THE IMPACT OF INDIVIDUAL CULTURAL ORIENTATION

ON HUMAN RESOURCE DECISION-MAKING

AT THE CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY, FREE STATE (CUT)

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DECLARATION WITH REGARD TO INDEPENDENT WORK

I, **MOJALEFA ALPHONSE TITISI**, identity number _____ and student number _____, do hereby declare that this research project submitted to the Central University of Technology, Free State for the Degree **MASTER OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES IN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT**, is my own independent work; and complies with the Code of Academic Integrity, as well as other relevant policies, procedures, rules and regulations of the Central University of Technology, Free State; and has not been submitted before to any institution by myself of any other person in fulfilment (or partial fulfilment) of the requirements for the attainment of any qualification.

_____   15-05-2022

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SUMMARY

The globalised world of work of the 21st century presents various challenges to organisations, notably increased competition within the markets, constant changes in technology, new organisational alliances, changing structures, evolving work methods, and workforce diversity. This also applies to universities as they have a task of ensuring that they prepare students who can make real contributions towards the country's workforce. As a result, universities must consider a complex array of stakeholders, such as the community, government, industry, and students. Universities managers are under increased pressure to not only satisfy the various stakeholders, but also prepare students for a highly interconnected and complex workplace. This will not be possible if universities are not well managed, which includes taking appropriate human resource decisions.

Human resource decisions include matters pertaining to recruitment, selection and the promotion of staff, learning and development of employees within the organisation, and the entire talent management process. The focus of this study was on all line managers at the Central University of Technology (CUT), Free State, who are tasked with making human resource decisions. The Schwartz Value Survey (SVS) and general decision-making styles by Scott and Bruce (1995) were applied as theoretical frameworks to comprehend the impact of individual cultural orientation on human resource decision-making.

A quantitative research approach was followed to collect data for this study and a structured questionnaire was administered via QuestionPro to collect data from respondents. The survey was distributed to 119 line managers of all departments at CUT on both Bloemfontein and Welkom campuses. Of the 119 line managers who participated in the study 41% successfully completed the survey. The data collected were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics, as well as partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM), to examine the relationship among individual values and decision-making styles. Individual values included benevolence, universalism, self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power, security, conformity and tradition.

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Decision-making styles included rational, intuitive, dependent, avoidant, and spontaneous styles.

The findings of the empirical study revealed several statistically significant relationships. Hedonism and security were found to have positive relationships respectively with the avoidant decision-making style. The same was found for conformity and the dependent decision-making style, and for universalism and the dependent and intuitive decision-making styles, respectively.

Regarding the rational decision-making style, the findings indicated a positive statistically significant relationship with hedonism, security, and tradition, respectively. Similarly, the spontaneous decision-making style was shown to have a positive statistically significant relationship with achievement, power, and self-direction, respectively.

The findings confirmed that, even though line managers at CUT aim to achieve the same organisational goals, the decisions they make individually are driven by their individual beliefs and the values they ascribe to. Therefore, the study proposes that the institution should consider having flexible policies and procedures to accommodate employees' individual values and priorities, especially those in decision-making roles. Furthermore, the study recommends that line managers at CUT need to go through a professional development process where they are made aware of different decision-making styles and how these can be linked to their individual values and preferences. Finally, the recruitment and selection of strategic leaders should take into consideration the candidate's individual values to ensure the organisation employs candidates who are to be considered the perfect fit for the job and organisation.

Keywords: Culture, individual cultural orientation, values, South Africa, human resource management, decision-making.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CUT   Central University of Technology

DMS   Decision-Making Style/s

PLS-SEM   Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling

SA   South Africa

SVS   Schwartz Value Survey

VUCA   Volatility, Uncertainty, Complexity, Ambiguity

MAS   Masculine Societies

VS   Versus

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

The dynamic world of work is full of challenges that require managers to make multitude of decisions in the workplace. Some of these challenges pertain to the ever-increasing complexity of operating in a global sphere, increased competition within markets, constant changes in technology, new organisational alliances and structures, and changes in working methods (Nasir, 2017). These challenges put pressure on managers to make appropriate decisions towards the advancement of organisations. Decision-making can thus be regarded as a core function of management.

Apart from the above challenges, other issues that put pressure on organisations include the ability to manage the diverse workforce. Saxena (2014:76) defines employee diversity as "similarities and differences among employees in terms of age, cultural background, physical abilities and disabilities, race, religion, gender, and sexual orientation". Managing workforce diversity is a worldwide challenge that has an impact on both developing and developed countries.

In addition to workforce diversity, South Africa as a developing country also faces high unemployment and inequality, which are worsened by a failing school system (World Bank Team, 2018). South African societies can also be described by a lack of social cohesion which mainly stems from historical contexts (e.g., apartheid with its racial segregation). Apartheid was a system of racial discrimination which imposed segregation of African, Indian, coloured and white people within economic, social and political structures on a national level (Mhlauli *et al.,* 2015). Furthermore, the lack of social cohesion in South Africa also stems from current contexts (e.g., corruption, economic inequality, governmental and political issues) (Lefko-Everett, Burns, Nontshokweni & Njozela, 2018).

Workforce diversity, inequality and social cohesion are considered to be issues which are frequently attributed to the influence of culture (Jablokow & Myers, 2010). The term 'culture' originates from the field of anthropology which seeks to comprehend the ways in which humans adapt to the complex challenges of the world around them (Eriksen, 2013). Anthropology is divided into four subfields: cultural anthropology, physical anthropology, linguistic anthropology, and archaeology (Eller, 2015). According to Eller (2015) cultural anthropology investigates historical and modern human cultures, while physical anthropology studies the evolution of human species. Archaeology studies human past by locating and analysing material remains, whereas linguistic anthropology focuses on human language and linguistics (Eller, 2015). Bailey and Peoples (2002) add another subfield of anthropology, which deals with practical problems by using anthropological skills, knowledge, concepts, and methods to find solutions to the multitude of challenges that humans face. This subfield of anthropology is known as applied anthropology (Bailey & Peoples, 2002).

The term 'culture', as applicable to this discussion, originates from the study of cultural anthropology as opposed to other subfields of anthropology. Cultural anthropology seeks to understand the reasons behind cultural change and aims to identify the cultural differences between humans, including aspects such as religion, communication, rituals, etc... The focus of cultural anthropology is on how different cultures adapt and interpret the world (Bailey & Peoples, 2002). According to Idang (2015), there are various ways to define the notion of culture. The British anthropologist Sir Edward Tylor proposed a classical definition of culture in the 19th century, he defines culture as "that complex whole which includes knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society" (Idang, 2015:98).

Values and other individual habits that are highlighted by Taylor's definition can also be referred to as the accepted behaviours that are common within a specific society or cultural group. Values can incorporate social, moral, political, and religious dimensions. Social values are defined as the beliefs practiced by a particular society, whereas moral

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values are customs embedded within a specific cultural group to keep order and provide the perceived right way to live (Idang, 2015). Political values encompass the political traditions and leadership roles like 'head of the clan', and religious values involve beliefs in the existence of a supreme being that is invisible and indigenous (Idang, 2015).

According to Schwartz (2006) values are a fundamental part of culture that shape the behaviour of individual members within the society. Societal members do not only learn cultural values from one another (also known as enculturation), they are also often exposed to the values of other cultural groups, especially when working and residing in diverse environments (also referred to as acculturation). As a result, individuals can ascribe to values that correspond with their personal convictions – which denote the applicability of individual cultural orientation.

To better explain the concept of individual cultural orientation, one has to first comprehend the notion of 'cultural orientation'. According to Ruan (2016) cultural orientation is defined as the degree to which the traditions, standards or norms, and practices of a specific cultural group have an impact on individuals. While cultural orientation can be defined in terms of the degree to which people are influenced by the values of a specific ethnic group, individual cultural orientation specifically focuses on individual goals and preferences taking into consideration the morals, values, beliefs, and customs that a person has been exposed to (Rao & Kunja, 2019). As such, individual cultural orientation can therefore be defined in terms of people's individual orientation towards the mainstream culture and their ethnic values, as well as their personal endorsement of the cultural values of other groups of people (Neblett, Rivas-Drake & Umaña-Taylor, 2012).

According to Baluku, Kikooma, Bantu, Onderi and Otto (2019) individual cultural orientation is particularly important in the business context due to the impact it has on people's behaviour and social skills. This is because individuals are guided by different values when making decisions in the workplace. The way individuals receive, store,

retrieve, interpret or analyse, transform, and transmit information to make appropriate decisions in the workplace depends on how they observe the world through the values that guide them. Therefore, it should be noted that the impact of individual cultural orientation is subjective to the individual's interpretation of the world (Horne, Muradoglu & Cimpian, 2019). The focus of the current study is on the impact that individual cultural orientation has on decision-making processes relating to human resource issues within the organisational setting. The Central University of Technology, Free State (CUT), was selected as the unit of analysis for the study.

1.2 Previous research

The concept of culture and cultural differences has been studied for many years by various researchers. According to Yates and Oliveira (2016) most studies conducted on the concept of human culture focused on selected groups mainly from North American Caucasian and East Asian cultures. Even so, there are noticeable researchers, like the well-known Dutch researcher Geert Hofstede (2011), who conducted research in over 50 countries around the world and administered over 100 000 questionnaires in order to comprehend the cultural values of societies. The analysis of Hofstede's original research has led to the formation of the four-dimension model (4D model) with the first four cultural dimensions by Geert Hofstede (Hofstede, 2011).

The 4D model has the following dimensions: individualism-collectivism measures the degree to which individuals ascribe to their individual beliefs or those of their social groups; masculinity-femininity describes the various roles which are divided between women and men; power distance reflects on how societies react to the inequalities that exist within them; and uncertainty avoidance defines how societies respond to an unknown future (Hofstede, 2011).

According to Hofstede (2011) the 4D model was influenced by authors such as Gregg and Banks (1965), Adelman and Morris (1967), and Lynn and Hampson (1975). The last

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two dimensions have been added subsequently, namely: long-term versus short-term orientation which indicates that certain societies have a future-oriented perspective while others value the past; and indulgence versus restraint which relates to the fulfilment of fundamental desires of human beings versus control of these desires (Hofstede, Minkov & Hofstede, 2010). Hofstede's findings led to the conceptualisation of national culture – which sets countries apart based on the values they ascribe to.

Apart from Hofstede's research on cultural differences, another accomplished researcher on the notion of culture and social psychology is Shalom Schwartz (2012) who has identified ten individual values based on the assumption that values lend meaning to human life:

1) achievement: individual competence pertaining to various cultural standards, like self-respect and to obtain social approval,
2) power: social esteem in terms of authority, wealth and social power,
3) universalism: concern for the protection of nature and human well-being,
4) benevolence: concern for the well-being of family and friends within the group,
5) stimulation: individual desire to lead a daring, varied and exciting life,
6) self-direction: individual need to be independent and in control,
7) conformity: self-restraint and the ability to adhere to expectations,
8) tradition: respect for the beliefs and customs of one's culture,
9) security: individual need for safety and stability, and
10) hedonism: indivdual need for pleasure and self-indulgence.

According to Schwartz (2006) values are part of culture as they serve as critical motivators shaping individual behaviour and attitude. Similarly, Spencer-Oatey (2012) states that values are the fundamental principles that give direction individual members of a group, organisation and society in determining how they should behave.

Individual behaviour is learned and can be shaped by the enculturation process. Enculturation is the process of socialisation where those who affiliate with at specific cultural group learn and absorb the cultural norms, customs, and values of that particular ethnic group (Hakim-Larson & Menna, 2016). Furthermore, Idang (2015) indicates that these values are regarded as an important part of culture as they differentiate the behaviour of individuals. In this sense it is essential to note that social values cannot be separated from religious values (e.g., compassion and respect), moral values (e.g., a moral code by African culture which forbids any person from harming anyone unless such person is involved in an immoral act), and political values (e.g., freedom and equality) (Idang, 2015). These values are entrenched during the enculturation process and thus become part of the taken-for-granted values that guide the behaviour of individuals.

Kastanakis and Voyer (2014) explain that culture serves as the basis of direction in the world which shapes how people contemplate, craft, and act on their view of life. As such, human culture would have an impact on people's psychological processes, notably decision-making. Research on decision-making and culture is not new. In the 21st century, researchers like Wang, McNally and Lenihan (2019) and Bikram and Sunpreer (2019) have focused on these concepts. Wang *et al.* (2019:222) focused on the "role of social capital and culture in social decision-making constraints", while Bikram and Sunpreer (2019) investigated the varying effects of the cultural dimensions on decision-making. Evans and Stanovich (2013) distinguished between two systems operating within people's minds when making decisions: the intuitive-experiential base, which is intuitive decision-making characterised by hunches and feelings; and analytical-rational thinking which is based on the person's ability to think in a logical way.

A recent study by Jamaludin, Aziz and Mariapan (2018) disclosed that decision-making can be influenced by user-created content and psychological factors such as motivation, loyalty and social cognisance. This corresponds with the cultural values of Schwartz (Manzato, 2019). In line with the above, individual cultural values and the process of decision-making have become an important part of managerial decision-making.

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1.3 Problem statement

In the so-called new world of work, which is increasingly being characterised by technological innovations and advancements, managers are frequently faced with the challenge of making most suitable human resources decisions. This is especially pertinent within contemporary organisations, including universities, which operate in a fiercely global and national environment. Making human resource decisions can be daunting as managers not only ascribe to different individual values (based on their beliefs and values), but also employ different decision-making styles (Schwartz, 2012). Managers who are tasked with making human resource decisions daily can impact the behaviours and motivation of their subordinates. The paucity of research on individual cultural orientation and its effect on human resource decision-making in the South African context prompted this investigation. All managers tasked with making human resource decisions at CUT were part of the study.

1.4 Research questions

The study's primary research question was to determine what is the impact of individual cultural orientation on human resource decision-making among CUT's line managers?

1.4.1 Subsidiary research questions

1. What are the prevailing individual values of CUT's line managers?
2. What is the dominant decision-making style of CUT's line managers?
3. To what extent do individual values impact the decision-making styles of CUT's line managers?

1.5 Research objectives

The main objective of the study was to explore the impact of individual cultural orientation on human resource decision-making among CUT's line managers.

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1.5.1 Subsidiary research objectives

1. To determine the prevailing individual values of CUT's line managers.
2. To ascertain the dominant decision-making style of CUT's line managers.
3. To measure the extent to which individual values impact the decision-making styles of CUT's line managers.

The hypotheses derived from the research questions above are stated as:

H1: There is a statistically significant relationship between hedonism and the avoidant decision-making style.

H2: There is a statistically significant relationship between security and the avoidant decision-making style.

H3: There is a statistically significant relationship between conformity and the dependent decision-making style.

H4: There is a statistically significant relationship between universalism and the dependent decision-making style.

H5: There is a statistically significant relationship between universalism and the intuitive decision-making style.

H6: There is a statistically significant relationship between hedonism and the rational decision-making style.

H7: There is a statistically significant relationship between security and the rational decision-making style.

H8: There is a statistically significant relationship between tradition and the rational decision-making style.

H9: There is a statistically significant relationship between achievement and the spontaneous decision-making style.

H10: There is a statistically significant relationship between power and the spontaneous decision-making style.

H11: There is a statistically significant relationship between self-direction and the spontaneous decision-making style.

1.6 Research philosophy/paradigm

According to Bryman and Bell (2011), there are two main philosophical assumptions in research, namely ontology and epistemology. Ontology is concerned with the nature and form of social reality (Bryman & Bell, 2011). This study took an objectivist ontological stance, which holds that meanings and social phenomena exist independently of social actors (Bryman, 2004).

Epistemology on the other hand is defined as "the relationship between the 'knower' (the research participant) and the 'would-be knower' (the researcher)" (Ponterotto, 2005:131). Because the researcher believes in the methodical and logical quantification of research results, this study adopted the epistemological position of positivism. Positivism is referred to as the self-governing, independent and objective existence of the truth (Aliyu, Bello, Kasim & Martin, 2014).

1.7 Research approach and design

According to Mohajan (2017:2) the research approach is a "plan of action that gives direction to conduct research systematically and efficiently". In research, there are three main approaches: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-method (Mohajan, 2017). According to Bryman and Bell (2011) the quantitative approach focuses on collecting and analysing data that can be quantified, whereas qualitative methods focus on studying processes, cases, phenomena, social interactions and people in their natural environment through inductive, informative and realistic approaches (Yilmaz, 2013). The mixed-method approach is a combination of the quantitative and qualitative approach (Terrell, 2011). Based on its nature and its adherence to postitivism, this study followed the quantitative approach.

According to Bryman (2012) the research design outlines the framework for data collection and analysis. Ponto (2015) describes a descriptive research design as

collecting data from the selected sample of individuals through their responses to questions. For the purpose of this study, a survey, specifically a structured questionnaire, was used for data collection. According to Ranjit (2019:223) a structured questionnaire refers to a "written list of questions, the answers to which are recorded by the respondents". A structured questionnaire entails a written list of questions with pre-coded answers formulated by the researcher (Ranjit, 2014). The questionniare was distributed to respondents using the online platform named: QuestionPro.

1.8 Ethical considerations

The ethical clearance and permission letter from CUT to conduct this investgation is attached in Annexure C. In this study, the following ethical considerations were adhered to:

- Participation in the study was voluntary and was explained as such.
- Employees who participated in the study had been formally informed about the purpose of the study.
- The questionnaire was anonymous and the confidentiality of employee identity was maintained.
- The instructions were clear as to what is required of the participants and how the results of the study would be utilised.
- Information gathered was treated as confidential and confidentiality was maintained throughout the research proceedings.
- The participants were informed that the research outputs would be shared with them upon completion of the study.

1.9 Limitations of the study

Study limitations refers to any flaws or problems that the researcher cannot usually fix and are frequently connected to the statistical model, the research design, funding constraints, or other factors. (Theofanidis & Fountouki, 2018). The current study was limited to line managers and employees who have authority on decisions made at the

CUT Bloemfontein and Welkom campuses. Furthermore, the study focused only on decisions relating to human resource management. As such, it would be impossible to apply the research findings to generic issues within organisation other than decisions regarding human resources.

1.10 Significance and value of the study

The study's value lies in the fact that it provides a theoretical basis on the impact that individual cultural orientation has on human resource decision-making by line managers. Moreover, the study provides a strategic framework for all human resource decision-makers to recognise individual cultural values when making decisions in the organisation.

1.11 Thematic overview

The study focus areas were individual cultural orientation and human resource decision-making by line managers. The study themes are presented as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter 1 introduces the study by providing the background to the problem and the problem statement. The chapter sets out the research objectives and research questions. The research approach followed, and the ethical considerations and limitations of the study are also given in this chapter.

Chapter 2: Conceptualising cultural orientation

Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature on cultural orientation. The chapter explains the term 'culture', types of culture, the impact of cultural differences and similarities in the organisation, cultural manifestation and its models, the nature of culture in South Africa, and Hofstede's view on the concept of culture. It also discusses the Schwartz Value Survey (SVS) Model as the theoretical framework for this study.

Chapter 3: Human resource decision-making

Chapter 3 gives a review of the literature on human resource decision-making by line managers. The chapter provides the theoretical background on the definition of the term 'decision-making', decision-making styles, the decision-making process, decision-making strategies, human resource decision-making, contemporary human resource issues, and strategic human resource management.

Chapter 4: Research methodology

Chapter 4 discusses of the research methodology which was employed in this study. The matters addressed in this chapter include philosophical stance of the study, research design, data-gathering instrument, population and sample, and challenges related to research.

Chapter 5: Discussion and analysis of findings

Chapter 5 presents the analysis of the data collected and the results of the study.

Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations

Chapter 6 summarises the study findings, from which conclusions are drawn. Furthermore, recommendations are made based on the research findings.

1.12 Summary

This chapter set out and motivated the need for the study. The cultural variables (e.g., morals, values, beliefs, attitudes, norms, traditions, perceptions, priorities, religion and language) that affect the way business is conducted daily make it necessary for managers and employees to understand the impact that culture has on human behaviour –

specifically in this study of human resource decision-making. This is pertinent in a culturally diverse country like South Africa.

The chapter further outlined the research questions and objectives. The philosophical stance and the research approach and design were also discussed. The study limitations, study significance and ethical considerations were stated in this chapter. Finally, the chapter concluded with an overview of the whole study.

CHAPTER 2: CONCEPTUALISING INDIVIDUAL CULTURAL ORIENTATION

2.1 Introduction

As alluded to before, the term 'culture' originates from the field of anthropology, specifically cultural anthropology, which seeks to understand the evolution of human adaptation through focusing on ancient and contemporary societies (Eriksen, 2013). Apart from anthropology, culture can also be traced back to the field of sociology and social psychology (Kumar, 2016). According to Little, Vyain, Scaramuzzo, Cody-Rydzewski, Griffiths, Strayer, Keirns, and McGivern (2013:40), sociology is "the systematic study of all those aspects of life designated by the adjective 'social' and these aspects of social life never simply occur; they are organised processes". Social psychology can be viewed as the branch of psychology (known as the study of mind and behaviour) that deals with the interaction of human beings (Gergen, 1973).

From the above, it is apparent that social interaction among people results from certain mental patterns (e.g., conscious experiences, perception, thinking, learning, and communicating) which are based on learned values and habits from one's cultural background. These behavioural patterns also extend to the workplace where employees need to interact and communicate in order to reach organisational objectives (Ramarumo, 2014). The behavioural patterns discussed above transpire in the workplace, for example, when employees are motivated to be more productive or receive correction of certain behaviour by being directed to the history and myths of the business. The motivation could include the story of how the company was formed from nothing to what it is at the time, or the struggles that the owners had to go through to make a success of a small business idea.

Based on the above, it is apparent that a person's individual orientation towards a specific cultural group can determine their behaviour in the workplace. Therefore, this chapter aims to provide an overview on the notion of culture, types of culture, dimensions of culture, and the nature of culture. This includes the interconnection between culture and

cognitive processes, cultural differences, similarities and competencies in the organisation. Finally, the SVS of personal values, which served as the conceptual framework for the study, is discussed.

2.2 Explaining culture

According to Bikram and Sunpreer (2019) the notion of 'culture' derived from the Latin word 'cultūra', which means 'care'. Apart from the definition provided by British anthropologist Sir Edward Burnett Taylor, there are many ways to define the notion of culture. This includes, among others, the comprehensive view on the concept of culture by Hofstede (2011:3), who defines culture as "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others". Other authors have provided varied definitions of culture, such as Swidler (1986:273), who views culture as "a symbolic vehicle of meaning, including beliefs, ritual practices, art forms, and ceremonies, as well as informal cultural practices such as language, gossip, stories, and rituals of daily life"; and Guiso, Sapienza and Zingales (2006:23), who describe culture as "those customary beliefs and values that ethnic, religious, and social groups transmit fairly unchanged from generation to generation".

The fundamental theoretical issues within the notion of culture are the reasons why there are various ways to define the concept (Patterson, 2014). The varied definitions emphasise different aspects of culture with regard to the different levels in which it manifests, the similarities and differences among groups, and the individual orientation to a specific cultural group regarding morals, perceptions, beliefs, values and artefacts (see figure 2.1 below). Bailey and Peoples (2002:16) broadly outline some of the aspects of culture by describing the it as "everything that people learn while growing up within a particular group." This includes attitudes, moral standards, rules of etiquette, perceptions of reality, language (such as body language, gestures, and facial expressions), ideas about the proper way to live, beliefs about how females and males should interact, ideas about how the world works, and so on. Similarly, the Iceberg Model of Culture below

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indicates some of these aspects and divides them into two parts, consisting of visible elements and invisible elements.
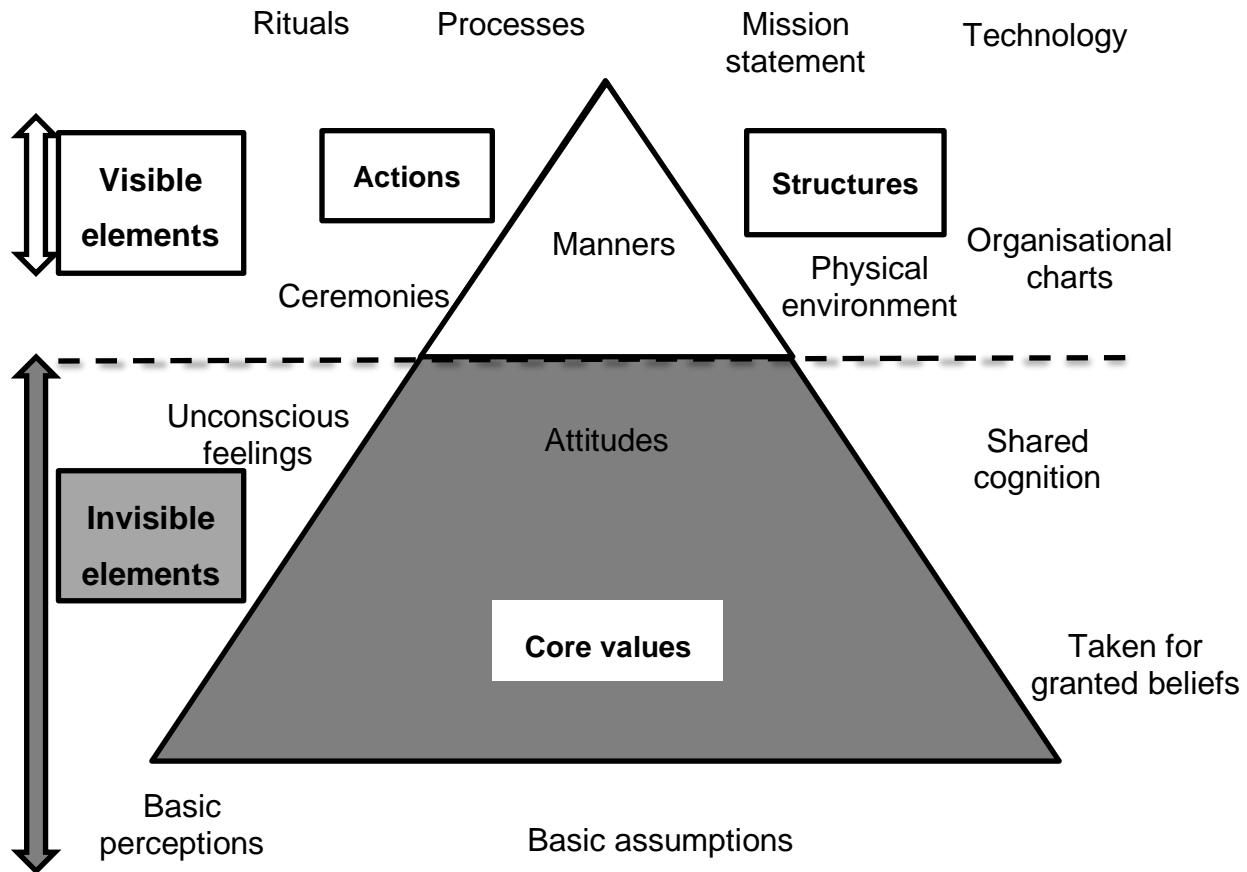
Figure 2.1: Iceberg Model of Culture

Adopted from: Garrett-Rucks (2017) and Buck (2018)

Figure 2.1 above depict the components of the visible and invisible parts of culture. The visible elements comprise actions (manners, ceremonies, rituals and processes) and structures (mission statement, physical environment, organisational charts and technology), while the invisible elements comprise core values, attitudes, beliefs, embedded thoughts, unconscious feelings, shared cognition and basic perceptions (Buck, 2018). The core values can only be comprehended through a deep cultural

exploration of a specific cultural group or through socialisation with members of that specific culture (Garrett-Rucks, 2017).

Based on the above, culture is defined as distinct behavioural patterns, values and beliefs that are learned and passed from generation to generation by individual members of a specific social group. According to Idang (2015) these patterns of behaviour distinguish one cultural group from others. Therefore, culture can be viewed as a distinctive and dynamic human trait that is passed down from generation to generation and links individuals to groups to which they belong (Leendertz, 2012). This includes everything that makes them identifiable among other groups, like certain greeting tendencies, the way which they dress, specific social norms, songs and dance patterns, rites of passages from birth, through marriage to death, traditional occupations, and religious and philosophical beliefs (Idang, 2015). It is for this reason culture can be defined as a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way you perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems (Schein, 2004:17).

2.3 Types of culture

According to Weustink (2014) culture consist of different levels. The focus of this study was on the three most studied levels, namely national culture, organisational culture, and individual cultural orientation.

2.3.1 National culture

National culture denotes the general values that countries ascribe to with the assumption that a person's membership and exposure to the social interactions in a specific country result in the development of culture in that country (Makumbe, 2020). National culture is therefore defined as a unified web of mental models that are shared by national groups and transcend the individual (Smale, 2016). Dimitrov (2012) holds the view that national

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culture can also refer to cultural values, beliefs and customs shared by people in the same society, more specifically by a certain nation or country. Vonheim (2017) add that national culture entails the language, religion, norms, and prevailing behaviour among the population of a specific country.

The term 'national culture' was previously referred to as national character or modal personality (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010) and for many years it has been viewed as the basic topic of discussion of global business research (Venaik & Brewer, 2008). In an attempt to understand and categorise national cultures, the concept itself has been narrowed by the studying of values (LeFebvre & Franke, 2013). "Values consist of people's beliefs about the goals or way of life that is desirable for themselves and their society" (Bailey & Peoples, 2002:21). In short, values serve as the guidelines that give direction to people's thoughts and behaviours when faced with problems (LeFebvre & Franke, 2013).

Smale (2016) assert that individual behaviour is moderated by national culture as it filters the data received by the brain and provides mental models for the interpretation of the data that make it through the filtering process. National culture can be referred to as a function of how individuals and groups of people think and behave, with a specific focus on national cultural groups. For instance, the individual's citizenship to a certain country allows them to be exposed to certain values and experiences, which, in turn, results in a collective manner of social interaction (Makumbe, 2020). Therefore, national culture is the source of knowledge accumulated and traditions of the country over time (Nazim, 2016).

2.3.2 Organisational culture

According to Gill (2013) culture exists where there is shared knowledge, beliefs, attitudes and artefacts. This includes the organisational culture, which makes it much easier for employees to perform better across a wide range of characteristics. Academic literature offers a wide range of ways to define organisational culture. First of all, it is essential to note that the study of organisational culture belongs to sociology (Hofstede & Minkov, 2013). According to Kumar (2016) the notion of organisational culture has numerous

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definitions as those of 'culture'. It is evidently essential to examine a variety of perspectives in order to gain a deeper comprehension of the concept.

Organisational culture entails putting together values that dominate in the organisation (Rajala, Ruokonen & Ruismäki, 2012). These values serve as a standard guideline on the so-called correct and acceptable behaviour in the workplace for all employees and managers. In an attempt to properly define organisational culture, Schein (2004) provides three sources from which organisational culture manifests: the owner's beliefs, values and assumptions; the learning experiences of employees as the organisation evolves; and certain new beliefs, values and assumptions created by new members of the organisation. Organisational culture can therefore be defined as the beliefs and ideas regarding the kind of goals staff members should pursue and the appropriate kinds of behaviour to achieve these goals (Obiora, 2020). Similarly, Vonheim (2017) notes that organisational culture encompasses the rules and clarification of the kind of behaviour that is perceived as right or wrong. The definition of organisational culture reflects what is common, typical and general for the organisation (Kumar, 2016). Kumar (2016) also refers to another definition by Edgar Schein who views the organisational culture as a way of life that exists for the long run in an organisation.

In the organisation, cultural values are shared by all staff and govern how they behave in the workplace (Kamaamia, 2017). At this level, culture is recognised as the system of values, beliefs and behaviours that help in shaping how work should be performed (Deloitte, 2016). These values and beliefs can be used as an effective management tool for ensuring effectiveness and improving quality within the organisation (Vonheim, 2017). Quality in the organisation can refer to punctuality, performance; dress code; the boss's relationship with subordinates and vice versa; customer service; clarified procedures, rules, and regulations; and openness in communication system within the organisation (Kumar, 2016).

The concept of culture in the organisational context entails the unique personality and culture that provide moral guidelines on how to deal with problems and make sound

business decisions (Salim, 2020). As such, in an attempt to use organisational culture as an effective management tool, four main perspectives of culture have been identified in the organisational literature (Vonheim, 2017). First, organisational culture is considered to be a learned entity that can be taught to new members of the organisation. Secondly, organisational culture is viewed as the system of beliefs that separate fundamental knowledge and feelings about everyday behaviour. Thirdly, organisational culture is seen as a strategy. The last perspective is all about viewing culture as mental programming (Vonheim, 2017).

Organisational culture manifests in both micro environment and macro environments. According to Hofstede *et al.* (2010), organisational culture is all about the way in which members of the organisation relate to one another and to the world around them (micro and macro environments). Vonheim (2017) indicates that, even though culture determines the value system at both national and organisational level, managers are responsible for ensuring that the organisational culture does not clash with the national culture. As such, managers should encourage a culturally competent mentality and behaviour for all employees. In other words, employees should understand the role of culture in multicultural business.

