the minimum amount of work needed to get by.					
Q7	I always try to be accurate in my work, even at the expense of time.					
Q8	I make a lot of mistakes because I don't think before I act.					
Q9	People often call me a perfectionist.					
Q10	I prefer to do whatever comes to mind, rather than stick to a plan.					
Source: Ashton & Lee (2009)						

SECTION 2 – TIME ORIENTATION

Now we are going to discuss your time orientation, i.e. whether you focus more on the long- or the short-term. I will read a variety of statements to you - please tell me with which side you agree more, and to what extent.

Please listen to each statement and decide how much you agree or disagree with it. Then please tell me your response using the following scale:

5 = strongly agree with right statement

4 = agree with right statement

3 = neutral (neither agree nor disagree)

2 = agree with left statement

1 = strongly agree with left statement

#	STO Item	1	2	3	4	5	LTO Item
Q1	I expect quick results.						I believe in achieving results through perseverance over a long term.
Q2	Social or hierarchical status is not a major issue in personal relationships.						Personal relationships are ordered by status and this order should observed.

#	STO Item	1	2	3	4	5	LTO Item
Q3	Nice people enjoy spending.						Nice people are thrifty and sparing with resources.
Q4	I value personal steadiness and stability.						I value personal adaptability.
Q5	It is important to have respect for traditions.						Traditions should be adapted to new circumstances.
Q6	Greetings, favors, and gifts should be reciprocated.						Reciprocating favors and gifts is problematic, as there is a risk of overspending.
Q7	Children should learn tolerance and respect for other people at home.						Children should learn thrift at home.
Q8	Leisure time is important.						Leisure time is not so important.
Q9	Most important events in life occurred in the past or occur in the present.						Most important events in life will occur in the future.
Q10	Persistence is not an important personality trait.						Persistence is an important personality trait.
Q11	When I have additional income, I only save a small share of it.						When I have additional income, I save a large share of it.
Q12	I prefer to invest my money in investment funds.						I prefer to invest my money in real estate.
Source: based on Hofstede's (2001) summary of LTO versus STO - adapted by the author							

SECTION 3 – PLANNING HABITS AND PREFERENCES

3.1 PNC

Please describe how you perceive other people engaging in planning in your social environment / your home country.

3.2 HYPOTHETICAL EXAMPLE

Now we are going to talk about your planning habits and preferences. Imagine you have been given the task to complete a project at university / work. You will work on this project on your own for three months.

You can choose any topic as long as it involves exploring an issue of importance to a small company. The only process requirement is that you have to interview representatives from at least 10 small companies. The final product of your work will be a report describing your research topic and conclusions. Your report should include a literature review, description of

interview/data collection, reporting of results, and a set of conclusions and recommendations for managers.

Please tell me what you consider the three main goals of your project.

3.3 SELF-RATINGS

In general, when given a project, please rate the amount of attention you pay to the following components of the project on the following scale:

7 = maximum attention

6 = a lot of attention

5 = moderate attention

4 = neutral

3 = little attention

2 = very little attention

1 = no attention at all

#	Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q1	What are each of the subtasks that need to be completed?							
Q2	Which part of the project will I work on next?							
Q3	How should I divide my time among the various subtasks?							
Q4	Until when will I complete each of the subtasks?							
Q5	What constitutes a successful performance on this project?							
Q6	What criteria will be used for evaluating the final product?							
Q7	What is the relative importance of the different parts of the projects to the final score?							
Q8	What will the final version of my project look like?							
Q9	What information will be helpful to me in working on this project?							
Source: based on Woolley's (2009a, 2009b) team work items – adapted by the author for individual work								

SECTION 4 – EXIT QUESTIONS

1. Is there any question you think could be added to this interview to provide interesting insights?

2. Additional comments?

SECTION 5 – PERSONAL DETAILS

To wrap-up, I kindly ask you to provide us with the following personal details:

1. What is your nationality?
    a. Brazilian
    b. German
2. What is your gender?
    a. male
    b. female
3. What is your age?
    a. under 20 years
    b. 20-24 years
    c. 25-29 years
    d. 30-34 years
    e. 35-39 years
    f. 40-49 years
    g. 50-59 years
    h. 60 years or over
4. What is your monthly income after taxes (all values in $USD)?
    a. No own income
    b. <$1,000
    c. $1,000 to < $1,500
    d. $1,500 to < $2,000
    e. $2,000 to < $2,500
    f. $2,500 to <$3,000
    g. $3,000 to < $3,500

h. $3,500 to < $4,000

i. $4,000 to < $4,500

j. $4,500 to < $5,000

k. $5,000 to < $6,000

l. $6,000 to < $8,000

m. $8,000 to < $10,000

n. $10,000 or more

5. How many people, including you, depend on this income?

6. What is the highest degree or level of school you have completed? If currently enrolled, please state the highest degree received.

   a. Primary school

   b. High school (Germany: three types of high school diplomas, namely "Hauptschulabschluss", "Realschulabschluss", and "Abitur / Fachhochschulreife")

   c. Vocational training course (Brazil: "curso técnico"; Germany: "Ausbildung")

   d. Bachelor's degree

   e. Master's degree (Germany: two additional types of degree, namely "Diplom" and "Staatsexamen", which are considered of equal value as a master's degree)

   f. Doctoral degree

   g. Postdoctoral degree

Thank you very much for your participation. Once again, any personal information you provided will only be used for the purpose of this academic research project.

Appendix 1.3: Results

Appendix 1.3.1: Conscientiousness Scores

Table 3: Qualitative Research – Conscientiousness Scores

Respondent	Item							
BRAZILIAN SAMPLE	Q1 - Normal	Q2 - Normal	*Q3 - Reverse*	Q3 - Recoded	*Q4 - Reverse*	Q4 - Recoded	*Q5 - Reverse*	Q5 - Recoded
Respondent A	4	4	*3*	3	*2*	4	*2*	4
Respondent B	4	5	*5*	1	*3*	3	*2*	5
Respondent C	1	5	*4*	2	*5*	1	*5*	5
Respondent D	5	5	*1*	5	*1*	5	*1*	4
Respondent E	5	4	*2*	4	*2*	4	*1*	1
Mean	3.80	4.60	*3.00*	3.00	*2.60*	3.40	*2.20*	3.80
	Q6 - Reverse	Q6 - Recoded	Q7 - Normal	*Q8 - Reverse*	Q8 - Recoded	Q9 - Normal	*Q10 - Reverse*	Q10 - Recoded
Respondent A	*2*	4	4	*3*	3	2	*2*	4
Respondent B	*1*	5	5	*2*	4	5	*1*	5
Respondent C	*2*	4	3	*2*	4	2	*4*	2
Respondent D	*1*	5	4	*1*	5	5	*1*	5
Respondent E	*2*	4	5	*1*	5	4	*1*	5
Mean (Q)	*1.60*	4.40	4.20	*1.80*	4.20	3.60	*1.80*	4.20
Organization Mean	3.80							
Diligence Mean	4.50							
Perfectionism Mean	3.60							
Prudence Mean	3.80							
Total Mean	**3.08**							
GERMAN SAMPLE	Q1 - Normal	Q2 - Normal	*Q3 - Reverse*	Q3 - Recoded	*Q4 - Reverse*	Q4 - Recoded	*Q5 - Reverse*	Q5 - Recoded
Respondent A	3	2	*2*	4	*1*	5	*1*	4
Respondent B	4	5	*2*	4	*2*	4	*3*	4
Respondent C	3	5	*2*	4	*4*	2	*2*	5
Respondent D	4	4	*2*	4	*2*	4	*2*	3
Respondent E	5	4	*1*	5	*3*	3	*1*	2
Respondent F	5	4	*1*	5	*2*	4	*4*	5
Mean	4.00	4.00	*1.67*	4.33	*2.33*	3.67	*2.17*	3.83
	Q6 - Reverse	Q6 - Recoded	Q7 - Normal	*Q8 - Reverse*	Q8 - Recoded	Q9 - Normal	*Q10 - Reverse*	Q10 - Recoded
Respondent A	*3*	3	2	*1*	5	1	*4*	2
Respondent B	*2*	4	4	*2*	4	5	*2*	4
Respondent C	*5*	1	5	*4*	2	4	*2*	4
Respondent D	*2*	4	4	*1*	5	3	*2*	4

Table 3: Qualitative Research – Conscientiousness Scores								
Respondent	Item							
Respondent E	*1*	5	5	*1*	5	2	*2*	4
Respondent F	*1*	5	5	*1*	5	3	*2*	4
Mean(Q)	*2.33*	3.67	4.17	*1.67*	4.33	3.00	*2.33*	3.67
Organization Mean	3.92							
Diligence Mean	3.83							
Perfectionism Mean	4.25							
Prudence Mean	4.00							
Total Mean	3.42							
Source: author								

