

Effect of Cultural Values on Human Resource Management Practices: Evidence from the Ethiopian Public Sector

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ABSTRACT

This research examined the effect of cultural dimensions on human resource management practices. Specifically, it examines the effect of collectivism, power difference, masculinity, long-term focus, and avoidance of uncertainty on HRM practices of employee recruitment and selection, employee training and development, employee performance appraisal, and employee compensation administration. In order to achieve this objective, quantitative research design was employed and primary data was gathered with a structured questionnaire. The target population was 958 people, of which 282 were taken as a sample using systematic random sampling method. The data collected were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Pearson Correlation and regression analyses were done to decide the association between and the effects of the constructs by using SPSS version 20. Finally, the research concludes that cultural values have a significant influence on employee recruitment and selection, employee training and development, employee performance appraisal, and employee compensation administration practices.

Keywords: *Cultural Value, HRM Practice, Recruitment and Selection, Training and Development, Performance Appraisal, Compensation Administration*

INTRODUCTION

Human resource management (HRM) practices have got much consideration in recent years due to their contribution to successful

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organizations in attaining the requisites of employees, clients, owners, and society (Reddington, Williamson & Withers, 2005). HRM is a field of study and practice that deals with an organization's people, which are a key constituent of an institute (DeNisi & Griffin, 2005). It emphasizes on attracting, employing, developing, inspiring, and retaining the workforce. Effective HRM practices make satisfied employees, who in turn devote their maximum effort to serve clients (DeNisi & Griffin, 2005). Moreover, effective HRM is becoming a vigorous strategic issue for many institutions today because managers are realizing that human resources are a firm's core competence (DeNisi & Griffin, 2005; Rees & McBain, 2004; Cappelli & Crocker-Hefter, 1996; Chew & Horwitz, 2004). The ultimate purpose of HRM practices is making an organization effective (Rees & McBain, 2004). However, several factors influence the effective management of a firm's human resources, cultural environment being an important environmental factor.

Culture in an organization turns around individuals and groups, and is defined by the method in which people get things done, which makes culture a vital portion of HRM (Rees & McBain, 2004). The way human resource is managed is inseparably linked to the cultural environment in which people work and live (Rees & McBain, 2004). The significance of cultural effects in HRM practices is becoming ever more obvious since the staff come to be dissimilar in cultural terms (Stone & Stone-Romero, 2008). Perhaps the most influential study of cultural values that provides valuable all-purpose guiding principle for what to presume when working with managers or employees from diverse cultures is that of Greer Hofstede (2001). Hofstede's work provides interesting and useful ideas about differences across cultures that are relevant to human resource managers (DeNisi & Griffin, 2005).

However, some researchers (e.g. Lenartowicz & Roth, 2001; Yoo & Donthu, 2002; Paul, Roy & Mukhopadhyay, 2006) have claimed that the study of country-wide cultural standards carries the risk of "stereotyping" since diverse subdivisions exist within a certain nation. National level studies assume that all affiliates of a nation display similar cultural tenets. However, it is difficult to make generalizations across the entire population of countries since regions, ethnic differences, etc. within a country account for large differences in values (DeNisi & Griffin, 2005). In other words, country level description of culture (e.g., individualism) necessitates the evaluation of whether a person displays such a value similar to the countrywide one (Yoo, Donthu & Lenartowicz, 2011). This

concern is right when a nation contains a varied population (like Ethiopia) with diverse cultural upbringings. This makes it imperative and pertinent to consider culture at an individual level (Yoo et al., 2011; Kamakura & Novak, 1992; Kamakura & Mazzon, 1991) since employees within the same organization also possess a varied set of principles, philosophies, views and suppositions (Ahlawat, 2016; Yoo et al., 2011; Jabri, 2005).

Moreover, the influences of culture on the different HRM activities are not well known (Milliman, Nason, Gallagher, Huo, Glinow & Lowe, 1998; Erez, 1994; Triandis, Dunnette & Hough, 1994; Erez & Earley, 1993). The HRM practice focuses on all facets of how employees are hired and managed in institutions (Armstrong, 2008). HRM practice covers a long list of activities, the common ones being recruiting, selecting, training, developing, appraising, and compensating. Though earlier researches have effectively attempted to enlighten certain differences in employee management practices among cultures (Schuler & Rogovski, 1998; Newman & Nollen, 1996), the focus was on the HRM practices as a whole. The level of cultural influence on specific HRM practices did not get great attention, though it is evidenced that certain activities of HRM are practical only within a particular culture than others (Sparrow & Wu, 1998; Easterby-Smith, Malina & Yuan, 1995; Yuen & Kee, 1993; Vance, McClaine, Boje & Stage, 1992).

