THE IMPACT OF CULTURAL VALUES ON CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR: A CASE STUDY OF SPECIALTY PRODUCTS AT A UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY IN KZN

BY

LYNELLE CERENE MARTIN

208527148

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College of Law and Management Studies, School of Management, IT and Governance

SUPERVISOR: PROFESSOR MAXWELL PHIRI

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Abstract

Culture plays an important role in individuals' lives, affecting their behaviour and the decisions they make. These decisions include the type of specialty products that they purchase (Designer clothing, sports cars and high-quality camera equipment). The study sought to investigate the impact of cultural values on consumer behaviour, with specific reference to specialty products at the University of Technology in KwaZulu-Natal. The nature of specialty products is seen as highly specialised with a unique niche market of consumers who come from different cultural backgrounds. A quantitative design using an online questionnaire as a survey instrument was applied to collect and analyse data from 300 academic and support staff. The collected data and emerging constructs were validated statistically using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) while the reliability was assessed with Cronbach's alpha value. The data were analysed with regression analysis and structural equation modelling (SEM). The analysis integrated theories on consumer buying behaviour; Hofstede's cultural dimensions to define patterns between individual behaviour and social norms towards the consumption of specialty products; as well as the application of the Theory of Reasoned Action and the Theory of Planned Behaviour to determine the influence of cultural values on the intentions and purchasing behaviour of individuals. The findings of the study show a relationship between cultural values, demographic characteristics and buying behaviour amongst higher education staff. Higher education staff members who have participated in this study show creativity and uniqueness in their buying behaviour towards specialty products. The staff members at the University of Technology showed a preference for specialty products in order to satisfy their appetites for material comfort, quest for durable goods and to express their distinct positions and upper ranks in the social hierarchy. The study conclusively suggests that consumers bring cultural beliefs, perceptions and practices that define themselves apart from others. From a marketing perspective, the finding of this study implies that marketers can tailor their marketing strategy to target higher education luxury consumers based on their cultural values. This thesis, therefore, contributes to the scant literature on how cultural norms shape the marketing and purchasing of specialty products amongst academic and non-academic staff consumers from higher education institutions.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION, BACKGROUND AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter of the thesis introduces the study; its background and its scope. The discussion covers the following items: the background to the study, problem statement, objectives of the study, research questions, the conceptual framework, hypotheses, significance of the study research methodology, scope of the study, limitations of the study, and outline of the thesis.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

According to Rafi and Rafi (2015: 555), specialty goods are a category of fast-moving consumer goods which are considered convenience goods, shopping goods, and specialty goods. The authors note that convenience and specialty goods are both purchased with a predetermined pattern in mind. Unlike convenience goods where consumers purchase the most accessible brand, in specialty products, consumers only focused on a specific brand (Rafi and Rafi, 2015). Silvia and Basariya (2022: 2344) define specialty product as "products that positive consumers will actively buy due to particular characteristics or loyalty to a specific emblem". An example of specialty products includes designer clothing, sports cars and high-quality camera equipment, etc. The nature of specialty products is seen as highly specialised with a unique niche market of consumers who come from different cultural backgrounds. The differences in the cultural backgrounds of the consumers will ultimately contribute to their purchasing behaviour. Culture shapes, moulds and directs people's everyday lives. Culture is instilled in an individual's life from childhood and as one grows, culture is evident in purchasing choices, behaviour and preferences. Cultural values form a major part of a consumer's livelihood and impact how, when, why and where consumers purchase products. Cultural values are not only rooted deep in an individual's upbringing but are also established by society. Culture also places emphasis on the effectiveness of how cultural values can be perceived, which ultimately affects a consumer's purchasing behaviour and their choices of specialty products particularly. This chapter covers the introduction, background and overview of the study. The research questions, research objectives, hypotheses, problem statement, the significance of the study and ethical considerations will be discussed.

Cultural values define whether a society feels, acts and sees the world in similar ways, while it identifies what makes the society different to others. Cultural values paint a picture of what

one practises in daily life and what one strongly believes in. Culture, therefore, sets the boundaries for individual behaviour and also influences how families, mass media and other institutions in society operate. It is the culture that convinces individuals about what is normal behaviour, consistent with the restrictions imposed by the group, restricts thoughts, actions and perceptions that are regarded as outside the nature of the group (Parker-Pope, 1996; Fielding, 2006).