Appendix 1.3.2: Time Orientation Scores

Table 4: Qualitative Research – Time Orientation Scores												
Respondent	Item											
BRAZILIAN SAMPLE	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9	Q10	Q11	Q12
Respondent A	4	3	4	3	4	2	4	2	4	5	4	5
Respondent B	3	3	4	3	3	4	3	3	4	5	3	4
Respondent C	2	2	3	4	4	2	1	1	1	5	1	4
Respondent D	2	3	5	2	4	1	1	1	1	5	5	3
Respondent E	3	3	3	4	3	3	1	1	3	4	4	1
Mean(Q)	2.80	2.80	3.80	3.20	3.60	2.40	2.00	1.60	2.60	4.80	3.40	3.40
Total Mean	3.03											
GERMAN SAMPLE	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9	Q10	Q11	Q12
Respondent A	2	4	3	5	1	3	1	1	1	5	3	5
Respondent B	4	3	3	4	4	2	2	1	4	4	3	3
Respondent C	3	1	3	2	3	1	2	3	4	2	5	3
Respondent D	3	4	4	4	3	2	2	2	3	4	5	3
Respondent E	2	4	3	2	3	1	1	1	3	4	2	3
Respondent F	2	4	3	4	2	1	1	2	3	4	3	3
Mean(Q)	2.67	3.33	3.17	3.50	2.67	1.67	1.50	1.67	3.00	3.83	3.50	3.33
Total Mean	2.82											
Source: author												

Appendix 1.3.3: Planning Orientation Scores

Appendix 1.3.3.1: Perception of National Character

BRAZILIAN SAMPLE

- *Respondent A:* "I think usually Brazilians do not plan much. Many Brazilians do not use agendas, for example. I think when they work on a task, they usually divide which steps need to be done, but rarely a rigid timeline is established. Things are done when there is time for it. During my internship [at a major engineering company], for example, I saw that even when there was a timeline, it was very difficult to keep up. It was not always the fault of the people working on the task, because project progress was often hampered by internal or external bureaucracy. For example, one time it was necessary to buy equipment, but the money for the purchase had not yet been made available. Once the equipment had been purchased, the delivery was delayed. When it had finally been delivered, it was not possible to install it, as a city hall license was required that took weeks to be finalized. Faced with this, many people did not think it made sense to create a timeline, as they had little control over the project's execution. Even the Brazilian government seems very incompetent when it comes to timing. We see daily that deadlines and budgets are not being met due to lack of estimates, even with important projects. Now, if detailed planning is not done for projects worth billions, why would we plan day-to-day activities?"
- *Respondent B:* "From my experience at work, I can confirm that it is difficult to meet a timeline in the public service, mainly due to bureaucracy. Generally, Brazilians do not plan their activities in the long run, there is no such habit and people struggle to make plans. Brazilians went through a very difficult phase in the '80s, when there was hyperinflation. During that time, it was impossible to plan anything, everything changed so fast. For example, Brazilians could not plan what to buy, how to save… I think that Brazilians' difficulty with planning partially stems from this historic fact. The hyperinflation changed and intervened in the habits of that time and the new generations were influenced."
- *Respondent C:* "Here in Brazil we do not plan - we just jump in! We start working and for example in the middle of the project, we think 'now it is better to close a deal'. We do not think 'we should allocate this much time to this task' or 'now we should focus on this path'. We just know we are going to solve that - we start thinking about how after beginning to work on the process."

- *Respondent D:* "The typical way of planning in Brazil, from my point of view, is immediate. Or rather, people tend not to plan and end up making decision that have negative consequences in the future. Of course I am talking about the majority of people that I know, because I consider myself to be different. I tend to plan and organize myself excessively, in such a way that in some situations, I end up hurting myself or losing an opportunity."
- *Respondent E:* "In Maranhão [the respondent's home state] I think it is a little different from here. People take arranging [private] meetings more seriously. Here in Rio de Janeiro it is kind of, ah, let's meet up sometime, very open. And sometimes you end up really arranging a meeting, sometimes you do not. I think that here in Rio things are more uncertain, socially. At work [doctor at a hospital] I think it depends a lot. The hospital has people of all profiles. There are people who are very responsible. For example, there is a technical nurse that works with me that is super responsible, I do not have to say things to her twice. But there are secretaries that have to be reminded every day what to do. In college, our group project organization was intermediate. A bit last minute, but it always worked out. Regarding my master thesis, I most certainly reflected on the task beforehand, I came to the advisor already with an idea in mind, and we sat down and did the project, everything went very well. We had deadlines, we agreed, it was all well organized."

GERMAN SAMPLE

- *Respondent A:* "The process of planning up until the final decision is handled very differently in my environment. Personally, I plan professional and university-related decisions very precisely. However, for each plan A there must also be a plan B, I always consider this beforehand. In my leisure time however I am reluctant to plan long in advance, in that area of my life I prefer things to be simple and spontaneous. Meetings with friends are usually organized at short notice. My girlfriend is very different in terms of planning, she organizes everything early on and precisely, and easily becomes nervous if something is not planned. That is exactly the same in my environment. The men plan little and organize at short notice, but are usually successful with that. The women organized long in advance, discuss their plans a lot, and in the end are also usually successful. I think we Germans differ in how much we plan in advance, particularly between genders there are big differences. The commonality however is: With us Germans, plans usually work out well in the end."
- *Respondent B:* "I think that in Germany, a lot of importance is placed on planning and the associated security. Due to this, appointments are organized a long time in advance,

which in my opinion does not necessarily equal success. I like a certain degree of planning in everyday life, but it should not determine the entire life."

- *Respondent C:* "I love to-do lists, and all of my female friends own agendas. I also really like study plans. I think Germans cannot be happy without plans. However, I also often throw plans overboard and create new ones. I think it is no exaggeration to say that planning is an important part of German culture. Yet it often creates problems when collaborating with other nationalities, because they do not understand why Germans place such extreme value on plans and timelines. I usually do not only have a plan A and plan B, but rather a plan A until Z."
- *Respondent D:* "At my workplace [hospital], everyone has a rough idea of how they do it [their job]. But everyone does their job differently - some people jump in and then everything comes together, others have lists and then proceed according to plan. I find it difficult to generalize. For me, an agenda is very important, among my friends as well. Yet at the hospital, we cannot plan that much, because it depends on the situation, on what kind of patients come in. We merely react. In my private life, I usually plan meetings with friends in advance (I have already planned some well into the coming month), but every now and then I also meet friends spontaneously. But that is relatively rare. I also always use to-do lists, that is really important for me. I think in Germany everything is done according to a plan - very very rarely something is done without any plan whatsoever, that is the exception."
- *Respondent E:* "At work, many things are short notice and are changed quite frequently, I do not like that at all. Among my friends, everyone has an agenda, and it is almost impossible to set up a meeting without one, because everyone has so many appointments - both professional and private ones. People also stick to these agreed meetings. If something comes up, people will cancel in time. That someone simply does not show up, that usually does not happen, that is how I observe it in my entire environment - also in my family. Virtually everyone sticks to this. Among my friends, almost everyone is very organized and punctual, also when it comes to private meetings. Of course there are exceptions. But most people can also be flexible if it is necessary. The same applies to work, if it is really necessary, people can be flexible. In general, planning culture in Germany is rather goal-oriented and precise, but it is difficult [to generalize], maybe also dependent on the social class. Regarding general business-related issues, I do think that we in Germany act precisely and exactly, and that everything is reliable and people stick to rules and agreements. However, what our cleaning lady tells me about the

transportation company she works for, everything is very chaotic there. A different type of people with a different idea of reliability works there. I find the question [to describe Germany's general planning culture] difficult. But at least the people that we [the respondent's family and friends] come in contact with stick to rules, and planning security must be guaranteed."

– *Respondent F:* "When you want to meet up with friends, you have to set it up using your agenda several weeks in advance. When we work on something [at work], there is always a timeline, and projects are carried out step-by-step. In the civil service, decision are made quickly, but the implementation often takes years. Quite generally, it cannot be said that planning in Germany is always done well - just look at the Berlin Brandenburg airport or the Elbe Philharmonic Hall in Hamburg. What is also terrible in Germany is the flood of regulations." [2]

Appendix 1.3.3.2: Hypothetical Action Level Identification Example

Table 5: Qualitative Research – Hypothetical Example Results

Respondent	3 Main Project Goals	Action Level Classification
BRAZILIAN SAMPLE		
Respondent A	Identify the companies' main issues and underlying causes	High-level action / outcome orientation
	Classify what problems are the most critical	High-level action / outcome orientation
	Identify the solutions that impact the companies' budget the least	Low-level action / process orientation
Respondent B	Conduct a literature review about the topic (important to optimize interview questions; data necessary to fulfill the project requirements)	Low-level action / process orientation
	Analyze where recommendations would be useful for the companies	High-level action / outcome orientation
	Verify degree of potential importance of recommendations for managers	High-level action / outcome orientation

[2] Author's note: The two construction projects mentioned by the respondent have become notorious examples of poor planning / implementation in Germany. (1) The Berlin Brandenburg airport construction began in 2006 and was scheduled for completion in 2011, however currently postponed to 2017. Costs were initially calculated to be €1 billion, but readjusted in 2015 to reach €6 billion. (2) The Elbe Philharmonic Hall's construction began in 2007 and was scheduled for completion in 2010, but only finished in 2016. Costs were originally calculated to be €186 million, but were readjusted to finally reach €575 million.