Therefore, the present research sought to identify the effects of individual level cultural principles on the recruitment and selection (RS), training and development (TD), performance appraisal (PA), and compensation administration (CA) practices.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Drawing on contingency theory of HRM (Harney, 2016), we propose that cultural values affect HRM practices. Contingency theory recommends that, to be successful, a firm's HRM should be aligned to the outside situation and/or the other facets of the firm (Harney, 2016). While the best-practice perspective proposes that HRM has a direct bearing on firm performance, contingency theory suggests best-fits between HRM activities and other factors of the firm (Delery & Doty, 1996; Harney, 2016). Contingency theory of HRM states that the HRM practices will vary according to cultural dimensions (Boselie, Dietz & Boon, 2005). On this basis, we hypothesize that the Hofstede's cultural orientations: power difference, collectivism, masculinity, avoidance of uncertainty, and long-

term focus will influence the HRM practices of recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation administration. On this basis, the following conceptual framework is designed.

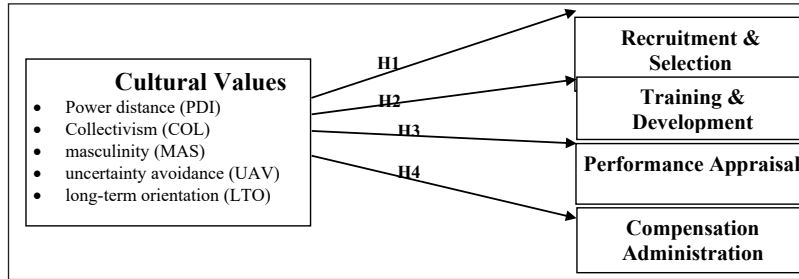


Fig. 1: Conceptual Framework

Culture refers to the manner in which a person lives. It comprises of the people's views, morals, attitudes, sciences, arts, ways of perception, thought, and activities (Singh & Dutch, 2014; Akuoko, 2008). Thus, the word culture explains how members lead their lives and act in a society and how their insights are formed which have emotional impact on the communal connection between both the members of that society and those who interrelate with that setting (Singh & Dutch, 2014). Thus, culture is the context within which we exist, think, feel, and relate to others (Akuoko, 2008). Hofstede (1980) described it as the shared programming of the spirit that differentiates people from one group to another.

Culture is conceptualized and gauged through diverse value facets acknowledged and tested by various researchers (Schwartz, 2006; House, Hanges, Javiclan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004; Inglehart & Baker, 2000; House, Wright, & Aditya, 1997; Triandis, 1995; Hofstede & Bond, 1988; Hofstede, 1980). However, cultural dimensions of Hofstede (1980, 2001) and House et al. (2004) are commonly used in cultural studies. Most frequently used cultural facets consist of power difference, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, masculinity, and long-term focus.

Collectivism: Collectivism is a type of culture that lean towards simple, traditional, and with many rules and norms (Triandis, 1995; Stone & Stone-Romero, 2008). In collectivism culture, the society's members have close bonds among themselves. Collectivism relates to cultures in which people are assimilated into robust, interconnected in-groups. This integration continues through member's lifetime to shelter them in exchange

for absolute faithfulness (Hofstede, 1991). As a societal characteristic, it reflects the amount to which members in a given community are joined into groups.

Uncertainty Avoidance: Avoidance of uncertainty denotes how individuals in a society feel endangered by indeterminate or unfamiliar circumstances (Hofstede, 1991). Members of certain cultures appear to be scratchier with unclear, uncertain, or amorphous conditions than members from others (Paul et al., 2006). Uncertainty avoidance refers to the lenience of a society in the face of unclear and ambiguous situations. It designates how much a society shapes its affiliates to feel either scratchy or contented in amorphous conditions. Amorphous conditions are new, unfamiliar, astonishing, and unusual.

Masculinity: Masculinity denotes cultures that have distinct gender roles, that is, males are assumed to be self-confident, hard, and motivated by material achievement, whereas females are assumed to be unassertive, affectionate, and anxious about the standard of living (Hofstede, 1991). Conversely, femininity refers to cultures with common social roles for males and females, that is, both males and females are assumed to be meek, affectionate, and anxious with the quality of life (Paul et al., 2006; Hofstede, 1991). According to Hofstede and Hofstede (2005), in culture of masculinity, the central values are accomplishment and triumph while in culture of femininity the central values are helpfulness and quality of life. Features of masculinity therefore are different roles for males and for females, that is, males are assertive and females are supporting, understanding (Novianti, 2018).

Power Distance: Power distance explains how much a firm's employees assume and admit that supremacy is distributed inequitably (Hofstede, 1991). Put differently, organizational members with a large power distance believe and want inequities among people and rely on dictatorial standards and a centralized arrangement (Paul et al., 2006).

Long-Term Orientation: Long-term focus is explained as how much people display a rational or long-lasting viewpoint rather than a normative or temporary perspective (Novianti, 2018). Future-orientation includes standards such as diligence, the collation of connections by prominence and its remark, frugality, and having a sense of disgrace (Paul et al., 2006; Hofstede, 1991). The other end of this dimension, short-term orientation, stresses beliefs that include personal control and stability, defending "face", admiration for custom, and the exchange of greetings, special treatment, and assistances (Hofstede, 1991).