2.3.3 Individual cultural orientation

The focus of individualism within the concept of culture is on individual cultural differences. This goes back to the point alluded to before that, to define the concept of individual cultural orientation, one must first understand the notion of cultural orientation. Ruan (2016) defines cultural orientation as the degree to which traditional norms and values impact the behaviour of the members of a specific cultural group. From a business point of view, cultural orientation is concerned with the way individuals relate to one another regarding social skills and behaviour in the workplace (Baluku *et al.*, 2019). For the purpose of this study, cultural orientation can be referred to as the extent to which individuals work towards achieving their own or other people's interests.

Individualism within the concept of culture is associated with the degree to which individuals choose to pursue their personal values and interest over those of the entire group (Hofstede, 2011). These values are learned by individuals throughout their interactions with members of a specific cultural group. Similarly, Yoo and Donthu (2005:10) describe individual cultural orientation in terms of individual values that can be found across countries or cultures. Therefore, individual cultural orientation can be defined as individual perceptions concerning their social environment and stable ways of behaving that result in oblivious processing when individual members of the specific cultural group distinguish desirable principles (Kim, 2016). These individual values (like respect, loyalty) are viewed as the source of shared cultural beliefs and customs (Vauclair, 2009). Based on the above, it can be noted that the notion of individual cultural orientation refers to the degree to which individuals accept and practise certain values of the cultural group they are associated with.

In contrast to the study of national culture which originated from anthropology, the study of individual culture focuses on the individual personality, which belongs to the study of psychology (Minkov & Hofstede, 2013). National-level culture, however, has an impact on the individual values of the person staying in a specific country (Liu, 2019). This is shown in Hofstede's theory of cultural dimensions which explains how individual values can be affected by national culture and how these values determine the behaviour of individuals (Gaile, Baumane-Vitolina, Sumilo, Skiltere & Flores, 2019).

While Hofstede's theory suggests that the person's individual values heavily depend on their national cultural beliefs, Schwartz suggests that individual values are universal as they are embedded in one or more of three universal requirements of human existence, namely biological needs, requisites of synchronised social interaction, and survival needs of groups (Manzato, 2019). Culture in this sense embraces a wide variety of human phenomena, norms, beliefs, feelings, manners, morals, and so on (Idang, 2015).

2.4 Manifestations of culture

According to Hofstede *et al.* (2010) cultural differences manifest in various ways, for instance, through symbols, heroes, rituals and values. The manifestation and evolution of culture do not depend on the transmission of genes, but rather the spread of ideas (Arlt, 2009). Furthermore, the manifestation of culture can be seen through the use of language, food, beliefs, norms, perceptions, attitudes and priorities, depending on the acceptable behavioural patterns applicable to particular societies (Soupen, 2017). It is evident that culture can manifest itself in several ways depending on the environment and people in a specific society.

To better understand the ways in which culture manifests itself, different authors have developed models that outline the possible causes of actions in relation to the concept of culture. This includes one of the most significant models of culture, by Geert Hofstede, known as the Onion Model of Culture. This model was developed by Hofstede in his version of organisational culture manifestation and together the layers, shown below in figure 2.2, cover the total concept of culture rather neatly (Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv & Sanders, 1990).
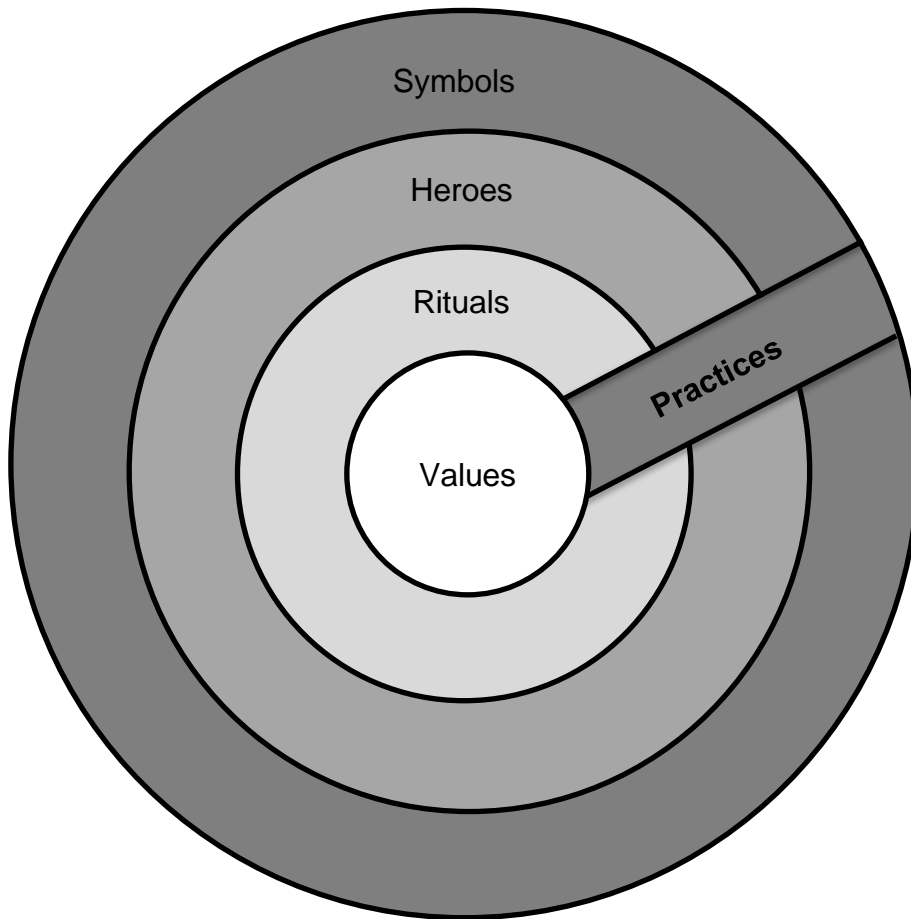
Figure 2.2: Onion Model of Culture

Source: Hofstede *et al.* (2010)

Figure 2.2 above shows the layers at which culture can manifest, namely *symbols*, *heroes*, *rituals*, and *values* (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010). *Symbols* are words, gestures, pictures and objects that carry a specific meaning in a particular culture. The next layer represents *heroes*, which Hofstede *et al.* (2010) define as, 'people who possess characteristics that are highly admired in a specific culture and thus serve as models for behaviour,' people either living or dead, real or imagined. *Rituals* are certain group activities that are considered essential within a specific culture. Lastly, the inner layer,

which is the inward and most profound part, is shaped by values, in a broad sense, vague feelings of good versus with evil, beauty versus ugliness, ordinary versus unusual, rational versus irrational feelings. All of these are frequently unconscious and imperceptible.

2.5 Dimensions of culture

According to Hofstede (2011) cultural dimensions are quantifiable manifestations of values. The so-called cultural dimensions are better explained in Hofstede's research on culture differences at the organisational level (Li, 2015). Originally, Hofstede (2011) developed the most comprehensive study on how people's behaviour in the workplace can be affected by cultural values. The study of culture by Hofstede took place in the late 1960s and involved 116 000 IBM employees – mostly male participants – and focused on different national cultures (Eringa, Caudron, Rieck, Xie & Gerhardt, 2015).

The analysis of Hofstede's original research had led to him to develop the first four cultural dimensions which he depicted in his four-dimension model (4D model) (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010): individualism-collectivism (IC), masculinity-femininity (MF), power distance (PD), and uncertainty avoidance (UA) (Lo, Waters & Christensen, 2017). According to Hofstede (2011), the dimensions were developed in correlation with research by Gregg and Banks (1967), Adelman and Morris (1967), and Lynn and Hampson (1975).

Hofstede established the behaviour within the organisations can be influenced by national and regional cultural groups (Li, 2015). Therefore, in 1991 Hofstede added the fifth dimension (long-term versus short-term orientation) to his 4D model, based on research by Canadian psychologist, Michael Harris Bond (Hofstede, 2011). In the 2000s, research by Bulgarian scholar, Michael Minkov, inspired Hofstede to issue a new 2008 version of the Values Survey Module. This led to Minkov's being invited to participate as the author in the third edition of 'Cultures and organizations: software of the mind' (Hofstede, 2011). By combining elements of Minkov's findings, the fifth dimension of long- versus short-

term orientation was reviewed and is now available in 93 countries and regions (Hofstede, 2011). Based on Minkov's analysis of the world values survey data, the sixth dimension called 'indulgence versus restraint' was added in 2010, (Li, 2015). All six dimensions (power distance, individualism versus collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity versus femininity, long-term versus short-term orientation, and indulgence versus restraint) are explained below.

- *Power distance*

The first dimension to be addressed by Geert Hofstede was power distance which reveals inequalities within the society. Hofstede indicates that, within cultures, there is a power difference among individuals, this include people having more social status and respect than others (Li, 2015). It is for this reason that power distance can be defined as "the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally" (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010).

Pulkkinen (2013) adds that power distance measures the extent to which members of the society, community and organisation accept power when distributed unevenly. For example, in small power distance organisations, there is no hierarchy and organisational structures are flatter; in large power distance organisations, power is the basic fact of society and a bureaucratic organisational structure is followed (Hofstede, 2011).

- *Individualism versus collectivism*

This dimension refers to the extent to which individuals are united into groups and teams (Hofstede, 2011). The dimension of individualism vs collectivism is said to be the most studied cultural dimension on Hofstede's model of culture (Swart, 2014). This dimension assesses culture according to how closely joined individuals are within the society (Carter, Maltz, Maltz, Goh & Yan, 2010). Individualism in this regard means that each person is independent, whereas collectivism means that people are interdependent within a community (Gobrail, 2020). For instance, in individualistic organisations, tasks precede

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relationship building, while in collectivist organisations, relationships prevail over tasks (Hofstede, 2011).

- *Masculinity versus femininity*

In masculine societies (MAS) there are clearly distinct emotional gender roles where men are viewed to have the following attributes: being assertive, tough and focused on material success, and women are previewed as modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010). Within feminine societies the emotional gender roles overlap and both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life. For example, in low MAS organisations women occupy top management positions; while the opposite is true in high MAS organisations where women less frequently occupy top managerial positions (Hofstede, 2011).

- *Uncertainty avoidance*

The fourth dimension pertains to the fact that human beings have to live not knowing what will happen tomorrow and that societies must find a way to deal with this (Li, 2015). As such, uncertainty avoidance can be defined as the degree to which individuals within a specific cultural group fear unknown situation. This feeling is, among other manifestations, expressed in nervous stress and in a need of written and unwritten rules (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010). In short, uncertainty avoidance refers to the degree to which a society avoids and accepts ambiguity, which is not the same as risk avoidance (Hofstede, 2011). For instance, individuals are comfortable with ambiguity and chaos in organisations with low uncertainty avoidance, while there is a need for clarity and structure in organisations with high uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 2011).

- *Long-term versus short-term orientation*

In the organisational context, this dimension is all about the time or period allocated by management for strategic decision-making (Reddy, 2005). Swart (2014) asserts that it is

the organisational culture that allows for short (tactical) or long-term (strategic) decision-making. The focus of long-term orientation is on the future, and while the short-term orientation generally refers to culture that has a strong concern with establishing absolute truth (Li, 2015). For example, in short-term-oriented societies the most important events of life are marked by past and present; in long-term-oriented societies the most important events in life will occur in the future (Hofstede, 2011).

- ***Indulgence versus restraint***

The sixth and final dimension (Indulgence versus restraint) focuses on aspects from the literature on 'happiness research'. This dimension "relates to the gratification versus control of basic human desires related to enjoying life" (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010).

2.5.1 Criticism of Hofstede's model

Hofstede's work on culture is quoted in many publications as it plays a vital role globally in the so-called new world of work (Shaiq, Khalid, Akram & Ali, 2011). Some researchers and scholars appreciate Hofstede's work by quoting his findings, while others criticise his model (see McSweeney, 2002; Ampadu, 2015). It is not a surprise that Hofstede's work has received its fair share of glory and criticism from scholars, practitioners, and researchers as it revolutionised the field of cultural anthropology at a larger scale.

Even though Hofstede's view of culture is comprehensive and acceptable in the research community, there are researchers who have expressed some concerns with the practicality of the theory (Eringa *et al.*, 2015). Whalen (2016) points out that Hofstede's model has been criticised regarding the view itself and its application. One of the researchers who has provided detailed criticism of Hofstede's model is McSweeney (2002), claims that surveys are not an appropriate way to measure cultural differences at the national level. This corresponds with the view by Spencer-Oatey (2012) who states that cultural values are not easy to observe; as such, interviewing key members of a specific cultural group is the ideal way to better understand them. Furthermore, assigning

the results of the employees from one organisation to the entire country is questionable (Eringa *et al.*, 2015). This implies that organisational culture may differ from the culture of the whole country as each organisation has its own values embedded in their mission and vision statements.

Shaiq, Khalid, Akram and Ali (2011) highlight some of the common issues that have been noted by scholars and researchers relating to Hofstede's model of culture. One main issue is that there are too few dimensions. This means that Hofstede's dimensions are not enough to determine cultural differences. Another issue is that Hofstede's work is outdated; in other words, Hofstede's findings cannot be implemented effectively in a rapidly changing environment as his research is too old. Nonetheless, much of these issues have been addressed by Hofstede (1980), Hofstede *et al.* (2010) and other researchers thereafter (Whalen, 2016).

2.6 Cultural orientation and decision-making

According to Yates and Oliveira (2016) people's psychological processes, including decision-making, are influenced by human culture. Li, Masuda and Russell (2015) point out that people usually make decisions that involve different levels of thinking. For example, deep thinking pertains to decisions about career choices and requires an individual to do thorough research before making a decision. Thinking that is not so deep pertains to decisions on what to eat for lunch. The study of culture and decision-making addresses differences in how people make certain decisions and why people from different cultural backgrounds sometimes tend to make different decision (Yates & Oliveira, 2016). Hence, it has been alluded to before in the explanation of culture by Hofstede that "culture is a collective programming of mind".

The idea of culture existing in the minds of individuals means that the relationship between culture and cognition is a dynamic one (Fessler & Machery, 2012). The diverse cognitive complexity of the human brain and people's reliance on culture is what makes

human beings unique (Fessler & Machery, 2012). In this regards, intelligence is considered to be one of the most important characteristics of the human brain as it helps with the implementation of desirable social behaviours (Signorelli, 2017). The ability of individuals to learn and act on one's own preferences elicits unique individual behaviour; hence, the applicability of individual cultural orientation. Therefore, the impact of cultural orientation is subjective to the behavioural intelligence of people which requires effective thinking and decision-making.

2.7 Cultural differences and similarities in the workplace

According to Van Pinxteren (2018) what each person does every day has an impact on what happens in the future. This implies that individual beliefs and values are determined by the enculturation process. As such, it can be noted that all aspects of people's lives – from the food they eat, the clothing they wear, the songs they sing or the entertainment they prefer – serve as an indication of the cultural values they ascribe to (Sewlall, 1996). It is for this reason that recognising people's cultural similarities and differences in the workplace is so important. The concept of culture serves as the backbone of a person's identity, especially in the globalised environment where it is inevitable to communicate and work with people from other cultural groups (Berninghausen & Minshawi, 2009).

According to Hanel (2016) cultural similarities and differences becomes visible when people are clustered into groups based on demographic variables (e.g., gender, age, culture). Unlike with national-level culture, cultural differences are recognised to be puzzling at the organisational level (Schein, 2004). The reason for this is that organisational culture is shaped and influenced by cross-cultural differences also known as cross-cultural diversity (Vonheim, 2017). Cross-cultural diversity can have both positive and negative impact in the workplace (Martin, 2014). Some of the negative impacts can include conflicts that lead to the breakdown of communication, lost productivity, and not being able to build harmonious relations amongst employees. On the other hand, positive impacts can be seen in the variety of ideas proposed by employees on how to solve problems (Martin, 2014).

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Apart from cultural differences, cultural similarities can also influence the day-to-day running of the business. One of the major positive consequences of cultural similarities in the workplace is social cohesion among employees. Social cohesion is defined as the ability to construct a collective identity and a sense of belonging, societal commitment, and the ability to guarantee equal opportunities by including every citizen in governance and reducing perceived marginality (Lefko-Everett *et al.*, 2018). Social cohesion in the organisation is often associated with positive outcomes like participatory democracies, greater economic productivity, inclusivity, effective conflict management, and better quality of life (Lefko-Everett *et al.*, 2018).

The above-mentioned cultural similarities and differences in the workplace can help management to plan well in advance with regard to employee interaction and interaction with external stakeholders. The similarities and differences of employees should not only be identified at the organisational level, but also at the national, societal and, most importantly, individual level. This is due to the fact that individual value preferences might differ from person to person, even if employees come from the same country or cultural group (Schwartz, 2012).

2.8 Cultural competence in the workplace

Schein (2004) explains that most people in their roles within the organisation must deal with groups of all kinds, yet it is still not easy to understand the differences and similarities observed among groups. As such, making unwarranted generalisations of a certain culture prevents one from truly understanding the diversity that characterises a national culture (Vonheim, 2017). It is for this reason that cultural competence is important in the current globalised environment where people all over the globe cannot avoid interacting with one another. Above all, the term 'competence' is used in various disciplines, including psychology and sociology. In psychology the term deals with motivation and values, while in sociology, the concept focuses on social norms and responsibilities (Eser, 2015).

Nonetheless, in all of these disciplines, the term 'competence' is understood as collective and/or individual ability, proficiencies and skills to achieve a specific goal (Eser, 2015).

In line with the above, cultural competence can thus be defined as the collective and/or individual ability to recognise the importance of culture in people's lives. Cultural competence entails accepting and understanding the cultural backgrounds of people through interaction with individuals from various groups (Blackburn, 2015). Within the notion of cultural competence one can further identify two categories: intercultural and cross-cultural competence. Intercultural competence is used to develop communication ability, while cross-cultural competence is used mostly in the business context with the focus on employees' ability to work in different cultural environments (Mikhaylov, 2014).

From the organisation's perspective, cultural competence refers to the set of behaviours, attitudes and policies that function together in the workplace to ensure that employees are able to work effectively in cross-cultural situations (Blackburn, 2015). It is the responsibility of line managers, together with the human resources department, to ensure that these systems are in place and implemented properly. Nevertheless, both managers and employees should understand and accept cultural similarities and differences (also known as cultural competence) among different cultures to build a culture of cohesiveness within the organisation.

2.9 The nature of culture in South Africa

According to Grobler, Grobler and Mathafena (2019) the model of national cultural comparison by Hofstede and Minkov offers the most suitable framing and understanding of South African culture. South African culture is more collectivist in nature, when viewed from the cultural dimension of individualism versus collectivism (Grobler *et al.*, 2019). The South African culture is centred around the philosophy of ubuntu and the 'rainbow nation' (Oppenheim, 2012). The philosophy of ubuntu is derived from the phrase 'muntu ngu muntu nga bantu' or 'motho ke motho ka batho', which means: 'a person is a person

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through other people' (Ijabadeniyi, Govender & Veerasamy, 2015). The concept of ubuntu is manifested in a collectivist society where people are classified as groups (Sewlall, 1996). This philosophy is in contrast with western frameworks which classify and/or perceive people as independent beings (Grobler *et al*., 2019).

Even though South Africa is viewed as a collectivist society, there are still more than one cultural groups, namely Africans, Indians, white people and coloured people (Van Pinxteren, 2018). Within these cultural groups, there are eleven official languages are used as a mode of communication and instruction. These languages include the two official languages from the apartheid era, namely Afrikaans and English, and nine major 'Bantu' languages spoken in the country, namely Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, isiNdebele, isiXhosa, and isiZulu. During the era of apartheid, Afrikaans was used as a medium of instruction nationwide (Mhlauli, Salani & Mokotedi, 2015).

According to Bettis, Allen, Christian and McElhenney (2015) South Africa is well known for its diverse cultural beliefs, customs, values, religious practices and languages, which has led to its moniker of 'rainbow nation'. The term was coined by Desmond Tutu at the time when the vote-based system, or democracy, was introduced in South Africa (Lefko-Everett, Burns, Nontshokweni & Njozela, 2018). Although the idea of the rainbow nation has been commonly linked to the notion of diversity, integration, social cohesion and freedom, South Africa remains one of the most culturally diverse and unequal nations in the world, as "the privilege attached to race, class, space and gender has not been fully reversed" (Lefko-Everett *et al*., 2018:5).

Pillay and Teleki (2018) emphasise that there is no specific legislation addressing cultural diversity in South Africa, however, there are numerous pieces of legislations and policies where cultural diversity is referenced, such as the Employment Equity Act of 1998 and Section 185 (under the commission for the promotion and protection of the rights of

cultural, religious, and linguistic communities) of the Constitution which recognise cultural diversity as formal equality. Furthermore, because of the country's past of segregation policies and systems, national government recognises the importance of social cohesion among citizens, irrespective of cultural background (Lefko-Everett *et al.*, 2018). For this purpose, social cohesion is prioritised in many policies, including the National Development Plan (NDP) 2030 and the Medium-Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) 2014-2019. Social cohesion has been identified as one of the eight priorities associated with the electoral mandate by the Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation (Lefko-Everett *et al.*, 2018).

2.10 Theoretical framework

Due to its relevance to the study, the Schwartz Value Survey (SVS) was selected as the theoretical framework for understanding the impact of individual cultural orientation on human resource decision-making. The SVS model is viewed as more fine-grained in categorising the 10 different individual values (Schaefer, Williams & Blundel, 2020). It indicates that values can be defined in six different ways, namely: values are beliefs, values refer to desirable goals that motivate action, values transcend specific actions and situations, values serve as standards or criteria, values are ordered by importance relative to one another, and the relative importance of multiple values guides towards action (Schwartz, 2012).

Furthermore, the model provides 10 basic personal values that are divided into four categories: self-enhancement, openness to change, self-transcendence, and conservation. These individual values are explained in figure 2.3 below. They differ regarding the goals and motivation they elicit. Individual culture is a subjective culture which embodies the extent to which individuals perceive different cultures (Dimitrov, 2012). The SVS model was chosen as the analytical framework mainly because it provides a comprehensive classification of individual values along two dimensions, namely personally focused and socially focused values. The model has been implemented successfully in the business environment (Schaefer *et al.*, 2018), which

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indicates that the model does not only focus on one dimension of culture, but can be applied at national, organisational, and even individual level of culture.
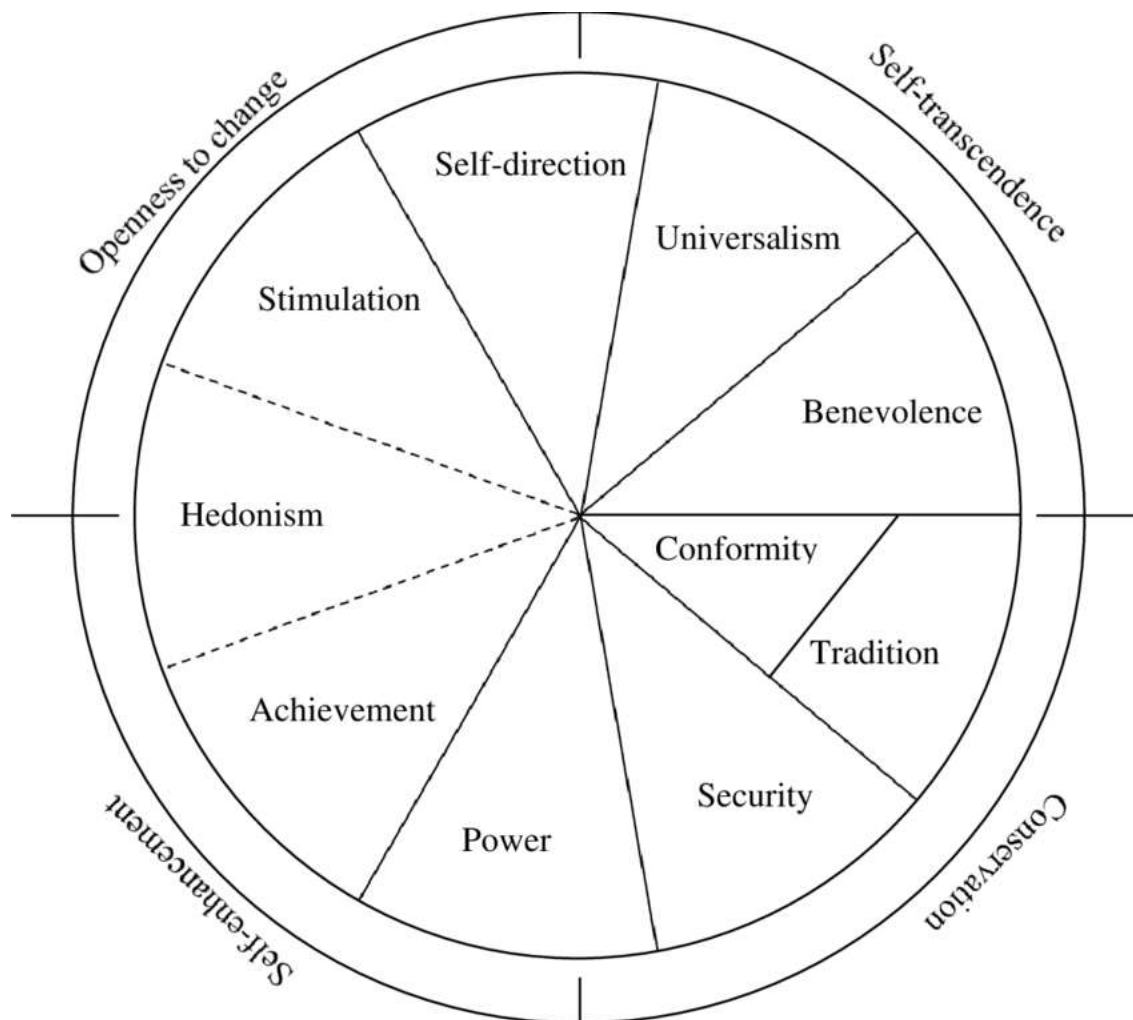
Figure 2.3: The model of values (Schwartz, 1992)

Source: Schaefer *et al.* (2018)

The integrated structure (figure 2.3) above shows the value conflicts that can be summarised with two orthogonal dimensions (Schwartz, 2006). These dimensions are 'self-enhancement vs self-transcendence' and 'openness to change vs conservation'. The dimension of 'self-enhancement vs self-transcendence' includes the values of

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achievement and power that emphasis the pursuit of self-interest against the values of universalism and benevolence which are concerned with the welfare and interests of others.

Related to the dimension of 'openness to change vs conservation' are the values of self-direction and stimulation that stress the acts of independence, thoughts and feelings and readiness for a new experience which are in conflict with values of security, conformity and tradition that stress the act of self-restriction, order, and resistance to change (Schwartz, 2012). These values are defined below.

Self-enhancement

- *Power values* entail social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources (Schwartz, 2012).

- *Achievement values* include personal success competence in terms of prevailing cultural standards, thereby obtaining social approval (Schwartz, 2012).

Power and achievement values promote the sustaining of personal advantage. However, "achievement values (e.g., ambition) emphasise the active demonstration of successful performance in concrete interaction, whereas power values (e.g., authority) emphasise the attainment or preservation of a dominant position within the more general social system" (Schwartz, 2015:8).

Self-transcendence dimension

- *Universalism values* involve the person's understanding, tolerance, appreciation, and protection of all living things (people and nature). Universalism contrasts with the 'in-group' focus of benevolence values (Schwartz, 2015).

- *Benevolence values* involve preserving and enhancing the well-being of those with whom one is in frequent personal contact (the in-group). These values stem from the basic requirement for the smooth running of the group and the need for affiliation (Schwartz, 2012). Benevolence and conformity values both promote cooperative social relations. However, "benevolence values provide an internalised motivational base for such behaviour" (Schwartz, 2015:6).

Openness to change

- *Stimulation values* entail excitement, novelty, and challenge in life (Schwartz, 2015). These values come from organismic needs for variety and stimulation to maintain an optimal and positive, instead of a threatening, level of activation.

- *Self-direction values* involve independent thoughts and action; choosing; creating; exploring. These values originate from organismic needs for control and mastery, and the interactional requirements of autonomy and independence (Schwartz, 2012).

Conservation dimension

- *Conformity values* involve restraint of actions, inclinations and the desire to likely harm others (Schwartz, 2015). These values stem from the requirement that persons inhibit feelings that might disrupt smooth interaction and group functioning. Conformity values, in contrast to benevolence values, promote cooperation in order to avoid negative outcomes for the self (Schwartz, 2015).

- *Tradition values* include the respect, commitment, and acceptance that a person's culture and religion provide. Tradition is close to conformity motivationally as they share the goal of devoting oneself in terms of socially imposed expectation. The primary difference between the two lies in the objects to which one commits oneself (e.g., many South African societies hold the belief that beads represent femininity,

healing, and protection). Conformity entails subordination to persons with whom one is in frequent interaction, such as parents, teachers, bosses, while tradition entails subordination to more abstract objects, such as religious and cultural customs and ideas (Schwartz, 2015).

- *Security values* include safety and harmony, and stability of society, relationships, and oneself (Schwartz, 2012). There are two subtypes of security values (Schwartz, 2015): One serves individual interests primarily (e.g., avoiding danger, and personal safety), the other wider group interests (e.g., strong country, social order, national security).

- *Hedonism values* are all about pleasure or the sensuous gratification of oneself. According to Weijers (2012:15), the term 'hedonism' originates from the Greek word 'hēdonē', for 'pleasure'. It refers to several related theories about what is good for humans, how to behave, and what motivates their different behaviours. These values originate from organismic needs and the pleasure associated with satisfying them. Openness to change and self-enhancement dimensions share some of the values and motivations of hedonism (Schwartz, 2012).

2.11 Summary

The chapter provided the theoretical background and perspectives on culture, cultural dimensions, and the nature of culture in South Africa. The chapter also provided an illustration of cultural manifestation in three interrelated diagrams by different authors, as well as a critique of Hofstede's perceptions on the concept of culture. Furthermore, the chapter distinguished between individual, organisational, and national cultures. Lastly, the impact of cultural differences and cultural similarities in the organisational context were discussed.

CHAPTER 3: HUMAN RESOURCE DECISION-MAKING

3.1 Introduction

The modern world of work is characterised by high levels of ambiguity, complexity, volatility and uncertainty. In the business lexicon, these four components are referred to by the popular acronym 'VUCA' which is used to describe the dynamic environment in which business operates (Bennett & Lemoine, 2014). The so-called VUCA world is full of challenges that force organisational managers to make various decisions on daily basis. Decision-making in the organisation refers to an interactive process that involves identifying an issue, gathering information about the identified problem, and coming up with solutions (Schoemaker & Russo, 2016).

According to Meczynska, Kmieciak, Michna and Flajszok (2014) the need to make decisions is deeply rooted in the basic tasks of managers and their day-to-day responsibilities. This can include human resource-related decisions on recruitment, selection, performance management, employee engagement, etc... (Kafinejad, 2018). Therefore, managerial success or failure in this regard is often evaluated in terms of one's ability to make good decisions relating to people management (Dwek, 2017).

Human resources management emphasizes the individual role of employees, their comprehension of motivational attitudes, and their capacity to direct them toward the organisation's goals (Zadeh, Abbasov, Yager & Shahbazova, 2016). Managers and human resource professionals play a significant role in ensuring the effective implementation of human resource strategies throughout the entire organisation (Al-Sarayrah, Tarhini, Obeidat, Al-Saiti & Kattoua, 2016). The partnership between an organisation's human resource department and line managers contributes towards achieving the strategic objectives of the entire organaisation (Stříteský & Quigley, 2014). In light of this, the purpose of this chapter is to provide insight into the concept of human resource management, strategic human resource issues, decision-making in the

organisational context, decision types, styles and techniques for decision-making, and the decision-making process. A discussion of the study's conceptual framework will then follow.

3.2 Explaining human resource management

Keenoy (1999:4) defines human resource management as "a distinctive approach to employment management which seeks to achieve competitive advantage through the strategic deployment of a highly committed and capable workforce using an integrated array of cultural, structural and personnel techniques". Kayaalp (2019) holds the view that human resource management is a way of managing people while building organisational culture to obtain the competitive edge by dealing with the organisational staffing, training and organisational rewards system. Nasir (2017) goes further by describing human resource management as an attempt to achieve astonishing results with ordinary employees by appointing or/and hiring the right candidates for the right position at the right time. Human resource management can also be defined in terms of the relationship between staff members and management.

The term 'human resource management' originated from the field of organisational psychology. Organisational psychology evolved as a discipline and practice in terms of managing people in all areas of the organisation (Itika, 2011). According to Nasir (2017) human resource management has become an important part of any organisation as it has emerged as a strategic partner in recent years. The involvement of the human resource department in the organisation's strategic decision-making entails making decisions about human resource functions such as employee recruitment, retaining employees, and employee development (Zhao, Sheehan, De Cieri & Cooper, 2019). This transition towards strategic human resource management is shown in figure 3.1 below.