Table 5: Qualitative Research – Hypothetical Example Results		
Respondent	3 Main Project Goals	Action Level Classification
Respondent C	Investigate if companies invest in the right area	High-level action / outcome orientation
	Analyze if companies have learnt from past mistakes	Low-level action / process orientation
	Examine if companies have perspectives for the future	High-level action / outcome orientation
Respondent D	Identify causes of lack of productivity in companies	Low-level action / process orientation
	Improve understanding of how interpersonal relationships between employees work	High-level action / outcome orientation
	Understand if people respect the companies' internal hierarchies	Low-level action / process orientation
Respondent E	Analyze company profiles	Low-level action / process orientation
	Examine adherence to protocol within the companies	Low-level action / process orientation
	Examine quality of companies' resources / materials	Low-level action / process orientation
GERMAN SAMPLE		
Respondent A	Conduct interviews in a manner that allows valid data collection and result deduction	Low-level action / process orientation
	Make new recommendations for managers, that have not yet been made by other studies	High-level action / outcome orientation
	Make clear and practicable recommendations for companies / managers	High-level action / outcome orientation
Respondent B	Make recommendations that are helpful for companies	High-level action / outcome orientation
	Achieve personal fulfillment / fun through the project and research	High-level action / outcome orientation
	Prove recommendations through existing literature	Low-level action / process orientation
Respondent C	Gain new insights about small companies	High-level action / outcome orientation
	Interview as many different companies as possible in order to cover as much of the market as possible	Low-level action / process orientation
	Map out differences between selected companies and their respective backgrounds	Low-level action / process orientation

Table 5: Qualitative Research – Hypothetical Example Results		
Respondent	3 Main Project Goals	Action Level Classification
Respondent D	Be content with my performance and receive praise from others, i.e. good feedback	High-level action / outcome orientation
	Achieve academic publication	High-level action / outcome orientation
	Use a variety of research material (books, internet, interviews with company representatives, conversations with teachers)	Low-level action / process orientation
Respondent E	Complete the project in the given timeframe	Low-level action / process orientation
	Select a topic of which you already possess knowledge, so that you can complete it in a time-saving manner	Low-level action / process orientation
	Fast access to additional research material	Low-level action / process orientation
Respondent F	Choose a topic with practical relevance	High-level action / outcome orientation
	Make recommendations that are valuable for individuals	High-level action / outcome orientation
	Make recommendations that increase companies' success	High-level action / outcome orientation
Source: author		

Appendix 1.3.3.3: Self-Ratings

Table 6: Qualitative Resarch – Planning Orientation Self-Ratings									
Respondent	Process Orientation				Outcome Orientation				
BRAZILIAN SAMPLE									
Respondent / Item	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9
Respondent A	6	6	5	5	4	4	6	7	6
Respondent B	7	6	5	6	5	5	3	5	7
Respondent C	3	3	3	5	6	5	5	5	6
Respondent D	6	7	7	4	5	4	2	7	5
Respondent E	5	6	7	6	6	7	4	6	7
Means	5.40	5.60	5.40	5.20	5.20	5.00	4.00	6.00	6.20
Process Orientation Mean	5.40								
Outcome Orientation Mean	5.28								

Table 6: Qualitative Resarch – Planning Orientation Self-Ratings

Respondent	Process Orientation				Outcome Orientation				
GERMAN SAMPLE									
Respondent / Item	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9
Respondent A	6	6	4	1	7	7	7	6	5
Respondent B	5	4	3	3	5	5	4	5	6
Respondent C	6	3	4	4	5	5	3	4	5
Respondent D	6	5	6	5	6	4	3	7	5
Respondent E	7	7	6	5	5	5	6	7	6
Respondent F	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	7	6
Means	6.00	5.17	4.83	4.00	5.67	5.33	4.83	6.00	5.50
Process Orientation Mean	5.00								
Outcome Orientation Mean	5.47								

Source: author

Appendix 2: Quantitative Research

Appendix 2.1: Respondent Demographics

Table 7: Quantitative Research – Respondent Demographics

Demo-graphic Variable	SPSS Output
Gender	**Gender Overall Sample * Nationality Dummy Overall Sample Crosstabulation**

			Nationality Dummy Overall Sample		
			Brazilian	German	Total
Gender Overall Sample	male	Count	51	37	88
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	49,5%	34,9%	42,1%
	female	Count	52	69	121
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	50,5%	65,1%	57,9%
Total		Count	103	106	209
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 7: Quantitative Research – Respondent Demographics

Demo-graphic Variable	SPSS Output

Age

Age Overall Sample * Nationality Dummy Overall Sample Crosstabulation

			Nationality Dummy Overall Sample		
			Brazilian	German	Total
Age Overall Sample	under 20 years	Count	6	4	10
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	5,8%	3,8%	4,8%
	20-24 years	Count	36	38	74
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	35,0%	35,8%	35,4%
	25-29 years	Count	22	41	63
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	21,4%	38,7%	30,1%
	30-34 years	Count	9	2	11
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	8,7%	1,9%	5,3%
	35-39 years	Count	5	1	6
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	4,9%	0,9%	2,9%
	40-49 years	Count	16	1	17
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	15,5%	0,9%	8,1%
	50-59 years	Count	8	14	22
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	7,8%	13,2%	10,5%
	60 years or older	Count	1	5	6
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	1,0%	4,7%	2,9%
Total		Count	103	106	209
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 7: Quantitative Research – Respondent Demographics

Demo-graphic Variable	SPSS Output

Income (monthly, after taxes)

Monthly Income After Taxes Overall Sample * Nationality Dummy Overall Sample Crosstabulation

			Nationality Dummy Overall Sample		
			Brazilian	German	Total
Monthly Income After Taxes Overall Sample	no own income	Count	23	20	43
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	22,3%	18,9%	20,6%
	under US$ 1.000	Count	29	31	60
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	28,2%	29,2%	28,7%
	US$ 1.000 bis < US$ 1.500	Count	13	12	25
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	12,6%	11,3%	12,0%
	US$ 1.500 bis < US$ 2.000	Count	5	7	12
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	4,9%	6,6%	5,7%
	US$ 2.000 bis < US$ 2.500	Count	8	12	20
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	7,8%	11,3%	9,6%
	US$ 2.500 bis < US$ 3.000	Count	9	9	18
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	8,7%	8,5%	8,6%
	US$ 3.000 bis < US$ 3.500	Count	2	3	5
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	1,9%	2,8%	2,4%
	US$ 3.500 bis < US$ 4.000	Count	4	2	6
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	3,9%	1,9%	2,9%
	US$ 4.000 bis < US$ 4.500	Count	0	3	3
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	0,0%	2,8%	1,4%
	US$ 4.500 bis < US$ 5.000	Count	4	1	5
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	3,9%	0,9%	2,4%
	US$ 5.000 bis < US$ 6.000	Count	1	1	2
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	1,0%	0,9%	1,0%
	US$ 6.000 bis < US$ 8.000	Count	3	2	5
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	2,9%	1,9%	2,4%
	US$ 8.000 bis < US$ 10.000	Count	0	1	1
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	0,0%	0,9%	0,5%
	US$ 10.000 or more	Count	2	2	4
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	1,9%	1,9%	1,9%
Total		Count	103	106	209
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 7: Quantitative Research – Respondent Demographics

Demo-graphic Variable	SPSS Output

Dependants supported by income

Dependants Supported By Income Overall Sample * Nationality Dummy Overall Sample Crosstabulation

			Nationality Dummy Overall Sample		
			Brazilian	German	Total
Dependants Supported By Income Overall Sample	1	Count	40	71	111
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	38,8%	67,0%	53,1%
	2	Count	14	3	17
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	13,6%	2,8%	8,1%
	3	Count	12	2	14
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	11,7%	1,9%	6,7%
	4	Count	13	5	18
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	12,6%	4,7%	8,6%
	5	Count	1	3	4
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	1,0%	2,8%	1,9%
	6	Count	0	2	2
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	0,0%	1,9%	1,0%
	n/a (no own income)	Count	23	20	43
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	22,3%	18,9%	20,6%
Total		Count	103	106	209
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Education

Education Overall Sample * Nationality Dummy Overall Sample Crosstabulation

			Nationality Dummy Overall Sample		
			Brazilian	German	Total
Education Overall Sample	High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent	Count	27	26	53
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	26,2%	24,5%	25,4%
	Vocational training course	Count	11	7	18
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	10,7%	6,6%	8,6%
	Bachelor's degree	Count	43	35	78
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	41,7%	33,0%	37,3%
	Master's degree	Count	20	33	53
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	19,4%	31,1%	25,4%
	Doctoral degree	Count	1	3	4
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	1,0%	2,8%	1,9%
	Post-doctoral degree	Count	1	2	3
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	1,0%	1,9%	1,4%
Total		Count	103	106	209
		% within Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 7: Quantitative Research – Respondent Demographics

Demo-graphic Variable	SPSS Output
Home region	**Home Region Overall Sample * Nationality Dummy Overall Sample Crosstabulation**

			Nationality Dummy Overall Sample		
			Brazilian	German	Total
Home Region Overall Sample	Northeast (Brazil)	Count	10	0	10
		% within Home Region Overall Sample	100,0%	0,0%	100,0%
	Central-West (Brazil)	Count	3	0	3
		% within Home Region Overall Sample	100,0%	0,0%	100,0%
	Southeast (Brazil)	Count	70	0	70
		% within Home Region Overall Sample	100,0%	0,0%	100,0%
	South (Brazil)	Count	20	0	20
		% within Home Region Overall Sample	100,0%	0,0%	100,0%
	Northern Germany (Schleswig-Holstein, Hamburg, Bremen, Niedersachsen)	Count	0	20	20
		% within Home Region Overall Sample	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
	Eastern Germany (Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, Brandenburg, Berlin, Sachsen, Sachsen-Anhalt, Thüringen)	Count	0	12	12
		% within Home Region Overall Sample	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
	Southern Germany (Bayern, Baden-Württemberg, Saarland, Rheinland-Pfalz)	Count	0	66	66
		% within Home Region Overall Sample	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
	Western Germany (Nordrhein-Westfalen, Hessen)	Count	0	8	8
		% within Home Region Overall Sample	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
Total		Count	103	106	209
		% within Home Region Overall Sample	49,3%	50,7%	100,0%

Source: author

Appendix 2.2: Survey

1 | DEMOGRAPHIC REQUIREMENT

Please state your nationality.