HRM Practices: HRM is an idiosyncratic view to managing people which strives for attaining competitive benefit through the planned placement of an exceedingly dedicated and talented staff, by a cohesive assortment of social, organizational and workforce methods (Storey, 1995). Organizations that manage their HR proficiently and successfully at all times have a benefit over those that do not (Guzman, Neelankavil & Sengupta, 2011; Creelman & Ulrich, 2007; Collins, 2007). HRM talks about the complete set of administrative activities and responsibilities that deal with improving and sustaining a capable staff in ways that add to institutional success (DeNisi & Griffin, 2005). Hence, HRM deals with the schemes, practices, and strategies that affect employees' task performance, behavior, and attitudes (De Cieri, Kramar, Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright, 2008).

Practices of HRM are defined in different ways. Defined as a system, HRM practices deal with recruiting, selecting, developing, motivating, and retaining an organization's people for successful execution and continued existence of the firm and its employees (Schuler & Jackson, 1987). HRM practices are also defined as a group of horizontally consistent policies and practices developed and executed to accomplish organizational goals through its human resources (Delery & Doty, 1996). Therefore, HRM is about strategies and procedures required to perform the routines of an organization's HR such as employee recruiting and selecting, employee training and developing, appraising employees' performance, and managing employee compensation (Armstrong, 2008).

Recruitment and Selection Practice: Recruitment is concerned with attracting competent candidates for existing job places in an institution and selection deals with picking the most appropriate candidates who fulfill what the specific job requires (Mathis & Jackson, 2011). The selection process is a managerial activity or a psychosomatic cunning of correctness. Adopting proper selection procedures ensure the employment of people with the required competence and assurance for a given job (Huselid, Jackson & Schuler, 1997; Pfeffer, 1994). Internal or external recruiting sources, recruiting and selecting approaches, etc. are important issues in the staffing practice.

Training and Development Practice: Workforce training is an organized action aimed at conveying information to advance the workers' knowledge, skill, and performance (Saeed & Asgher, 2012). Employee development is concerned with managerial tasks that assist workers achieve novel knowledge or skills that are essential for their individual

advancement. Comprehensive staff development schemes aid workers to concentrate on the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that are required by a firm for goal achievement and competitive lead creation (Peteraf, 1993). Training and development practices involve investing on employees, applying knowledge at work, assessing training needs, evaluating training effectiveness, creating opportunity for development, etc. (DeCenzo, Robbins & Verhulst, 2010).

Performance Appraisal Practice: Appraising employee performance is a component of the broad performance administration scheme, which refers to the activity of generating an atmosphere or setting that empowers employees to exert to the greatest capabilities (Milliman et al., 1998). Employee performance is appraised to evaluate their outcome and offer a podium for comment about previous, present, and upcoming performance results (Mathis & Schuler, 2011). Performance appraisal, also called performance rating, performance evaluation, performance review, or results evaluation, involves setting appraisal criteria, providing performance comments, ascertaining individual worker strong and weak points, and using the criteria as a basis for decision (Mathis & Schuler, 2011; Armstrong, 2008).

Compensation Administration Practice: The verbatim meaning of the word 'compensation' is 'counter balance'. In HRM, compensation means finance and other incentives obtained by a worker for delivering service to his/her organization (Mathis & Jackson, 2011; Armstrong, 2008). It is offered by employers to entice, inspire, and maintain workers. An organization's compensation administration is the practice of handling its reward schemes (DeCenzo et al., 2010). Its goal is to develop an economical remuneration system that will entice, inspire, and maintain capable workforce (DeCenzo et al., 2010). It involves promotion, salary, bonus, benefits, incentives, etc.

Cultural Values and Recruitment and Selection Practices

The recruiting and screening practice deals with finding, appealing and selecting appropriate employee to fulfill a firm's human resource needs (Anderson, 1994). While recruiting deals with creating a pond of capable candidates for a firm's occupations, selecting is the process of taking people with the correct credentials required to fill jobs in a firm (Mathis & Jackson, 2011). Recruiting and selecting are unified activities that do

not have a demarcating line between where recruiting ends and where selecting starts (Anderson, 1994). Methods and sources of recruiting and selecting potential employees for an organization are concerns in the recruitment and selection topic. The recruiting and selecting activities are performed within the context of inside and outside effects (Beardwel & Claydon, 2007). Both inside and outside environmental factors influence the attitude and the way they are done (Beardwel & Claydon, 2007). An institution is a fitting together of people. When a person is employed in a firm, he/she not only brings with his/herself his/her capability, intellect and character but also his/her social characteristics and potentials (Prasad, 2005). Since recruitment and selection deal with obtaining the right person that best suits to the organization, the cultural values of people who have involvement in the process may have influence in the practice of recruitment and selection. On this basis, the subsequent hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis 1: Cultural values have significant effect on the recruitment and selection practices of an institution.