	Title	Welfare officer	Personnel administrator	Personnel manager	Personnel resources manager	Human resources manager	Strategic HR Manager
	Stage	Employee welfare	Personnel administration	Personnel management	Personnel management	Human resources	Strategic HR management
	Decade	1900	1920-1930	1940-1960	1970-1980	1990	2000
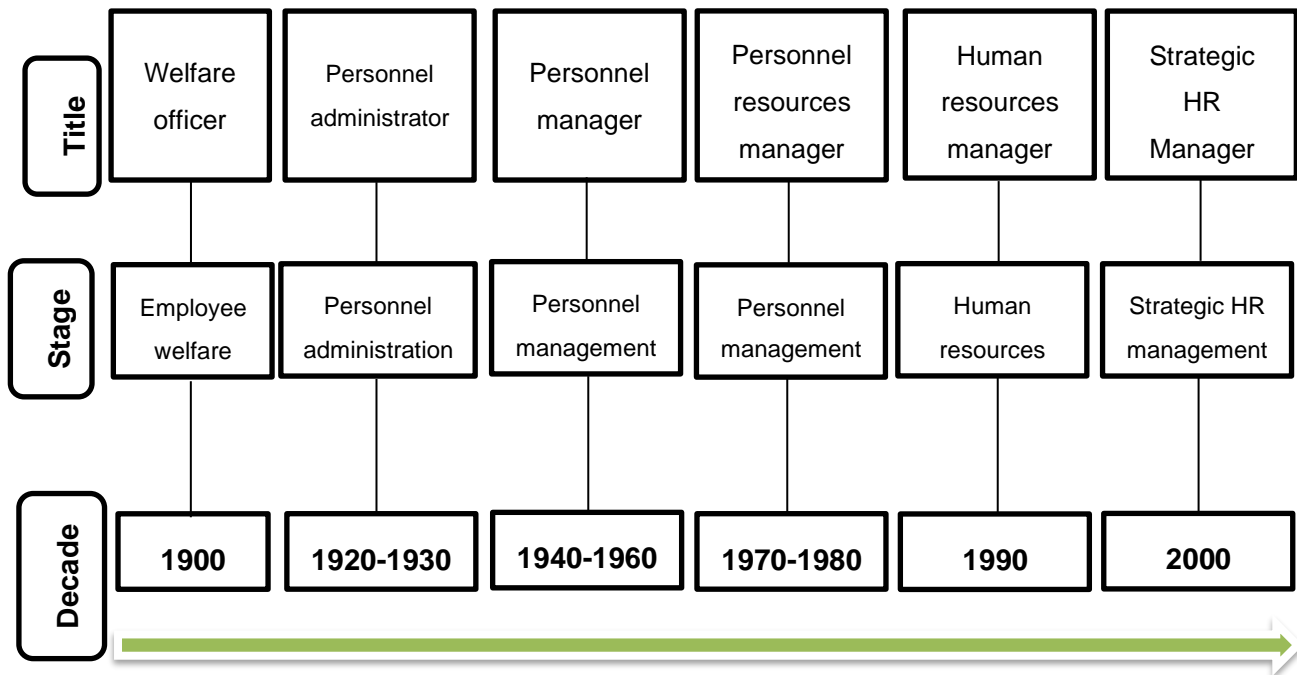
Figure 3.1: Stages towards the development of strategic HR management

Source: Itika (2011)

Figure 3.1 above shows the step-by-step evolution of human resource departments for over a century towards strategic human resource management today. The transition of human resources from traditional to strategic human resource management came with various changes which include being fast, proactive, and integrated as compared to traditional human resource management that is slow, reactive, and fragmented (Qadeer & Hussain, 2016).

According to Kaufman (2014) research in strategic human resource management has dominated the field even though it does not represent the entire human resource management field. Strategic human resource management represents an integration of organisational strategies with those of human resources in order for the organisation to achieve its long-term and short-term objectives through effective people management (Armstrong, 2011).

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It is important to note that strategic human resource management differs from personnel management and human resource management in various ways (Qadeer & Hussain, 2016). First, personnel management is about control and the management of employees, while human resource management focuses on managing teams and coordinating resources to achieve organisational objectives (Qadeer & Hussain, 2016). On the other hand, strategic human resource management focuses on the "macro perspective of human resources (for example strategies and policies) that adds another dimension of the alignment of human resource management objectives to those of the entire organisations" (Rotich, 2015:143). Strategic managers are expected to conduct the long-term planning of business strategies while aligning organisational goals with the needs of employees (Datta, Dsouza & Karande, 2020).

According to Datta *et al.* (2020) human resource professionals should ensure that employees are provided with the training they need and recognition for good performance in the workplace. Furthermore, the role of human resource managers at the strategic level is about value adding and the importance of the organisation's intangible assets (e.g., employee knowledge and experience) (Stříteský & Quigley, 2014). For all kinds of businesses, strategic management of human resources is essential. It is for this reason that human resource strategic partners need to assist line managers with the implementation of all human resource components such as succession planning, performance evaluation, training and development, and further ensure they are up to date with labour legislations.

Human resource managers are also considered to be active participants in the strategic decision-making processes. Truss, Mankin and Kelliher (2012) argue that human resource professionals have the responsibility of aligning human resource practices, policies, and strategies with the objectives of the entire organisation, focusing on the long-term needs of the business and its human capital. The contribution of human resource functions towards the strategic decision-making in the organisation heavily depends on

whether the business leaders (e.g., the Chief Executive Officer "CEO") decides to allow the senior representative of human resources to actively participate in the CEO group for strategic decision-making (Zhao *et al.*, 2019).

3.3 Contemporary strategic human resource issues

According to Stankiewicz (2015) the dynamic world of work is impacted by challenges that have an influence on the organisation's human resources. Globalization, as well as the economic and legal environment, workforce diversity resulting from both globalization and demographic change, technological advancement, and shifts in employees' educational backgrounds and expectations regarding working conditions are among the most frequently encountered challenges that directly and indirectly affect modern human resource management strategies. (Stankiewicz, 2015).

Another pertinent challenge is the low supply of skilled labour. This can be attributed to increased technological innovations that continuously change the way in which work is executed in organisations (Nzonzo & Matashu, 2014). Furthermore, a decline in the supply of skilled human capital can be attributed to an ageing workforce. This is especially true for many European nations; South Africa, on the other hand, has a much younger population but a failing educational system. "Ageing is most evident in parts of high-income countries like East Asia and Western Europe, such as Japan, Italy and Germany" (Reserve Bank of Australia, 2017:37).

Some of the human resource management functions that are linked to the above global challenges are recruitment and selection, employee growth and development, and the promotion of organisational culture and a diversified workforce. Other functions include conflict management and resolution, organisational values and ethics, the management of a multi-generational workforce, motivation and retention strategies, flexible working hours, and workforce diversity as a strategic issue. These functions are subsequently discussed.

- *Recruitment and selection*

According to Nzonzo and Matashu (2014) the recruitment and selection process entails identifying potential employees and placing them in the organisation to ensure that goals and objectives are met. This process is the most important human resource function because poor selection criteria could result in the appointment of the wrong person for the job (Itika, 2011). It is for this reason that issues like cost of advertising for job openings, communication gaps between human resources and hiring managers, and the low supply of skilled labour listed above need to be dealt with on time to employ the right person for the job. Nonetheless, even though human resource managers are responsible for dealing with an array of human resource issues pertaining to recruitment and selection, line managers remain responsible for being clear on the type of employees they are looking for to avoid hiring the wrong person for a specific job (Itika, 2011).

- *Employee growth and development*

Employee career growth initiatives include all actions taken by employers and employees to polish their skills (Nasir, 2017). As mentioned earlier, one of the challenges faced by organisations today is keeping up with continuous developments in technology. To do so, employees have to be developed in order to remain productive and competitive in the 'VUCA' world. Moreover, since employees are considered to be essential assets of the organisation, naturally their skills, knowledge and attitudes need to be enhanced to contribute effectively towards organisational objectives (Nzonzo & Matashu, 2014). As such, policies need to be in place to endorse employee involvement in the company's objectives and provide for employee training and development opportunities, which in turn can assist in creating sustainability (Datta *et al*., 2020).

- *Organisational culture and diversified workforce*

The workforce of the 21st century is extremely diversified. This is beneficial because different minds from different cultural backgrounds provide more new ideas and

perspectives towards solving problems. However, managing people from different cultural backgrounds and with different cultural values is a challenging task for line managers (Nasir, 2017). As such, managers should work together with human resources to create a strong organisational culture to increase employee engagement. The assumption is that employees will put in more effort to achieve optimal performance, especially when they work as a team (Kurowicka, 2019).

- *Conflict management and resolution*

The employer–employee relationship should be nurtured, and conflict needs to be avoided as much as possible. Although conflict cannot be avoided at all times, human resource departments should be well equipped with trained employees to manage such situations in the organisation (Itika, 2011). Effective conflict resolution in the organisation aims to establish a win–win collaboration among stakeholders who are in conflict (Datta *et al.*, 2020). Human resource managers need to have methods available to deal with conflict if and when it occurs, to avoid unnecessary chaos (Nasir, 2017).

- *Organisational values and ethics*

According to Nasir (2017) human resource departments deal with an array of ethical issues that might have an impact on the organisation's financial stability and reputation. Therefore, it is necessary to have standards in place to direct employee conduct and ethics in the organisation. Such guidelines include human resource policies, organisational values and a code of conduct, memos, circulars, and standing orders (Itika, 2011).

- *Multi-generational workforce*

Contemporary organisations consist of employees belonging to different generations: Baby Boomers (born 1946-1964), Generation X (1965-1979), Generation Y (1980-2000) and Generation Z (2001-present) (Cushing, 2019). Each generation in the workplace has

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their own system of beliefs, habits, attitudes, and work expectations; as such, managers have the responsibility of ensuring that they achieve the beast results by bringing all employees together to foster shared values (Cushing, 2019). It is the responsibility of human resource managers to ensure that each generation's unique needs are responded to accordingly (Nasir, 2017).

- *Motivation and retention strategies*

Employee retention starts during the process of hiring the right person for the job. Though skills and experience have been used as the way to determine the right person for the job, it has been pointed out that motivational fit for a specific job is a key differentiator in the selection process (Osibanjo & Adeniji, 2013). Nasir (2017) states that money is no longer considered to be a tool for retaining employees; hence, it is important that clear policies and procedures are in place for employee retention.

- *Flexible working hours*

According to Rotich (2015) some of the recent trends in human resource management bring serious challenges to the future of human resource management. For example, more flexible working conditions have resulted in less productivity from employees who cannot work without supervision and feelings of being treated unfairly from employees whose work cannot be performed remotely. On the other hand, there are advantages that come with having flexible working hours, like the ability to attend to family needs, and the strengthening of the employer–employee relationship due to increased trust as the work gets done without supervision (Shagvaliyeva & Yazdanifard, 2014).

With flexible work conditions, human resource professionals need to monitor the success factors while identifying challenges to help with future arrangements of a flexible work environment (Nasir, 2017). Itika (2011) states that human resource strategic planning must be able to provide, with evidence, an analysis of the extent to which an employee is

utilised, employee productivity, and employee readiness to respond to a changing environment through flexible work schedules.

- **Workforce diversity as a strategic issue**

The most pressing challenges of 21st century in human resource management are workforce diversity, together with technology, change management, leadership development, organisational effectiveness, globalisation, and health and safety (Hashim & Hameed, 2012). Workforce diversity as one of the challenges mentioned above is defined as "the composition of work units (work group, organization, occupation, establishment or firm) in terms of the cultural or demographic characteristics that are salient and symbolically meaningful in the relationships among group members" (DiTomaso, Post & Parks-Yancy, 2007:473). The idea of workforce diversity further involves representative age, gender, creed, nationality (culture) and educational background; skills, abilities, values, beliefs, and perspectives; personality and an individual's cognitive and interactive style (Rizwan, Nazar Khan, Nadeem & Abbas, 2016).

According to Kundu and Mor (2017) diversity in the workforce has evolved from a legal requirement for businesses to a strategic priority, which meanst that it can no longer be ignored. The attention gained by the notion of workforce diversity and its increasing importance in the organisational context come as a result of globalised businesses, flexibility, the use of global workforces, demographic developments, and increasing global competition (Badran & Khalifa, 2013). Employees' individual performance affects the performance of the entire organisation. Thus, the use of their individual differences as part of unique aptitudes, thoughts and creativity adds value towards organisational goals in a manner that gives the organisation a competitive advantage (Rizwan *et al.*, 2016). Yadav and Lenka (2020) believe that workforce diversity, as an emerging collective research phenomenon, improves the organisation's perspectives and knowledge. Employee diversity has an impact on human resource practices such as recruitment opportunities, interview processes, training and promotion opportunities, job advertising, and employee orientation (Badran & Khalifa, 2013).

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3.4 Relationship between human resource management and individual cultural differences

The corporate world is transitioning from being financially oriented to being competency based. This is because organisations are increasingly being characterised by different individual abilities and cultural beliefs (Badea, 2013). Human resource practices, such as job analysis, recruitment, selection, and employee career management, are affected in some way by these individual cultural differences (Milikić, 2009). Therefore, managers need to have the ability to manage these difference and identify other cultural elements required to support the organisational strategies (Mueller-Wilckens, 2013).

According to Ballesteros-Rodríguez, De Saá-Pérez and Domínguez-Falcón (2012) culture does not necessarily have an impact on the success of certain human resource processes (e.g., training process) unless human resource management practices that support these processes are implemented. In a way, human resource management practices can be used as the tools to facilitate a comprehensive approach towards establishing a sustainable organisational culture (Mehta & Mehta, 2017).

Koster and Gutauskaite (2019) emphasise the need to match human resource practices with national culture to endorse positive attitudes among employees in the organisation. The nature of management skills needed in this regard can differ from one country to another and can also be culturally specific (Al-Sarayrah *et al.*, 2016). The fact that each person is unique means that every decision made in the organisation will be different, as individuals make decisions based on their own perceptions, values, beliefs, and social views (Nasir, 2017).

3.5 Explaining decision-making

The concept of 'decision' is taken from the Latin word 'decidere' which means 'cutting off among alternatives (Jami, 2018). Therefore, decision-making can be defined as the

process of choosing between alternatives, and also includes awareness of the problem, one's perception about the problem, reasoning on how to solve the problem, and making judgement on the alternatives (Kumar & Gautam, 2018). This means that, if there is no problem with one's normal routine, no decision needs to be made as there is no conflict.

Decision-making encompasses various processes which are part of extensive investigations (Al-Omari, 2013). According to Shahsavarani and Abadi (2015) the decision-making process is one of the most important conscious processes in cognition. Cognition can be defined as a way of obtaining information through various processes such as being aware of one's surroundings, perceptions, reasoning, making judgments etc… (Kumar & Gautam, 2018). Some theories recognise decision-making in a way that defines it as a cognitive process (Gibson, 2018). Cognition in decision-making is a mental process which ends with the person making selections among various options (Shahsavarani & Abadi, 2015). It is important to note that there must be some real alternatives to choose from for the decision to be made; this implies that 'Do it' or 'Don't do it' does not qualify as alternatives. Only 'Do this' or 'Do something else' really qualifies as alternatives (Harris, 2012).

An individual's personality and behaviour come into play when they make a decision (Negulescu, 2014). As a result, it can be said that making decisions is based on a set of judgmental standards that are typically expressed as criteria that reflect the decision-maker's values and preferences. It is for this reason that decision-making is considered to be a dynamic process that involves a person's experience and education (Dwek, 2017). This implies that, other than the person's values and beliefs, a decision can also be based on the person's familiarity with the problem situation and a specific knowledge about certain processes (Hamoud, Ulkareem, Hussain, Mohammed & Salih, 2020).

According to Adu (2018) the most important task by managers within the organisation is making decisions. For this reason, more research on the concept of decision-making has

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been undertaken in the context of business management. In the organisational context, the process of decision-making involves a series of phases. The first, also referred to as the problem identification phase, involves an examination of the current situation and gathering and analysing information (Wilson, 2017). This is followed by designing a model that helps with understanding various options available to solve the problem. The final phase, namely the decision phase, is where the best alternative is selected (Wilson, 2017).

The process of decision-making is time-consuming and requires the use of resources (including financial resources). As such, managers have to consider several factors in order to make the right decision and avoid negative outcomes (Aljuhani, 2017). There are numerous decision-making approaches and factors to consider that can guide managers in making the right decisions (Davies, 2016). This means that, while deciding on the decision-making approach, managers should also conduct an environmental analysis by looking at factors which might have an indirect impact on the decision, for example, legislative or economic matters (Davies, 2016).

The complexity of decision-making, however, rests in making a choice among alternatives (Aljuhani, 2017). This means that, if there are more requirements and goals, the complexity of the problem is more likely to be high; in other words, many comparisons of alternatives and a longer process will be needed to make the right decision (Davies, 2016). This is especially true when there are many uncertainties and too many alternatives representing the solution to the problem (Aljuhani, 2017). To minimise the time and effort of making the right decision, the method chosen in the first place should be as simple as possible, though not too simple to compromise the accuracy of the decision and the findings of the investigation (Davies, 2016).

3.6 Types of decisions

According to Lee and Stinson (2014) the various decisions made daily differ with regard to types and level of importance. This is especially pertinent in the business environment where decisions range from being strategic in nature, tactical, operational, programmed, or non-programmed, and where conflict occurs between personal and business decisions. These types of decisions are discussed below.

3.6.1 Strategic decisions

To define strategic decisions one has to first understand what is meant by 'strategy'. Ahmed, Bwisa, Otieno and Karanja (2014:80) define the concept in military terms as "the art and science of identifying, assembling, and marshalling troops and equipment of war in a manner that must guarantee the complete defeat of the enemy". In the organisational context, strategy can be defined as actions that need to be taken to achieve organisational goals and obtain a competitive advantage irrespective of any challenges to be faced.

Strategic decisions which can also be referred to as long-term decisions denote the future direction of the entire organisation and are mostly made by top management (Osmani, 2016). Strategic decision-making is about stressing the issue of sustainability in different areas of the organisation, including having realistic goals, providing high-quality products and services, and personal and financial sustainability (Peterlin, Pearse & Dimovski, 2015). According to Osmani (2016) when defining strategic decision-making, one should remember that strategic decisions:

- are very important decisions for the corporate,
- are unique or very rare,
- are taken by top managers,
- cannot be structured,
- are long term, and
- are based on uncertainty conditions.

3.6.2 Tactical decisions

Organisations face situations of uncertainty that require quick and unplanned decisions to be made, also referred to as tactical decisions (Alonso-Ayuso, Escudero, Guignard & Weintraub, 2020). Tactical decisions are part of strategic decisions in a more detailed manner; thus, tactical decision-making can be defined as an instrument to achieve strategic decisions (Osmani, 2016). When defining tactical decision-making, one should take in mind that tactical decisions:

- are periodic decisions,
- are taken by tactical managers,
- cannot be too structured,
- focus on medium-term issues,
- support strategic decisions, and
- involve risk conditions.

3.6.3 Operational decisions

Operational decisions are simple, routine, and short-term decisions used to help with making tactical judgments (Osmani, 2016). They are directly linked to everyday actions and operations in the organisation (Martin-Clouaire, 2017). This type of decision-making can be formalised and structured, as there are standard procedures for making this type of decision. However, personal judgment and experience are still needed to make effective operational decisions (Osmani, 2016). Osmani (2016) defines operational decision-making by indicating that operational decisions:

- are important for tactical decisions,
- are taken daily,
- are taken by first-line managers,
- can be structured,
- are short-term, and
- involve certainty conditions.

3.6.4 Programmed and non-programmed business decisions

According to Lee and Stinson (2014) programmed business decisions address the well-defined situations in the well-structured systems, while non-programmed decisions are new and not well defined. With programmed decision-making there are standard procedures, rules and regulations based on organisational culture, values, and government legislation for solving problems. However, even with all of this in place, the decision-making process will differ because of the unique situation at hand. In contrast, non-programmed decisions pertain to problems which have no precise formula for decision-making (Bruwer & Cilliers, 2015).

3.6.5 Personal versus business decisions

Bruwer and Cilliers (2015) emphasise the distinction between personal decisions (i.e., own decisions taken during personal planning sessions which may influence the business), and business decisions (i.e., decisions that are made in one's official capacity). The clash between personal and business decision-making occurs when one's personal values, goals, and beliefs conflict with those of the business.

3.7 Decision-making styles

Decision-making styles can be defined as the manner which individuals make decisions which are considered to be stable characteristics that manifest in a variety of decision-making situations (Bavol'ár & Bačíkova-Slešková, 2018). Decision-making styles describe the process of decision-making in general (Dwek, 2017). Scott and Bruce (1995) refer to decision-making styles in two ways. They can be understood, firstly, as a learned pattern of making decisions and, secondly, as an individual's characteristics of responding to decision tasks (Bavol'ár & Orosová, 2015).

Decision-making styles originate from the field of cognitive psychology (Fischer, Soyez,

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& Gurtner 2015). There are many factors that affect the decisions made by human resource managers, or any employee for that matter – including personal experience and the knowledge relevant to the decision problem – which could lead to inconsistency in the decisions made (Hamoud *et al.*, 2020). It is for this reason that various models of decision-making styles with different approaches have been developed to help individuals with decision-making in the workplace. This includes one of the most used instruments in the field of cognitive psychology, namely the general decision-making styles by Scott and Bruce (1995). Scott and Bruce (1995) suggest that decision-making is a dynamic process where individuals do not only depend on one decision-making style. This means that the environment or the context dictates the type of style to be used in the decision-making process. The styles of decision-making by Scott and Bruce are explained below:

The ***rational decision-making style*** is characterised by systematic and logical evaluation of alternatives (Bavol'ár & Orosová, 2015). According to Ahmed *et al.* (2014) rationality refers to the idea of making a decision under the assumptions that all the relevant information needed to make decision is available to the decision-maker. The person who makes rational decisions thoroughly searches for and purposefully evaluates alternatives (Ding, Xu, Yang, Lee & Van Heughten, 2020). The rational decision-making style entails defining the problem, identifying and weighing the criteria, developing alternatives, analysing the alternatives, and finally making the decision (Dwek, 2017). Ith rational decision-making style people take actions based on the thorough analysis of the available information about the decision problem and the possible results of the decision (Mahaffey, 2015).

The assumption behind rationality in decision-making is that managers know all possible alternatives, know the consequences, have well-organised practices in place, and the ability to compare the consequences (Turpin & Marais, 2004). The rational decision-maker takes into consideration the needs regarding the decision problem, the alternatives available to help in solving the problem, the degree of complexity, the time constraints, the implementation of the decision to be taken and the value of the decision (Negulescu,

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2014). This means that the rational decision-making style can only be used when there is enough time available to make the decision.

The *intuitive decision-making style* is typified by a person's reliance on feelings to make the decision (Bavol'ár & Orosová, 2015). Decision-making is not entirely about making rational choices, but also involves emotional elements in following the process of problem-solving, which in turn includes thinking and heuristics, as well as intuitive judgement (Negulescu, 2014). According to Moxley, Ericsson, Charness and Krampe (2012) some theories argue that intuition plays a vital role in human decision-making as it is based on quick and automatic processing that is supplemented by slow deliberation. Intuition is a well-known concept that is used by every person to some extent and this style of decision-making can be applied in both professional and personal situations (Malewska, 2018).

The term 'intuition' has been found to have many definitions whose differences primarily result from the irrational nature of the phenomenon of intuition (Malewska, 2018). According to Malewska (2018:33) intuition is defined as "an extraordinary state of mind, a state of knowledge experienced in unforeseen circumstances; it is the voice of the subconscious". Intuitive decision-making includes experience, awareness and a gut feeling (Kumar & Gautam, 2018). According to Malewska (2018:33) despite the considerable differences in the definitions of the concept of intuition, some common features can be identified from these definitions, including the fact that

- intuition is an automatic thought process,
- the intuitive style is based on knowledge structures formed because of various types of learning (its essence is the ability to apply previously acquired experience to current actions),
- it occurs unconsciously, and
- its outcomes can include feelings, signals, or interpretations.

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Making a decision based on one's intuition means that one should have some degree of empathy and understanding of the decision context. The intuitive style is most often based on past experience; it is the conscious or unconscious way of making a decision (Malewska, 2018). Experience increases with age, which might lead to bias towards intuitive decision-making. The decision-maker pays attention to the flow of information and relies on hunches and premonitions rather than logic (Abunar, 2014).

This type of decision style is used by managers who often encounter situations that require instant decision-making, as well as creative, non-stereotypical and innovative thinking (Malewska, 2018). Intuitive decision-making has proven to be one of the most widely used styles in management. The main reason is that rationality or the logical decision-making style cannot be effective always as it follows an array of steps and is time consuming.

The *dependent decision-making style* is identified by the person's effort to search for advice from others in order to make a decision (McKivor, 2016). In other words, with the dependent style the decision maker relies on the support of others (Cerutti, Macke & Sarate, 2020). Dependent decision-makers find it easy to make decisions with guidance from other people and prefer to transfer the responsibility of making the decision to other people. As such, this kind of decision-maker is considered passive, compliant, and influenced by others' expectations (Verma & Rangnekar, 2015).

The *avoidant decision-making style* is defined as the effort of an individual to avoid making the decision (Bavol'ár & Orosová, 2015). Avoidant decision-makers postpone the process of making a decision for as long as possible and this style is considered effective if the decision-maker has a reasonable reason for avoidance (Verma & Rangnekar, 2015). This type of decision-making is more common in situations where it seems likely that any decision might have a negative outcome for the organisation and the decision-maker avoids being blamed in case things take a turn for the worse.

The ***spontaneous decision-making style*** is defined by a sense of urgency and the need to complete the decision-making process as soon as possible (Bavol'ár & Orosová, 2015). Spontaneous decision-makers often make decisions because of a sudden inner impulse without consideration of the external any factors (Scott & Bruce, 1995).

3.8 Decision-making techniques

According to Bruwer and Cilliers (2015) there are various techniques to stimulate creativity and develop alternative solutions during the decision-making process. These methods are designed to generate as many ideas as possible as they seek to explore various options and possibilities (Bruwer & Cilliers, 2014:7). They can be used for individual or group (cooperative) decision-making, depending on the decision problem (Shahsavarani & Abadi, 2015).

The decision responsibility in individual decision-making is up to one person but can have an impact on the entire organisation. One example is, instead of a panel interview, a one-on-one job interview the manager who will ultimately select an employee for the benefit of the entire organisation. It is for this reason that decision-making techniques are not divided into individual or collective techniques, as individual decision-making methods are applicable to collective and group decision-making (Shahsavarani & Abadi, 2015). The techniques suggested by Bruwer and Cilliers (2015) include: generation of alternatives, the reverse method, brainstorming, suspended judgement, using the 'Why' technique, and challenging assumptions. These techniques are explained below.

3.8.1 Generation of alternatives

This method suggests that there is more than one way of looking at things; in other words, any way of looking at a problem is only one possible way among many. Figure 3.2 below suggests that one should consider other ways before coming to any conclusions. The concept shown in figure 3.2 is illustrated by two overlapping rectangles, three rectangles, two L-shapes embracing a gap, and a rectangle divided into halves with two pieces pushed out of line.

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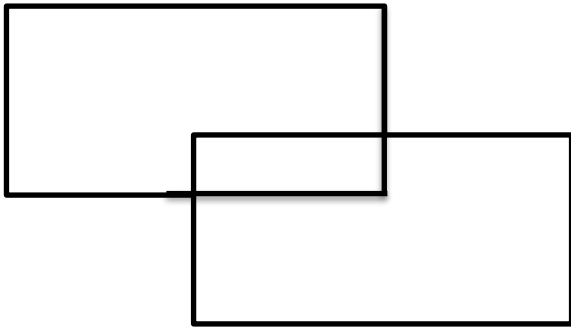
Figure 3.2: No right or wrong in the process of generating alternatives

Adopted from Bruwer and Cilliers (2015)

3.8.2 Reverse method

Bruwer and Cilliers (2015) define the reverse method by using the example of a swimmer's technique of kicking hard against the wall to gain more speed as they move in the opposite direction. The example highlights the idea of taking things as they come and turning them around to see what happens.

3.8.3 Brainstorming

According to Talanker (2016) brainstorming is the method where ideas are suggested without immediate critique while taking into account the availability of resources. This technique entails the stimulation of creative thinking among participants (also referred to as cross stimulation) (Bruwer & Cilliers, 2014).

3.8.4 Suspended judgement

Suspended judgement is the method used to restructure any information that might be invalid into something valid. Bruwer and Cilliers (2014) indicate that, although some ideas might not be directly related to the problem situation, they should not be discarded. Judgement should be applied only once all ideas have been explored.

3.8.5 The 'Why' technique

In this technique, the problem-solver asks the question 'why' to every question asked in order to challenge assumptions (Bruwer & Cilliers, 2014). This technique is useful when the decision-maker wants to determine the main causes of the decision issues. Thus, they would keep asking question 'why' to every suggestion until the underlying causes are identified.

3.8.6 Challenging assumptions

In problem-solving one should explore more and more ideas to set out new and broader boundaries of assumptions made beforehand. This is because, before the process of problem-solving begins, people always make assumptions on what might happen throughout the process because it makes it easier to solve the problem (Bruwer & Cilliers, 2014). This is shown in figure 3.3 below.

Example:
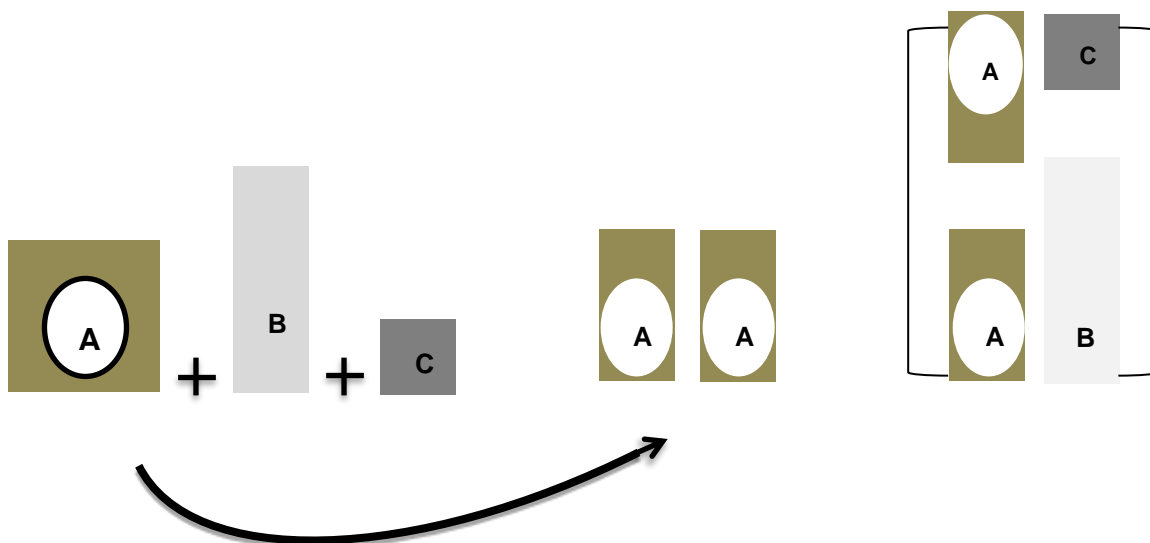
Figure 3.3: Arrangement of the blocks in 'A' into a single shape that will be easy to describe

Source: Bruwer and Cilliers (2015)

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In problem-solving, people tend to set boundaries through assumptions made about the decision issue. These assumptions are made as a way of avoiding failure. As such, the 'why' technique helps with setting new boundaries to the problem. For example, figure 3.3 above indicates that 'A', 'B' and 'C' can form one rectangular shape if 'A' is split into two equal parts.

3.9 Decision-making process

A large amount of literature on the decision-making process covers different areas of the education and business environment (Hallo, Nguyen, Gorod & Tran, 2020). This includes the study of Lunenburg (2010:11) who indicates that the decision-making process consists of various steps: "identifying problems, generating alternatives, evaluating alternatives, choosing an alternative, implementing the decision, and evaluating decision effectiveness". Similarly, Bruwer and Cilliers (2014) refer to the decision-making process as a process which involves a series of steps (see figure 3.4 below).

Although decision-making is referred to by different authors as a process which entails a series of steps, the nature of the process depends on various factors, for example, the person's knowledge about the problem, resources available to solve the problem, and the extent of impact that the problem has on the organisation (Al-Omari, 2013). Hence, step 1 of the decision-making process is identifying the problem (see figure 3.4 below) (Shahsavarani & Abadi, 2015).