- Brazilian
- German
- Other

2 | INTRODUCTION

In recent years, collaborations and trade on a global scale have increased significantly. An important factor for successful collaboration is planning. Thus, it is the aim of this project to examine, whether the relationship between personality and planning preferences is influenced by national culture.

The survey will take about 10 minutes. All data will be treated confidentially and will only be used for academic purposes.

A gift card will be raffled among participants (€20 Amazon gift card for participants residing in Germany, R$50 Lojas Americanas gift card for participants residing in Brazil). If you wish to participate in the lottery, you have the option to enter your e-mail address at the end of the survey.

Should you have any questions or concerns, I am available for further information.
Friederike Trautmann (master student) - 152115093@alunos.lisboa.ucp.pt

3 | SURVEY

SECTION 1 – PERSONALITY

This section is about your personality. Read every statement carefully and decide, to what extent it describes your personality. Please respond truthfully and not in an idealized manner.

5 = strongly agree

4 = agree

3 = neutral (neither agree nor disagree)

2 = disagree

1 = strongly disagree

Q	Item	1	2	3	4	5
Q1	I plan ahead and organize things, to avoid scrambling at the last minute.					
Q2	I often push myself very hard when trying to achieve a goal.					
Q3	When working on something, I don't pay much attention to small details.					
Q4	I make decisions based on the feeling of the moment rather than on careful thought.					
Q5	When working, I sometimes have difficulties due to being disorganized.					
Q6	I do only the minimum amount of work needed to get by.					

Q7	I always try to be accurate in my work, even at the expense of time.					
Q8	I make a lot of mistakes because I don't think before I act.					
Q9	People often call me a perfectionist.					
Q10	I prefer to do whatever comes to mind, rather than stick to a plan.					
Source: Ashton & Lee (2009)						

SECTION 2 – PERSONAL OPINIONS

This section is about your personal opinions. In the following, you will find a number of opposing statements. Please decide with which side you agree more and to what extent.

7 = completely agree with right statement

6 = moderately agree with right statement

5 = slightly agree with right statement

4 = neutral

3 = slightly agree with left statement

2 = moderately agree with left statement

1 = completely agree with left statement

Q	Left statement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Right statement
Q1	I expect quick results.								I believe in achieving results through perseverance over a long term.
Q2	Social or hierarchical status is not a major issue in personal relationships.								Personal relationships are ordered by status and this order should observed.
Q3	Nice people enjoy spending.								Nice people are thrifty and sparing with resources.
Q4	I value personal steadiness and stability.								I value personal adaptability.
Q5	It is important to have respect for traditions.								Traditions should be adapted to new circumstances.
Q6	Greetings, favors, and gifts should be reciprocated.								Reciprocating favors and gifts is problematic, as there is a risk of overspending.
Q7	Children should learn tolerance and respect for other people at home.								Children should learn thrift at home.

Q	Left statement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Right statement
Q8	Leisure time is important.								Leisure time is not so important.
Q9	Most important events in life occurred in the past or occur in the present.								Most important events in life will occur in the future.
Q10	Persistence is not an important personality trait.								Persistence is an important personality trait.
Q11	When I have additional income, I only save a small share of it.								When I have additional income, I save a large share of it.
Q12	I prefer to invest my money in investment funds.								I prefer to invest my money in real estate.
Source: based on Hofstede's (2001) summary of LTO versus STO - adapted by the author									

SECTION 3 – PROJECT PLANNING

The following section is about your individual plannings habits when you work on a project (at work, university, etc.).

A number of thought processes will be described. Please rate on a scale from 1 to 7, **how much attention you pay to the different aspects** when working on a project.

Please keep in mind that the rating is not about what you theoretically consider important, but rather about what aspects you pay attention to in real life.

7 = Maximum attention

6 = A lot of attention

5 = Moderate attention

4 = Neutral

3 = Little attention

2 = Very little attention

1 = No attention

The maximum number of points to be awarded is 40.

If you have distributed 40 points, you cannot award any more points. In this case, should you wish to increase an item's rating, you will have to reduce another item's rating first.

Q	Item	Rating
Q1	What are each of the subtasks that need to be completed?	
Q2	Which part of the project will I work on next?	
Q3	How should I divide my time among the various subtasks?	
Q4	Until when will I complete each of the subtasks?	
Q5	What constitutes a successful performance on this project?	
Q6	What criteria will be used for evaluating the final product?	
Q7	What is the relative importance of the different parts of the projects to the final score?	
Q8	What will the final version of my project look like?	
Q9	What information will be helpful while working on this project?	
	Total	40
Source: based on Woolley's (2009a, 2009b) team work items – adapted by the author for individual work		

SECTION 4 – DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

To wrap-up, I kindly ask you to provide some personal details. They will be treated confidentially and will only be used for academic purposes.

1. What is your gender?
    a. male
    b. female
2. What is your age?
    a. under 20 years
    b. 20-24 years
    c. 25-29 years
    d. 30-34 years
    e. 35-39 years
    f. 40-49 years
    g. 50-59 years
    h. 60 years or over

3. What is your monthly income after taxes (all values in $USD)?
    a. No own income
    b. <$1,000
    c. $1,000 to < $1,500
    d. $1,500 to < $2,000
    e. $2,000 to < $2,500
    f. $2,500 to <$3,000
    g. $3,000 to < $3,500
    h. $3,500 to < $4,000
    i. $4,000 to < $4,500
    j. $4,500 to < $5,000
    k. $5,000 to < $6,000
    l. $6,000 to < $8,000
    m. $8,000 to < $10,000
    n. $10,000 or more
4. How many people, including you, depend on this income?
5. What is the highest degree or level of school you have completed? If you are currently enrolled, please state the highest degree you successfully concluded.
    a. Primary school
    b. High school (Germany: three types of high school diplomas, namely "Hauptschulabschluss", "Realschulabschluss", and "Abitur / Fachhochschulreife")
    c. Vocational training course (Brazil: "curso técnico"; Germany: "Ausbildung")
    d. Bachelor's degree
    e. Master's degree (Germany: two additional types of degree, namely "Diplom" and "Staatsexamen", which are considered of equal value as a master's degree)
    f. Doctoral degree

g. Postdoctoral degree

6. With what region of Brazil / Germany do you identify the most?

   a. North Brazil

   b. Northeast (Brazil)

   c. Central-West (Brazil)

   d. South (Brazil)

   e. Southeast (Brazil)

   f. Northern Germany (Schleswig-Holstein, Hamburg, Bremen, Niedersachsen)

   g. Eastern Germany (Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, Brandenburg, Berlin, Sachsen, Sachsen-Anhalt, Thüringen)

   h. Southern Germany (Bayern, Baden-Württemberg, Saarland, Rheinland-Pfalz)

   i. Western Germany (Nordrhein-Westfalen, Hessen)

If you wish to participate in the lottery, you can enter your e-mail address here.