Mooij (2004:162) defined culture as "the whole that includes knowledge, beliefs, morals, customs and any other capabilities and habits acquired by humans as members of society". More recently, Otite and Oginwo (2016:86) viewed culture as "the complex whole of man's acquisition of knowledge, morals, beliefs, arts, customs and technology, which are shared and transmitted from generation to generation". It is a broad, all-encompassing concept about the social influences on individual perceptions, thoughts, decisions and behaviour (Casy *et al.*, 2022; Briley, Morris and Simonson, 2000). Hofstede (2001) believes that members of a cultural group share a collective mindset that differentiates them from others. It excludes biology, natural dispositions and other innate drivers of individual behaviour. Culture can establish those norms, ideas, beliefs and activities that belong in society and those that are proscribed. Research shows that there is a relationship between the buying behaviour of consumers and culture, sub-culture and social classes (Chaudry, 2014).

Culture primarily governs individual wants and behaviour. Furthermore, it is cultural norms and values which influence consumption patterns. Culture is embedded in the way in which consumers think and behave. Cultural values are the common beliefs that indicate the norms of acceptable behaviour and expected responses to particular events, circumstances or situations. Research on consumer behaviour shows that different consumers are influenced by their own cultural backgrounds, hence the variations in consumption patterns (Jeong and Lee, 2021; Parker-Pope, 1996). Factors such as age, lifestyle, values and norms shape cultural differences in consumer behaviour.

Cultures that are youth-oriented tend to adopt the values of liberalism and individualism (Barak, Mathur, Zhang, Lee and Erondu, 2003) and promote both high productivity in the workplace and high consumer spending (Goulding and Shankar, 2004). The cultural attitude towards work and leisure pursuits affects the purchasing choices and actions of consumers (Paul, 2002). Differences in norms and cultural values among consumers affect their responses to imports; promotion and advertising; and the sources of information that they like to use

(Asamoah and Chovancova, 2016; Gurhan-Gnli and Maheswaran, 2000; Money, Gilley and Graham, 1998). Consequences from the violation of cultural norms may result in social disapproval and even expulsion from the group, which also influence consumption patterns (Akpan, 2016).

Therefore, in the case of global culture, the majority is likely to impose the type of goods, services and symbols that are commodified. Customers with preferences and spending priorities that are different have to follow the dictates of the majority, even if this does not bring them satisfaction. Factors such as demographics, language, non-verbal communication and values can indicate explicit cultural differences. Due to these differences, dramatic changes in the consumer behaviour can be observed across cultures. A one-size-fits-all strategy to promote commodities across different cultures is unlikely to be effective, while the costs of re-packaging may also be excessive.

Research shows that the standardisation of product offerings allows companies to keep their expenses low and increase their savings (Mooij and Hofstede, 2002). Offering standard commodities involves establishing the cultural factors which are common across different cultures. For example, urban youth worldwide seem to share similar preferences in communication, entertainment and other tastes in recreation. Marketing strategies are therefore required to enable companies to both gain competitive advantages and also reduce costs through the adoption of standardisation, uniformity, customisation and blending. However, reliable evidence is essential to inform the choice of an effective strategy.

The study examined the impact of cultural values on consumer behaviour. Culture is the way people live, respond to issues and make purchasing decisions. As consumers, individuals have to make decisions on a range of specialty products. Simply put, the decisions that individuals make as consumers are sometimes driven by cultural values. This study made a contribution to the body of knowledge and available literature on the subject of cultural values and consumer behaviour. Furthermore, a cultural values and consumer behaviour model for specialty products was developed. Extensive research shows a direct link between cultural influences and consumer buying behaviour. Culture has an influence on every aspect of human life. By extension, the purchasing decisions of consumers derive from their cultural values, perhaps even before the product is actually purchased, particularly specialty products (Sadat, Sajib and Yaqub, 2016).

A better understanding of the relationship between cultural values and consumer purchases of specialty products within the social context of the higher education sector, scholarly literature is abundant on other social settings, industries and countries. Sethi and Chawla (2014:102), undertook a study on how cultural values impact consumer behaviour and found that social factors do have a significant influence on consumer behaviour. Religion plays a vital role in determining which products are acceptable or not in certain cultures (Halliru, 2013).

Similarly, a study in Turkey found that not only does consumer behaviour affect the purchases of products, but factors like families, personalities and cultural values also impact buying behaviour (Durmaz, 2014). A study conducted in the hospitality sector found a positive association between cultural values and consumer behaviour (Karami *et al*., 2017). According to their findings, cosmopolitanism values, for instance, positively influences buying behaviour among Iranian consumers (Karami *et al*., 2017:300). The remarkable findings of an investigation on whether consumer buying behaviour is influenced by culture by Sarpong (2014:3) found that culture does have a positive influence on consumer buying behaviour. However, it does not exert a greater influence on consumers' purchases and buying behaviour of branded clothing, preferences and personal factors. It was suggested that there were alternative factors with the potential to exert more influence on the choice of consumers for branded clothing, including specific variables such as economic, global and demographic factors.