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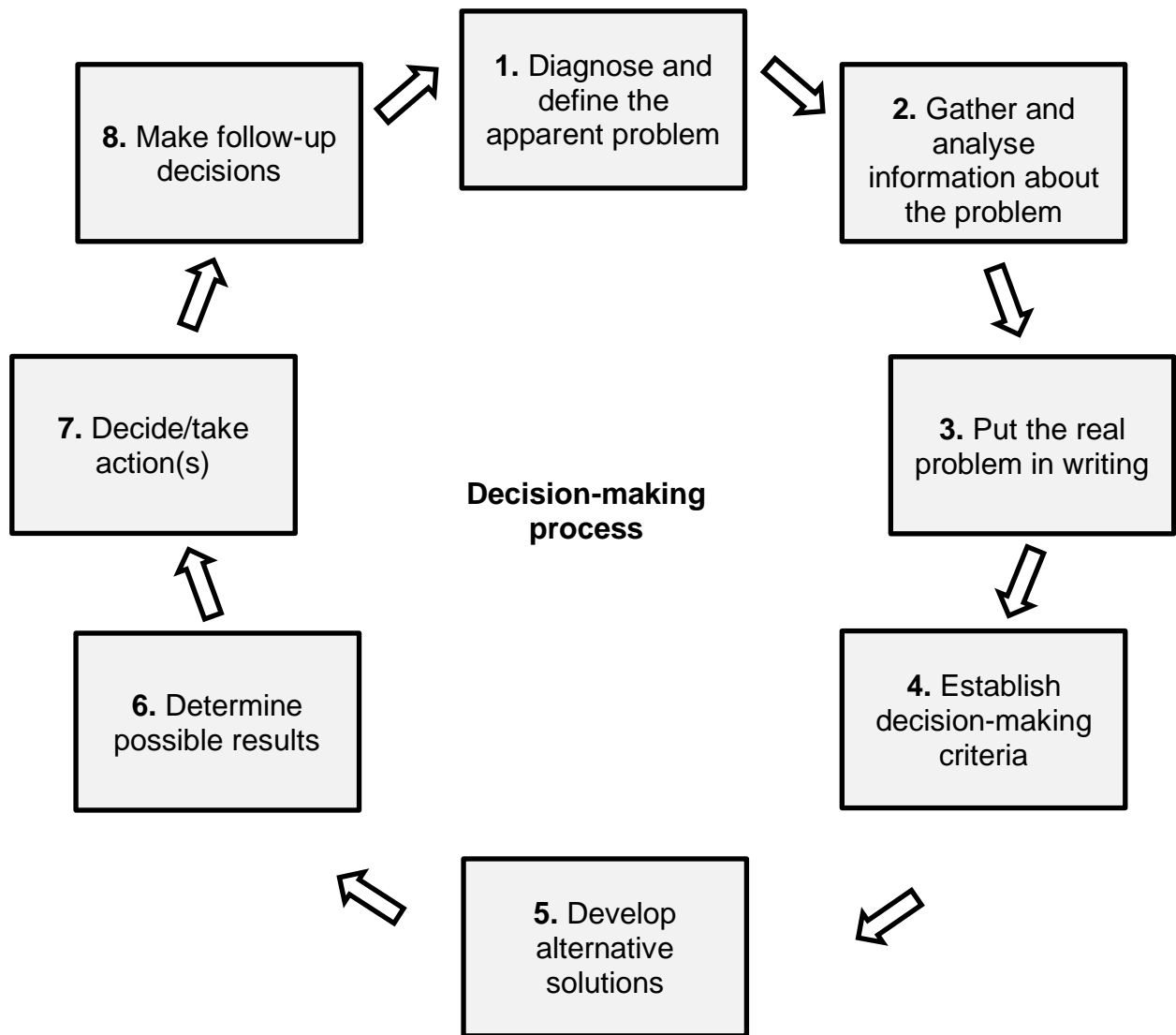
Figure 3.4: Eight steps of the decision-making process

Source: Bruwer and Cilliers (2014)

Figure 3.4 above presents the eight-stage approach of the decision-making process which assists with developing an effective strategic plan. The approach consists of the following steps:

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Step 1: Diagnose and define the apparent problem

According to Negulescu (2014) in the decision-identification stage, the decision-maker tries to answer the questions: what, which and how. This is the stage where the manager analyses the organisational environment and identifies the problem with the normal routine of the organisation.

Step 2: Gather and analyse information about the problem

The decision-maker gathers the information noted to be missing in the previous step (Negulescu, 2014). Information gathered at this stage includes looking at the organisation's reports and identifying missing information that can help with making the right decision.

Step 3: Put the real problem in writing

Putting the problem in writing helps to formulate it objectively and see the issue in perspective.

Step 4: Establish the decision-making criteria

In this step the criteria to determine and evaluate possible solutions are developed.

Step 5: Develop alternative solutions

Through brainstorming, the decision-maker formulates various options and writes down any missing information relating to the decision situation (Negulescu, 2014). Then, the manager and other departments involved sit down to come up with various alternatives on how the decision problem can be solved.

Step 6: Determine possible results

This stage is all about determining the effectiveness of the alternative solutions.

Step 7: Decide and/or take action(s)

In the penultimate step a decision needs to be made regarding which alternative to select – which is much easier to do in a group (Negulescu, 2014). Based on the information

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gathered and selected alternative, the manager carefully selects the decision that best suits the organisation and employees.

Step 8: Make follow-up decisions

The decision-maker uses the information gathered and additional arguments to decide on the way forward to build a solid foundation for decision implementation (Negulescu, 2014).

3.10 Strategic human resource decisions

In modern organisations there is a pressing need to automate some administrative tasks (e.g., data capturing for job applications and the process of selection thereafter) to free relevant employees so that they can focus on responsibilities that are professionally challenging (Marler & Parry, 2016). This is especially pertinent for human resource departments with their historical focus on administrative tasks instead of strategic decision-making (Beatty, 2019). Therefore, there is an ongoing transition within human resource divisions aimed at increasing the value of human capital through improved human resource involvement in the managerial decision-making processes. Hence, human resource managers are referred to as 'strategic business partners' and have the responsibility of broadening the client base and improving the quality of human resource services to internal employees; improving the measurability of human resource activities; and controlling any internal costs (Beatty, 2019).

Strategic human resource management comprises various components regarding which strategic decisions must be made from time to time. Figure 3.5 below displays ten main components of strategic human resource management. These components characterise the nature of strategic human resource management and refer to the requirements (of managers as well as employees) to excel in a competitive business environment (Itika, 2011:33). These components include strategic value decisions, employees as assets, staff support, strategic integration, obsession for quality, flexibility and adaptation, creativity and innovation, decentralisation for empowerment, effective communication,

and management and employee commitment. Each of these components are discussed below.

Figure 3.5: Strategic human resource management model

Source: Itika (2011)

Making strategic value decisions

Even though the model above suggests ten strategic components, it is the manager's responsibility to choose the most relevant systems, processes and activities towards the strategic objectives of the entire organisation (Itika, 2011). Making strategic value choices implies understanding the concept of 'strategic fit', which means that the organisation is aware of its strengths and weaknesses, the opportunities and threats that come with the external environment. In this way, the organisation will be able to match its long-term strategies with its needs and explore all the opportunities available in the external environment (Armstrong, 2011).

Employees as assets

In any organisation, human capital is the most valuable asset. Therefore, line managers and human resource departments should cherish, coach, train, respect and motivate their employees in order to achieve organisational objectives (Itika, 2011). The emphasis in this regard is on employee investment through effective talent management and retention strategies, learning and development strategies, employee engagement and retention strategies (Armstrong, 2011).

Staff support

While line managers and senior executive members expect the human resource department to implement policies and strategies, employees on the other hand, expect much more, for example, support programmes initiated by the department (Subramony, Guthrie & Dooney, 2020). Based the same logic of valuing human resources, managers should ensure that employees feel welcome in the organisation and enjoy tasks allocated to them. One of the techniques used to ensure that employees feel valued within the organisation is having informal interactions with all staff members (Itika, 2011).

Strategic integration

Combining business strategies and human resources involves the implementation of business strategies based on staff needs (Kurowicka, 2019). Policies and procedures for human resource management ought to be incorporated into the overall organisation's goals and strategies so that performance can be evaluated in terms of the degree of strategic alignment between business strategies and human resource strategies (Itika, 2011). The response of human resource strategies to the strategic objectives of the entire organisation is seen as the basic distinguishing feature of strategic human resource management (Armstrong, 2011).

Obsession for quality

According to Kurowicka (2019) quality is important in human resource management. Quality service delivery starts at the stage of recruitment and selection of employees who are the best fit for a specific job. Furthermore, appropriate training programmes should be executed to ensure that employees continue to perform at their level best. Last but not least, there ought to be systems of management that reward workers in proportion to the value they bring to the company. All of the above mentioned strategies can be used to build and sustain a habit of ensuring that quality is achieved within the organisation (Itika, 2011).

Flexibility and adaptation

Managers need to be able to change with the ever-changing environment of the 21st century. In other words, in order to adapt to change in the dynamic and competitive business environment, strategy formulation and implementation require flexibility (Armstrong, 2011). However, there should be "robust rules and regulations, flatter organisation structures, preference for a multi-skilled workforce, and convertible production technologies", which are all seen as strategies to improve an organisation's ability to remain focused amid environmental pressure (Itika, 2011:35).

Creativity and innovation

Organisations are no longer operating in old systems, where markets were dominated by only a few companies. Therefore, to remain ahead of the competition, managers should embrace creativity and innovation in the organisation (Makumbe, 2020). Moreover, managers and employees should work together in coming up with new and profitable ideas to give the organisation a competitive edge in the market (Itika, 2011). Human resource management has a vast impact on an organisation's creativity and innovation (Seeck & Diehl, 2017). Creativity and innovation are considered to be critical factors that distinguish one organisation from another with regard to the ideas they have and how they implement them in response to environmental analysis (Kurowicka, 2019).

Decentralisation for empowerment

Decentralisation entails delegating some of the decision-making responsibilities to lower-level employees to improve the overall decision-making process (Kayaalp, 2019). According to Itika (2011) strategic human resource management principles suggest that decision-making should be decentralised at the lowest level to prevent business agreements from not being closed at the right time and/or even forcing a specific manager to make a small, pointless routine decision. Human resource policies provide guidelines to employees so that they would make the right decisions even though they are not in top management (Kayaalp, 2019).

Effective communication

Effective communication in the organisation means that the message sent has been received and understood according to the sender's intention (Itika, 2011). Studies have indicated that communication issues are the main cause of people management issues. It is the duty of human resources to create an organisational culture that allows for transparency and active communication among all layers of the organisation (Datta *et al.*, 2020).

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Management and employee commitment

According to Razzaq, Aslam, Bagh and Saddique (2017) human resource management practices, like career planning, have a positive effect on employee commitment. Thus, organisations should nurture employee effectiveness and commitment by putting into place human resource practices other than compensation. Both employee and management perceptions determine commitment within the organisation. The strategic human resource management principle, however, contends that managers have a duty to see to it that staff morale is addressed because any indication of low employee commitment is a result of inadequate handling of human resource management issues at the top management level (Itika, 2011).

3.11 Conceptual framework of the study

The previous discussion on personal cultural orientation, decision-making, and human resources serves as the foundation for the conceptual framework for this study, which is shown in figure 3.6 below. The framework incorporates the SVS Model and the general decision-making styles of Hofstede.
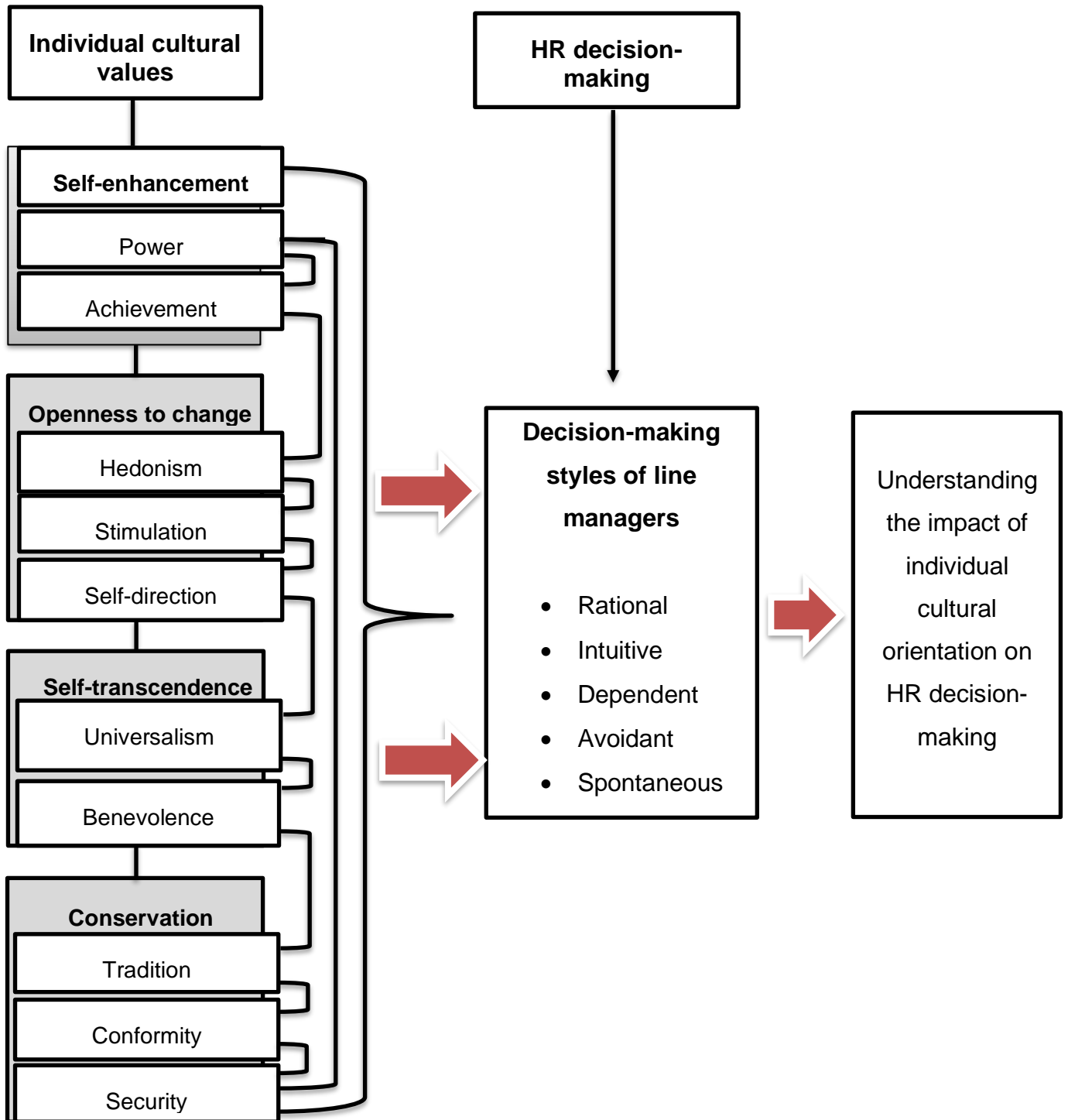
Figure 3.6: Study model for the relationship between cultural orientation and human resource decision-making

Source: Researcher's own construction

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The framework in figure 3.6 above shows the interrelations between the two sets of variables of the study: the independent variable, being individual cultural values; and the dependent variables, being decision-making styles and human resources. The dependent variables were measured to determine the impact that the independent variable has on them, as dependent variables wait for the effect of independent variables to change. It is for this reason that the main objective of the study was to measure the impact that individual cultural values (i.e., achievement, power, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, security, conformity and tradition) have on human resource decisions, based on various decision-making styles (i.e., rational, intuitive, dependent, avoidant, and spontaneous).

3.12 Summary

In the literature review in this chapter, human resource decision-making was explained as the dynamic process of resolving any human resource-related issues and deciding on the best approach to manage and utilise the organisation's human resources.

The chapter provided a theoretical perspective on human resource management and decision-making and explained the factors that affect the human resource decision-making process. Specifically, the chapter presented the theoretical background on the techniques, styles, types, and process of decision-making, followed by contemporary human resource issues and human resource management in strategic partnership. The chapter went into more detail about the correlation between cultural orientation and human resource strategies. Finally, the chapter concluded with the construction of the conceptual framework, drawing on the SVS Model and general decision-making styles.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

Nicholas (2018) describes research as an investigation conducted with the intention to solve human and societal problems. The notion of research involves gathering information, exploring problems, and providing a reflective report based on the findings (Clough & Nutbrown, 2012). Therefore, research can be defined as a methodical description and explanation of the world through social and intellectual activity (Remler & Ryzin, 2011). Similarly, Kothari (2004:8) defines research as "a systematic way of solving the research problem which may be understood as a science of studying how research is done scientifically".

Research offers a chance for the researcher to examine an area of interest from various perspectives, which allows for the extension of knowledge or the exploration of theory (Clough & Nutbrown, 2012). This means that research involves the methodical identification of the research problems and objectives, data collection, coding, analysis, and overall management of the research process.

Pandey and Pandey (2015) distinguish between basic and applied research as categories of research. Basic research is "aimed at obtaining empirical data that can be used to formulate, expand, or evaluate a theory rather than to solve a practical problem" (Ary, Jacobs, Irvine & Walker, 2019:15). Information obtained through basic research can be used for practical application. In contrast, applied research is frequently conducted to solve immediate and specified problems (Pajo, 2018). In applied research, the methods and techniques that form the body of the research methodology are applied to a particular situation. Information obtained can be used for other purposes such as formulating policies, identifying project needs, developing and evaluating a project, improving understanding of phenomena, establishing outcomes, and developing strategies (Ranjit, 2019).

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According to Clough and Nutbrown (2012) a 'research methodology' pertains to the way in which the research questions are articulated. It provides the logical establishment of the process used to generate the framework from which the research project is to be executed (Mohajan, 2018). In short, research methods are techniques used to conduct research, which include the instruments used in selecting and conducting the research study (Kothari, 2004).

This chapter addresses the research methods used in this study to answer the research questions and problem. It explains the research design and the systematic process that was followed in achieving the research objective. The population for the study and the measurement instrument that was used to collect empirical data are also explained. Lastly, the ethical considerations and matters relating to the validity and reliability of the study are discussed.

4.2 Research philosophy/paradigm

When undertaking research, the researcher draws upon various ontological and epistemological assumptions to choose the most relevant methodologies. Ontology is a concept that comes from the Greek terms 'onto', which means 'being', and "logia," which indicate "science," "research," and "theory," respectively (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). Therefore, the term 'ontology' is defined as the study of reality. Similarly, Busse, Humm, Lubbert, Moelter, Seiler, Reibold, Rewald, Schluter, Tegtmeier and Zeh (2015) define ontology as the science of being. On the other hand, epistemology refers to the philosophy of knowledge, especially with regards to the validation of knowledge and the methods used to gain it (Ranjit, 2019). Epistemology can also be referred to as the theory of knowledge (Ary *et al.*, 2019).

As alluded to in chapter 1, the ontological stance of the study was objectivism, while the epistemological stance was positivism. According to Antwi and Hamza (2015) the

paradigm of positivism, which explores social reality, is linked to the philosophical ideas of the French philosopher, August Comte. He stated that the best way to understand human behaviour is through observation, as true knowledge is obtained through the experience of the senses. Guba (1985 in Ponterotto, 2005) summarises some of the basic assumptions of this paradigm, namely that social and natural sciences should have the same goal, should incorporate similar methods, should be defined by empirical categories, and that there is uniformity of nature in time.

4.3 Research approach and design

As indicated before, the quantitative research approach was followed in this study. According to Thomas (2003:1) this approach involves a researcher's "focus on measurements and amounts (more and less, larger and smaller, often and seldom, similar and different) of the characteristics displayed by the people and events that the researcher studies".

The quantitative approach is usually selected when the research involves phenomena that can be expressed in numerical data (Mishra & Alok, 2017). With quantitative approach the analysis of data is done by making use of statistical techniques to answer questions like what, where, when, how, who, how much and how many (Apuke, 2017:41). Unlike qualitative research which follows an exploratory route, the quantitative approach takes the route of a confirmatory scientific method which primarily focuses on hypothesis and theory testing (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). Quantitative researchers use empirical data to test hypotheses.

According to Yilmaz (2013:313) "quantitative research is based on the positivist paradigm and is concerned with outcomes, generalisation, prediction, and cause–effect relationships through deductive reasoning". Positivist researchers believe that social facts have an objective and single reality (Rahman, 2016). Furthermore, the quantitative

approach assumes that "variables can be identified and relationships can be measured" (Yilmaz, 2013:314).

A research design is the strategy the researcher intends to use for data gathering, measurement, and analysis (Kothari, 2004). This can also be referred to as the study design, defined as the "use of evidence-based procedures, protocols, and guidelines that provide the tools and framework for conducting a research study" (Majid, 2018:1). For the current study, survey research was chosen to obtain objective facts on the research problem and questions. According to Sukamolson (2007) survey research entails the use of scientific sampling techniques to measure the characteristics of the selected population. Additionally, a survey research design can make use of both qualitative techniques, such as asking open-ended questions and quantitative strategies like distributing questionnaires with numerically connected elements (Ponto, 2015).

4.4 Population

The term "population" refers to the entire group of individuals that are the focus of the investigation (Pajo, 2018). For this study, the population included all managerial level staff of CUT. This included both academic and support staff members involved with making human resource decisions at the university. According to CUT's human resource department (2021) there are 119 permanently employed staff members at managerial level at both Bloemfontein and Welkom campuses - which formed the population for the study.

There are four faculties at CUT, namely: management sciences, health and environmental sciences, engineering and information technology, and humanities. In addition, there are departments that support academic staff members and undertake day-to-day duties. These include the office of registrar; the division of research, innovation, and engagement; the division of resource and operations; the division of teaching and learning; and the division of the vice-chancellor and principal. Of the 119 employees who

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participated in the study, the survey was successfully completed by 49 people, resulting in 41% response rate.

4.5 Data-gathering instrument

As mentioned before, a structured questionnaire was used as a data-gathering instrument. There are three types of questionnaires: structured (characterised by pre-determined questions), unstructured (mostly open-ended questions), and quasi structured (mixture of both structured and unstructured questions) (Acharya, 2010). A structured questionnaire was selected as the data collection instrument for this study as the researcher wanted to compare the responses of pre-coded questions and answers from a large number of people (Fox, Hunn & Mathers, 2009). With a structured questionnaire, the respondents answer the same number of questions in the same order. Some of the advantages of the structured questionnaires include the fact that it provides more consistent answers to the questions asked, and it's easy to management (Acharya, 2010).

For purposes of this study, a questionnaire on the impact of cultural orientation on human resource decision-making at CUT was constructed in line with the literature review (chapters 2 and 3), the theoretical framework, and the research objectives. The questionnaire was designed to be self-administered via the online platform QuestionPro. The questionnaire consisted of three sections: Section A captured the demographic information, Section B focused on cultural orientation, and Section C on decision-making. The different sections are outlined below.

Section A: Demographics

The purpose of this section was to capture the demographic information from the respondents, which included age, gender, and highest level of education, as well as their involvement at CUT (department, position occupied, and occupational level, also referred to as 'post level').

Section B: Cultural orientation

Section B captured the dominant individual values from the respondents using the SVS Model (2006). This section was categorised into ten parts: self-direction, universalism, benevolence, conformity, tradition, security, power, achievement, hedonism, and stimulation.

Section C: Human resource decision-making

Section C captured the participants' responses regarding human resource decision-making styles based on the general decision-making styles by Scott and Bruce (1995). This part of the instrument consisted of five decision-making styles, namely rational, intuitive, dependant, spontaneous, and avoidant.

4.6 Pilot study

In research, it is common practice to do a pilot study or pilot survey, in other words, to pre-test the questionnaire on a small number of people before it is administered to a selected group of respondents (Fraser, Fahlman, Arscott & Guillot, 2018). According to Kothari (2004) the pilot survey is a copy of the original research survey and is meant as a practice round to identify possible weaknesses in the questionnaire and survey techniques. Thus, the purpose of the pilot study is to reduce the chances of a research project's failing (Fraser *et al.*, 2018).

On September 23 and 24, 2021, a pilot study for the current study was conducted. Four permanent managerial employees at CUT's HR department on the Bloemfontein campus participated. All line-managers who took part in the study were excluded from the main trial if they had taken part in the pilot study. The results of the pilot study showed that the research instrument didn't need to be altered.

4.7 Data collection

For the current investigation, both primary and secondary data were gathered. Wiid and Diggines (2013) define primary data as information that has never been gathered before and is being gathered right now to address a particular problem. Meanwhile, secondary data refers to the data that has already been gathered and recorded by a different party for a reason aside from that of the current study project (Babin, 2016).

In this study, the researcher started by gathering secondary data about CUT and its employees on the institution's website and human resource department. The researcher further collected primary data from both Bloemfontein and Welkom campuses using the questionnaire (see annexure B). Before collecting the primary data on the selected group of employees, the researcher obtained permission to do so, in accordance with the institution's policy (see annexure A). An email explaining the objectives of the study and the link to the questionnaire was sent to the selected group.

4.8 Fieldwork challenges

The researcher faced the following difficulties when gathering data:

- Some respondents decided not to participate in the study.
- Load shedding at CUT caused internet connectivity issues, which slowed down the data collection process.
- Due to Covid-19 regulations, the campus was closed at some periods, which prohibited access to certain library resources and hindered communication with the proper authorities to obtain permission to distribute the study questionnaire.

4.9 Data analysis

Data analysis in research is a dynamic process that takes place after all data have been collected. The aim of data analysis is to put together emerging themes and identify key concepts and material acquired from the literature review (Mohajan, 2018). In this study,

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both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the collected data. Descriptive statistics are used to organise and analyse data by describing the "relationship between variables in a sample or population" (Kaur, Stoltzfus & Yellapu, 2018:60). Descriptive analysis used in this study entailed frequency tables, pie charts and graphs. Similarly, inferential statistics were used to further interpret the data and show the relationships among the variables.

5.10 Summary

This chapter captured the study's research methodology. It explained the research philosophy and design that were adopted to achieve the research aims and objectives, namely, to investigate the impact of cultural orientation on human resource decision-making among CUT's line managers. The chapter also indicated the tools and procedures that were applied during the planning, design, and execution phases of this study. This included the process from the development of the data collection instrument to the methods employed to gather the data. Finally, the chapter identified some of the fieldwork challenges encountered in this study.

CHAPTER 5: ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the research methodology followed in this study. The quantitative methodology was selected to investigate the relationships among the variables. This chapter provides an analysis and discussion of the findings from the structured questionnaire. As mentioned in the previous chapter, 49 participants (from a total of 119) successfully completed the survey, yielding a response rate of 41%. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse and interpret the data collected. The statistical package SmartPLS version 3.0 was applied to conduct the Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) analysis.

5.2 Descriptive statistics

According to Holcomb (2017) descriptive statistics are tools used to organise and summarise collected data, for example, graphs, percentages, and averages. For purposes of this study, the data are described below using frequency tables, graphs, and pie charts.

5.2.1 Section A: Demographic profile of the respondents

Section A describes the demographic information of the respondents. The demographic data consisted of gender, racial group, age, educational level, division or faculty employed, annual income, and work experience.

In Question 1, respondents had to indicate their gender. Of 49 respondents, there were 26 males representing 53% of the total number of the respondents and 22 females representing 45% of the total number of the respondents. These figures are presented in figure 5.1 below.
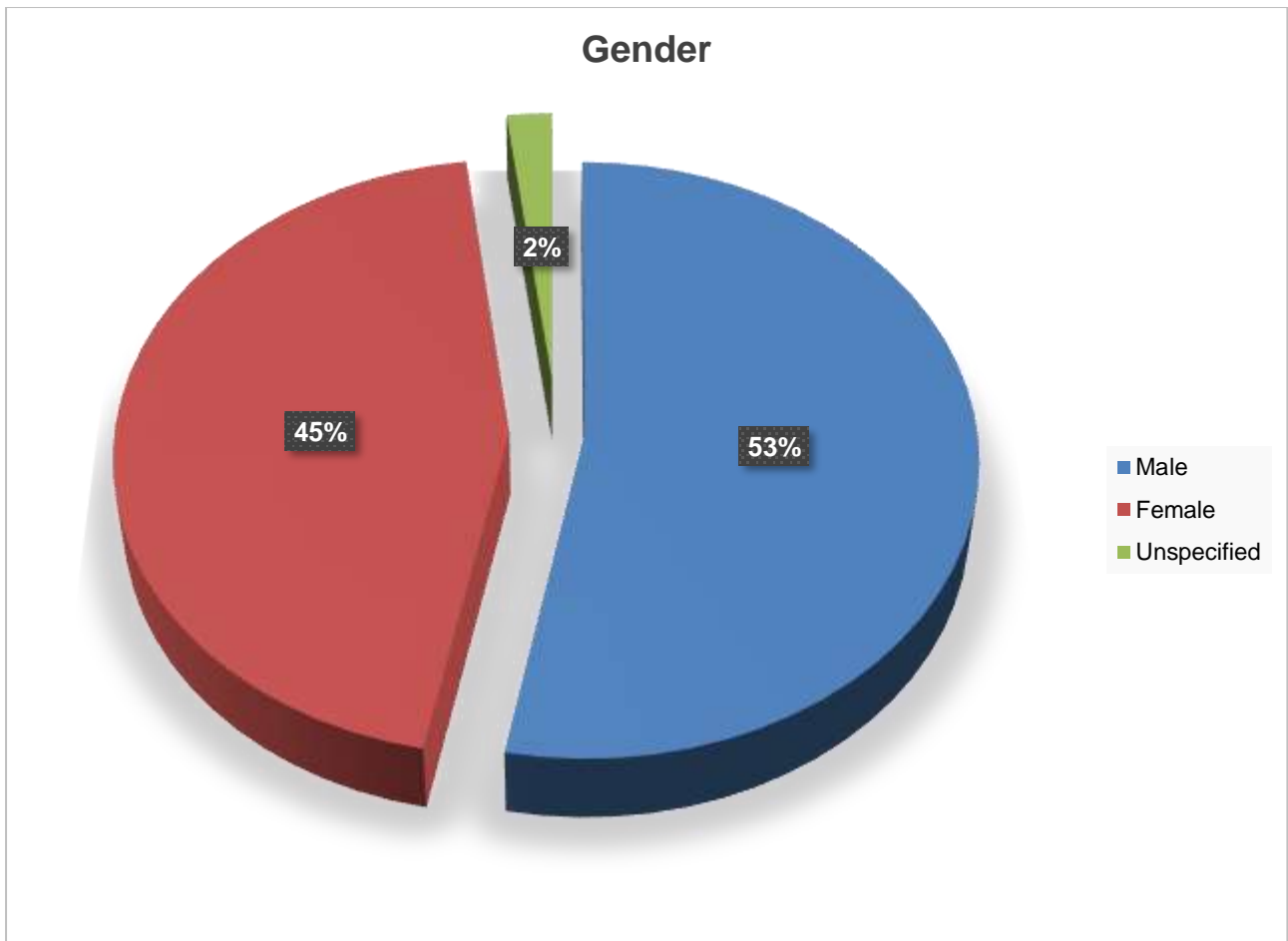
Figure 5.1: Gender composition of the respondents

In Question 2, respondents had to indicate their racial group. The result is presented in figure 5.2 below.
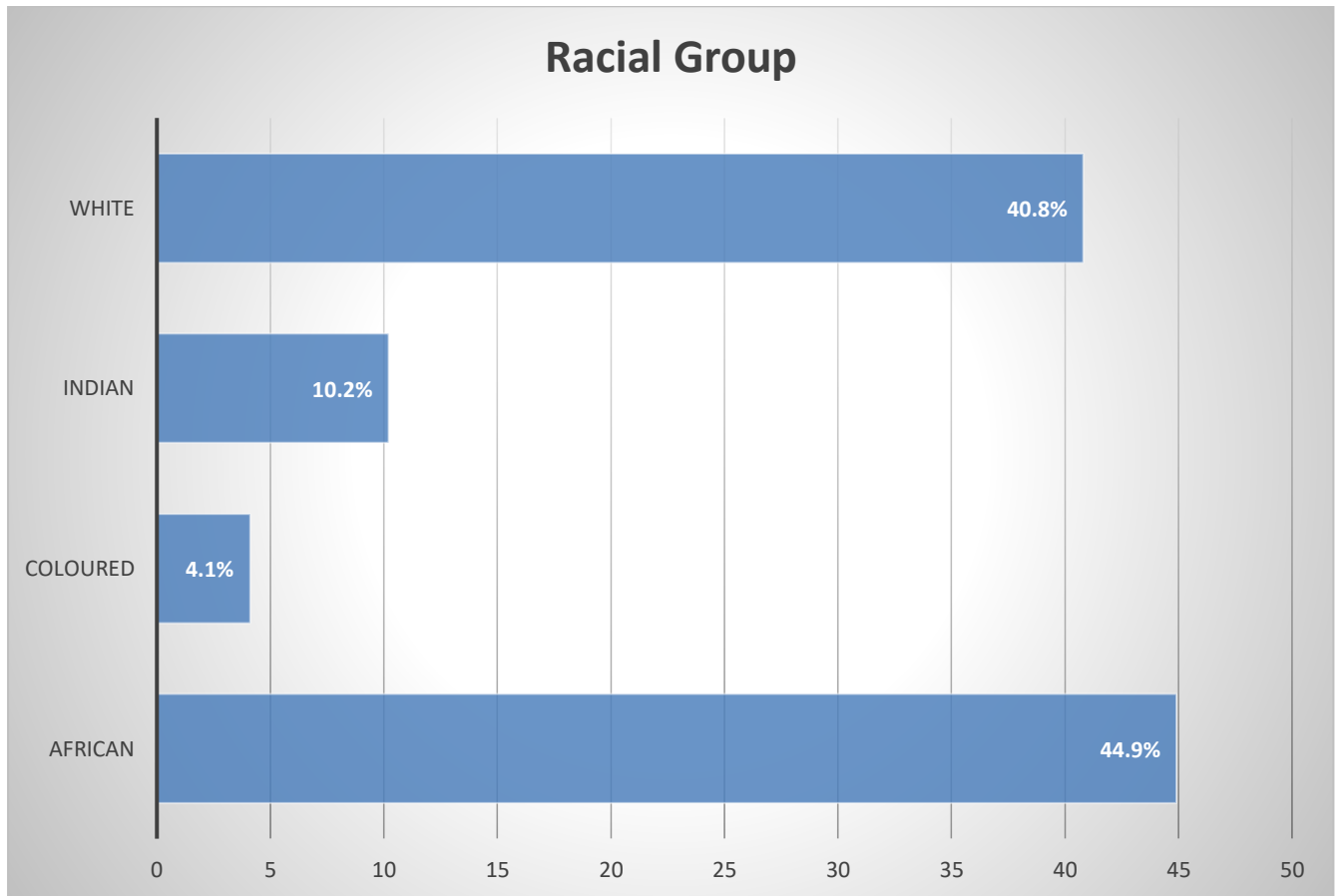
Figure 5.2: Racial groups of the respondents

Figure 5.2 above shows that most respondents (22) indicated their racial group as African, followed by white (20). These two racial groups accounts for 85.7% of the respondents. Five (5) of the respondents were Indian, while only two (2) were coloured.