Appendix 2.3: SPSS Outputs

Appendix 2.3.1: Demographic Variables

Table 8: Quantitative Research – SPSS Output Demographic Variables

Independent Variable (Test)	SPSS Output
Nationality (ANOVA)	**ANOVA** Process Orientation Overall Sample

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	,577	1	,577	,745	,389
Within Groups	160,287	207	,774		
Total	160,864	208			

Table 8: Quantitative Research – SPSS Output Demographic Variables

Independent Variable (Test)	SPSS Output

Nationality (Regression)

ANOVA

Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	,369	1	,369	,745	,389
Within Groups	102,584	207	,496		
Total	102,953	208			

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4,296	,087		49,548	,000		
	Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	-,105	,122	-,060	-,863	,389	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4,563	,069		65,785	,000		
	Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	,084	,097	,060	,863	,389	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

Gender (ANOVA)

ANOVA

Process Orientation Overall Sample

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	,465	1	,465	,600	,439
Within Groups	160,399	207	,775		
Total	160,864	208			

ANOVA

Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	,298	1	,298	,600	,439
Within Groups	102,655	207	,496		
Total	102,953	208			

Gender (Regression)

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4,188	,094		44,625	,000		
	Gender Dummy Overall Sample	,096	,123	,054	,775	,439	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

Table 8: Quantitative Research – SPSS Output Demographic Variables

Independent Variable (Test)	SPSS Output

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4,650	,075		61,942	,000		
	Gender Dummy Overall Sample	-,076	,099	-,054	-,775	,439	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

Age (ANOVA)

ANOVA

Process Orientation Overall Sample

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3,106	7	,444	,565	,784
Within Groups	157,758	201	,785		
Total	160,864	208			

ANOVA

Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1,988	7	,284	,565	,784
Within Groups	100,965	201	,502		
Total	102,953	208			

Age (Regression)

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4,175	,280		14,902	,000		
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 20-24 years	,068	,298	,037	,229	,819	,184	5,426
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 25-29 years	,004	,302	,002	,012	,991	,196	5,100
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 30-34 years	,120	,387	,031	,311	,756	,503	1,989
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 35-39 years	,075	,457	,014	,164	,870	,643	1,554
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 40-49 years	,340	,353	,106	,962	,337	,403	2,480
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 50-59 years	-,073	,338	-,025	-,215	,830	,349	2,863
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 60 years or older	,492	,457	,094	1,075	,284	,643	1,554

a. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

Table 8: Quantitative Research – SPSS Output Demographic Variables

Independent Variable (Test)	SPSS Output

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4,660	,224		20,792	,000		
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 20-24 years	-,055	,239	-,037	-,229	,819	,184	5,426
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 25-29 years	-,003	,241	-,002	-,012	,991	,196	5,100
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 30-34 years	-,096	,310	-,031	-,311	,756	,503	1,989
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 35-39 years	-,060	,366	-,014	-,164	,870	,643	1,554
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 40-49 years	-,272	,282	-,106	-,962	,337	,403	2,480
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 50-59 years	,058	,270	,025	,215	,830	,349	2,863
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 60 years or older	-,393	,366	-,094	-1,075	,284	,643	1,554

a. Dependent Variable: Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

Income (ANOVA)

ANOVA

Process Orientation Overall Sample

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	14,455	13	1,112	1,481	,127
Within Groups	146,409	195	,751		
Total	160,864	208			

ANOVA

Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	9,251	13	,712	1,481	,127
Within Groups	93,702	195	,481		
Total	102,953	208			

Table 8: Quantitative Research – SPSS Output Demographic Variables

Independent Variable (Test)	SPSS Output

Income (Regression)

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4,320	,132		32,691	,000		
	Income Overall Sample Dummy under US$ 1,000	-,124	,173	-,064	-,716	,475	,586	1,708
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$ 1,000 to US$1,500	-,100	,218	-,037	-,458	,648	,718	1,392
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$1,500 to $2,000	,034	,283	,009	,122	,903	,829	1,206
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$2,000 to $2,500	-,407	,235	-,137	-1,737	,084	,755	1,325
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$2,500 to $3,000	,222	,243	,071	,912	,363	,771	1,296
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$3,000 to $3,500	-,470	,409	-,082	-1,147	,253	,918	1,090
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$3,500 to $4,000	-,195	,378	-,037	-,516	,607	,903	1,107
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$4,000 to $4,500	-,070	,517	-,009	-,135	,893	,948	1,054
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$4,500 to $5,000	,080	,409	,014	,196	,845	,918	1,090
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$5,000 to $6,000	-,570	,627	-,063	-,909	,364	,965	1,036
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$6,000 to $8,000	1,080	,409	,188	2,638	,009	,918	1,090
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$8,000 to $10,000	-1,070	,877	-,084	-1,220	,224	,982	1,018
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$10,000 or more	-,570	,453	-,089	-1,258	,210	,933	1,072

a. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

Table 8: Quantitative Research – SPSS Output Demographic Variables

Independent Variable (Test)	SPSS Output

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4,544	,106		42,987	,000		
	Income Overall Sample Dummy under US$ 1,000	,099	,139	,064	,716	,475	,586	1,708
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$ 1,000 to US$1,500	,080	,174	,037	,458	,648	,718	1,392
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$1,500 to $2,000	-,028	,226	-,009	-,122	,903	,829	1,206
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$2,000 to $2,500	,326	,188	,137	1,737	,084	,755	1,325
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$2,500 to $3,000	-,178	,195	-,071	-,912	,363	,771	1,296
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$3,000 to $3,500	,376	,328	,082	1,147	,253	,918	1,090
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$3,500 to $4,000	,156	,302	,037	,516	,607	,903	1,107
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$4,000 to $4,500	,056	,414	,009	,135	,893	,948	1,054
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$4,500 to $5,000	-,064	,328	-,014	-,196	,845	,918	1,090
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$5,000 to $6,000	,456	,501	,063	,909	,364	,965	1,036
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$6,000 to $8,000	-,864	,328	-,188	-2,638	,009	,918	1,090
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$8,000 to $10,000	,856	,701	,084	1,220	,224	,982	1,018
	Income Overall Sample Dummy US$10,000 or more	,456	,362	,089	1,258	,210	,933	1,072

a. Dependent Variable: Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

Dependants (ANOVA)

ANOVA

Process Orientation Overall Sample

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	10,455	6	1,742	2,340	,033
Within Groups	150,409	202	,745		
Total	160,864	208			

Table 8: Quantitative Research – SPSS Output Demographic Variables

Independent Variable (Test)	SPSS Output

Dependants (Regression)

ANOVA

Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6,691	6	1,115	2,340	,033
Within Groups	96,262	202	,477		
Total	102,953	208			

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4,320	,132		32,827	,000		
	Dependants Overall Sample Dummy 1	-,124	,155	-,070	-,799	,425	,595	1,679
	Dependants Overall Sample Dummy 2	-,482	,247	-,150	-1,948	,053	,780	1,282
	Dependants Overall Sample Dummy 3	,412	,266	,118	1,553	,122	,809	1,237
	Dependants Overall Sample Dummy 4	-,042	,242	-,013	-,173	,863	,771	1,296
	Dependants Overall Sample Dummy 5	,680	,451	,106	1,508	,133	,933	1,072
	Dependants Overall Sample Dummy 6	-,945	,624	-,105	-1,514	,132	,965	1,036

a. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4,544	,105		43,166	,000		
	Dependants Overall Sample Dummy 1	,099	,124	,070	,799	,425	,595	1,679
	Dependants Overall Sample Dummy 2	,385	,198	,150	1,948	,053	,780	1,282
	Dependants Overall Sample Dummy 3	-,330	,212	-,118	-1,553	,122	,809	1,237
	Dependants Overall Sample Dummy 4	,034	,194	,013	,173	,863	,771	1,296
	Dependants Overall Sample Dummy 5	-,544	,361	-,106	-1,508	,133	,933	1,072
	Dependants Overall Sample Dummy 6	,756	,499	,105	1,514	,132	,965	1,036

a. Dependent Variable: Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

Education (ANOVA)

ANOVA

Process Orientation Overall Sample

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1,865	5	,373	,476	,794
Within Groups	158,999	203	,783		
Total	160,864	208			

Table 8: Quantitative Research – SPSS Output Demographic Variables

Independent Variable (Test)	SPSS Output

ANOVA

Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1,194	5	,239	,476	,794
Within Groups	101,759	203	,501		
Total	102,953	208			

Education (Regression)

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4,221	,100		42,124	,000		
	Education Overall Sample Dummy High School	,090	,158	,045	,572	,568	,798	1,254
	Education Overall Sample Dummy Vocational Training Course	,140	,231	,045	,605	,546	,889	1,125
	Education Overall Sample Dummy Master's Degree	-,080	,158	-,039	-,506	,614	,798	1,254
	Education Overall Sample Dummy Doctoral Degree	-,034	,454	-,005	-,074	,941	,970	1,031
	Education Overall Sample Dummy Postdoctoral Degree	,529	,521	,072	1,016	,311	,977	1,024

a. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4,623	,080		57,669	,000		
	Education Overall Sample Dummy High School	-,072	,126	-,045	-,572	,568	,798	1,254
	Education Overall Sample Dummy Vocational Training Course	-,112	,185	-,045	-,605	,546	,889	1,125
	Education Overall Sample Dummy Master's Degree	,064	,126	,039	,506	,614	,798	1,254
	Education Overall Sample Dummy Doctoral Degree	,027	,363	,005	,074	,941	,970	1,031
	Education Overall Sample Dummy Postdoctoral Degree	-,423	,417	-,072	-1,016	,311	,977	1,024

a. Dependent Variable: Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

Home Region (ANOVA)

ANOVA

Process Orientation Overall Sample

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4,649	7	,664	,854	,544
Within Groups	156,216	201	,777		
Total	160,864	208			

Table 8: Quantitative Research – SPSS Output Demographic Variables

Independent Variable (Test)	SPSS Output

Home Region (Regression)

ANOVA

Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2,975	7	,425	,854	,544
Within Groups	99,978	201	,497		
Total	102,953	208			