Cultural Values and Training and Development Practices

Training and development is a practice of enhancing occupational skills and know-how in employees in a systematic manner to improve their performance (Swanson & Holton, 2001). It is an erudition practice in search of a comparatively enduring alteration in worker behavior that advances their job performance (Beardwell & Claydon, 2007). Training and development deals with altering knowledge, skills, attitudes, or behavior, which may mean altering what workers are acquainted with, how they exert their efforts, or their views toward their occupations, colleagues, supervisors, and the firm (Mathis & Jackson, 2011; DeNisi & Griffin, 2005). The process involves the training need assessment, the training content, the trainers' capabilities, methods of training, and organizational philosophies to develop people (Dessler, 2014). Since culture is conceptualized as communal views, standards, and expectations mirrored in viewpoints and performance (Kopelman, Brief & Guzzo, 1990), it may have influence on the training and development activities. The extent to which people are assimilated into groups; roles are distributed between genders; the less potent employees of an organization admits unequally distributed authority; members feel endangered by amorphous circumstances; and long-term objectives and attainments are cherished,

etc. may have influence on the training needs evaluation, training plan, training conveyance, and training assessment practices in an organization. From this argument, the next hypothesis is developed:

Hypothesis 2: Cultural values have significant effect on the training and development practices of an institution.

Cultural Values and Performance Appraisal Practices

By the management of employee performance, every employer-employee contact in the organizational becomes a learning juncture (McGahan & Porter, 1997). Performance management involves formulating distinct job content, utilizing staffing strategy, selecting suitable employees by an all-inclusive hiring procedure, welcoming the new employee and providing effective orientation, negotiating requisites and performance-based criteria, providing ongoing coaching and feedback, and conducting periodic performance development (Cascio, 2006). Thus, appraising employee performance refers to comparing employees' job performance with the standard and communicating the result to them (Mathis & Jackson, 2011). It appears to be one of the most commonly adopted HR practices. It is conducted in a wide range of methods, which involve simple rank ordering, competency-based, and behavior-related arrangements (Redman & Wilkinson, 2013). A firm's employee evaluation system is mainly a mirror image of its managerial philosophies (Randell, 1994). The cultural values of the organization's members will have influence on the performance standards, the methods of evaluation, the fairness of the evaluation, and the methods of result communication. Thus, it is expected that the cultural values of an organization's people will have influence in the performance appraisal practice. With this argument in mind, the next hypothesis is suggested:

Hypothesis 3: Cultural values have significant influence on the performance appraisal practice of an organization.

Cultural Values and Compensation Administration Practices

Compensation is usually classified into two as direct and indirect. Direct compensation covers financial remunerations, which include basic salary, allowance, overtime pay, bonus, provident fund, etc., paid to employees in exchange for the service they deliver (Armstrong, 2008; Mathis & Jackson, 2011). Indirect compensation covers all non-financial paybacks

available to employees in exchange for the service they rendered to the institute. These include leave with pay, over time plan, insurance coverage, flexible work and lunch time, retirement benefits and various other benefits (Armstrong, 2008; Mathis & Jackson, 2011). Therefore, compensation administration is a subdivision of HRM concerned with managing the disbursements employees' get for the skills, knowledge, and experiences they exerted for the organization (Ezeh, 2014). Compensation administration entails devising a reimbursement arrangement which enables high performer employees earn more than the average performer (Hewitt, 2009). The definitive purposes of compensation administration are retaining industrious employees efficiently, paying similarly situated employees equitably, and obeying with rules on the basis of the organization's financial capability (Kelechi, Akpa, Egwuonwu, Akintaro, Shonubi & Herbertson, 2016). The offering of direct and indirect payments reveals that the firm ponders the workers' requirements and is willing to meet those requirements (Redman & Wilkinson, 2013). Decisions on the types of compensation, amount of compensation, bases of compensation, are based on the member's cultural values. Thus, the cultural values of an organization's people will have influence in the administration of employee compensation. Power distance, collectivism, long-term orientation, masculinity, and uncertainty avoidance are expected to have variation in the practices of compensation administration. From this, the following hypothesis is developed.

Hypothesis 4: Cultural values have a significant effect on the compensation administration practice of an institution.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Sample and Procedure

The sample comprised 221 employees (101 male and 120 female) of a large public service organization in Ethiopia, representative of the full range of departments within the organization. The complete list of 958 employees was taken as sampling frame and 282 employees were selected as a sample using systematic random sampling technique. A simplified sample size determination formula of Yamane (1967) at a confidence interval of 95% was used to determine the sample size. Finally, 221 usable questionnaire

were collected which make the return rate 78.4%. The sample employees participated in the survey with their consent and with the permission of the organization. The questionnaire was distributed in person in hard copy and collected in a month time at the respondents' convenience.

Measures

Instrument: The instruments for cultural values were adapted from the works of House et al. (2004) whereas those for HRM practices were adapted from the works of Demo, Neiva, Nunes, & Rozzett, 2012. Some modifications were made to contextualize items in the instrument. All the constructs were measured in a Likert type closed-ended question items. The instrument had three sections with items on demographic characteristics, cultural values, and HRM practices. Generally, the questionnaire comprised of questions on demographic characteristics, cultural values of collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, long-term orientation, masculinity, and power distance, and practices of employee recruiting and selecting, training and developing, appraising, and compensating.

Cultural Values: Cultural value consists of collectivism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, long-term orientation, and power distance. Cultural value was measured using scales developed by House et al. (2004). Respondents rated their values using a gauge spreading from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. It was a 13 items instrument with an internal reliability of 0.792. The defining items include stress on tidiness and reliability even at the cost of testing and invention; sharing of power throughout the society; encouragement of leaders team faithfulness even if individual objectives hurt; males or females who are most likely to be assigned for a high level position; emphasis placed by the people on planning for the future rather than solving current problems, etc.