In Question 3, respondents had to indicate their age. Their responses are presented in figure 5.3 below.
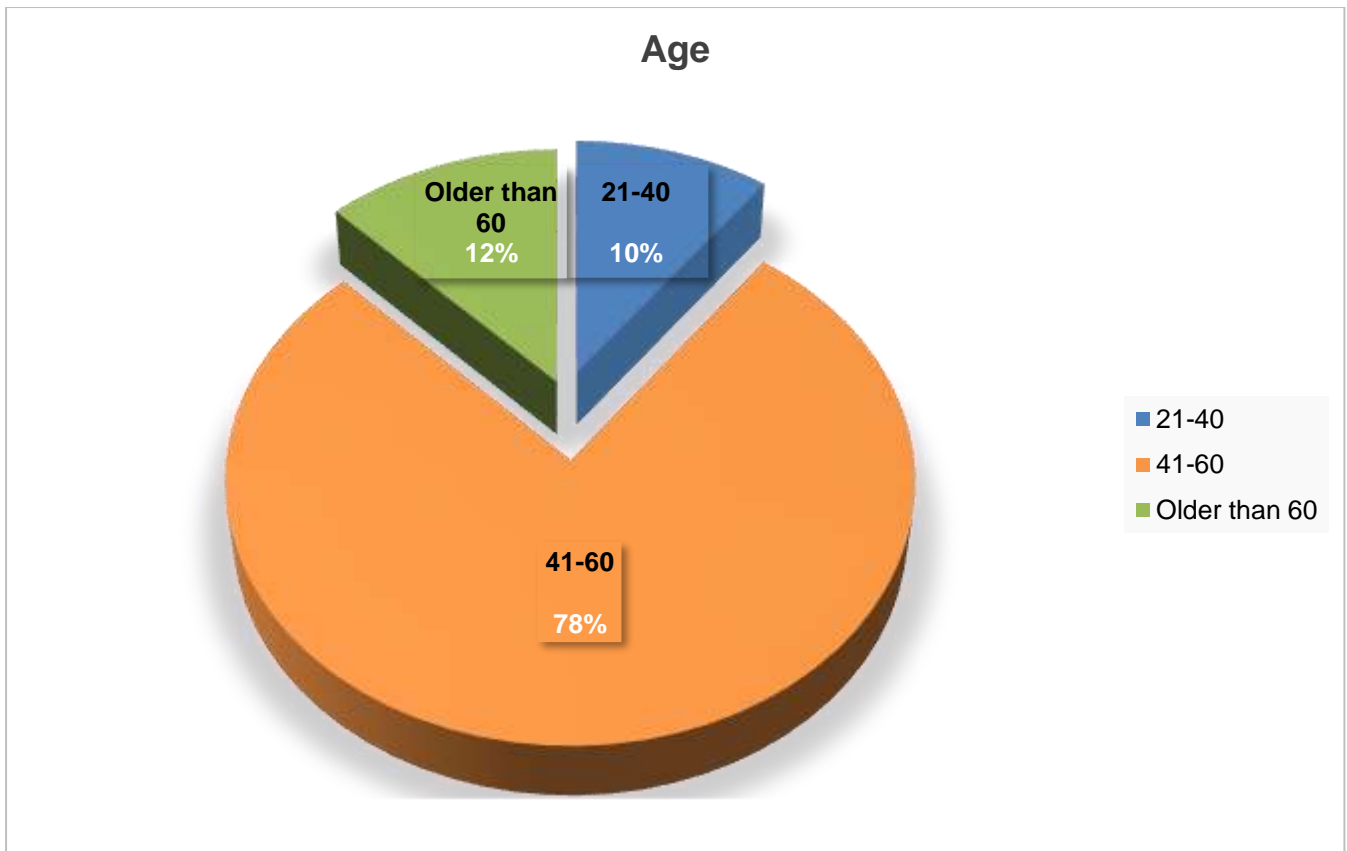
Figure 5.3: Age of the respondents

Figure 5.3 above shows that most of the respondents (78%) were between the ages of 41 and 60 years. Only 12% of the respondents were older than 60 years, while 10% were aged between 21 and 40 years.

In Question 4, the respondents had to indicate their level of education (highest qualification). The figures are presented in figure 5.4 below.

Educational Level

- DOCTORAL DEGREE — 44.9%
- MASTER'S DEGREE — 26.5%
- HONOURS DEGREE — 14.3%
- BACHELOR'S DEGREE — 12.2%
- CERTIFICATE — 2%
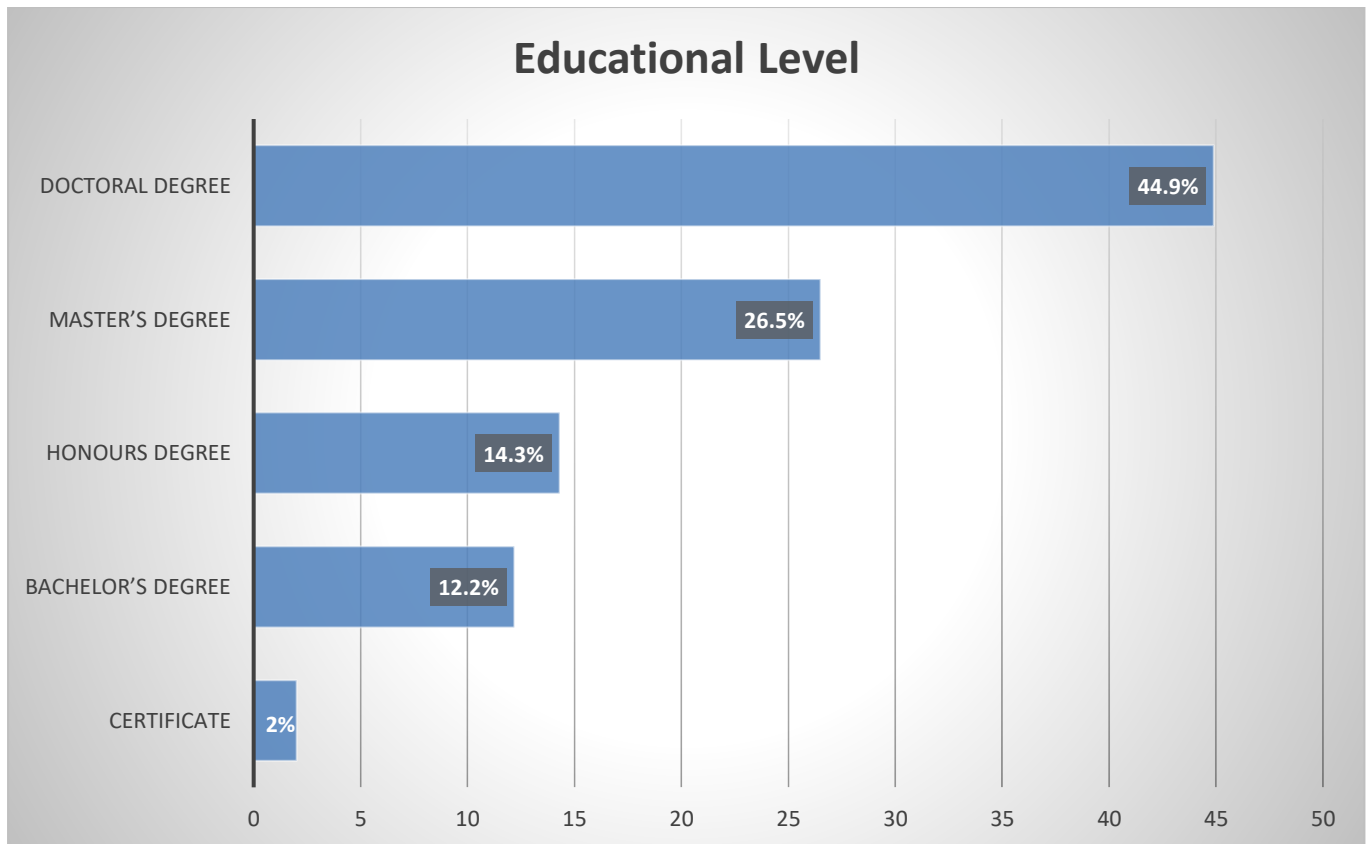
Figure 5.4: Educational level of the respondents

Figure 5.4 above shows that most of the respondents (44.9%) indicated being in possession of doctoral degree, which accounted for 22 of the total (49) number of respondents. Thirteen (26.5%) of the total respondents indicated that they had a master's degree, while 14.3% held an honours degree. Only 12.2% of the respondents had a bachelor's degree, while 2% were certificate holders.

In Question 5, the respondents had to indicate the division or faculty of their current position at CUT. Their responses are presented in figure 5.5 below.
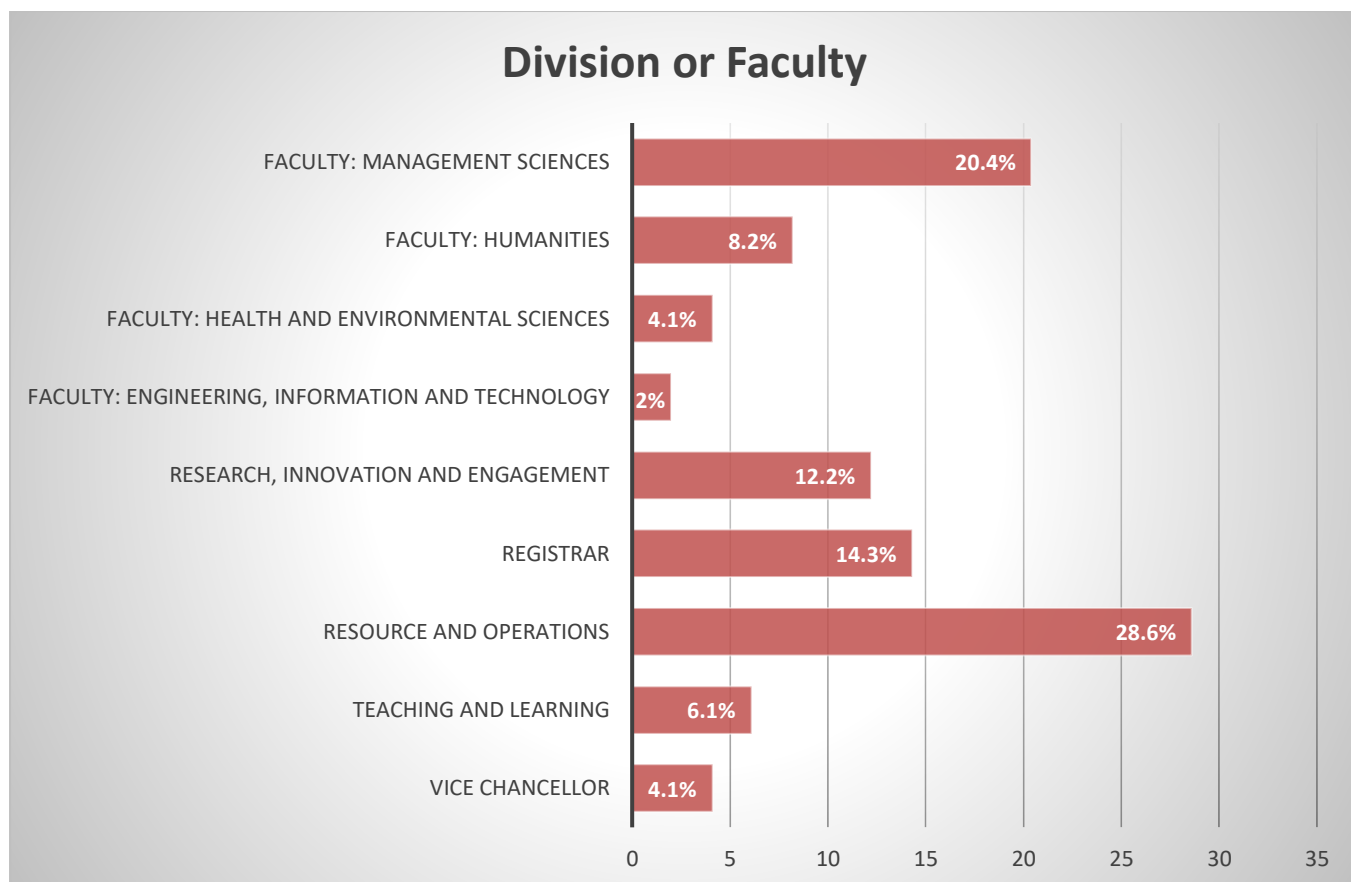
Figure 5.5: Division or faculty of the respondents

Figure 5.5 above shows that most of the participants (14 employees) (28.6%) were employed in the division of resource and operations. This is followed by the faculty of management sciences with 10 employees (10%). The office of registrar had seven (14.3%) participants; the division of research, innovation and engagement had six (12.2%) participants; the faculty of humanities had four (8.2%) participants; the division of teaching and learning had three (6.1%) participants; the division of vice chancellor and the faculty of health and environmental sciences both had two (4.1%) participants each, while the faculty of engineering only had one (2.0%) participant.

In Question 6, participants had to indicate their annual income (salary) for the current position. The figures are shown in figure 5.6 below.
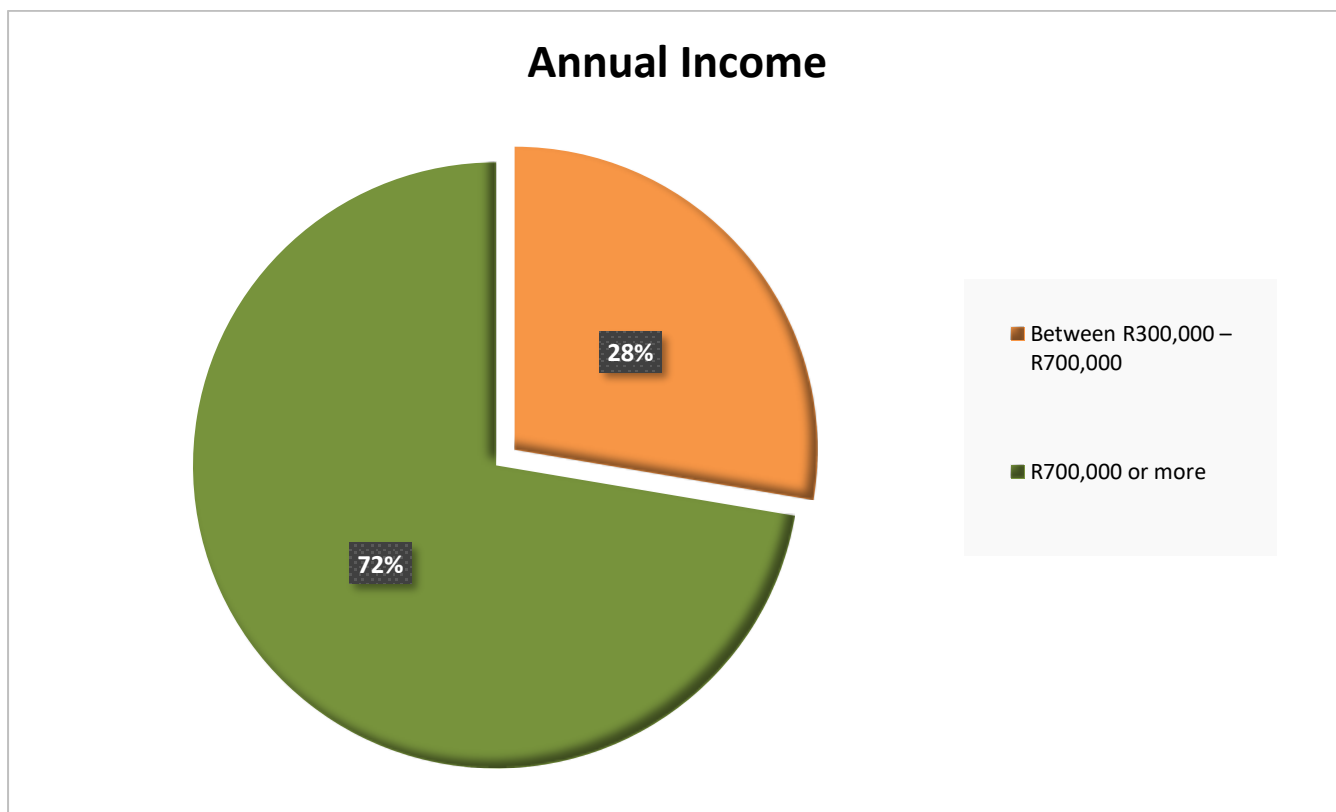
Figure 5.6: Annual income of the respondents

Figure 5.6 above shows that most of the participants (35 employees) (35.2%) earned the annual income of R700 000 and more. Only 14 employees earned a salary between R300 000 and R700 000 (28%).

In Question 7, respondents had to indicate the length of service (also referred to as work experience) in relation to their current position held at CUT. Their responses are presented in figure 5.7 below.
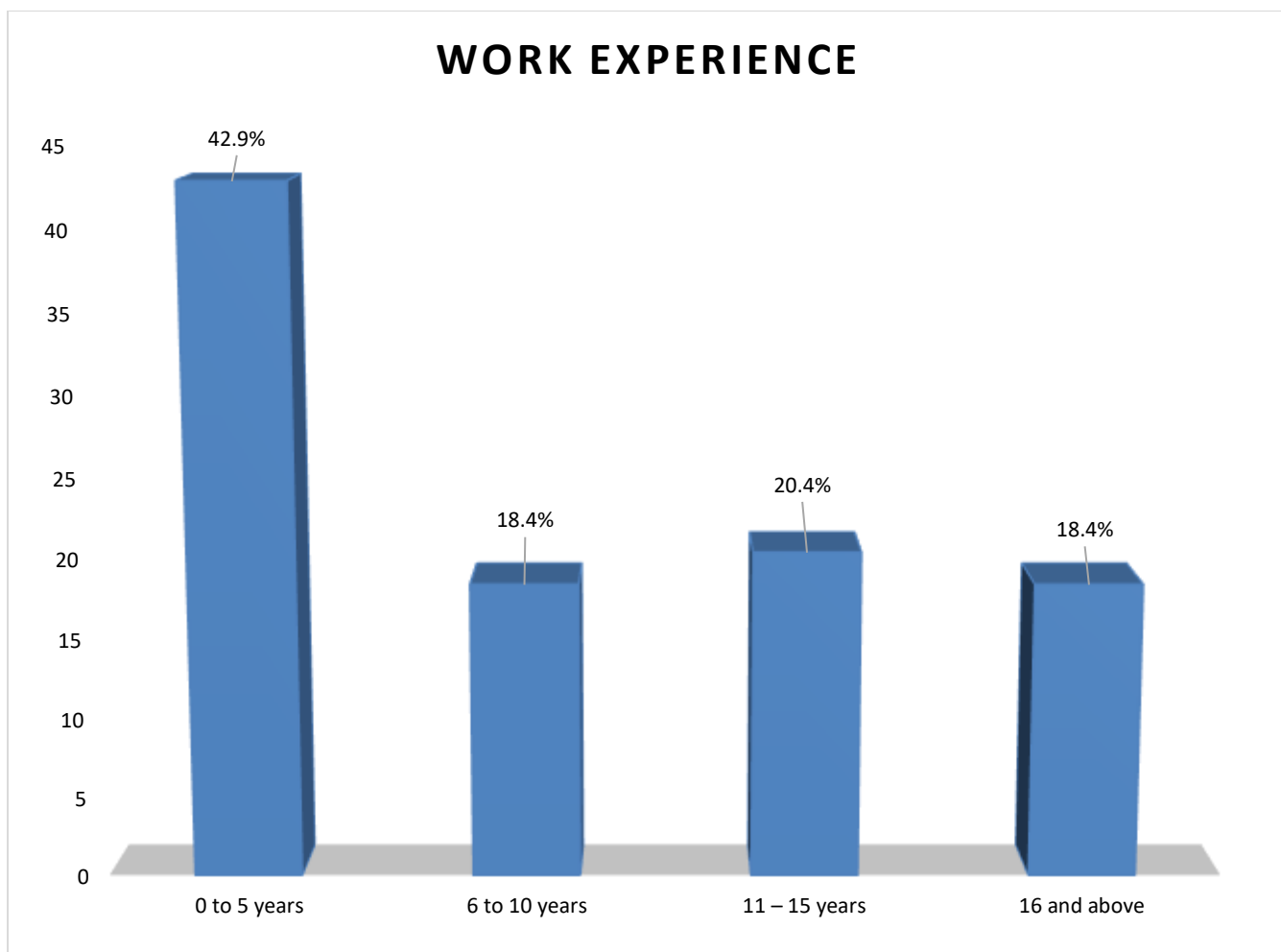
Figure 5.7: Work experience of respondents in their current position

Figure 5.7 above shows that the majority (21) of participants had between zero and five years of working experience in their current position held at CUT. This accounts for 42.9% of the total number of participants. About ten (20.4%) employees had experience from 11 to 15 years; 18.4% of respondents had reported work experience of between six and 10 years. Furthermore, nine (18.4%) respondents had 16 and more years of work experience.

5.2.2 Section B: Individual cultural orientation

This section (Section B) of the questionnaire measured the personal values that served as the guiding principle for employees in the workplace.

5.2.2.1 The dominant individual cultural values of respondents

On a five-point scale (from 'opposed to my values' to 'of supreme importance'), the respondents had to indicate how important the personal values listed on the survey are to them personally. The survey consisted of 40 questions which represented 10 individual values identified by Schwartz, namely achievement, universalism, benevolence, stimulation, self-direction, conformity, security, hedonism, power, and tradition.

Tables 5.1 to 5.10 below present a summary of the responses to the above-mentioned individual values in percentage (%).

Table 5.1: Scores for benevolence

Q		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance	N
5.1.1	It is important for me to be loyal towards my family and friends.	0.0%	0.0%	12.2%	32.7%	55.1%	49
5.1.2	It is important for me to help those around me.	0.0%	0.0%	16.3%	40.8%	38.8%	47
5.1.3	It is important for me to respond to the needs of others.	0.0%	0.0%	26.5%	34.7%	34.7%	47
5.1.4	It is important for me to forgive others.	0.0%	2.0%	24.5%	30.6%	38.8%	47

Table 5.1 above is a representation of the responses for benevolence, with four questions from 5.1.1 to 5.1.4. Of the 49 responses received for Question 5.1.1, 55.1% indicated that being loyal towards family and friends is of supreme importance. A total of 40.8% of the

respondents agreed that it is very important for them to help those around them (Question 5.1.2), while 38.8% indicated that it is of supreme importance to help those around them. Of 47 responses to Question 5.1.3, 34.7% respondents indicated that it is extremely important for them to respond to the needs of others. Another 34.7% stated that it is very important for them to respond to the needs of others. Most respondents (Question 5.1.4) stated that forgiving others is of extreme importance (38.8%), followed by those who indicated that it is very important (30.6%). Only 2.0% of the respondents (Question 5.1.4) said it is not important for them to forgive others.

Table 5.2: Scores for universalism

Q		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance	N
5.2.1	I believe in the concept of 'equal treatment for all'.	0.0%	2.0%	10.2%	28.6%	59.2%	49
5.2.2	I believe in a world that is free of conflicts.	2.0%	8.2%	34.7%	26.5%	26.5%	48
5.2.3	It is important for me to protect the weak in society.	0.0%	4.1%	36.7%	24.5%	32.7%	48
5.2.4	It is important for me to adapt to nature, a new environment and to fit into it.	0.0%	8.2%	26.5%	34.7%	26.5%	47
5.2.5	It is important for me to listen to the ideas and opinions of others.	0.0%	0.0%	18.4%	34.7%	44.9%	48
5.2.6	I believe that people should protect the environment and preserve nature.	0.0%	2.0%	10.2%	36.7%	49.0%	48

Table 5.2 above is a representation of the responses for universalism, with six questions from 5.2.1 to 5.2.6. Of the 49 responses to Question 5.2.1, more than half (59.2%) selected extremely important, which means that they believe in the concept of 'equal treatment for all'. A total of 28.6% indicated that the concept of equal treatment for all is very important to them, while only 2.0% said it is not important.

Of the 48 responses to Question 5.2.2, 34.7% indicated that believing in a world that is free of conflict is important to them, while those who selected 'very important' and 'of supreme importance' scored 26.5% each. Of the 48 responses to Question 5.2.3, the majority (36.7%) stated that it is important for them to protect the weak in society, while only 4.1% indicated that it is not important.

The majority (34.7%) of responses to Question 5.2.4 indicated that it is very important for them to adapt to nature, a new environment and to fit into it, whereas 8.2% stated that it is not important. Responses to Question 5.2.5 show that 18.4% consider listening to the ideas and opinions of others as important, 34.7% consider it to be very important, and 44.9% to be extremely important. Although 2.0% of the respondents in Question 5.2.6 believed that protecting the environment and preserving nature is not important, 10.2% of the respondents said it is important, 36.7% believed it is very important, and 49.0% believed it is of supreme importance.

Table 5.3: Scores for self-direction

Q		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance	N
5.3.1	It is important for me to have freedom of action.	0.0%	2.0%	16.3%	36.7%	44.9%	49
5.3.2	Creativity and innovation are important to me.	0.0%	0.0%	18.4%	42.9%	38.8%	49
5.3.3	I consider myself to be a curious person.	0.0%	8.2%	22.4%	42.9%	26.5%	49

Q		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance	N
5.3.4	I prefer to work alone rather than in a group.	18.4%	30.6%	20.4%	20.4%	10.2%	49

Table 5.3 above is a representation of the responses for self-direction, with four questions from 5.3.1 to 5.3.4. There were 49 responses to all four questions. To the majority (44.9%) of the respondents in Question 5.3.1 it is of supreme importance to have freedom of action, while only 2.0% indicated that it is not important. For Question 5.3.2, 42.9% of the respondents indicated that creativity and innovation are very important to them, followed by 38.8% who considered creativity and innovation to be of supreme importance to them. With regard to Question 5.3.3, the majority (42.9%) considered themselves to be very curious, whereas 8.2% did not consider curiosity to be as important. A total of 51% of the respondents for Question 5.3.4 considered working alone to be important, very important and of supreme importance. Although almost half of the respondents in Question 5.3.4 preferred to work alone, 49% considered working alone not to be important and opposed to their values.

Table 5.4: Scores for stimulation

Q		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance	N
5.4.1	It is important for me to do lots of different things in life.	0.0%	12.2%	32.7%	34.7%	18.4%	48
5.4.2	I believe in taking risks and always looking for new adventures.	0.0%	16.3%	28.6%	36.7%	16.3%	48
5.4.3	It is important for me to have an exciting life.	0.0%	6.1%	30.6%	30.6%	30.6%	48

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Table 5.4 above is a representation of the responses for stimulation, with three questions from 5.4.1 to 5.4.3. There were 48 responses to all three questions. Doing lots of different things is very important to the majority (34.7%) of respondents for Question 5.4.1, while 1.2% indicated that it is not important for them to do lots of things in life. The majority (36.7%) of respondents for Question 5.4.2 believed it is very important for them to take risks and look for new adventures, whereas 16.3% believed it is not important to them. The majority (30.6%) of the respondents for Question 5.4.3 indicated that it is important, very important and even of supreme importance to have an exciting life, while only 6.1% considered having an exciting life as not important to them.

Table 5.5: Scores for hedonism

Q		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance	N
5.5.1	It is important for me to do things that give me pleasure.	0.0%	4.1%	30.6%	44.9%	20.4%	49
5.5.2	Enjoying life's pleasures is important to me.	2.0%	12.2%	32.7%	36.7%	16.3%	49
5.5.3	It is important for me to have a good time.	0.0%	10.2%	38.8%	38.8%	12.2%	49

Table 5.5 above is a representation of the responses for hedonism, with three questions from 5.5.1 to 5.5.3. There were 49 responses for all three questions. Of the responses to Question 5.5.1, 44.9% considered doing things that give pleasure to be very important to them, while only 4.1% indicated that this is not important. For Question 5.5.2, the majority (36.7%) of the respondents considered enjoying life's pleasures to be very important. On the other hand, 14.2% considered enjoying life's pleasures to be opposed to their values and not important to them. Even so, apart from most of the respondents who indicated enjoying life's pleasures to be very important, there were other respondents who indicated that it is important (32.7%) and of supreme importance (16.3%). For Question 5.5.3, the

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majority (38.8%) considered having a good time to be important, while the same percentage considered it to be very important. A total of 10.2% indicated that having a good time is not important for them.

Table 5.6: Scores for achievement

Q		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance	N
5.6.1	It is important for me to show my abilities to other people and be admired for the work I do.	4.1%	24.5%	28.6%	26.5%	16.3%	49
5.6.2	It is important for me to be successful.	2.0%	2.0%	22.4%	38.8%	34.7%	49
5.6.3	It is important for me to be ambitious.	4.1%	2.0%	24.5%	42.9%	26.5%	49
5.6.4	Being better than others is important to me.	22.4%	57.1%	14.3%	4.1%	2.0%	49

Table 5.6 above is a representation of the responses for achievement, with four questions from 5.6.1 to 5.6.4. For Question 5.6.1, most respondents considered showing their abilities to other people and being admired for the work they do to be important (28.6%) and very important (26.5%). In contrast, 28.6% of the respondents indicated that it is opposed to their values (4.1%) and not important (24.5%) to them. Of the 49 responses to Question 5.6.2, 38.8% indicated that being successful is very important, while 4.0% considered being successful to be opposed to their values and not so important.

For Question 5.6.3, the majority (42.9%) of the respondents indicated that being ambitious is very important to them, while 6.1% stated that it is opposed to their values (4.1%) and not so important (2.0%). Being better than others (Question 5.6.4) was considered by most respondents (57.1%) to be not important, whereas 22.4% indicated that being better than

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others is opposed to their values. Only 18.6% of the respondents considered this to be important (14.3%), very important (4.1%) and of supreme importance (2.0%).

Table 5.7: Scores for power

Q		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance	N
5.7.1	It is important for me to have money and expensive things.	6.1%	40.8%	30.6%	12.2%	6.1%	49
5.7.2	It is important for me to have control and dominance over others.	32.7%	59.2%	4.1%	0.0%	2.0%	48
5.7.3	It is important for me to always be the one who makes the decisions.	22.4%	61.2%	14.3%	0.0%	0.0%	48

Table 5.7 above is a representation of the responses for power, with three questions from 5.7.1 to 5.7.3. Half of the respondents to Question 5.7.1 were opposed to having money and expensive things: 6.1% stated that it is opposed to their values, and 40.8% indicated that it is not important. Even so, 30.6% of the respondents stated that having money and expensive things is important to them, while 18.3% considered having money and expensive things to be very important (12.2%) and extremely important (6.1%).

For Question 5.7.2, most respondents were against having control and dominance over others: 59.2% indicated that it is not important and 32.7% stated that it is opposed to their values. On the other hand, for only 6.1% having control and dominance over others seemed significant: 4.1% saw it as important and 2.0% as of supreme importance. Of the 48 responses to Question 5.7.3, the vast majority (61.2%) indicated that it is not important for them to always be the ones who make the decisions, while only 14.3% said it is important. Moreover, 22.4% of the respondents indicated that it is opposed to their values.