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4,239	,105		40,233	,000		
	Home Region Dummy Overall Sample Northeast Brazil	,186	,298	,045	,623	,534	,919	1,088
	Home Region Dummy Overall Sample Central-West Brazil	-,073	,520	-,010	-,140	,889	,973	1,028
	Home Region Dummy Overall Sample South Brazil	,211	,224	,071	,943	,347	,860	1,163
	Home Region Dummy Overall Sample Northern Germany	-,289	,224	-,097	-1,294	,197	,860	1,163
	Home Region Dummy Overall Sample Eastern Germany	-,093	,275	-,025	-,339	,735	,906	1,104
	Home Region Dummy Overall Sample Southern Germany	,075	,151	,040	,497	,620	,752	1,329
	Home Region Dummy Overall Sample Western Germany	-,396	,329	-,087	-1,202	,231	,933	1,072

a. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4,609	,084		54,672	,000		
	Home Region Dummy Overall Sample Northeast Brazil	-,149	,238	-,045	-,623	,534	,919	1,088
	Home Region Dummy Overall Sample Central-West Brazil	,058	,416	,010	,140	,889	,973	1,028
	Home Region Dummy Overall Sample South Brazil	-,169	,179	-,071	-,943	,347	,860	1,163
	Home Region Dummy Overall Sample Northern Germany	,231	,179	,097	1,294	,197	,860	1,163
	Home Region Dummy Overall Sample Eastern Germany	,075	,220	,025	,339	,735	,906	1,104
	Home Region Dummy Overall Sample Southern Germany	-,060	,121	-,040	-,497	,620	,752	1,329
	Home Region Dummy Overall Sample Western Germany	,316	,263	,087	1,202	,231	,933	1,072

a. Dependent Variable: Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

Table 8: Quantitative Research – SPSS Output Demographic Variables	
Independent Variable (Test)	SPSS Output
Source: author	

Appendix 2.3.2: Hypothesis 1

Table 9: Quantitative Research - SPSS Output Hypothesis 1

Depen-dent Vari-able	SPSS Output
Process Orienta-tion	

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Process Orientation Overall Sample	4.2428	.87942	209
Conscientiousness Overall Sample	3.7464	.54473	209

Correlations

		Process Orientation Overall Sample	Conscientiousness Overall Sample
Pearson Correlation	Process Orientation Overall Sample	1,000	,116
	Conscientiousness Overall Sample	,116	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Process Orientation Overall Sample	.	,048
	Conscientiousness Overall Sample	,048	.
N	Process Orientation Overall Sample	209	209
	Conscientiousness Overall Sample	209	209

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,116[a]	,013	,009	,87563	,013	2,804	1	207	,096	1,945

a. Predictors: (Constant), Conscientiousness Overall Sample

b. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

Table 9: Quantitative Research - SPSS Output Hypothesis 1

Dependent Variable	SPSS Output

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2,150	1	2,150	2,804	,096[b]
	Residual	158,714	207	,767		
	Total	160,864	208			

a. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

b. Predictors: (Constant), Conscientiousness Overall Sample

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3,544	,422		8,398	,000		
	Conscientiousness Overall Sample	,187	,111	,116	1,675	,096	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

Outcome Orientation

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Outcome Orientation Overall Sample	4,6057	,70354	209
Conscientiousness Overall Sample	3,7464	,54473	209

Correlations

		Outcome Orientation Overall Sample	Conscientiousness Overall Sample
Pearson Correlation	Outcome Orientation Overall Sample	1,000	-,116
	Conscientiousness Overall Sample	-,116	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Outcome Orientation Overall Sample	.	,048
	Conscientiousness Overall Sample	,048	.
N	Outcome Orientation Overall Sample	209	209
	Conscientiousness Overall Sample	209	209

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,116[a]	,013	,009	,70051	,013	2,804	1	207	,096	1,945

a. Predictors: (Constant), Conscientiousness Overall Sample

b. Dependent Variable: Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

Table 9: Quantitative Research - SPSS Output Hypothesis 1

Dependent Variable	SPSS Output

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1,376	1	1,376	2,804	,096[b]
	Residual	101,577	207	,491		
	Total	102,953	208			

a. Dependent Variable: Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

b. Predictors: (Constant), Conscientiousness Overall Sample

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	5,165	,338		15,302	,000		
	Conscientiousness Overall Sample	-,149	,089	-,116	-1,675	,096	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

Source: author

Appendix 2.3.3: Hypothesis 2.1

Table 10: Quantitative Research – SPSS Output Hypothesis 2.1

Dependent Variable	SPSS Output

Process Orientation

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Process Orientation Overall Sample	4,2428	,87942	209
Conscientiousness Overall Sample	3,7464	,54473	209
Time Orientation Overall Sample	3,5510	,64165	209
Interaction Term Overall Sample Conscientiousness Time Orientation Centered	,0569	,35316	209

Table 10: Quantitative Research – SPSS Output Hypothesis 2.1

Dependent Variable	SPSS Output

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,122[a]	,015	,001	,87918	,015	1,039	3	205	,376	1,949

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interaction Term Overall Sample Conscientiousness Time Orientation Centered, Conscientiousness Overall Sample, Time Orientation Overall Sample

b. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2,409	3	,803	1,039	,376[b]
	Residual	158,456	205	,773		
	Total	160,864	208			

a. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

b. Predictors: (Constant), Interaction Term Overall Sample Conscientiousness Time Orientation Centered, Conscientiousness Overall Sample, Time Orientation Overall Sample

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3,420	,517		6,621	,000		
	Conscientiousness Overall Sample	,188	,114	,117	1,651	,100	,964	1,037
	Time Orientation Overall Sample	,032	,098	,023	,324	,746	,941	1,063
	Interaction Term Overall Sample Conscientiousness Time Orientation Centered	,094	,177	,038	,530	,597	,952	1,051

a. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

Outcome Orientation	

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Outcome Orientation Overall Sample	4,6057	,70354	209
Conscientiousness Overall Sample	3,7464	,54473	209
Time Orientation Overall Sample	3,5510	,64165	209
Interaction Term Overall Sample Conscientiousness Time Orientation Centered	,0569	,35316	209

Table 10: Quantitative Research – SPSS Output Hypothesis 2.1

Dependent Variable	SPSS Output

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,122[a]	,015	,001	,70334	,015	1,039	3	205	,376	1,949

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interaction Term Overall Sample Conscientiousness Time Orientation Centered, Conscientiousness Overall Sample, Time Orientation Overall Sample

b. Dependent Variable: Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1,542	3	,514	1,039	,376[b]
	Residual	101,412	205	,495		
	Total	102,953	208			

a. Dependent Variable: Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

b. Predictors: (Constant), Interaction Term Overall Sample Conscientiousness Time Orientation Centered, Conscientiousness Overall Sample, Time Orientation Overall Sample

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	5,264	,413		12,740	,000		
	Conscientiousness Overall Sample	-,150	,091	-,117	-1,651	,100	,964	1,037
	Time Orientation Overall Sample	-,025	,078	-,023	-,324	,746	,941	1,063
	Interaction Term Overall Sample Conscientiousness Time Orientation Centered	-,075	,142	-,038	-,530	,597	,952	1,051

a. Dependent Variable: Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

Source: author

Appendix 2.3.4: Hypothesis 2.2

Please note that for the first approach, the file was filtered by nationality for this hypothesis. Thus, even though the variables appear as the ones for the overall sample, only Brazilian / German respondents are included in the respective analyses (see n=103 / n=106 instead of the overall sample size n=209). In the second analysis approach, the overall sample was used.

Table 11: Quantitative Analysis – SPSS Output Hypothesis 2.2

Dependent Variable (Nationality)	SPSS Output
1st Analysis: Process Orientation (Brazilian)	

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Process Orientation Overall Sample	4,2961	,88475	103
Conscientiousness Overall Sample	3,7301	,57732	103
Time Orientation Overall Sample	3,5040	,66394	103
Interaction Term Overall Sample Conscientiousness Time Orientation Centered	,0753	,34260	103

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,136[a]	,019	-,011	,88966	,019	,626	3	99	,600	1,989

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interaction Term Overall Sample Conscientiousness Time Orientation Centered, Time Orientation Overall Sample, Conscientiousness Overall Sample

b. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1,485	3	,495	,626	,600[b]
	Residual	78,358	99	,791		
	Total	79,843	102			

a. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

b. Predictors: (Constant), Interaction Term Overall Sample Conscientiousness Time Orientation Centered, Time Orientation Overall Sample, Conscientiousness Overall Sample

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3,399	,703		4,836	,000		
	Conscientiousness Overall Sample	,202	,160	,132	1,259	,211	,907	1,103
	Time Orientation Overall Sample	,040	,135	,030	,294	,769	,960	1,042
	Interaction Term Overall Sample Conscientiousness Time Orientation Centered	,066	,266	,025	,247	,806	,936	1,068

a. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

Table 11: Quantitative Analysis – SPSS Output Hypothesis 2.2

Dependent Variable (Nationality)	SPSS Output
1st Analysis: Process Orientation (German)	

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Process Orientation Overall Sample	4,1910	,87529	106
Conscientiousness Overall Sample	3,7623	,51334	106
Time Orientation Overall Sample	3,5967	,61894	106
Interaction Term Overall Sample Conscientiousness Time Orientation Centered	,0390	,36385	106

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,113[a]	,013	-,016	,88240	,013	,438	3	102	,726	1,818

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interaction Term Overall Sample Conscientiousness Time Orientation Centered, Conscientiousness Overall Sample, Time Orientation Overall Sample

b. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1,024	3	,341	,438	,726[b]
	Residual	79,420	102	,779		
	Total	80,444	105			

a. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

b. Predictors: (Constant), Interaction Term Overall Sample Conscientiousness Time Orientation Centered, Conscientiousness Overall Sample, Time Orientation Overall Sample