HRM Practices: Practices of HRM consist of recruiting, selecting, training, developing, appraising, and compensating. Respondents rated each of these HRM practices in their organization using a measure spreading from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.

Recruitment and Selection: The practice of recruitment and selection was gauged using scales developed by Demo, Neiva, Nunes and Rozzett (2012). Respondents rated the practice of recruitment and selection in their organization using a gauge spreading from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. It was a 5 items tool with an internal reliability

of 0.717. The defining items include information dissemination about the recruitment and selection processes; disclosure of information to candidates pertaining the procedures and criteria of the screening process; handling of selection tests by trained and impartial people; communication of grades to applicants upon the completion of the selection procedure; and use of competitive screening procedure that invites capable individuals.

Training and Development: Training and development was measured using scales developed by (Demo et al., 2012). Respondents rated the practice of training and development in their organization using a gauge spreading from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. It was a 5 items tool with an internal reliability of 0.776. The defining items include use of skills and abilities acquired in training at work; organizational help to develop skills needed for successful accomplishment of duties; evaluation of training by participants; stimulation of learning and application of knowledge by organization; and periodic identification of training needs.

Performance Appraisal: Performance appraisal was measured using scales developed by (Demo et al., 2012). Respondents rated the practice of performance appraisal in their organization using a gauge spreading from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. It was a 5 items tool with an internal reliability of 0.700. The defining items include discussion of performance appraisal criteria with employees; use of performance appraisal result for employee development plan; use of performance appraisal result for promotion and salary increment decisions; dissemination of performance appraisal criteria and results to employees; and conducting performance appraisal periodically.

Compensation Administration: Compensation administration was measured using scales developed by (Demo et al., 2012). Respondents rated the practice of compensation administration in their organization using a gauge spreading from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. It was a 5 items tool with an internal reliability of 0.734. The defining items include provision of enticements such as advancements, commissioned tasks, prizes, additional benefit, etc.; influence of pay by outcomes; compatibility of salary with skills and training; remuneration according to that of the marketplace levels; and consideration of the expectations and suggestions of the employees in compensation decisions.

Demographic Data

The participants' demographic information is presented in Table 1. Gender, educational qualification, and work experience were identified. The majority, 120 (54.3%) were female participants while the remaining, 101 (45.7%) were male. The proportionate gender representation supports in getting valid information on the cultural values. In regard to educational level, 184 (83.3%) have at least university degree, suggesting better understanding of the organizations' HRM practices. Finally, the work experience data revealed that 155 (70.1%) have at least two years of work experience, which enables them to understand the organizations' HRM practices.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Item	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
• Male	101	45.7
• Female	120	54.3
Total	221	100
Education		
• College Diploma	37	16.7
• BA/BSC Degree	161	72.9
• MA/MSC Degree	23	10.4
Total	221	100
Work Experience		
• Below 2 years	66	29.9
• 2-5 years	57	25.8
• 6-10 years	60	27.1
• Above 10 years	38	17.2
Total	221	100

Source: Questionnaire and SPSS Output (2020)

DATA ANALYSIS

Descriptive Analysis

Cultural Values: The respondents' cultural values are summarized with means and standard deviations, indicating the degree to which they agreed

or disagreed on the items. The higher the mean, the higher they reflect the cultural values. Table 2 reveals that the respondents are low in collectivism ($M = 2.07$; $SD = 0.922$), in power distance ($M = 2.32$; $SD = 0.828$), in masculinity ($M = 2.70$; $SD = 1.009$), and in long-term orientation ($M = 2.59$; $SD = 0.93$). They are high in uncertainty avoidance ($M = 3.98$; $SD = 0.857$).

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics on Cultural Values

Cultural Value	Mean	Standard Deviation
Collectivism (COL)	2.07	0.922
Power Distance (PDI)	2.32	0.828
Uncertainty Avoidance (UAV)	3.98	0.857
Masculinity (MAS)	2.70	1.009
Long-term Orientation (LTO)	2.59	0.93

HRM Practices: The HRM practices in the respondents' organization are summarized with means and standard deviations, indicating the extent to which recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation administration are practiced as they should be. High mean values indicate the respondents' agreement of good practices. As Table 3 reveals, the mean scores of recruitment and selection ($M = 3.67$; $SD = 1.047$), training and development ($M = 3.34$; $SD = 0.974$), and performance appraisal ($M = 4.20$; $SD = 0.921$) are above average while that of compensation administration ($M = 2.60$; $SD = 1.048$) is below average.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics on HRM Practices

HRM Practice	Mean	Standard Deviation
Recruitment & Selection (RS)	3.67	1.047
Training & Development (TD)	3.34	0.974
Performance Appraisal (PA)	4.20	0.921
Compensation Administration (CA)	2.60	1.048

Correlation Analysis

As can be seen from Table 4, cultural values have positive correlation with HRM practices at $p < 0.01$ significance level. Uncertainty avoidance, power distance, collectivism, masculinity, and long-term focus are correlated to recruitment and selection practice with coefficients of .400, .270, .389, .247, and .294, respectively; with training and development practice with coefficients of .369, .311, .327, .172, and .384, respectively; with performance appraisal practice with coefficients of .540, .413, .446, .159, and .378, respectively; and with compensation administration practice with coefficients of .369, .310, .418, .238, and .372, respectively.