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Table 5.8: Scores for security

Q		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance	N
5.8.1	It is important for me to live in secure surroundings.	0.0%	2.0%	12.2%	26.5%	59.2%	49
5.8.2	It is important to me that my country is safe from any threats.	0.0%	0.0%	8.2%	32.7%	59.2%	49
5.8.3	It is important to me that things are organised and clean.	0.0%	0.0%	16.3%	30.6%	53.1%	49
5.8.4	Staying healthy is important to me.	0.0%	0.0%	8.2%	26.5%	65.3%	49
5.8.5	Having a stable government is important to me.	0.0%	0.0%	12.2%	18.4%	69.4%	49

Table 5.8 above is a representation of the responses for security, with five questions from 5.8.1 to 5.8.5. For Question 5.8.1 most of the respondents (over half, with 59.2%) considered living in secure surroundings to be of supreme importance. For Question 5.8.2 most respondents (over half, again with 59.2%) indicated that it is extremely important for them that their country is safe from any threats. Over half of the respondents (53.1%) for Question 5.8.3 stated that it is extremely important to them that things are organised and clean. Of 49 responses to Question 5.8.4, the majority (65.3%) considered staying healthy to be extremely important to them. Having a stable government was of supreme importance to the majority (69.4%) of the respondents to Question 5.8.5.

Table 5.9: Scores for conformity

Q		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance	N
5.9.1	I believe that people should follow rules and regulations at all time.	0.0%	4.1%	18.4%	40.8%	36.7%	49
5.9.2	It is important for me to always behave properly.	0.0%	2.0%	18.4%	40.8%	38.8%	49
5.9.3	Showing respect to others is important to me.	0.0%	0.0%	4.1%	34.7%	61.2%	49
5.9.4	I consider myself to be a polite person with good manners.	0.0%	2.0%	10.2%	40.8%	46.9%	49

Table 5.9 above is a representation of the responses for conformity, with four questions from 5.9.1 to 5.9.4. In answering Question 5.9.1, 40.8% of the respondents indicated that it is very important that people always follow rules and regulations, while only 4.1% indicated that it is not important for people to follow rules and regulations. Of the 49 responses for Question 5.9.2, 40.8% stated that it is very important for them to behave properly, and 61.2% (5.9.3) believed that showing respect to others is of supreme importance. Finally, of the 49 responses to Question 5.9.4, 46.9% considered themselves to be polite with good manners.

Table 5.10: Scores for tradition

Q		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance	N
5.10.1	I believe that people should be satisfied with what they have.	2.0%	16.3%	42.9%	24.5%	14.3%	49

Q		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance	N
5.10.2	My religious beliefs are important to me.	0.0%	8.2%	16.3%	18.4%	57.1%	49
5.10.3	It is important for me to follow learned customs.	0.0%	40.8%	24.5%	28.6%	6.1%	49
5.10.4	It is important for me to be modest and humble.	0.0%	2.0%	30.6%	24.5%	42.9%	49

Table 5.10 above is a representation of the responses for tradition, with four questions from 5.10.1 to 5.10.4. A total of 42.9% to Question 5.10.1 believed it is important that people be satisfied with what they have, while only 16.3% indicated that it is not important. Most respondents (57.1%) stated that their religious beliefs are important to them. Interesting responses were found to Question 5.10.3, where respondents had to state the level of importance of following learned customs. The majority (40.8%) indicated that it is not important, whereas 24.5% said it is important and 28.6% considered it to be very important. Of the 49 responses to Question 5.10.4, the majority (42.9%) considered being modest and humble to be extremely important to them.

5.2.3 Section C: Decision-making styles

This section consisted of 25 items that measured the dominant decision-making style among CUT line managers when making human resource decisions.

Table 5.11: Responses for the rational decision-making style

Q		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	N
5.11.1	When deciding about employee-related issues, I prefer to be objective.	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	42.9%	57.1%	49

Q		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	N
5.11.2	Following organisational rules and regulations to make decisions is important to me.	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	44.9%	55.1%	49
5.11.3	I prefer to use logical and systematic processes in making decisions.	0.0%	0.0%	2.0%	49.0%	49.0%	49
5.11.4	I prefer to have the correct facts before making decisions.	0.0%	0.0%	2.0%	20.4%	77.6%	49
5.11.5	I prefer to double check my information source to be sure before making any decision.	0.0%	0.0%	8.2%	26.5%	65.3%	49

Table 5.11 above is a representation of the responses to the rational decision-making style, with five questions from 5.11.1 to 5.11.5. In answering Question 5.11.1, 57.1% of the respondents strongly agreed that they prefer to be objective when making decisions about human-resource related issues, while 55.1% (Question 5.11.2) strongly agreed that it is important to follow the rules and regulations of the organisation when making decisions. Of the 49 responses to Question 5.11.3, the majority agreed (49.0%) and strongly agreed (49.0%) that they preferred to use logical and systematic processes when making decisions. A total of 77.6% of the respondents in Question 5.11.4 strongly agreed that they preferred to have the correct facts before making decisions, and 65% of the respondents in Question 5.11.5 preferred to double check the information source before making any decision.

Table 5.12: Responses for the intuitive decision-making style

Q		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	N
5.12.1	Compassion is important to me when making decisions.	0.0%	6.1%	20.4%	51.0%	22.4%	49

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5.12.2	Using my personal feelings to make decisions is important to me.	18.4%	42.9%	32.7%	6.1%	0.0%	49
5.12.3	When making decisions, I tend to rely on my intuition.	8.2%	16.3%	34.7%	30.6%	10.2%	49
5.12.4	When I decide, I trust my inner feelings and reactions.	6.1%	12.2%	28.6%	40.8%	10.2%	48
5.12.5	Making the right decisions is more important to me than making rational decisions.	4.1%	8.2%	24.5%	44.9%	18.4%	49

Table 5.12 above is a representation of the responses to the intuitive decision-making style, with five questions from 5.12.1 to 5.12.5. Question 5.12.1 requested respondents to indicate whether it is important for them to use compassion when making decisions. A total of 51.0% agreed that compassion is important to them, with only 6.1% disagreeing. Of the 49 responses to Question 5.12.2, 42.9% disagreed that using personal feelings to make decisions is important to them, and 18.4% strongly disagreed. Most of the respondents in Question 5.12.3 provided a neutral response when asked if they tend to rely on their intuition when making decisions, while 40.8% agreed that, when they decide on something, they trust their feelings and reactions. A total of 44.9% agreed that making the right decisions is more important to them than making rational decisions.

Table 5.13: Responses for the dependent decision-making style

Q		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	N
5.13.1	Before making decisions, I prefer to hear the views of all parties involved.	0.0%	0.0%	2.0%	36.7%	59.2%	48
5.13.2	Using other people's experiences to make decisions is important to me.	2.0%	8.2%	22.4%	44.9%	22.4%	49

5.13.3	I prefer to consult with other people before making decisions.	0.0%	6.1%	8.2%	51.0%	34.7%	49
5.13.4	I prefer to have someone steering me in the right direction when I am faced with important decisions.	2.0%	22.4%	24.5%	30.6%	18.4%	48
5.13.5	If I have the support of others, it is easier for me to make important decisions.	2.0%	14.3%	16.3%	40.8%	26.5%	49

Table 5.13 above is a representation of the responses to the dependent decision-making style, with five questions from 5.13.1 to 5.13.5. Over half (59.2%) of the respondents in Question 5.13.1 indicated that they strongly agree with hearing the views of all parties involved before making decisions. A total of 44.9% of the respondents in Question 5.13.2 agreed that it is important for them to use other people's experience to make decisions. For Question 5.13.3, the majority (51.0%) of the respondents agreed that they prefer to consult with other people before making decisions.

Some interesting scores were found for Question 5.13.4, where 30.6% of the respondents indicated that they prefer to have someone steering them in the right direction when faced with an important decision, while 22.4% disagreed with the statement. For Question 5.13.5, 40.8% of the respondents indicated that it is easier for them to make important decisions if they have the support of other people, while 14.3% disagreed with the statement.

Table 5.14: Responses for the avoidant decision-making style

Q		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	N
5.14.1	I generally make important decisions at the last minute.	18.4%	49.0%	14.3%	14.3%	2.0%	48

5.14.2	I often procrastinate when it comes to making important decisions.	16.3%	46.9%	12.2%	20.4%	2.0%	48
5.14.3	I tend to delay making decisions.	18.4%	44.9%	16.3%	14.3%	4.1%	48
5.14.4	I avoid making important decisions until the pressure is on.	24.5%	53.1%	12.2%	8.2%	0.0%	48
5.14.5	I postpone decision making whenever possible.	28.6%	53.1%	8.2%	8.2%	0.0%	48

Table 5.14 above is a representation of the responses to the avoidant decision-making style, with five questions from 5.14.1 to 5.14.5. The majority (49.0%) of respondents in Question 5.14.1 disagreed and 18.4% strongly disagreed that they generally make important decisions at the last minute. A total of 46.9% to Question 5.14.2 disagreed about procrastinating when it comes to making important decisions, while 44.9% disagreed with delaying to make decisions for Question 5.14.3. Over half (53.1%) of the respondents in Question 5.14.4 disagreed with avoiding making important decisions until the pressure is on. Similarly, 53.1% of the respondents to Question 5.14.5 indicated that they disagree with postponing decision-making whenever possible.

Table 5.15: Responses for the spontaneous decision-making style

Q		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	N
5.15.1	I prefer to make decisions as soon as possible to avoid a long process.	2.0%	18.4%	20.4%	46.9%	12.2%	49
5.15.2	I prefer to make decisions based on the information I have at the moment.	4.1%	22.4%	24.5%	36.7%	12.2%	49

5.15.3	I prefer to make decisions instantly to save time.	14.3%	44.9%	22.4%	12.2%	6.1%	49
5.15.4	When making decisions, I do what seems natural at the moment.	8.2%	24.5%	28.6%	30.6%	6.1%	48
5.15.5	I often make impulsive decisions.	26.5%	51.0%	16.3%	6.1%	0.0%	49

Table 5.15 above is a representation of the responses to the spontaneous decision-making style, with five questions from 5.15.1 to 5.15.5. A total of 46.9% of the respondents in Question 5.15.1 agreed to making decisions as soon as possible to avoid long processes. The respondents (36.7% agreed) to Question 5.15.2 indicated that they prefer to making decisions based on the information they have, while 44.9% of the respondents in Question 5.15.3 disagreed that they make decisions instantly to save time. Fifteen (30.6%) respondents in Question 5.15.4 agreed that, when making decisions, they do what seems natural at that moment, and over half (51.0%) of the respondents in Question 5.15.5 disagreed with making impulsive decisions.

5.3 Structural equation modelling

There was a significant deviation by all data from a normal distribution, which validated the use of PLS-SEM in this study. According to Janadari, Ramalu and Wei (2016) PLS-SEM is a method in which structural equations are used to explore cause–effect relationships between multiple independent variables and a single or multiple dependent variables. PLS-SEM can also be considered appropriate if the aim of the study is to predict key target constructs and the research is exploratory in nature (Hair, Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2021).

Due to the relatively small sample size needed to perform the analysis, PLS-SEM was taken into consideration for the investigation. The minimum sample size for PLS-SEM

should be equal to the larger of the following: 1) 10 times the largest number of formative indicators used to measure one construct, or 2) 10 times the largest number of structural paths directed at a particular construct in the structural model (Hair *et al.*, 2021). Table 5.16 shows the indicators used in the data analysis of this study.

Table 5.16: Indicators used in data analysis

Constructs	Indicators	
Achievement	Achievement01	It is important for me to show my abilities to other people and be admired for the work I do.
	Achievement02	It is important for me to be successful.
	Achievement03	It is important for me to be ambitious.
	Achievement04	Being better than others is important to me.
Benevolence	Ben01	It is important for me to be loyal towards my family and friends.
	Ben02	It is important for me to help those around me.
	Ben03	It is important for me to respond to the needs of others.
	Ben04	It is important for me to forgive others.
Conformity	Conformity01	I believe that people should follow rules and regulations at all times.
	Conformity02	It is important for me to always behave properly.
	Conformity03	Showing respect to others is important to me.
	Conformity04	I consider myself to be a polite person with good manners.
Hedonism	Hedonism01	It is important for me to do things that give me pleasure.
	Hedonism02	Enjoying life's pleasures is important to me.
	Hedonism03	It is important for me to have a good time.
Power	Power01	It is important for me to have money and expensive things.
	Power02	It is important for me to have control and dominance over others.
	Power03	It is important for me to always be the one who makes the decisions.
Security	Security01	It is important for me to live in secure surroundings.
	Security02	It is important to me that my country is safe from any threats.
	Security03	It is important to me that things are organised and clean.
	Security04	Staying healthy is important to me.
	Security05	Having a stable government is important to me.
Self-direction	SelfDirection01	It is important for me to have freedom of action.
	SelfDirection02	Creativity and innovation are important to me.
	SelfDirection03	I consider myself to be a curious person.

	SelfDirection04	I prefer to work alone rather than in a group.
Stimulation	Stimulation01	It is important for me to do lots of different things in life.
	Stimulation02	I believe in taking risks and always looking for new adventures.
	Stimulation03	It is important for me to have an exciting life.
Tradition	Tradition01	I believe that people should be satisfied with what they have.
	Tradition02	My religious beliefs are important to me.
	Tradition03	It is important for me to follow learned customs.
	Tradition04	It is important for me to be modest and humble.
Universalism	Univers01	I believe in the concept of 'equal treatment for all'.
	Univers02	I believe in a world that is free of conflicts.
	Univers03	It is important for me to protect the weak in society.
	Univers04	It is important for me to adapt to nature, a new environment and to fit into it.
	Univers05	It is important for me to listen to the ideas and opinions of others.
	Univers06	I believe that people should protect the environment and preserve nature.

Decision-making style

Constructs	Indicators	
Avoidant DMS	Avoidant01	I generally make important decisions at the last minute.
	Avoidant02	I often procrastinate when it comes to making important decisions.
	Avoidant03	I tend to delay making decisions.
	Avoidant04	I avoid making important decisions until the pressure is on.
	Avoidant05	I postpone decision-making whenever possible.
Dependent DMS	Dependent01	Before making decisions, I prefer to hear the views of all parties involved.
	Dependent02	Using other people's experiences to make decisions is important to me.
	Dependent03	I prefer to consult with other people before making decisions.
	Dependent04	I prefer to have someone steering me in the right direction when I am faced with important decisions.
	Dependent05	If I have the support of others, it is easier for me to make important decisions.
Intuitive DMS	Intuitive01	Compassion is important to me when making decisions.
	Intuitive02	Using my personal feelings to make decisions is important to me.
	Intuitive03	When making decisions, I tend to rely on my intuition.
	Intuitive04	When I decide, I trust my inner feelings and reactions.
	Intuitive05	Making the right decisions is more important to me more than making rational decisions.
Rational DMS	Rational01	When deciding about employee-related issues, I prefer to be objective.

Rational02	Following organisational rules and regulations to make decisions is important to me.	
Rational03	I prefer to use logical and systematic processes in making decisions.	
Rational04	I prefer to have the correct facts before making decisions.	
Rational05	I prefer to double check my information source to be sure before making any decision.	
Spontaneous	Spont01	I prefer to make decisions as soon as possible to avoid a long process.
	Spont02	I prefer to make decisions based on the information I have at the moment.
	Spont03	I prefer to make decisions instantly to save time.
	Spont04	When making decisions, I do what seems natural at the moment.
	Spont05	I often make impulsive decisions.

Table 5.16 indicates that:

- Individual cultural orientation was measured using 10 constructs (universalism, tradition, stimulation, self-direction, security, power, hedonism, conformity, benevolence, and achievement) and divided into 40 indicators.
- Decision-making was measured using five constructs (spontaneous DMS, rational DMS, intuitive DMS, dependent DMS, and avoidant DMS), which comprised 25 indicators.

The Shapiro-Wilk test, which was used to determine if the items were normal, is shown in Table 5.17 below. When the Shapiro-Wilk test's p-value is I <0.05, the data is considered to have significantly deviated from a normal distribution (Laerd Statistics, 2019). With p-values <0.05, Table 5.17 shows that there was a substantial deviation from a normal distribution for the data variables.

Table 5.17: Shapiro-Wilk test

		Shapiro-Wilk	
	Statistic	**df**	**Sig.**
Achievement01	.893	40	.001
Achievement02	.842	40	.000
Achievement03	.856	40	.000
Achievement04	.787	40	.000

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Avoidant01	.853	40	.000
Avoidant02	.846	40	.000
Avoidant03	.874	40	.000
Avoidant04	.807	40	.000
Avoidant05	.770	40	.000
Ben01	.719	40	.000
Ben02	.782	40	.000
Ben03	.798	40	.000
Ben04	.824	40	.000
Conformity01	.814	40	.000
Conformity02	.825	40	.000
Conformity03	.680	40	.000
Conformity04	.767	40	.000
Dependent01	.614	40	.000
Dependent02	.847	40	.000
Dependent03	.776	40	.000
Dependent04	.877	40	.000
Dependent05	.839	40	.000
Hedonism01	.851	40	.000
Hedonism02	.893	40	.001
Hedonism03	.871	40	.000
Intuitive01	.842	40	.000
Intuitive02	.871	40	.000
Intuitive03	.906	40	.003
Intuitive04	.888	40	.001
Intuitive05	.866	40	.000
Power01	.867	40	.000
Power02	.728	40	.000
Power03	.755	40	.000
Rational01	.623	40	.000
Rational02	.623	40	.000
Rational03	.634	40	.000
Rational04	.491	40	.000
Security01	.713	40	.000
Security02	.701	40	.000
Security03	.746	40	.000
Security04	.668	40	.000
Security05	.624	40	.000
SelfDirection01	.770	40	.000
SelfDirection02	.803	40	.000
SelfDirection03	.864	40	.000
SelfDirection04	.898	40	.002
Spont01	.848	40	.000

Spont02	.895	40	.001
Spont03	.890	40	.001
Spont04	.917	40	.006
Spont05	.842	40	.000
Stimulation01	.880	40	.001
Stimulation02	.882	40	.001
Stimulation03	.862	40	.000
Tradition01	.865	40	.000
Tradition02	.748	40	.000
Tradition03	.813	40	.000
Tradition04	.805	40	.000
Univers01	.718	40	.000
Univers02	.857	40	.000
Univers03	.805	40	.000
Univers04	.867	40	.000
Univers05	.759	40	.000
Univers06	.767	40	.000

5.3.1 Aim of the SEM models

The study's SEM models sought to identify the best combinations of individual cultural constructs, namely achievement, benevolence, conformity, hedonism, power, security, self-direction, stimulation, tradition, and universalism, to predict each of the decision-making styles, including avoidant, dependent, intuitive, rational, and spontaneous. The following five research questions guided the statistical analysis of the data:

1) Which combination of individual cultural constructs can predict the variability of the avoidant decision-making style?

2) Which combination of individual cultural constructs can predict the variability of the dependent decision-making style?

3) Which combination of individual cultural constructs can predict the variability of the intuitive decision-making style?

4) Which combination of individual cultural constructs can predict the variability of the rational decision-making style?

5) Which combination of individual cultural constructs can predict the variability of the spontaneous decision-making style?

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Only four structural paths could be included in each SEM model since the minimum sample size for PLS-SEM should be equivalent to ten times the greatest number of structural paths aimed towards a specific construct in the structural paths, and the sample size for the current investigation was only 49 (Hair *et al.*, 2021). Therefore, only the four individual cultural constructs that displayed the highest correlation with the decision-making style were loaded initially into each of the five SEM models. Thereafter, the constructs that did not contribute towards the prediction of the decision-making style in a statistically significant way, by having a p-value higher than 0.05, were removed from the SEM models.

5.3.2 Assessment of SEM models

The five SEM models were evaluated in a two-stage process by, first by evaluating the outside model and then by evaluating the inner model.

Outer model (measurement model) assessment

First, the outer model of each of the five models were assessed. The measurement model must be evaluated before the significance of the relationship in the structural model can be tested (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The reliability and validity were subsequently determined (Ramayah, Lee & In, 2011). Reliability tests aim to determine the stability and consistency of the measurement instrument whereas validity is aimed at testing the accuracy of the instrument (Janadari *et al.*, 2016). To determine the reliability and validity of the measurement models of the study, the following were assessed:

- Indicator reliability

According to Hulland (1999) reflective indicator loadings of >0.5 indicate that the item is a good measurement of a latent construct. Moreover, according to Ringle, Sarstedt and Straub (2012) it is important to note that too many indicators from a construct might have a negative impact on the content validity. Therefore, a minimum of three indicators were deemed necessary for the measurement of each construct in order to establish content

validity in this study. Based on guidelines provided by Hulland (1999), indicators that had loadings lower than 0.50 were removed from all the measurement models.

- Convergent validity

Hair *et al.* (2021) defines convergent validity as the degree to which there is a positive correlation between a measure and alternative measures of the same construct. The Average Variance Extracted (AVE) is used to assess convergent validity. AVE is the average variance shared between a construct and its measures (Janadari *et al.*, 2016). According to Bagozzi and Yi (1988) as well as Fornell and Larcker (1981), the AVE should be greater than 0.5.

- Internal consistency reliability

Composite reliability (CR) is used to assess internal consistency reliability, as well as Cronbach's alpha (α). To indicate adequate internal consistency reliability, CR should be greater than 0.7 (Gefen, Straub & Boudreau, 2000). Moreover, Hair *et al.* (2021) state that, in exploratory research, a lower bound of 0.60 to 0.70 is considered acceptable values for α, as α underestimates internal consistency reliability.

- Discriminant validity

According to the imperial standards the degree to which a construct is truly distinct from another construct is determined by discriminant validity. "Discriminant validity implies that a construct is unique and captures phenomena not represented by other constructs in the model" (Hair *et al.*, 2021:115). To assess the discriminant validity of the measurement model, the cross-loadings, Fornell and Larcker criterion, and HTMT criterion were assessed.

Cross-loadings are the initial method of evaluating the indicator's discriminant validity. In particular, the outer loading of an indicator on the associated construct should be higher than any of its cross-loadings (i.e., its correlation) on other constructs. Cross-loadings should be evaluated and reported using a table structure with columns for latent components and rows for indicators.

The second method to assessing discriminant validity is using the Fornell-Larcker criterion. With the Fornell-Larcker criterion, the square root of the AVE values is compared with the latent variable correlations. Specifically, the square root of each construct's AVE should be greater that its highest correlation with any other construct. The heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT) of the correlations is the final and most reliable method to assess discriminant validity. As Hair *et al.* (2021) explain:

HTMT is the mean of all correlations of indicators across constructs measuring different constructs (i.e., the heterotrait-heteromethod correlations) relative to the (geometric) mean of the average correlations of indicators measuring the same construct (i.e., the monotrait-heteromethod correlations) and can be used for discriminant validity assessment. According to Hair *et al.* (2021) the HTMT ratio should be less than 0.9.

Inner model (structural model) assessment

The assessment of the structural models of the study was conducted in two steps, namely:

Step 1: Assessing the significance and relevance of the structural model relationships

All relationships that were hypothesised were evaluated for their direct effects using the bootstrapping method. With the bootstrapping sampling technique, different subsamples are taken from the original data (with replacement), and each subsample's model estimates are then made. Without relying on distributional assumptions, it is used to calculate standard errors of coefficients in order to evaluate their statistical significance (Hair et al., 2021). Using a resample of 5000, the bootstrapping process was used to determine the standardised beta and t-values.

Step 2: Assessing the level of R^2

R2 determines the proportion of a latent endogenous construct's variance that is explained by other exogenous constructs (Chin, 1988). Exogenous constructs are independent constructs in all equations in which they appear, while endogenous constructs are dependent constructs in at least one equation, although they may be independent variables in other equations in the system.

5.3.2.1 SEM model 1 – Avoidant decision-making style

The procedure to identify the individual cultural constructs that can predict the avoidant decision-making style (DMS) was explained in 5.3.1 above. The SEM model 1, shown in figure 5.8, was constructed according to this procedure. The SEM model was assessed by following the two-stage process explained in 5.3.2 above.
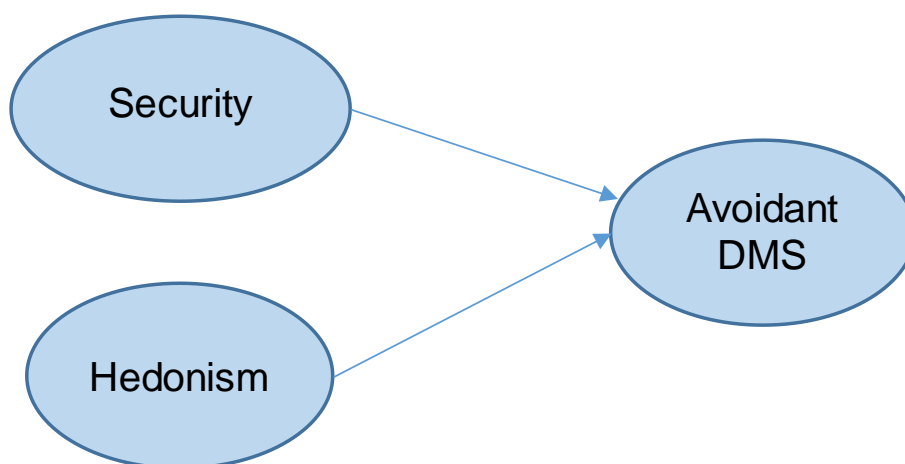
Figure 5.8: SEM research model 1

Outer model (measurement model) assessment

Indicator reliability

All indicator loadings for SEM model 1 are shown in table 5.18 below.

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Table 5.18: Factor loadings SEM model 1

	Avoidant DMS	Hedonism	Security
Avoidant01	0.798		
Avoidant02	0.723		
Avoidant03	0.735		
Avoidant04	0.891		
Avoidant05	0.865		
Hedonism01		0.947	
Hedonism02		0.856	
Hedonism03		0.524	
Security01			0.808
Security02			0.817
Security03			0.841
Security04			0.799
Security05			0.726

Table 5.18 shows that all indicator loadings are above the 0.5 threshold prescribed by Hulland (1999). It can therefore be concluded that the measurement model for SEM model 1 exhibits indicator reliability.

Convergent validity

Table 5.19 below shows that the AVEs of all constructs in the measurement model are above the 0.5 threshold prescribed by Fornell and Larcker (1981), indicating convergent validity of all constructs.

Table 5.19: Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

	AVE
Avoidant DMS	0.648
Hedonism	0.635
Security	0.639

Internal consistency reliability

Table 5.20 shows that the composite reliability (CR) and Cronbach's alpha (α) of all items are above the 0.70 threshold as prescribed by Gefen *et al.* (2000). All constructs, therefore, display an acceptable level of internal consistency reliability.

Table 5.20: Composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha

	Cronbach's α	CR
Avoidant DMS	0.869	0.902
Hedonism	0.809	0.832
Security	0.863	0.898

Discriminant validity

The typical first approach to assessing the discriminant validity of the indicators is through the development of cross-loadings. An indicator's outer loading on the associated construct should be higher than any of its cross-loadings (i.e., its correlation) on other constructs. The table format is the best way to assess and report cross-loadings, with rows for the indicators and columns for the latent constructs, as shown in table 5.21. It is clear from table 5.21 that the indicator loadings of each construct (shown in bold) do not load higher on any other construct, which, therefore, indicates discriminant validity.

Table 5. 21: Cross-loadings

	Avoidant DMS	Hedonism	Security
Avoidant01	**0.798**	0.275	-0.058
Avoidant02	**0.723**	0.247	-0.081
Avoidant03	**0.735**	0.192	-0.184
Avoidant04	**0.891**	0.258	-0.385
Avoidant05	**0.865**	0.274	-0.346
Hedonism01	0.301	**0.947**	0.135
Hedonism02	0.214	**0.856**	0.050

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Hedonism03	-0.038	**0.524**	0.271
Security01	-0.197	0.004	**0.808**
Security02	-0.112	0.193	**0.817**
Security03	-0.303	0.034	**0.841**
Security04	-0.149	0.161	**0.799**
Security05	-0.305	0.068	**0.726**

The Fornell-Larcker criterion is the second method for determining discriminant validity. The square root of the AVE values and the correlations of the latent variables are compared using the Fornell-Larcker criterion. Particularly, the square root of each construct's AVE should be bigger than its highest correlation with any other construct. In table 5.22, the square root of the AVE and correlations of each latent variable with other latent variables are displayed diagonally in bold. The discriminant validity of the measurement model is further supported by Table 5.22, which demonstrates that the square root of the AVE of each latent variable is larger than any correlation with any other latent variable.

Table 5.22: Fornell-Larcker criterion

	Avoidant DMS	Hedonism	Security
Avoidant DMS	**0.805**		
Hedonism	0.308	**0.797**	
Security	-0.306	0.091	**0.799**

The last and most reliable method to assess discriminant validity is the heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT) of the correlations. As mentioned previously, the HTMT ratio should not exceed 0.9 (Hair *et al.*, 2021). According to table 5.23, no HTMT ratio exceeds 0.9, therefore indicating that the measurement model exhibits discriminant validity.

Table 5. 23: HTMT ratios

	Avoidant DMS	Hedonism
Hedonism	0.275	
Security	0.287	0.247

Inner model (structural model) assessment

The assessment of the structural models of the study was conducted in two steps, which will be discussed next.

Step 1: Assessing the significance and relevance of the structural model relationships

As can be seen from table 5.24, there is a positive statistically significant relationship between hedonism and the avoidant DMS (β=0.338, p=0.041). H1 is therefore supported. On the other hand, there is negative statistically significant relationship between security and the avoidant DMS (β=-0.336, p=0.040). As a result, H2 is not supported.

Table 5.24: Path model results of SEM model

Hypothesis	Relationship	Std Beta	Std Error	t-value	p-value	Decision
H1	Hedonism -> Avoidant DMS	0.338	0.165	2.055	0.041	Accepted
H2	Security -> Avoidant DMS	-0.336	0.163	2.059	0.040	Not accepted

Step 2: Assessing the level of R^2

A graphical representation of the avoidant DMS structural model is shown in figure 5.9. Figure 5.9 indicates that the R^2 value of avoidant DMS is 0.207. This means that the constructs of hedonism (β=0.338, p=0.041) and security (β=-0.336, p=0.040) collectively explain 20.7% of the variance in the avoidant DMS construct. According to Cohen (1992) R^2 values of 0.12 or below indicates a low effect size, values between 0.13 and 0.25 indicate a medium effect size, and values of 0.26 or above indicate a high effect size. Based on these guidelines, the results show that the hedonism and security constructs had a medium predictive power towards the avoidant DMS construct.

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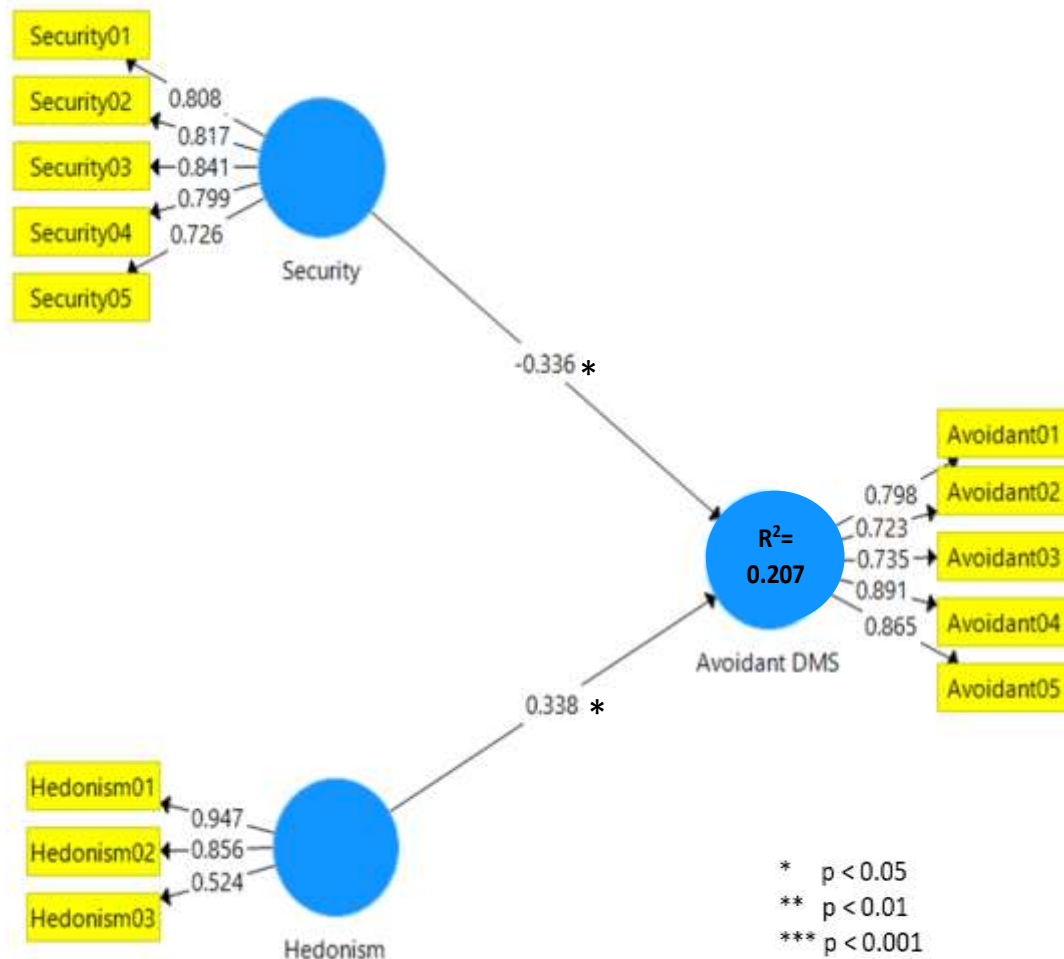
Figure 5.9: Avoidant DMS SEM model

Figure 5.9 above is a representation of the relationships among individual values (security and hedonism) and the avoidant DMS. Findings indicate that there is a statistically significant negative relationship between security and the avoidant DMS (-0.336). In contrast, there is a statistically positive relationship between hedonism and the avoidant DMS (0.338).