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3,414	,780		4,376	,000		
	Conscientiousness Overall Sample	,170	,169	,100	1,004	,318	,983	1,017
	Time Orientation Overall Sample	,037	,147	,026	,252	,801	,892	1,121
	Interaction Term Overall Sample Conscientiousness Time Orientation Centered	,112	,249	,047	,450	,653	,905	1,105

a. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

Table 11: Quantitative Analysis – SPSS Output Hypothesis 2.2

Dependent Variable (Nationality)	SPSS Output
2nd Analysis: Process Orientation (Overall Sample)	

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Process Orientation Overall Sample	4,2428	,87942	209
Conscientiousness Overall Sample Centred	,0000	,54473	209
Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	,5072	,50115	209
Interaction Term Overall Sample Conscientiousness Nationality Centred	,0080	,36481	209

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,132[a]	,017	,003	,87808	,017	1,213	3	205	,306	1,949

a. Predictors: (Constant), Interaction Term Overall Sample Conscientiousness Nationality Centred, Nationality Dummy Overall Sample, Conscientiousness Overall Sample Centred

b. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2,805	3	,935	1,213	,306[b]
	Residual	158,059	205	,771		
	Total	160,864	208			

a. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

b. Predictors: (Constant), Interaction Term Overall Sample Conscientiousness Nationality Centred, Nationality Dummy Overall Sample, Conscientiousness Overall Sample Centred

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4,299	,087		49,673	,000		
	Conscientiousness Overall Sample Centred	,201	,151	,124	1,334	,184	,551	1,815
	Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	-,111	,122	-,063	-,914	,362	,999	1,001
	Interaction Term Overall Sample Conscientiousness Nationality Centred	-,025	,225	-,010	-,112	,911	,551	1,815

a. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

Source: author

Appendix 2.3.5: Hypothesis 3.1

Table 12: Quantitative Research – SPSS Output Hypothesis 3.1

Process Orientation

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Process Orientation Overall Sample	4,2428	,87942	209
Time Orientation Overall Sample	3,5510	,64165	209

Correlations

		Process Orientation Overall Sample	Time Orientation Overall Sample
Pearson Correlation	Process Orientation Overall Sample	1,000	,035
	Time Orientation Overall Sample	,035	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Process Orientation Overall Sample	.	,309
	Time Orientation Overall Sample	,309	.
N	Process Orientation Overall Sample	209	209
	Time Orientation Overall Sample	209	209

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	,194	1	,194	,250	,618[b]
	Residual	160,670	207	,776		
	Total	160,864	208			

a. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

b. Predictors: (Constant), Time Orientation Overall Sample

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4,074	,344		11,859	,000		
	Time Orientation Overall Sample	,048	,095	,035	,500	,618	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: Process Orientation Overall Sample

Outcome Orientation

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Outcome Orientation Overall Sample	4.6057	.70354	209
Time Orientation Overall Sample	3.5510	.64165	209

Table 12: Quantitative Research – SPSS Output Hypothesis 3.1

Dependent Variable	SPSS Output

Correlations

		Outcome Orientation Overall Sample	Time Orientation Overall Sample
Pearson Correlation	Outcome Orientation Overall Sample	1.000	-.035
	Time Orientation Overall Sample	-.035	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Outcome Orientation Overall Sample	.	.309
	Time Orientation Overall Sample	.309	.
N	Outcome Orientation Overall Sample	209	209
	Time Orientation Overall Sample	209	209

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.035[a]	.001	-.004	.70481	.001	.250	1	207	.618	1.915

a. Predictors: (Constant), Time Orientation Overall Sample

b. Dependent Variable: Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.124	1	.124	.250	.618[b]
	Residual	102.829	207	.497		
	Total	102.953	208			

a. Dependent Variable: Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

b. Predictors: (Constant), Time Orientation Overall Sample

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.741	.275		17.251	.000		
	Time Orientation Overall Sample	-.038	.076	-.035	-.500	.618	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: Outcome Orientation Overall Sample

Source: author

Appendix 2.3.6: Hypothesis 3.2 & Hypothesis 3.3

Table 13: Quantitative Analysis – SPSS Output Hypothesis 3.2 & Hypothesis 3.3

Group Statistics

	Nationality Dummy Overall Sample	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Conscientiousness Overall Sample	Brazilian	103	3,7301	,57732	,05689
	German	106	3,7623	,51334	,04986
Time Orientation Overall Sample	Brazilian	103	3,5040	,66394	,06542
	German	106	3,5967	,61894	,06012
Process Orientation Overall Sample	Brazilian	103	4,2961	,88475	,08718
	German	106	4,1910	,87529	,08502
Outcome Orientation Overall Sample	Brazilian	103	4,5631	,70780	,06974
	German	106	4,6472	,70023	,06801

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Conscientiousness Overall Sample	Equal variances assumed	,705	,402	-,426	207	,671	-,03217	,07552	-,18105	,11671
	Equal variances not assumed			-,425	202,704	,671	-,03217	,07564	-,18132	,11698
Time Orientation Overall Sample	Equal variances assumed	1,857	,174	-1,044	207	,298	-,09265	,08876	-,26764	,08233
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,043	204,997	,298	-,09265	,08885	-,26782	,08252
Process Orientation Overall Sample	Equal variances assumed	,225	,635	,863	207	,389	,10508	,12175	-,13495	,34511
	Equal variances not assumed			,863	206,676	,389	,10508	,12177	-,13499	,34515
Outcome Orientation Overall Sample	Equal variances assumed	,225	,635	-,863	207	,389	-,08406	,09740	-,27608	,10796
	Equal variances not assumed			-,863	206,676	,389	-,08406	,09741	-,27612	,10799

Source: author

Appendix 2.3.7: Time Orientation according to Age Groups

Please note that the file was not only analyzed as a whole, but in a second and third step also filtered by nationality. Thus, even though in the second and third step the variables appear as the ones for the overall sample, only Brazilian / German respondents are included (see n=103 / n=106 respectively instead of the overall sample size n=209).

Table 14: Discussion - SPSS Output Time Orientation according to Age Groups

Sample	SPSS Output
Overall Sample	

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Time Orientation Overall Sample	3.5510	.64165	209
Age Overall Sample Dummy 20-24 years	.3541	.47938	209
Age Overall Sample Dummy 25-29 years	.3014	.45998	209
Age Overall Sample Dummy 30-34 years	.0526	.22383	209
Age Overall Sample Dummy 35-39 years	.0287	.16739	209
Age Overall Sample Dummy 40-49 years	.0813	.27401	209
Age Overall Sample Dummy 50-59 years	.1053	.30763	209
Age Overall Sample Dummy 60 years or older	.0287	.16739	209

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.146[a]	.021	-.013	.64570	.021	.628	7	201	.733	1.977

a. Predictors: (Constant), Age Overall Sample Dummy 60 years or older, Age Overall Sample Dummy 35-39 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 30-34 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 40-49 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 50-59 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 25-29 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 20-24 years

b. Dependent Variable: Time Orientation Overall Sample

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.833	7	.262	.628	.733[b]
	Residual	83.804	201	.417		
	Total	85.636	208			

a. Dependent Variable: Time Orientation Overall Sample

b. Predictors: (Constant), Age Overall Sample Dummy 60 years or older, Age Overall Sample Dummy 35-39 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 30-34 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 40-49 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 50-59 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 25-29 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 20-24 years

Table 14: Discussion - SPSS Output Time Orientation according to Age Groups

Sample	SPSS Output

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.592	.204		17.590	.000		
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 20-24 years	-.042	.218	-.031	-.194	.847	.184	5.426
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 25-29 years	.002	.220	.002	.010	.992	.196	5.100
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 30-34 years	-.334	.282	-.117	-1.184	.238	.503	1.989
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 35-39 years	-.092	.333	-.024	-.275	.784	.643	1.554
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 40-49 years	-.185	.257	-.079	-.718	.473	.403	2.480
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 50-59 years	.041	.246	.020	.166	.868	.349	2.863
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 60 years or older	.158	.333	.041	.475	.635	.643	1.554

a. Dependent Variable: Time Orientation Overall Sample

Brazilian Sample

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Time Orientation Overall Sample	3.5040	.66394	103
Age Overall Sample Dummy 20-24 years	.3495	.47915	103
Age Overall Sample Dummy 25-29 years	.2136	.41185	103
Age Overall Sample Dummy 30-34 years	.0874	.28377	103
Age Overall Sample Dummy 35-39 years	.0485	.21596	103
Age Overall Sample Dummy 40-49 years	.1553	.36400	103
Age Overall Sample Dummy 50-59 years	.0777	.26896	103
Age Overall Sample Dummy 60 years or older	.0097	.09853	103