Table 4: Correlation Analysis

Pearson Correlation	RS	TD	PM	CA	UAV	PDI	COL	MAS	LTO
RS	1	.486**	.436**	.406**	.400**	.270**	.389**	.247**	.294**
TD		1	.525**	.486**	.369**	.311**	.327**	.172*	.384**
PM			1	.380**	.540**	.413**	.446**	.159*	.378**
CA				1	.369**	.310**	.418**	.238**	.372**
UAV					1	.391**	.505**	.230**	.297**
PDI						1	.429**	.180**	.268**
COL							1	.417**	.373**
MAS								1	.301**
LTO									1

Source: Questionnaire and SPSS Output (2020)

Regression Analysis

To measure the contribution of cultural value on each of the selected HRM practices, a standard multiple regression analysis was used. The regression model depicts the amount of variation in recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal and compensation administration explained by cultural values. R-values, in Table 5, show the strange positive correlations of the model. It shows that the cultural

values explain recruitment and selection practice up to 23%, training and development practice up to 24%, performance appraisal practice up to 39% and compensation administration practice up to 26%.

Table 5: Regression Model Summary^b

b. Dependent Variable	Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
RS	1	.481 ^a	.231	.213	.92888
TD	1	.489 ^a	.239	.222	.85963
PM	1	.625 ^a	.391	.377	.72687
CA	1	.510 ^a	.261	.243	.91201

a. Predictors: (Constant), LTO, PDI, MAS, UAV, COL

Source: Questionnaire and SPSS Output (2020)

The ANOVA test presented in Table 6 indicates a statistically meaningful relation between the criterion variable and the predictor variable at 1% significance level. This means that long term orientation, power distance, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and collectivism contribute to employee recruitment and selection, employee training and development, employee performance evaluation, and employee compensation administration practices.

Table 6: Regression - ANOVA^a

a. Dependent Variable	Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
RS	1 Regression	55.808	5	11.162	12.936	.000 ^b
TD	1 Regression	49.963	5	9.993	13.522	.000 ^b
PM	1 Regression	72.941	5	14.588	27.612	.000 ^b
CA	1 Regression	63.008	5	12.602	15.150	.000 ^b

b. Predictors: (Constant), LTO, PDI, MAS, UAV, COL

As the study was aimed at examining how the four selected HRM practices are influenced by the cultural values, the intensity of the predictor variables' effect on the criterion variables was explored using standardized

Beta coefficient. Therefore, regression analysis was used to find out the mean magnitude of variation in the endpoint variable due to one unit of variation in the predictor variable. Below, each of the four HRM practices is explained separately.

Cultural Values and Recruitment and Selection

Table 7: Regression Coefficient^a (Recruitment and Selection)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	.482	.314		1.534	.127		
UAV	.293	.087	.240	3.348	.001	.699	1.431
PDI	.075	.086	.059	.863	.389	.767	1.304
COL	.188	.089	.166	2.119	.035	.584	1.714
MAS	.078	.069	.076	1.131	.259	.801	1.249
LTO	.138	.075	.123	1.850	.066	.811	1.232

a. Dependent Variable: Recruitment and Selection

As can be seen from Table 7 above, uncertainty avoidance is the most contributing cultural value in the prediction of recruitment and selection practices with beta value 0.240. The other four cultural values: collectivism ($\beta = .166$), long-term orientation ($\beta = .123$), masculinity ($\beta = .076$) and power distance ($\beta = .059$) have a positive influence on recruitment and selection practice. In addition, significance levels of uncertainty avoidance and collectivism are .001 and .035, respectively, ($p > 0.05$) suggesting a statistically significant association with recruitment and selection practice. To the contrary, long-term orientation, power distance, and masculinity have significance levels of .389, .259 and .066, respectively ($p > 0.05$), suggesting no significant relationship to recruitment and selection practice.

Cultural Values and Training and Development Practice

Table 8: Regression Coefficient^a (Training and Development)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics		
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF	
1	(Constant)	.795	.291		2.734	.007		
	UAV	.233	.081	.205	2.876	.004	.699	1.431
	PDI	.153	.080	.130	1.915	.057	.767	1.304
	COL	.077	.082	.073	.937	.350	.584	1.714
	MAS	-.008	.064	-.008	-.121	.904	.801	1.249
	LTO	.276	.069	.263	3.984	.000	.811	1.232

a. Dependent Variable: Training and Development

Long-term orientation is the most contributing cultural value in the prediction of training and development practice with $\beta = 0.263$. Uncertainty avoidance ($\beta = .205$), power distance ($\beta = .130$), and individualism ($\beta = .073$) also have a positive influence on training and development practice. Though not statistically significant, masculinity influences training and development practices negatively ($\beta = -0.008$, $t = -0.121$, $p > .05$). In addition, table 8 depicts that significance levels of uncertainty avoidance ($p = .004$) and long-term orientation ($p = .000$), at $p < 0.05$ point out a statistically significant association with training and development practice. To the contrary, masculinity ($p = .904$), collectivism ($p = .350$), and power distance ($p = .057$) do not have statistically significant relationship with training and development practice at $p > 0.05$.