5.3.2.2 SEM model 2 – Dependent decision-making style

The procedure to identify the individual cultural constructs that can predict the dependent DMS was explained in 5.3.1 above. The SEM model 2, shown in figure 5.10, was constructed according to this procedure. The SEM model was assessed by following the two-stage process explained in 5.3.2 above.
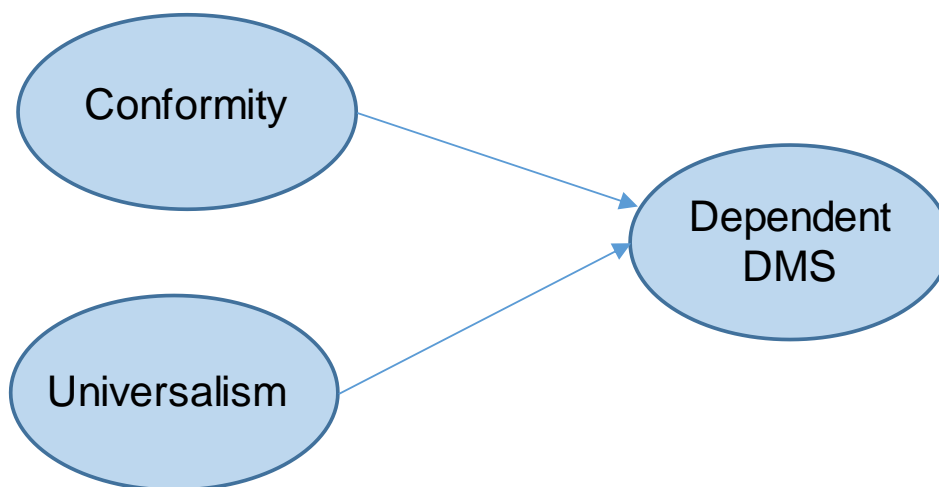
Figure 5.10: SEM research model 2

Outer model (measurement model) assessment

Indicator reliability: All indicator loadings for SEM model 2 are shown in table 5.25 below.

Table 5.25: Factor loadings SEM model 2

Indicator	Conformity	Dependent DMS	Universalism
Conformity01	0.829		
Conformity02	0.841		
Conformity03	0.819		
Conformity04	0.864		
Dependent01		0.701	
Dependent03		0.811	
Dependent04		0.817	
Dependent05		0.842	
Univers03			0.876

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Univers04			0.877
Univers05			0.823
Univers06			0.508

Based on the recommendations from Hulland (1999), all indicators with factor loadings lower than 0.5 were removed, namely Dependent02, Univers01, and Univers02. Table 5.25 shows that all remaining indicator loadings are above the 0.5 threshold prescribed by Hulland (1999). It can therefore be concluded that the measurement model for SEM model 2 exhibits indicator reliability.

Convergent validity

Table 5.26 shows that the AVEs of all constructs in the measurement model are above the 0.5 threshold prescribed by Fornell and Larcker (1981), indicating convergent validity of all constructs.

Table 5.26: Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

Constructs	AVE
Conformity	0.703
Dependent DMS	0.631
Universalism	0.618

Internal consistency reliability

Table 5.27 shows that the composite reliability (CR) and Cronbach's alpha (α) of all items are above the 0.70 threshold as prescribed by Gefen *et al.* (2000). Thus, all constructs display an acceptable level of internal consistency reliability.

Table 5.27: Composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha

Constructs	Cronbach's α	CR
Conformity	0.860	0.905
Dependent DMS	0.805	0.872
Universalism	0.787	0.862

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Discriminant validity

Table 5.28 shows that indicator loadings of each construct (shown in bold) do not load higher on any other construct, which indicates discriminant validity.

Table 5.28: Cross-loadings

Indicators	Conformity	Dependent DMS	Universalism
Conformity01	**0.829**	0.526	0.252
Conformity02	**0.841**	0.414	0.255
Conformity03	**0.819**	0.532	0.424
Conformity04	**0.864**	0.423	0.396
Dependent01	0.509	**0.701**	0.371
Dependent03	0.243	**0.811**	0.482
Dependent04	0.594	**0.817**	0.530
Dependent05	0.411	**0.842**	0.531
Univers03	0.325	0.550	**0.876**
Univers04	0.434	0.564	**0.877**
Univers05	0.260	0.483	**0.823**
Univers06	0.194	0.226	**0.508**

The Fornell-Larcker criterion is used to determine each latent variable's AVE and correlations with other latent variables, which are displayed diagonally in bold on table 5.29. According to Table 5.29, the measurement model's discriminant validity can be seen by the fact that the square root of each latent variable's AVE is larger than its correlation with any other latent variable.

Table 5.29: Fornell-Larcker criterion

Constructs	Conformity	Dependent DMS	Universalism
Conformity	**0.839**		
Dependent DMS	0.574	**0.795**	
Universalism	0.398	0.608	**0.786**

Table 5.30 below shows that no HTMT ratio exceeds 0.9; therefore, that the measurement model exhibits discriminant validity.

Table 5.30: HTMT ratios

Constructs	Conformity	Dependent DMS
Dependent DMS	0.654	
Universalism	0.470	0.724

Inner model (structural model) assessment

The assessment of the structural models of the study was conducted in two steps, which will be discussed next.

Step 1: Assessing the significance and relevance of the structural model relationships

According to table 5.31, there is a positive statistically significant relationship between conformity and the dependent DMS ($\beta=0.394$, p=0.005). Therefore, H3 is supported. Moreover, there is a positive statistically significant relationship between universalism and the dependent DMS ($\beta=-0.451$, p=0.001). As such, H4 is also supported.

Table 5.31: Path model results of SEM model 2

Hypothesis	Relationship	Std Beta	Std Error	t-value	p-value	Decision
H3	Conformity -> Dependent DMS	0.394	0.140	2.815	0.005	Accepted
H4	Universalism -> Dependent DMS	0.451	0.133	3.399	0.001	Accepted

Step 2: Assessing the level of R^2

Figure 5.11 shows that the R^2 value of the dependent DMS is 0.500. This means that the constructs of conformity ($\beta=0.394$, p=0.005) and universalism ($\beta=-0.451$, p=0.001) collectively explain 50.00% of the variance in the dependent DMS construct. According to Cohen (1992), R^2 values of 0.12 or below indicates a low effect size, values between

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0.13 and 0.25 indicate a medium effect size, and values of 0.26 or above indicate a high effect size. It is thus clear that the conformity and universalism constructs had a high predictive power towards the dependent DMS construct.
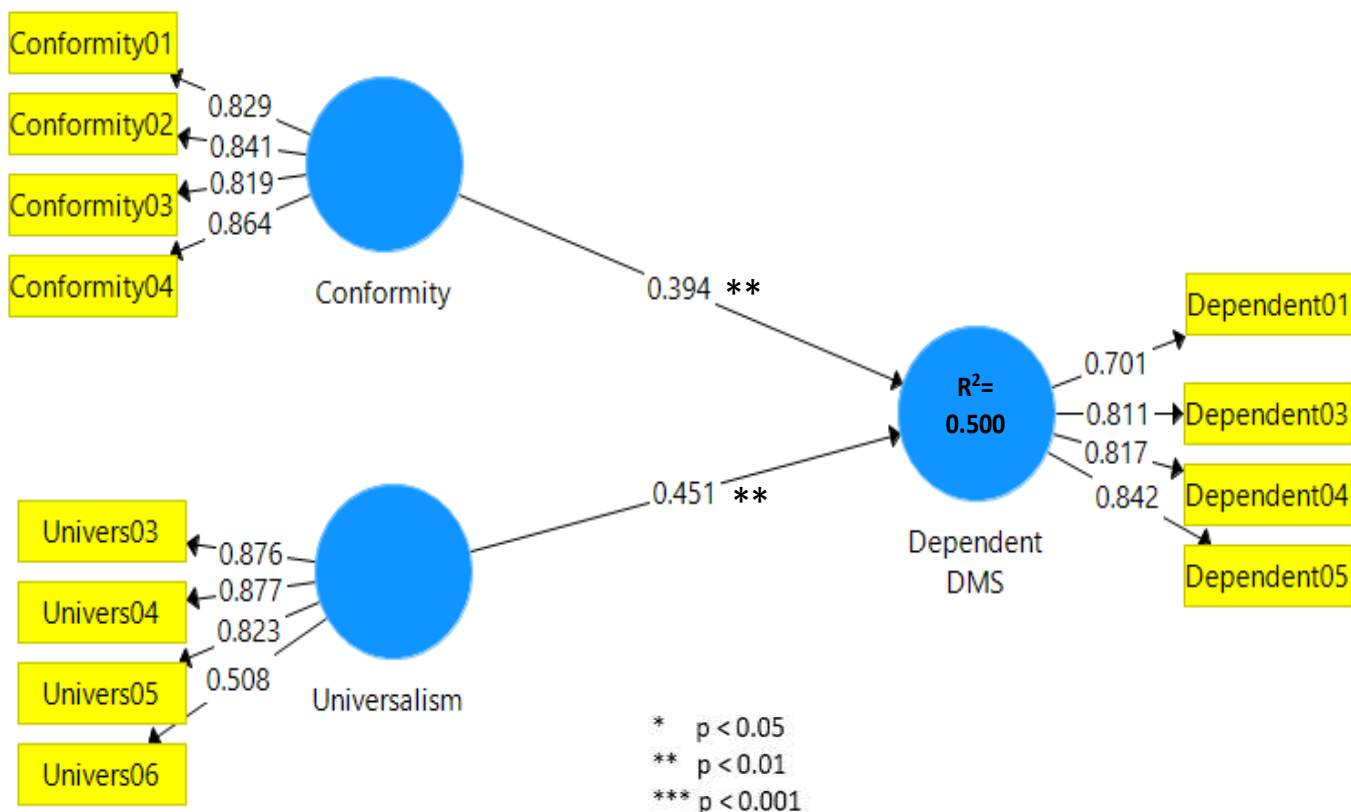
Figure 5.11: Dependent DMS SEM model

Figure 5.11 above presents the relationships among individual values (conformity and universalism) and the dependent DMS. There is a positive statistically significant relationship between conformity and the dependent DMS (0.394). Similarly, there is a positive statistically significant relationship between universalism and the dependent DMS (0.451).

5.3.2.3 SEM model 3 – Intuitive decision-making style

The procedure to identify the individual cultural constructs that can predict the intuitive decision-making style (DMS) was explained in 5.3.1 above. The SEM model 3, shown in figure 5.12, was constructed according to this procedure. The SEM model was assessed by following the two-stage process explained in 5.3.2 above.

Figure 5.12: SEM research model 3

Outer model (measurement model) assessment

Indicator reliability
All indicator loadings for SEM model 3 are shown in table 5.32 below.

Table 5.32: Factor loadings SEM model 3

Indicators	Intuitive DMS	Universalism
Intuitive01	0.610	
Intuitive03	0.797	
Intuitive04	0.672	
Intuitive05	0.683	
Univers03		0.825
Univers04		0.849
Univers05		0.777
Univers06		0.667

Based on the recommendations from Hulland (1999) all indicators with factor loadings lower than 0.5 were removed, namely Intuitive02, Univers01 and Univers02. Table 5.32

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shows that all the remaining indicator loadings are above the 0.5 threshold prescribed by Hulland (1999). It can therefore be concluded that the measurement model for SEM model 3 exhibits indicator reliability.

Convergent validity

As can be seen from table 5.33 below, the AVEs of all constructs in the measurement model are above the 0.5 threshold prescribed by Fornell and Larcker (1981), indicating convergent validity of all constructs.

Table 5.33: Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

	AVE
Intuitive DMS	0.502
Universalism	0.516

Internal consistency reliability

According to table 5.34, the composite reliability (CR) of all items is above the 0.70 threshold as prescribed by Gefen *et al*. (2000). Cronbach's alpha for the intuitive DMS is only slightly below the 0.7 threshold. It can thus be argued that all constructs display an acceptable level of internal consistency reliability.

Table 5.34: Composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha

	Cronbach's α	CR
Intuitive DMS	0.669	0.793
Universalism	0.755	0.837

Discriminant validity

According to table 5.35 below, the indicator loadings of each construct (shown in bold) do not load higher on any other construct, which indicates discriminant validity.

Table 5.35: Cross-loadings

Indicators	Intuitive DMS	Universalism
Intuitive01	**0.610**	0.381
Intuitive03	**0.797**	0.239
Intuitive04	**0.672**	0.142
Intuitive05	**0.683**	0.388
Univers03	0.312	**0.825**
Univers04	0.409	**0.849**
Univers05	0.329	**0.777**
Univers06	0.408	**0.667**

Table 5.36's Fornell-Larcker criterion includes the latent variable's associations with other latent variables along with the square root of the AVE of each latent variable, which is displayed diagonally in bold. Table 5.36 demonstrates the discriminant validity of the measurement model by showing that the square root of the AVE of each latent variable is larger than any correlation with any other latent variable.

Table 5.36: Fornell-Larcker criterion

Constructs	Intuitive DMS	Universalism
Intuitive DMS	**0.694**	
Universalism	0.476	**0.783**

As indicated before, the HTMT ratios should not exceed 0.9 (Hair *et al.* 2021) and, according to table 5.37, no HTMT ratio exceeds 0.9. Therefore, the measurement model exhibits discriminant validity.

Table 5.37: HTMT ratios

	Intuitive DMS
Universalism	0.545

Inner model (structural model) assessment

The assessment of the structural models of the study was conducted in two steps, which will be discussed next.

Step 1: Assessing the significance and relevance of the structural model relationships

Table 5.38 shows a positive statistically significant relationship between universalism and the intuitive DMS (β=0476, p=0.011). H5 of the study is therefore supported. None of the other cultural constructs displayed a statistically significant relationship with the intuitive DMS construct.

Table 5.38: Path model results of SEM model

Hypothesis	Relationship	Std Beta	Std Error	t-value	p-value	Decision
H5	Universalism -> Intuitive DMS	0.476	0.186	2.558	0.011	Accepted

Step 2: Assessing the level of R^2

According to Figure 5.13, the R^2 value of the intuitive DMS is 0.266. This means that the universalism (β=0.476, p=0.011) construct explains 20.7% of the variance in the intuitive DMS construct. According to Cohen (1992), R^2 values of 0.12 or below indicates a low effect size, values between 0.13 and 0.25 indicate medium effect size, and values of 0.26 or above indicate high effect size. Thus, the universalism construct had a medium predictive power towards the intuitive DMS construct.
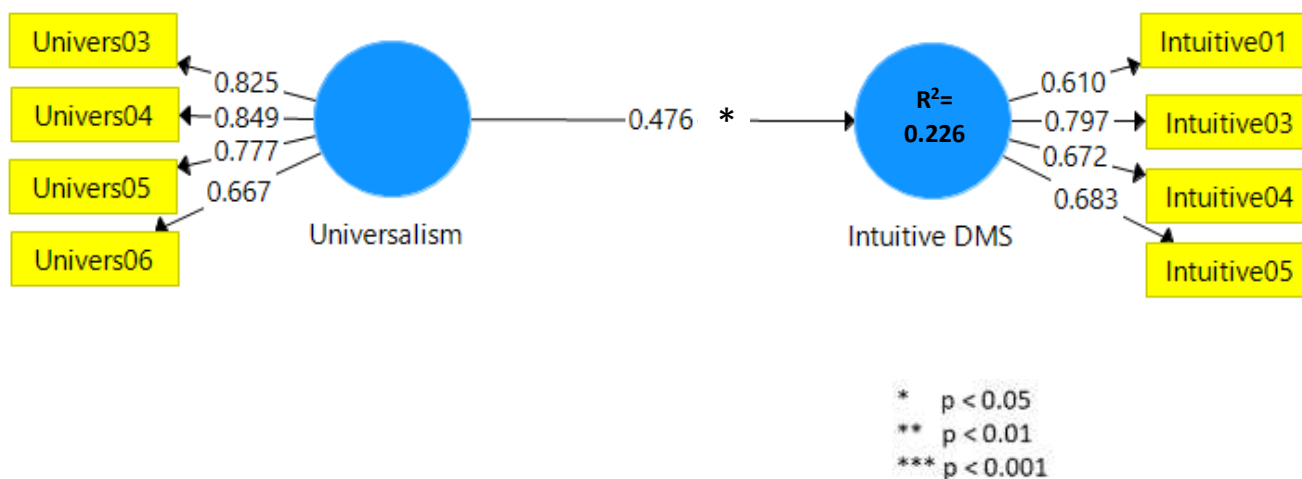
Figure 5.13: Intuitive DMS SEM model

Figure 5.13 above is a representation of the relationship between universalism and the intuitive DMS. The findings indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship between universalism and the intuitive DMS (0.476).

5.3.2.4 SEM Model 4 – Rational decision-making style

The procedure to identify the individual cultural constructs that can predict the rational decision-making style (DMS), was explained in 5.3.1 above. The SEM Model 4, shown in Figure 5.14, was constructed according to this procedure. The SEM Model was assessed by making use of the two-stage process explained in 5.3.2 above.
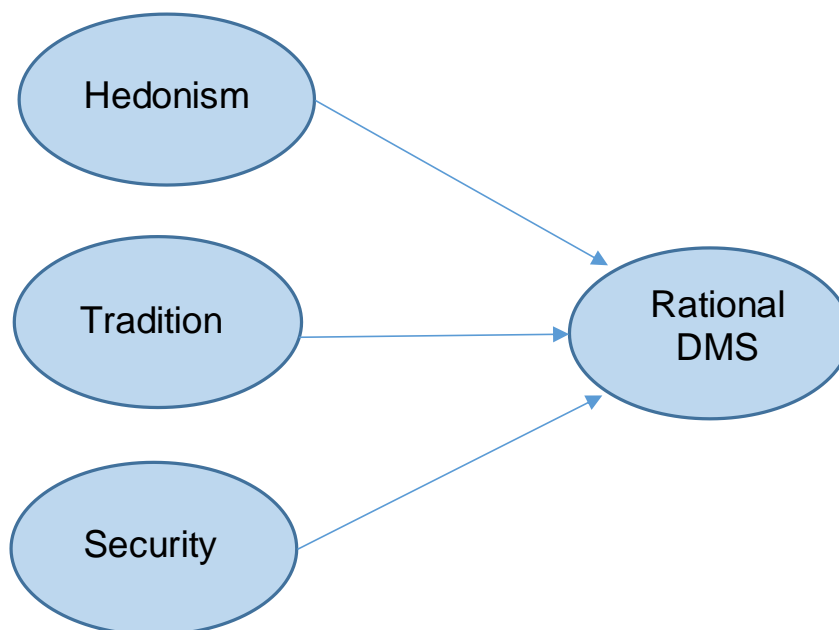
Figure 5.14: SEM research model 4

Outer model (measurement model) assessment

Indicator reliability

All indicator loadings for SEM Model 4 are shown in Table 5.39 below.

Table 5.39: Factor loadings SEM Model 4

Indicators	Hedonism	Rational DMS	Security	Tradition
Hedonism01	0.745			
Hedonism02	0.901			
Hedonism03	0.887			
Rational02		0.737		
Rational03		0.768		
Rational04		0.801		
Rational05		0.679		
Security01			0.818	
Security02			0.840	
Security03			0.829	
Security04			0.823	
Security05			0.702	
Tradition01				0.672
Tradition02				0.734
Tradition03				0.752
Tradition04				0.766

Based on the recommendations from Hulland (1999) all indicators with factor loadings lower than 0.5 were removed, which was only Rational01 in this case. Table 5.39 shows that all remaining indicator loadings are above the 0.5 threshold prescribed by Hulland (1999). It can therefore be concluded that the measurement model for SEM Model 4 exhibits indicator reliability.

Convergent validity

Table 5.40 below shows that the AVEs of all constructs in the measurement model are above the 0.5 threshold prescribed by Fornell and Larcker (1981). This confirms the convergent validity of all constructs.

Table 5.40: Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

Constructs	AVE
Hedonism	0.718
Rational DMS	0.559
Security	0.646
Tradition	0.536

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Internal consistency reliability

According to Table 5.41, the composite reliability (CR) and Cronbach's alpha of all items are above the 0.70 threshold as prescribed by Gefen *et al.* (2000). Therefore, it can be concluded that all constructs display an acceptable level of internal consistency reliability.

Table 5.41: Composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha

Constructs	Cronbach's α	CR
Hedonism	0.809	0.883
Rational DMS	0.735	0.835
Security	0.863	0.901
Tradition	0.714	0.822

Discriminant validity

Table 5.42 displays the indicator loadings of each construct (shown in bold).

Table 5.42: Cross-loadings

Indicators	Hedonism	Rational DMS	Security	Tradition
Hedonism01	**0.745**	0.269	0.151	0.126
Hedonism02	**0.901**	0.314	0.073	0.124
Hedonism03	**0.887**	0.471	0.278	0.419
Rational02	0.256	**0.737**	0.510	0.311
Rational03	0.431	**0.768**	0.468	0.348
Rational04	0.287	**0.801**	0.382	0.345
Rational05	0.310	**0.679**	0.372	0.499
Security01	0.086	0.407	**0.818**	0.235
Security02	0.234	0.390	**0.840**	0.276
Security03	0.146	0.487	**0.829**	0.361
Security04	0.260	0.481	**0.823**	0.361
Security05	0.140	0.533	**0.702**	0.259
Tradition01	0.281	0.291	0.169	**0.672**
Tradition02	0.129	0.420	0.439	**0.734**
Tradition03	0.245	0.427	0.175	**0.752**
Tradition04	0.253	0.298	0.297	**0.766**

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Table 5.43's Fornell-Larcker criterion includes the latent variable's associations with other latent variables as well as the square root of the AVE of each latent variable (presented diagonally in bold). Table 5.43 shows that for each latent variable, the square root of the AVE is higher than any association with any other latent variable, further supporting the measurement model's discriminant validity.

Table 5.43: Fornell-Larcker criterion

	Hedonism	Rational DMS	Security	Tradition
Hedonism	**0.847**			
Rational DMS	0.436	**0.748**		
Security	0.216	0.584	**0.804**	
Tradition	0.300	0.505	0.377	**0.732**

As indicated before, the HTMT ratio should not exceed 0.9 (Hair *et al.*, 2021). Table 5.44 shows that no HTMT ratio exceeds 0.9, therefore, indicating that the measurement model exhibits discriminant validity.

Table 5.44: HTMT ratios

	Hedonism	Rational DMS	Security
Rational DMS	0.528		
Security	0.247	0.714	
Tradition	0.355	0.673	0.463

Inner model (structural model) assessment

The assessment of the structural models of the study was conducted in two steps, which will be discussed next.

Step 1: Assessing the significance and relevance of the structural model relationships

Table 5.45 shows a positive statistically significant relationship between hedonism and the rational DMS (β=0.264, p=0.012). Therefore, H6 is supported. Moreover, there is a
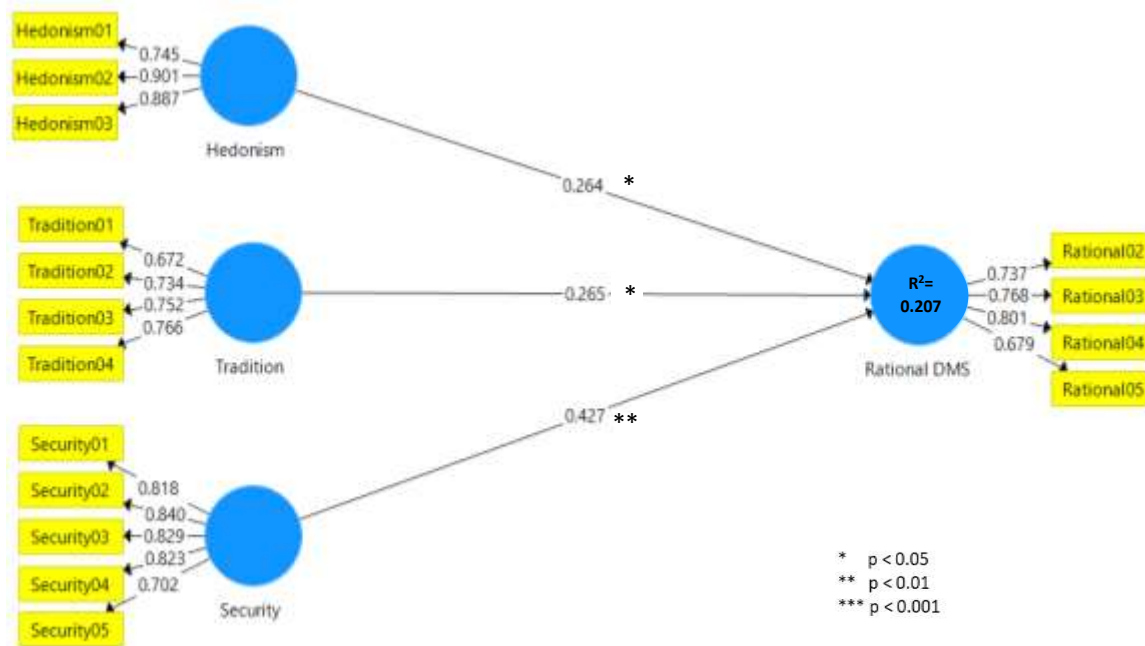
positive statistically significant relationship between security and the rational DMS (β=0.427, p=0.001). H7 of the study is thus also supported. Lastly, there is a positive statistically significant relationship between tradition and the relational DMS (β=0.265, p=0.020). As a result, H8 is supported.

Table 5.45: Path model results of SEM model

Hypothesis	Relationship	Std Beta	Std Error	t-value	p-value	Decision
H6	Hedonism -> Rational DMS	0.264	0.105	2.512	0.012	Accepted
H7	Security -> Rational DMS	0.427	0.123	3.477	0.001	Accepted
H8	Tradition -> Rational DMS	0.265	0.114	2.324	0.020	Accepted

Step 2: Assessing the level of R^2

Figure 5.15 shows the R^2 value of the rational DMS as 0.207. This means that the constructs of hedonism, security, and tradition collectively predict 20.7% of the variance in the rational DMS construct. According to Cohen (1992) R^2 values of 0.12 or below indicates a low effect size, values between 0.13 and 0.25 indicate a medium effect size, and values of 0.26 or above indicate a high effect size. Hedonism, security, and tradition thus had a medium predictive power towards the rational DMS construct.

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Figure 5.15: Rational DMS SEM model

Figure 5.15 above is a represetation of the relationship among three individual values (namely hedonism, tradition, and security) and the rational DMS. Findings indicate that there is a positive statistically significant relationship between hedonism and the rational DMS (0.264). Similarly, figure 5.15 shows a statistically significant relationship between other individual values (tradition and security) and the rational DMS (0.265 and 0.427).

5.3.2.5 SEM model 5 – Spontaneous decision-making style

The procedure to identify the individual cultural constructs that can predict the spontaneous decision-making style (DMS) was explained in 5.3.1 above. The SEM model 5, shown in figure 5.16, was constructed according to this procedure. The SEM model was assessed by following the two-stage process explained in 5.3.2 above.

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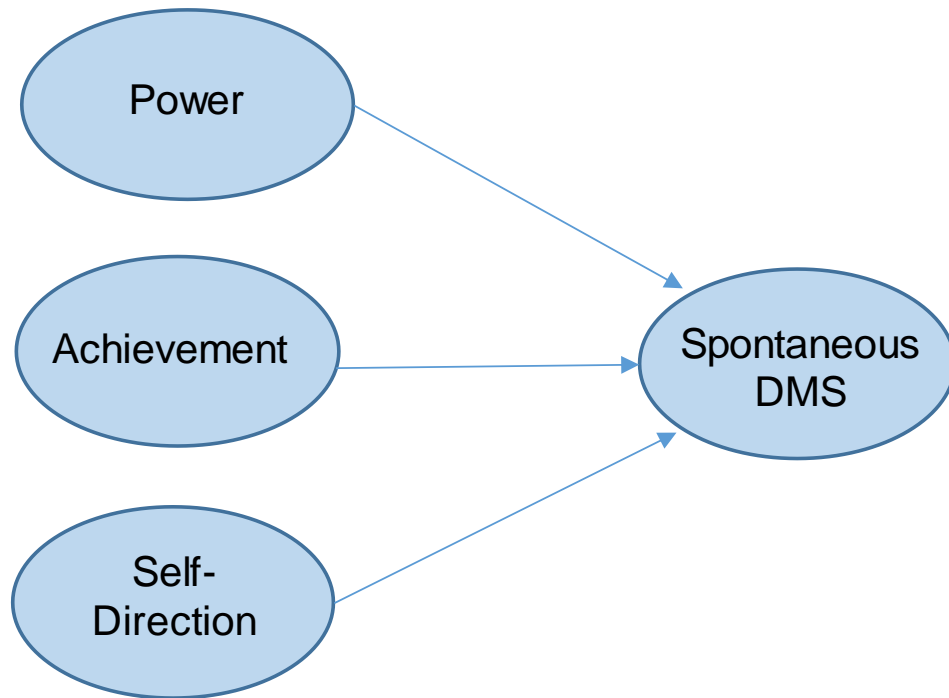
Figure 5.16: SEM research model 5

Outer model (measurement model) assessment

Indicator reliability

All indicator loadings for SEM model 5 are shown in table 5.49 below.

Table 5.46: Factor loadings SEM model 5

	Achievement	Power	Self-direction	Spontaneous DMS
Achievement01	0.933			
Achievement02	0.925			
Achievement03	0.853			
Power01		0.833		
Power02		0.771		
Power03		0.748		
SelfDirection01			0.799	
SelfDirection02			0.814	
SelfDirection03			0.832	

SelfDirection04			0.606	
Spont02				0.843
Spont03				0.883
Spont04				0.862

Based on the recommendations from Hulland (1999) all indicators with factor loadings lower than 0.5 were removed, namely Achievement04 and Spont01. Table 5.46 shows that all remaining indicator loadings are above the 0.5 threshold prescribed by Hulland (1999). It can therefore be concluded that the measurement model for SEM model 5 exhibits indicator reliability.

Convergent validity

As is evident from table 5.47 below, the AVEs of all constructs in the measurement model are above the 0.5 threshold prescribed by Fornell and Larcker (1981), indicating convergent validity of all constructs.

Table 5.47: Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

Constructs	AVE
Achievement	0.818
Power	0.616
Self-direction	0.591
Spontaneous DMS	0.744

Internal consistency reliability

Table 5.48 shows that the composite reliability (CR) and Cronbach's alpha of all items are above the 0.70 threshold as prescribed by Gefen *et al*. (2000). Therefore, all constructs display an acceptable level of internal consistency reliability.

Table 5.48: Composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha

	Cronbach's α	CR
Achievement	0.898	0.931
Power	0.709	0.828

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Self-direction	0.762	0.850
Spontaneous DMS	0.829	0.897

Discriminant validity

According to table 5.49, the indicator loadings of each construct (shown in bold) do not load higher on any other construct, therefore indicating discriminant validity.

Table 5.49: Cross-loadings

	Achievement	Power	Self-direction	Spontaneous DMS
Achievement01	**0.933**	0.409	0.071	0.431
Achievement02	**0.925**	0.415	-0.163	0.309
Achievement03	**0.853**	0.340	-0.147	0.171
Power01	0.639	**0.833**	0.145	0.502
Power02	0.095	**0.771**	0.085	0.359
Power03	0.100	**0.748**	0.164	0.234
SelfDirection01	0.104	0.119	**0.799**	0.311
SelfDirection02	0.058	0.270	**0.814**	0.370
SelfDirection03	-0.091	0.060	**0.832**	0.272
SelfDirection04	-0.279	0.007	**0.606**	0.289
Spont02	0.449	0.302	0.311	**0.843**
Spont03	0.332	0.543	0.383	**0.883**
Spont04	0.180	0.427	0.367	**0.862**

Table 5.50's Fornell-Larcker criterion includes the latent variable's associations with other latent variables as well as the square root of the AVE of each latent variable (presented diagonally in bold). Table 5.50 shows that each latent variable's square root of AVE is larger than any association with any other latent variable, supporting the measurement model's discriminant validity.