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.288[a]	.083	.015	.65885	.083	1.226	7	95	.296	2.019

a. Predictors: (Constant), Age Overall Sample Dummy 60 years or older, Age Overall Sample Dummy 35-39 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 50-59 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 30-34 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 40-49 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 25-29 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 20-24 years

b. Dependent Variable: Time Orientation Overall Sample

Table 14: Discussion - SPSS Output Time Orientation according to Age Groups

Sample	SPSS Output

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.726	7	.532	1.226	.296[b]
	Residual	41.238	95	.434		
	Total	44.964	102			

a. Dependent Variable: Time Orientation Overall Sample

b. Predictors: (Constant), Age Overall Sample Dummy 60 years or older, Age Overall Sample Dummy 35-39 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 50-59 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 30-34 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 40-49 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 25-29 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 20-24 years

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.972	.269		14.768	.000		
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 20-24 years	-.396	.291	-.286	-1.362	.176	.220	4.553
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 25-29 years	-.370	.303	-.229	-1.219	.226	.272	3.670
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 30-34 years	-.806	.347	-.344	-2.320	.022	.438	2.282
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 35-39 years	-.456	.399	-.148	-1.142	.256	.573	1.744
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 40-49 years	-.597	.315	-.327	-1.894	.061	.323	3.097
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 50-59 years	-.743	.356	-.301	-2.088	.039	.465	2.152
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 60 years or older	-.806	.712	-.120	-1.132	.260	.866	1.155

a. Dependent Variable: Time Orientation Overall Sample

German Sample

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Time Orientation Overall Sample	3.5967	.61894	106
Age Overall Sample Dummy 20-24 years	.3585	.48184	106
Age Overall Sample Dummy 25-29 years	.3868	.48933	106
Age Overall Sample Dummy 30-34 years	.0189	.13670	106
Age Overall Sample Dummy 35-39 years	.0094	.09713	106
Age Overall Sample Dummy 40-49 years	.0094	.09713	106
Age Overall Sample Dummy 50-59 years	.1321	.34018	106
Age Overall Sample Dummy 60 years or older	.0472	.21301	106

Table 14: Discussion - SPSS Output Time Orientation according to Age Groups

Sample	SPSS Output

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.275[a]	.075	.009	.61605	.075	1.141	7	98	.344	1.626

a. Predictors: (Constant), Age Overall Sample Dummy 60 years or older, Age Overall Sample Dummy 40-49 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 35-39 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 30-34 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 50-59 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 20-24 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 25-29 years

b. Dependent Variable: Time Orientation Overall Sample

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.031	7	.433	1.141	.344[b]
	Residual	37.193	98	.380		
	Total	40.224	105			

a. Dependent Variable: Time Orientation Overall Sample

b. Predictors: (Constant), Age Overall Sample Dummy 60 years or older, Age Overall Sample Dummy 40-49 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 35-39 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 30-34 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 50-59 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 20-24 years, Age Overall Sample Dummy 25-29 years

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.021	.308		9.807	.000		
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 20-24 years	.503	.324	.392	1.554	.123	.148	6.736
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 25-29 years	.569	.323	.450	1.762	.081	.145	6.899
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 30-34 years	.646	.534	.143	1.211	.229	.679	1.472
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 35-39 years	.396	.689	.062	.575	.567	.808	1.238
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 40-49 years	.896	.689	.141	1.301	.196	.808	1.238
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 50-59 years	.842	.349	.463	2.412	.018	.256	3.906
	Age Overall Sample Dummy 60 years or older	.846	.413	.291	2.047	.043	.466	2.144

a. Dependent Variable: Time Orientation Overall Sample

Source: author

Glossary

Term	Definition
Action Level Focus	Individuals' goals can be rated according to their action focus (Woolley, 2009a). A low-level action focus is related to process orientation (e.g. “interview ten managers”), whereas a high-level action focus is related to outcome orientation (e.g. “contribute to academic literature on my chosen topic”).
Conscientiousness	Conscientiousness is commonly be divided into the following facets (Costa & McCrae, 1992 - as cited in Trinh, n.d.; Costa Jr., McCrae & Dye, 1991): 1. Competence: The degree to which an individual is capable, sensible, and accomplished. 2. Order: The extent to which an individual keeps her environment neat and well organized. 3. Dutifulness: The degree to which an individual strictly adheres to standards of conduct. 4. Achievement striving: The extent to which an individual strives for excellence. 5. Self-discipline: The degree to which an individual is able to persevere and continue with a task despite frustration, boredom, or distractions. 6. Deliberation: The extent to which an individual is cautious and thoughtful. Ashton & Lee (2009) divide conscientiousness into the following facets: 1. Organization (“I plan ahead and organize things, to avoid scrambling at the last minute”). This facet can be related to Costa & McCrae’s “Order” and “Dutifulness” facets.

Term	Definition
	2. Diligence ("I often push myself very hard when trying to achieve a goal"). This facet is related to Costa & McCrae's "Self-Discipline" facet. 3. Perfectionism ("I always try to be accurate in my work, even at the expense of time"). This facet can be related to Costa & McCrae's "Achievement Striving" and "Competence" facets. 4. Prudence (Reverse-keyed: "I make decisions based on the feeling of the moment rather than on careful thought"). This facet can be related to Costa & McCrae's "Deliberation" facet.
HEXACO-60	The HEXACO-60 is a personality test similar to the NEO-PI-R. It consists of 60 self-report items that respondents answer on a 5-point Likert scale. Despite the comparative brevity, its scales are internally consistent and reliable (Ashton & Lee, 2009). What is more, self-observer agreements are reasonably high, and the HEXACO-60 conscientiousness scales were found to correlate strongly with their NEO-FFI counterparts, a shortened version of the NEO-PI-R (Ashton & Lee, 2009).
Long-Term Orientation	Long-term orientation is the degree to which a culture has a future-oriented, pragmatic point of view (Dong & Lee, 2007). Cultures high on long-term orientation adapt traditions easily to changed circumstances, exhibit a high perseverance in achieving results, value thriftiness, and have a strong propensity to save for the future and to invest (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004).
National Culture	Culture is the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes one group or category of people from another

Term	Definition
	(Hofstede, 2001). According to Hofstede & McCrae (2004), culture is (a) a collective, not individual, attribute; (b) not directly visible but manifested in behaviors; and (c) common to some but not all people.
NEO-PI-R	The NEO-PI-R is one of the most common scales to measure the Big Five personality factors. It is a 240-item self-report questionnaire which respondents answer on a 5-point Likert scale (Costa & McCrae, 1992 - as cited in McCrae & Costa, 1997).
Outcome Orientation	Outcome orientation is "the degree to which a person attends to the desired outcomes and consequences of goal pursuit" (Freund & Hennecke, 2015). Outcome-oriented individuals focus on high-level actions, such as the goal and success criteria (Woolley, 2009b).
Perception of National Character	An example of perception of national character would be that Canadians and Americans often agree that Canadians seem more agreeable than Americans. To examine whether this is accurate, one could compare the average agreeableness of Canadians and Americans to see how well the actual country scores align with perceptions (Heine, Buchtel & Norenzayan, 2008). It should be pointed out that several analyses failed to find a correlation between profiles of actual reported personality traits and people's perceptions of the character of their own country (McCrae & Terracciano, 2006; Terracciano et al., 2005). However, these studies were conducted with self-report items, meaning that their results could be compromised by

Term	Definition
	the reference-group effect. It is also worth mentioning that perceptions of group differences are often rather accurate (Jussim, 2005; McCauley, Jussim & Lee, 1995 – both as cited in Heine, Buchtel & Norenzayan, 2008). Furthermore, respondents were found to be able to make meaningful and relatively accurate judgments about their own culture (Wan et al., 2007 – as cited in Heine, Buchtel & Norenzayan, 2008).
Planning	Planning is a way for individuals and groups to "control and structure their lives" (Prenda & Lachman, 2001).
Planning Orientation	During planning, an individual usually puts more emphasis either on the process or on the outcome (Freund & Hennecke, 2015; Pham & Taylor, 1999; Thompson, Hamilton & Petrova, 2008). People are unlikely to easily change their preference for one reasoning system to the other, meaning that both individuals and teams stay focused on either processes or outcomes at least for a certain period of time (Blajenkova et al., 2006; Kozhevnikov et al., 2005 - as cited in Woolley, 2009a).
Process Orientation	Process orientation is "the degree to which a person attends to the aspects of the goal that are related to the means" (Freund & Hennecke, 2015). Process-oriented individuals identify their actions at a low level, e.g. considering specific necessary tasks and the project schedule (Woolley, 2009b).
Reference Group Effect	Self- and peer-reported data can be affected by the reference-group effect (Heine, Lehman, Peng & Greenholtz, 2002; Peng, Nisbett & Wong, 1997 - both as cited in Heine, Buchtel & Norenzayan, 2008). Individuals living in a culture where

Term	Definition
	clocks are on time and efficiency is expected will likely have a different idea of conscientiousness than people who live in cultures where activities take place according to a spontaneous schedule (Heine, Buchtel & Norenzayan, 2008).
Short-Term Orientation	Short-term orientation describes the degree to which a culture has a past- and present-oriented, normative perspective (Dong & Lee, 2007). National cultures high on short-term orientation value traditions and view changes with suspicion. They also place emphasis on fulfilling social obligations, have a weak propensity of saving for the future and focus on achieving quick results (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004).
Time Orientation	The idea behind the time orientation concept (long-term orientation versus short-term orientation) is that every culture must find ways to maintain links with its past, while confronting the challenges of the present and future (Hofstede, 2001).

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