Cultural Values and Performance Appraisal

Table 9: Regression Coefficients^a (Performance Appraisal)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients Beta	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error				Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	.373	.246		1.515	.131		
UAV	.383	.068	.357	5.600	.000	.699	1.431
PDI	.189	.068	.170	2.800	.006	.767	1.304
COL	.152	.070	.152	2.183	.030	.584	1.714
MAS	-.068	.054	-.074	-1.249	.213	.801	1.249
LTO	.190	.058	.192	3.244	.001	.811	1.232

a. Dependent Variable: Performance Management

Table 9 revealed that uncertainty avoidance is the highest contributing cultural value in the estimation of performance appraisal practice with a beta value of 0.357. Moreover, long-term orientation ($\beta = .192$), power distance ($\beta = .170$), and collectivism ($\beta = .152$) have positive influence on performance appraisal practice. However, though not statistically significant ($\beta = -0.074$, $t = -1.249$, $p > .05$), masculinity influences performance appraisal practice negatively. In addition, the significance levels of uncertainty avoidance ($p = .000$), long-term orientation ($p = .001$), collectivism ($p = .030$), power distance ($p = .006$) indicate a statistically significant relationship with performance appraisal practice. To the contrary, masculinity has a significance level of .213 ($p > 0.05$) indicating no statistically significant relationship with performance appraisal practice.

Cultural Values and Compensation Administration

Table 10: Regression Coefficients^a (Compensation Administration)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics		
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF	
1	(Constant)	.791	.309		2.562	.011		
	UAV	.191	.086	.156	2.224	.027	.699	1.431
	PDI	.124	.085	.098	1.465	.144	.767	1.304
	COL	.231	.087	.203	2.646	.009	.584	1.714
	MAS	.037	.068	.036	.545	.586	.801	1.249
	LTO	.240	.073	.213	3.269	.001	.811	1.232

a. Dependent Variable: Compensation Administration

As can be seen in Table 10, long-term orientation is the highest contributing cultural value in the estimation of compensation administration practice with a beta value of 0.213. Moreover, collectivism ($\beta = .203$), uncertainty avoidance ($\beta = .156$), power distance ($\beta = .098$) and masculinity ($\beta = .036$) have positive influence on compensation administration practice. In addition, the significance levels of long-term orientation ($p = .001$), uncertainty avoidance ($p = .027$), and individualism ($p = .009$) indicate a statistically significant relationship with compensation administration practice. To the contrary, power distance ($p = .144$) and masculinity ($p = .586$) do not have statistically significant relationship with compensation administration practice at $p > 0.05$.

DISCUSSION

This study examines the influence of cultural values on employee management practices. Specifically, it examines the effects of collectivism, power distance, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation on the recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, and compensation administration practices.

In the measurement of level of cultural values, results reveal low levels of collectivism, power distance, masculinity, and long-term focus;

and high level of uncertainty avoidance. The results of power distance and collectivism are unexpected and contradict with Hofstede's (1997) national cultural dimension index of Ethiopia. Though Hofstede did not measure the Ethiopian national cultural dimension separately, in his index of East Africa consisting of Ethiopia, Kenya, Zambia, and Tanzania, Ethiopia is reported as high power distance, high collectivist, low masculinity, low long-term orientation, and high uncertainty avoidance country. While this study agrees with Hofstede's result in the masculinity, long-term focus, and avoidance of uncertainty dimensions, it contradicts with power distance and collectivism dimensions. This may be explained by four reasons. One, people in modern lives may show low power distance and low collectivism cultures (Wasbeek, 2004) since these dimensions are more observed in traditional societies (Stone & Stone-Romero, 2008). Two, since Ethiopia is clustered with Kenya, Zambia, and Tanzania in the Hofstede's study, the index might be dominated by the cultures of the other countries. Three, national cultural dimensions may not reflect and represent individual's cultural values (Yoo et al., 2011). Four, the culture of a nation may not be uniform if the nation comprises of a varied residents with diverse cultural upbringings (Yoo et al., 2011), like Ethiopia that consist of 84 ethnic groups and many religions.

In regard to the practices of HRM, while recruitment and selection, training and development, and performance evaluation practices are virtuous consistent to the literature; compensation administration practice is below average. Employees scored items, such as provision of incentives, compatibility of their salaries with their skills and education, influence of their salaries by their results, and consideration of their suggestions in compensation decisions in their organizations, etc., below average. This can be explained by the fact that they are working for public organizations that are financed by the government, where there may not be flexibility in compensation decisions.