Table 5.50: Fornell-Larcker criterion

	Achievement	Power	Self-direction	Spontaneous DMS
Achievement	**0.905**			
Power	0.435	**0.785**		
Self-direction	-0.054	0.163	**0.768**	
Spontaneous DMS	0.372	0.501	0.411	**0.863**

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As mentioned above, the HTMT ratios should not exceed 0.9 (Hair *et al.*, 2021). Table 5.51 shows no HTMT ratio exceeds 0.9, which indicates that the measurement model exhibits discriminant validity.

Table 5.51: HTMT ratios

	Achievement	Power	Self-direction
Power	0.425		
Self-direction	0.224	0.276	
Spontaneous DMS	0.386	0.588	0.509

Inner model (structural model) assessment

The assessment of the structural models of the study was conducted in two steps, which will be discussed next.

Step 1: Assessing the significance and relevance of the structural model relationships

Table 5.52 shows a positive statistically significant relationship between achievement and the spontaneous DMS (β=0.248, p=0.031). H9 of the study is therefore supported. Moreover, there is a positive statistically significant relationship between power and the spontaneous DMS (β=0.332, p=0.004). H10 is thus supported. Lastly, there is a positive statistically significant relationship between self-direction and the spontaneous DMS (β=0.371, p=0.001). H11 is also supported.

Table 5.52: Path model results of SEM model

Hypothesis	Relationship	Std Beta	Std Error	t-value	p-value	Decision
H9	Achievement -> Spontaneous DMS	0.248	0.115	2.156	0.031	Accepted
H10	Power -> Spontaneous DMS	0.332	0.117	2.845	0.004	Accepted
H11	Self-direction -> Spontaneous DMS	0.371	0.116	3.185	0.001	Accepted

Figure 5.17 shows that the R^2 value of spontaneous DMS is 0.411. This means that the constructs of achievement, power, and self-direction collectively predict 41.1% of the variance in the spontaneous DMS construct. According to Cohen (1992) R^2 values of 0.12 or below indicates a low effect size, values between 0.13 and 0.25 indicate a medium effect size, and values of 0.26 or above indicate a high effect size. The achievement, power, and self-direction constructs thus had a high predictive power towards the spontaneous DMS construct.
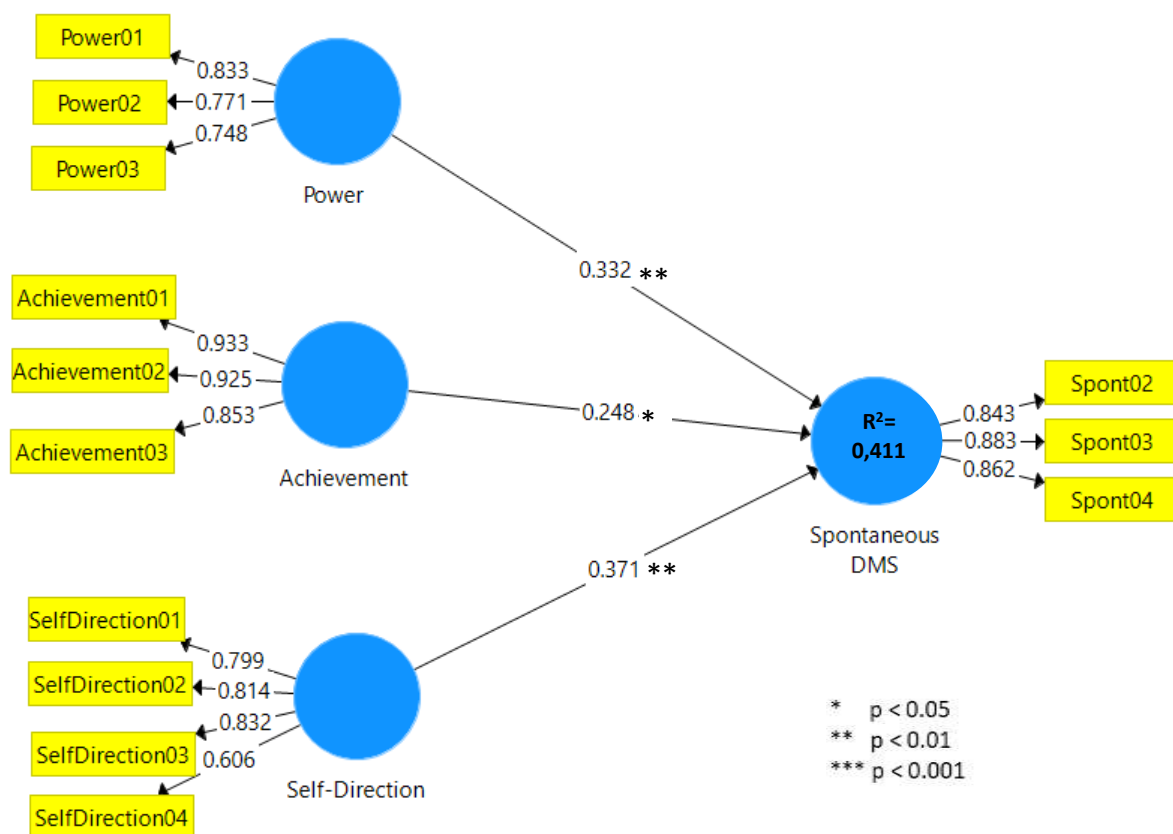
Figure 5.17: Spontaneous DMS SEM model

Figure 5.17 signifies the relationship among three individual values (namely power, achievement, and self-direction) and the spontaneous DMS. Findings show a positive

statistically significant relationship between power and the spontaneous DMS (0.332). Equally, there is a positive statistically significant relationship between achievement and the spontaneous DMS (0.248). Finally, there is a positive statistical relationship between self-direction and the spontaneous DMS (0.371).

5.4 Summary

Chapter 5 presented the research findings from the empirical study. The descriptive statistics for the questions in the survey about employee individual cultural values and decision-making styles were analysed and discussed. The first part of the chapter presented the background information of the respondents by providing the demographic details pertaining to gender, racial group, age, educational level, the division, or faculty they work in, annual income, and the number of years in their current position. The second part of the chapter presented the descriptive statistics of questions 8 (individual cultural orientation) and 9 (decision-making styles) of the survey, followed by an inferential interpretation of the findings to analyse the data collected. PLS-SEM was used to interpret the relationship among the variables.

The following chapter will address the conclusions drawn from the findings, followed by the contribution of the research to the field of study. Limitations of the research will be mentioned, as well as recommendations aimed at management. Finally, suggestions for further research will be provided.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to provide conclusions in accordance with the objectives stated in the first chapter. The current chapter also highlights the key contributions of this study, as well as the limitations. Finally, suggestions for future research are made.

6.2 Conclusions

The aim of this study was to ascertain the impact of individual cultural orientation on human resource decision-making at CUT. As indicated before, a structured questionnaire was distributed to the line managers of CUT. The questionnaire consisted of three sections, namely Section A (demographic information), Section B (individual cultural orientation) and Section C (decision-making styles).

The findings of the study indicated that the line managers of CUT are characterised by different age groups (see figure 5.3), different salary levels (see figure 5.6), different racial groups (see figure 5.2) and different levels of education (see figure 5.4).

Most of the respondents in the study were male (53%), while 45% were female (see figure 5.1). Furthermore, 44.9% of the respondents were Africans followed by white (40.8%) (see figure 5.2). Over three-quarters (78%) of the respondents were between the ages of 41 and 60 (see figure 5.3). Majority of the respondents had postgraduate qualifications, with 71.4% reporting either a master's or doctoral degree (see figure 5.4).

Research question 1: What are the prevailing individual values of CUT's line managers?

The findings regarding research question 1 revealed that the dominant values at CUT are hedonism, universalism, conformity, achievement, tradition, and security (see figures 5.9, 5.11, 5.15 and 5.17). This indicates that employees at CUT tend to value different things

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while trying to achieve the same organisational goals. Individuals with hedonistic values tend to value pleasure or the sensuous gratification of the self.

Apart from the hedonistic values, some respondents indicated that the values of universalism are important, very important and of supreme importance to all relevant questions (see questions 5.2.1 to 5.2.6, table 5.2). This means that these respondents believe in the concept of 'equal treatment for all' (see question 5.2.1, table 5.2), a world that is free of conflict (see question 5.2.2, table 5.2), protection of the weak in society (see question 5.2.3, table 5.2) and preservation of nature (see question 5.2.6, table 5.2). The findings on the values of universalism indicate that line managers at CUT value societal structures.

Related to conformity values (see questions 5.9.1 to 5.9.4, table 5.9) the findings indicated that the respondents value the promotion of cooperation in order to avoid negative outcomes and the likelihood of causing harm to others (Schwartz, 2015). Even though it was found that CUT line managers prefer to help others and protect the environment as part of universalism, the need to achieve certain goals also emerged as crucial, which can either be personal or work related. The majority (71.4%) of the respondents indicated that it is important, very important and of supreme importance for them to show their abilities to other people and be admired for the work they do (this can be either family, companions, or colleagues) (see question 5.6.1, table 5.6). Furthermore, the majority (79.5%) of the respondents indicated that being better than others is not important to them, while some respondents stated that being better than others is opposed to their values (see question 5.6.4, table 5.6). Although the need to achieve one's personal goals is engrained in the fibre of [most] human beings, it seems that line managers at CUT would base their decisions on the need to not only gain personally, but to also add value towards organisational strategies.

Some interesting findings emerged on the values of tradition as one of the individual values analysed in this study (see table 5.10). The findings indicate that following learned customs is not important among managers at CUT. Since most of the respondents in this

study were Africans, these findings are in contrast with the view by Akpa-Inyang and Chima (2021) which states that, in most African societies, it is common for spiritual customs to be predominant over individual rights. This study does, however, partially support the findings by Akpa-Inyang and Chima (2021) as the majority (91.8%) of respondents indicated that their religious beliefs are important, very important and of supreme importance to them (see question 5.10.2, table 5.10). This means that most of the respondents seem to identify as being people of faith and favour religious beliefs over learned customs.

The values of security are also prevalent, as over 50% of the respondents indicated that security is of supreme importance (see questions 5.8.1 to 5.8.5, table 5.8). Apart from security, other conservation values were important to line managers at CUT – they include respecting other people and being polite (see questions 5.9.3 and 5.9.4, table 5.9).

Although the findings indicate six prevailing individual values at CUT, some interesting findings emerged from the scores for benevolence (see table 5.1), specifically that most of the respondents prefer to be loyal towards family and friends. This means that CUT line managers seem prone to high social cohesion, as the majority (95.9%) of the respondents indicated that responding to the needs of others and helping those around them is important, very important and extremely important (see question 5.1.3, table 5.1). These findings correspond with Grobler *et al.*'s (2019) view that South African society in general is more collectivistic than individualistic.

Even so, the findings on the values for benevolence are in contrast with the view by Lefko-Everett *et al.* (2018), who found that there is a lack of social cohesion within South African society. One of the reasons provided by Lefko-Everett *et al.* (2018) is the apartheid system which encouraged racial segregation and inequalities within our society. Given the income levels and age distribution of the respondents, it can be concluded that the attributes for a lack of social cohesion within South African society might not be applicable to the study context. With apartheid having being abolished and new legislation in place, most South Africans work together to build a different future where people of all racial

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groups are recognised as equals – living up to the name 'rainbow nation' (Oppenheim, 2012).

The scores for the values of benevolence, as one of the categories under self-transcendence values (see table 5.1), showed that the majority (over 95%) of respondents view loyalty towards family and friends, helping others and forgiving others as important, very important and of supreme importance (see questions 5.1.1 to 5.1.3, table 5.1). This further supports the above reference to South Africa as the rainbow nation.

As for universalism values (another category which falls under the self-transcendence value dimension), the majority (over 50%) of the respondents indicated that values such as equality and minimising societal conflict; protecting the weak and the environment; and having the ability to adapt and listen to the ideas of others are very important and of supreme importance to them (see questions 5.2.1 to 5.2.6, table 5.2).

Pohling, Bzdok, Eigenstetter, Stumpf and Strobel (2016) note that self-transcendence values (universalism and benevolence), unlike self-enhancement values (power and achievement), guide the behaviour of decision-makers in a way that is in accordance with high ethical standards. Therefore, the self-transcendence value dimension, like other individual value dimensions (self-enhancement values, openness to change, and conservation values), contributes towards human resource decision-making. This can be through informal discussions between line managers and CUT employees that take place outside the scope of formal meetings or gatherings but have an effect on the official running of the university.

Research question 2: What is the dominant decision-making style of CUT's line managers?

The findings related to research question 2 reveal that there are more than one dominant decision-making styles among CUT line managers, namely the dependent decision-

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making style and the rational decision-making style. This means that line managers at CUT prefer to consult before making decisions. As alluded to before, the dependent decision-making style applies when the decision-maker finds it easy to make decisions with the support of other people (Verma & Rangnekar, 2015).

The findings further indicate that most of the line managers prefer to view facts over relying on their intuition (see question 5.11.4, table 5.11). This refers to being objective, following rules and regulations, and adhering to systematic processes. This also entails checking facts before making decisions. A possible reason for this finding is that CUT as an institution of higher learning has a layered organisational structure, in other words, being rational by following policies and procedures, and consulting with individuals and departments tend to be a priority. In turn, this implies that corroborating facts through consultation with all parties affected is deemed necessary.

As indicated above, CUT as an institution of higher learning has a layered and complex organisational structure, with the highest level being post level one (P1) (the Peromnes grading system is used at CUT). This shows that there is a vertical structure, and the lower the 'P' level, the more involved one is in the strategic decisions of the organisation. Therefore, it is not a surprise that there are at least two interconnected styles of decision-making present, namely the dependent and rational decision-making styles, among CUT line managers.

According to Negulescu (2014) achieving organisational goals is not an easy process, especially in a complex and volatile environment where managers are expected to make decisions fast in a short period of time. As such, managers can use different decision styles to ensure that the right decisions are made, at the right time, for the right problem.

Research question 3: To what extent do individual values impact the decision-making styles of CUT's line managers?

As alluded to in chapter 2, individualism within the concept of culture refers to the extent to which individuals choose to look after themselves and the needs of their immediate

family members over those of society (Hofstede, 2011). This includes values such as respect, loyalty, protecting others, listening to the ideas of others, having freedom, being creative, enjoying life and its pleasures, etc. These values can also affect the decisions people make in the workplace.

The findings of the current study propose that values such as loyalty towards family and friends, one's individual beliefs (e.g., equal treatment for all) and the individual need for health and safety can differ from person to person, resulting in different decision-making styles by line managers (see the scores for dominant individual values at CUT on section B; see 5.2.2.1, tables 5.1 to 5.10). In other words, there is a relationship between individual values and decision-making styles. This is confirmed by the PSL-SEM computation which revealed positive statistical relationships among some of the variables, as discussed in the following paragraphs.

The findings showed a positive relationship between hedonism and the avoidant decision-making style ($\beta=0.338$, $p=0.041$). These findings solidify the relationship between hedonism and avoidant decision-making. In an institution of higher learning, it is common for decisions pertaining to the organisation's human resources to be difficult at times. Therefore, it is imperative that consistent rules be applied to avoid conflict and dissatisfaction.

In contrast, a negative statistically significant relationship was found between security and the avoidant decision-making style ($\beta=-0.336$, $p=0.040$). This indicates that, as the individual value of security increases (e.g., having the need to avoid danger and have stability in one's life), the manager's tendency to avoid making decisions decreases.

Between conformity and universalism and the dependent decision-making style, a positive statistically significant relationship was found. The dependent decision-making style involves drawing on other people's knowledge and input to make decisions. At least 50% of the respondents agreed/strongly agreed that they prefer to listen to the views of others and consult before making decisions (see question 5.13.3, table 5.13).

Respondents also indicated that they draw on other people's past experiences and support to make decisions. This makes sense in a university setting where various parts and parties (organisational policies, employees, labour unions and government legislation) need to be considered before making any form of decisions, especially decisions pertaining to employees.

A positive statistically significant relationship was found between universalism and the dependent decision-making style (β=0.451, p=0.001) (see figure 5.11). This result shows that line managers at CUT involve various parties in their decision-making processes to ensure equality and the protection of others. This is especially true for decisions pertaining to the organisation's human resources. For example, the organisation's recruitment and selection process involves a series of structured meetings with various people involved (e.g., the human resource department, line managers, trade unions and other employees who are invited to be present to ensure transparency within the process).

Similarly, a positive statistically significant relationship was found between conformity and the dependent decision-making style (β=0.394, p=0.005) (see figure 5.11). This means that the involvement of others in decision-making is simply an act of being polite, respecting other people's opinions, and following organisational rules and regulations.

The findings revealed a high level of compassion at CUT (see figure 5.13). About 73% of the respondents indicated that they consider being compassionate during the decision-making process as important (see question 5.12.1, table 5.12). Even so, more than half (61.3%) of the respondents indicated that using personal feelings to make decisions is not important (see question 5.12.2, table 5.12). This means that, while line managers at CUT follow rules and procedures as indicated above, they remain compassionate in the decisions they make. Thus, they seem to keep a balance between the rational and intuitive decision-making styles, which could result in making the right decisions for the right problem.

A positive statistically significant relationship was found between the intuitive decision-making style and universalism as one of the individual values measured among line managers at CUT ($\beta=0.476$, $p=0.011$) (see figure 5.13). Therefore, the compassion seen among the line managers at CUT could be ascribed to the fact that most of them indicated a belief in equal treatment for all and a preference for avoiding conflict by listening to other people's opinions (see table 5.2).

A positive statistically significant relationship was found between the rational decision-making style and security, tradition, and hedonism. This decision-making style is associated with following rules and processes and using facts and analytical skills to make decisions (Uzonwanne, 2016). The PLS-SEM computations confirmed the positive relationship between rational decision-making and security ($\beta=0.427$, $p=0.001$) (see figure 5.15), which means that security has a statistically significant positive impact on the rational decision-making style. Therefore, this study confirms that the need for individuals to live and work in safe and secure surroundings away from harm is the driving force behind rationality in decision-making.

The PLS-SEM computations also confirmed a positive relationship between the rational decision-making style and tradition ($\beta=0.265$, $p=0.020$) (see figure 5.15). This shows that religious beliefs provide a structure which is needed in life to make rational decisions. Finally, the computations confirmed a positive statistically significant relationship between rational decision-making and hedonism ($\beta=0.264$, $p=0.012$) (see figure 5.15), which indicates that the respondents value following rules and regulations in achieving organisational goals.

The spontaneous decision-making style was found to have a positive statistically significant relationship with the values of achievement ($\beta=0.248$, $p=0.031$), power ($\beta=0.332$, $p=0.004$), and self-direction ($\beta=0.371$, $p=0.001$) (see figure 5.17) For achievement (see figure 5.17), it was shown that a single unit change in values can result in a 24% change in spontaneous decisions made. The implication is that line managers at CUT need to build a sense of achievement among employees and other stakeholders

to create a culture that allows for spontaneous decisions to be made. Similarly, Bala, Kaur and Singh (2017) state that a change in the level of achievement can result in a change in the decision-making style.

Regarding power, the results show that managers who use power and status to make decisions are more likely to make decisions based on the information they have at the time, resulting in spontaneous decisions (see figure 5.17). Furthermore, it is evident that most line managers at CUT are opposed to the values of power. The reason for this could mainly be that the organisational structure and stakeholder involvement in decision-making do not allow managers to make decisions in an instant without consulting all relevant stakeholders.

For self-direction, figure 5.17 shows that as the values of self-direction increase, line managers are more likely to make spontaneous decisions. The implication being that line managers who have the need to engage in independent actions and being in control of various processes are more likely to make spontaneous decisions.

The findings of this study indicated that decisions may differ from one person to the other depending on one's individual values. This is confirmed by Fritzsche (2007) who links personal values with individual decision behaviour by indicating that the decisions made by managers in the organisation are in response to the situation to be dealt with at the time. This can result in differing behavioural patterns by employees within the organisation, as different divisions within the organisation face different problems. These patterns of behaviour include, among other things, human resource decisions made by line managers from time to time. According to Heilman and Kusev (2020:1) "social situations require people to make complex decisions, sometimes involving different choices for the self and others". Therefore, depending on the person's appreciation of nature and the need to preserve relations with those in close contact, the individual decisions made by managers might differ. This involves the pro-social tendencies that arise because of people's dislike for inequality within society (Heilman & Kusev, 2020).

6.3 Contribution

In the face of challenges such as globalisation, skill shortages in various fields, the high unemployment rate in South Africa, and the lingering effect of Covid-19, managers are still expected to make relevant and well-informed decisions about the organisation's human resources. This study indicated that individual values play a vital role in the decisions made within universities. This is especially pertinent for strategic decisions pertaining to an organisation's human capital. Human resource decisions include decisions about an organisation's recruitment processes, retaining of staff, employment relations, and employee empowerment.

This study found sufficient evidence to state that managers' decisions can be affected by the individual values they ascribe to. This means there are various aspects (e.g., the person's individual values and preferred decision-making style) other than organisational processes and procedures that contribute towards decisions being made about an organisation's human resources. This study, therefore, contributes theoretically and empirically towards creating an understanding of the impact of individual cultural orientation on human resource decisions in the context of a South African university of technology.

6.4 Limitations

Despite its statistically significant findings, the study had limitations. Only CUT line managers were included in the study; therefore, the results cannot be generalised to other universities. Given the dearth of research on the impact of individual cultural orientation and decision-making at South African universities, further empirical research in the field might lead to more generalisable findings. Therefore, the conclusions drawn in this study are not claimed to be definitive and all-encompassing.

Another limitation is that, data about two extremely different concepts were gathered using just one online survey tool. The problem with conducting a survey alone to gather

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data is that respondents were not given the chance to express their opinions and sentiments. As a result, other tools, such interviews and/or open-ended questions, could be used in the future to collect thorough data.

6.5 Recommendations

Based on the findings and literature review of this study, the following recommendations are made:

- Institutional policy developers, in collaboration with human resource department, should take into consideration the extent to which individual values have an impact on individual decision-making. Therefore, the policies and procedures of the institution need to be flexible to accommodate not only government legislation, but also the employees' individual values and priorities, especially those in decision-making roles. Individual values like trust, respect, equality, loyalty, and other values from the study questionnaire, should become part of organisational policies, values and culture. This will help especially during the recruitment process to get the right person for a specific job.

- It is recommended that line managers at CUT should go through a professional development process where they are made aware of different decision-making styles and how these can be linked to their individual values and preferences. This will assist with reducing the time it takes to make institutional decisions.

- The selection process of strategic leaders at CUT should not only measure the level of competence for a specific job, but also the employee's cultural competence. This includes recognising the advantages and disadvantages of having various cultural backgrounds in the organisation.

- Lastly, future researchers could replicate this study in other South African settings, perhaps at the provincial level. This will enable the use of a larger sample size to increase the generalisability of the findings.

6.6 Further research

Additional research is advised to confirm the findings of this study on the influence of individual cultural orientation on human resource decisions in South African universities in light of the literature review and empirical findings. It is suggested that qualitative methods like interviews be used, and that data be collected from other South African universities. Qualitative research can contribute to gathering rich data that relate to the lived experiences of managers. Finally, the selected dependent variable (decision-making) is not the only cognitive process that is affected by individual cultural values. Other cognitive processes such as problem-solving and creative thinking could be investigated in future studies.

6.7 Summary

The conclusions and suggestions based on the study's findings were presented in this chapter. The chapter further discussed the contribution of the study and the study limitations. Finally, based on the literature and the empirical results of this study further research was suggested.

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Annexure A: Cover letter

Dear Participant

RE: THE IMPACT OF INDIVIDUAL CULTURAL ORIENTATION ON HUMAN RESOURCE DECISION-MAKING AT CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY, FREE STATE (CUT)

Thank you for your co-operation in the completion of this questionnaire. The completion of this questionnaire is anonymous, and the information will be handled confidentially. Your inputs are of extreme value and importance for the researcher. Please note that all information will be used for research purpose only.

Please answer this questionnaire as honestly as possible.

Yours truly

Mr M Titisi

Co-Study leader: Prof Deseré Kokt (051-50731114 Email: koktd@cut.ac.za)

Annexure B: Questionnaire on the impact of cultural orientation on human resource decision-making

Please answer the following questions as honestly as possible by indicating with an X the most appropriate answer or providing an answer in print for each statement.

Section A: Demographic profile of respondents

1. Please indicate your gender.

1. Male	
2. Female	

2. Please indicate your racial group.

1. African			4. Indian	
2. Asian			5. White	
3. Coloured			6. Other	

3. Please indicate your age in years.

1. Below 21	
2. 21-40	
3. 41-60	
4. Older than 60	

4. Please indicate your educational level.

1. Matric and/or below	
2. Certificate	
3. Diploma	
4. Bachelor's Degree	
5. Honours Degree	
6. Master's Degree	

7. Doctoral Degree	

5. Please indicate the division or faculty at CUT in which you are currently employed.

Vice Chancellor	
Teaching and Learning	
Resource and Operations	
Registrar	
Research, Innovation and Engagement	
Faculty: Engineering, Information and Technology	
Faculty: Health and Environmental Sciences	
Faculty: Humanities	
Faculty: Management Sciences	

6. Please indicate your annual income.

R0 – R300,000	
Between R300,000 – R700,000	
R700,000 or more	

7. Please indicate how many years have you held your current position at CUT.

1. 0 to 5 years	
2. 6 to 10 years	
3. 11 to 15 years	
4. 16 and above	

Section B: Individual cultural orientation

8. The list of statements below includes personal values that serve as your guiding principles in the workplace. Please, on the scale of one (1 – opposed to my values) to five (5 – of supreme importance), indicate the level of importance of each statement for you, personally.

Benevolence

		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance
8.1	It is important for me to be loyal towards my family and friends.	1	2	3	4	5

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		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance
8.2	It is important for me to help those around me.	1	2	3	4	5
8.3	It is important for me to respond to the needs of others.	1	2	3	4	5
8.4	It is important for me to forgive others.	1	2	3	4	5

Universalism

		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance
8.5	I believe in the concept of 'equal treatment for all'.	1	2	3	4	5
8.6	I believe in a world that is free of conflicts.	1	2	3	4	5
8.7	It is important for me to protect the weak in society.	1	2	3	4	5
8.8	It is important for me to adapt to nature, a new environment and to fit into it.	1	2	3	4	5
8.9	It is important for me to listen to the ideas and opinions of others.	1	2	3	4	5
8.10	I believe that people should protect the environment and preserve nature.	1	2	3	4	5

Self-direction

		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance
8.11	It is important for me to have freedom of action.	1	2	3	4	5
8.12	Creativity and innovation are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
8.13	I consider myself to be a curious person.	1	2	3	4	5
8.14	I prefer to work alone rather than in a group.	1	2	3	4	5

Stimulation

		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance
8.15	It is important for me to do lots of different things in life.	1	2	3	4	5
8.16	I believe in taking risks and always looking for new adventures.	1	2	3	4	5
8.17	It is important for me to have an exciting life.	1	2	3	4	5

Hedonism

		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance
8.18	It is important for me to do things that give me pleasure.	1	2	3	4	5

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		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance
8.19	Enjoying life's pleasures is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
8.20	It is important for me to have a good time.	1	2	3	4	5

Achievement

		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance
8.21	It is important for me to show my abilities to other people and be admired for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5
8.22	It is important for me to be successful.	1	2	3	4	5
8.23	It is important for me to be ambitious.	1	2	3	4	5
8.24	Being better than others is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5

Power

		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance
8.25	It is important for me to have money and expensive things.	1	2	3	4	5
8.26	It is important for me to have control and dominance over others.	1	2	3	4	5
8.27	It is important for me to always be the	1	2	3	4	5

		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance
	one who makes the decisions.					

Security

		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance
8.28	It is important for me to live in secure surroundings.	1	2	3	4	5
8.29	It is important to me that my country is safe from any threats.	1	2	3	4	5
8.30	It is important to me that things are organised and clean.	1	2	3	4	5
8.31	Staying healthy is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
8.32	Having a stable government is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5

Conformity

		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance
8.33	I believe that people should follow rules and regulations at all times.	1	2	3	4	5
8.34	It is important for me to always behave properly.	1	2	3	4	5

		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance
8.35	Showing respect to others is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
8.36	I consider myself to be a polite person with good manners.	1	2	3	4	5

Tradition

		Opposed to my values	Not important	Important	Very important	Of supreme importance
8.37	I believe that people should be satisfied with what they have.	1	2	3	4	5
8.38	My religious beliefs are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
8.39	It is important for me to follow learned customs.	1	2	3	4	5
8.40	It is important for me to be modest and humble.	1	2	3	4	5

Section C: Decision-making styles

9. The undermentioned statements relate to your decision-making style in relation to the organisation's human resources. Please select the choice ranked from 1 strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree to describe yourself when you make decisions relating to the employees in your department.

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Rational decision-making style

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
9.1	When deciding about employee-related issues, I prefer to be objective.	1	2	3	4	5
9.2	Following organisational rules and regulations to make decisions is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
9.3	I prefer to use logical and systematic processes in making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
9.4	I prefer to have the correct facts before making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
9.5	I prefer to double check my information source to be sure before making any decision.	1	2	3	4	5

Intuitive decision-making style

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
9.6	Compassion is important to me when making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
9.7	Using my personal feelings to make decisions is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
9.8	When making decisions, I tend to rely on my intuition.	1	2	3	4	5

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
9.9	When I decide, I trust my inner feelings and reactions.	1	2	3	4	5
9.10	Making the right decisions is more important to me more than making rational decisions.	1	2	3	4	5

Dependent decision-making style

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
9.11	Before making decisions, I prefer to hear the views of all parties involved.	1	2	3	4	5
9.12	Using other people's experiences to make decisions is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
9.13	I prefer to consult with other people before making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
9.14	I prefer to have someone steering me in the right direction when I am faced with important decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
9.15	If I have the support of others, it is easier for me to make important decisions.	1	2	3	4	5

Avoidant decision-making style

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
9.16	I generally make important decisions at the last minute.	1	2	3	4	5
9.17	I often procrastinate when it comes to making important decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
9.18	I tend to delay making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
9.19	I avoid making important decisions until the pressure is on.	1	2	3	4	5
9.20	I postpone decision making whenever possible.	1	2	3	4	5

Spontaneous decision-making style

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
9.21	I prefer to make decisions as soon as possible to avoid a long process.	1	2	3	4	5
9.22	I prefer to make decisions based on the information I have at the moment.	1	2	3	4	5
9.23	I prefer to make decisions instantly to save time.	1	2	3	4	5
9.24	When making decisions, I do what seems natural at the moment.	1	2	3	4	5

9.25	I often make impulsive decisions.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your valuable time and feedback!

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Annexure C: Permission letter and ethical clearance

INSTITUTIONAL PLANNING AND QUALITY ENHANCEMENT

MR. MOJALEFA ALPHONSE TITISI

PERMISSION FOR MR MOJALEFA TITISI TO CONDUCT HIS RESEARCH FOR HIS MASTER STUDY AT CUT ENTITLED "THE IMPACT OF INDIVIDUAL CULTURAL ORIENTATION ON HUMAN RESOURCE DECISION-MAKING AT CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY, FREE STATE (CUT)"

Dear Mr. Titisi

This is to confirm that you have been granted permission to conduct research at the Central University of Technology for your Master research entitled "the impact of individual cultural orientation on human resource decision-making at Central University of Technology, Free State (CUT) "

The conditions of the conditional permission are:

- The research will not interrupt any of the official activities at The Central University of Technology;
- You will supply us with the copy of your report;
- The cost of all related activities will be covered by yourself;
- Recruitment of participants is the sole responsibility of yourself;
- Voluntary nature of the potential participants decision to consent to participate should be strictly observed;
- You should not disclose a potential participant's decision to participate or otherwise to any other party;
- Permission does not compel, in any sense, participation of staff members or students in your research ;

Senior Director: Institutional Planning and Quality Enhancement

Mr I.Mokhele

03/09/2021

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FACULTY RESEARCH AND INNOVATION COMMITTEE

FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

RESEARCH ETHICS APPROVAL LETTER

Date: 10/08/2022

This is to confirm that:

Applicant's Name	MA Titisi
Supervisors' Name[s] for Student Project (where applicable)	Prof D Kokt
Level of Qualification for Student Project (where applicable)	MASTER OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES IN HR
Tittle of research project	THE IMPACT OF INDIVIDUAL CULTURAL ORIENTATION ON HUMAN RESOURCE DECISION-MAKING AT CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY, FREE STATE (CUT)

Ethical clearance has been provided by the Faculty Research and Innovation Committee in view of the CUT Research Ethics and Integrity Framework, 2016 with reference number **FMSEC02/20**

The following special conditions were set:

| X | None |

| | Specific conditions |

The following specific conditions apply:

1. _____ NA _____
2. _____ NA _____
3. _____ NA _____

We wish you success with your research project.

Professor P Rambe
FRIC Deputy Chairperson

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Annexure D: Turnitin report

Master's Degree - Submission (4)