Cultural values have direct relationship with HRM practices. While uncertainty avoidance, power distance, collectivism, and long-term focus have a moderately high level of positive correlation with the HRM practices, masculinity has a low level of positive correlation (Marczyk, Dematteo & Festinger, 2005). This agrees with previous researches (Stone & Stone-Romero, 2008) that stated that employees' culture affects HRM activities and procedures at all of its stages. This also agrees with the contingency theory of HRM (Harney, 2016), which states that HRM must be aligned to other facets of the outer setting.

Cultural values also explain changes in HRM practices. Recruiting, selecting, training, developing, appraising, and compensating practices can be explained to some extent by cultural values. While performance appraisal practice is more (39%) explained by cultural values, recruitment and selection is explained less (23%). The degree of cultural impact on people management practices varies across the different practices. While certain practices are highly dependent on culture, others have weak relationship consistent to previous researches (e.g. Sparrow & Wu, 1998; Easterby-Smith et al., 1995). Cultural values significantly contribute to staffing, training, performance evaluation, and reward administration practices. Therefore, cultural values have important implications for the design of HRM policies, processes, and practices.

Hypothesis 1 claimed, “Cultural values have significant influence on the recruitment and selection practice of an organization”. The results discovered that uncertainty avoidance ($\beta = .240$, $p = .001$) and collectivism ($\beta = .166$, $p = .035$) have significant influence in the prediction of recruitment and selection practice. Uncertainty avoidance is the most contributing cultural value for recruitment and selection practice. Long-term orientation, masculinity, and power distance do not have significant influence on recruitment and selection practice. Cultural values influence the selection of employment sources, the success of recruiters, and the extent to which candidates are interested to firms.

Hypothesis 2 claimed, “Cultural values have significant influence on the training and development practice of an organization”. The findings revealed that long-term orientation ($\beta = .263$, $p = .000$) and uncertainty avoidance ($\beta = .205$, $p = .004$) have significant influence in the prediction of training and development practice. Long-term orientation is the most contributing cultural value for training and development practice. Collectivism, power distance, and masculinity have no substantial effect on training and development. This agrees with the assertion that, for low collectivist cultures, employee training plans are aligned with the institution’s interests (Hofstede, 1997). Cultural values influence organization’s training processes, programs, policies, needs, and methods since the workplace becoming culturally diverse.

Hypothesis 3 claimed, “Cultural values have significant influence on the performance appraisal practice of an organization”. The findings revealed that uncertainty avoidance ($\beta = .357$, $p = .000$); long-term orientation ($\beta = .192$, $p = .001$), power distance ($\beta = .170$, $p = .006$), and collectivism ($\beta = .152$, $p = .030$) have significant contribution in the

prediction of performance appraisal practice. Uncertainty avoidance is the most contributing cultural value for performance appraisal practice. Though masculinity does not have significant influence on performance appraisal, collectively cultural values contribute to the practice. Cultural values influence the development of performance criteria or standard, performance appraisal methods, and reactions to performance feedback.

Hypothesis 4 claimed, “Cultural values have significant influence on the compensation administration practice of an organization”. The findings revealed that long-term orientation ($\beta = .213$, $p = .027$); collectivism ($\beta = .203$, $p = .009$); and uncertainty avoidance ($\beta = .1563$, $p = .001$) have significant contribution to compensation administration practice. Long-term focus is the most contributing cultural value for compensation administration practice. Power distance has no substantial influence over compensation administration practice which contradicts with the previous research by Milliman et al. (1998), which states that in low degree of power distance competence and performance is highly compensated. Masculinity does not also have significant influence on compensation administration practice. Cultural values influence compensation preferences and the effectiveness of organizational compensation systems.

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

Management commitment to the importance of cultural values for organization's people management is critical since culture plays a significant role in the management of an organization's people. For HRM practices differ among cultural values identifying employees' cultural values and developing and implementing specific HRM policies is essential for HR managers. Moreover, considering individual's cultural values in making HR related decisions is critical. Since the different HRM activities are complementary to each other, managers need to understand the influence of cultural values on each of the HRM activities to have an effective HRM in an organization.

CONCLUSION

There are low levels of long term orientation, power distance, masculinity, and collectivism, and above-average level of uncertainty avoidance among the surveyed public organizations in Ethiopia. The staffing, training, and appraisal practices are virtuous while compensation administration

practice is below average. HRM practices are not internally consistent to each other as the first three are practiced in a better way compared to the last one. Cultural values have direct and moderate relationship with HRM practices. Uncertainty avoidance is the most contributing cultural value in the prediction of recruiting, selecting, and appraisal practices. Long-term focus is the most contributing cultural value in the prediction of training and development and compensation administration practices.

Scope of Future Research

This research has presented the effect of cultural values on HRM practices. It has measured culture at individual level and HRM practice at organizational level. However, much work remains to have a complete picture of the relations between culture and HRM. First, we suggest for future researchers to focus on individual employee's cultural values than on national cultures, as national culture rarely sub-cultures within a nation. Second, focusing on other specific cultural values, other than Hofstede's dimensions, is essential to avoid overlaps and to fill gaps. Third, further investigation is needed on cultural values and HRM in organizations to cover the soft aspects of HRM. The effect of cultural values on soft HRM makes the culture-HRM nexus complete.

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