The available literature does provide evidence that cultural values determine what may or may not be acceptable when purchasing specialty products. Cultural values, whether expressed as norms, religion or beliefs, do regulate and shape the buying patterns of consumers.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Culture plays an important role in individuals' lives, affecting their behaviour and the decisions that they make. These decisions include the type of specialty products that they purchase. Examples of specialty products include designer clothing, sports cars and high-quality camera equipment. Specialty products involve many consumers loving the latest fashion, shopping malls and being brand conscious. For example, fancy cars, expensive equipment and elite fashion apparel are examples of specialty products which show that future researchers can build on this subject matter or reference such content in similar studies (Gopal, 2011:290). Silvia and Basariya (2022) note that customers who seek these specialized products recognize what

they need and could spend the effort and time to get it. Moreover, there are many values which are either acceptable or not by consumers and society. Differences in cultural values develop and manifest from generational, class, geographical and income factors. In turn, these cultural differences influence entertainment tastes, academic interests and consumer purchasing decisions.

Research does show a strong relationship between consumer behaviour and culture (Park, Baek and Mac 2017:2). For example, a study in the Iranian hospitality sector found that cultural values in the Iranian context do affect consumer behaviour. It found a positive association between cultural values and consumer buying behaviour (Karami, Olfati and Dubinsky 2017:300). Additionally, Gopal (2011:290) looked at how culture and consumer behaviour impacts the consumption of specialty products. The finding was that specialty products include the purchase and love of the latest fashion; shopping malls that sell exclusive and exquisite items; and being brand conscious.

Despite the wide interest in understanding the impact of cultural values on consumer behaviour, there is, however, limited evidence using populations from the higher education sector, specifically the investigation of specialty products purchased by employees at a university. According to Avenali *et al.* (2022: 2), the employees at a university are subdivided into two, namely the academic staff (researchers and teachers) and non-academic staff (support staff). It thus meant that the job specification and roles may warrant differences in their interest in specialty products. For instance, a marketing manager of an organization will try to purchase business suits, whereas a low-level worker in the same organization will purchase modest work clothes (Jisana, 2014:35). Given the distinctive roles played by academic and non-academic staff in higher education, it is surprising to note that there is a scarcity of literature devoted to understanding the cultural values on consumer behaviour between academic staff and non-academic staff at a higher education institution. Therefore, this study seeks to contribute towards addressing this gap in the literature on the impact of cultural values on consumer behaviour. Potentially, this study is one of the pioneering studies on cultural values and consumer behaviour on specialty products in the South African higher education sector. The investigation aims to focus on a range of cultural traits and characteristics that may influence the behaviour of academicians. These can include social standing, class or educational background, family values or individual values. The question that this study seeks to address

is: what is the range of cultural factors that influence the consumer behaviour of academicians with regard to the purchasing of specialty products?

This study intends to make a contribution to the body of knowledge by investigating the application of cultural values influencing the purchasing behaviour of academic and support staff at a tertiary institution.

1.4 AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to make a contribution to the body of knowledge by investigating if cultural values influence the purchasing behaviour of specialty products by academic and support staff at a tertiary institution.

1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

In pursuit of the aim of the study, the following objectives are derived;

- To examine employees' perceptions of cultural values dimensions;
- To evaluate the relationship between cultural values and demographics;
- To analyse employees' perceptions of consumer behaviour dimensions;
- To evaluate the relationship between consumer behaviour and demographics;
- To evaluate the impact of cultural values on consumer behaviour in the purchasing of specialty products; and
- To develop a model for cultural value and consumer behaviour for specialty products.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main research question of the study is does the application of cultural values influences the purchase behaviour of specialty products by academic and support staff at a tertiary institution?

The study seeks to answer the following research questions:

- What is employees' perception of cultural values dimensions?
- What is the relationship between cultural values and demographics?
- What is employees' perception of consumer behaviour dimensions?
- What is the relationship between consumer behaviour and demographics?

- What is the impact of cultural values on consumer behaviour in the purchasing of specialty products?
- What model can be developed for cultural value and consumer behaviour for specialty products?

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Anecdotal evidence suggests that universities are not the best-paying institutions in comparison to the private sector. Hence, it is imperative to understand what drives academics to dig deep down into their pockets to purchase specialty products. Is it a status issue? Or are there other underlying issues that drive this purchasing behaviour? In addition, the university has people from different cultural backgrounds (Abdul Rahman and Alwi, 2018: 88), and such an understanding can assist marketing practitioners in achieving their integrated marketing communication objectives. The initial interest in this topic derived from the researcher's casual observation of the typical behaviour and trends towards the purchase of specialty products among staff members at the University of Technology. For instance, the majority of staff are conscious about consumer brands, wearing designer clothing and driving the latest vehicles.

These observations have generated the researcher's curiosity to investigate whether or not cultural values influence the purchasing decisions for specialty products among staff members. In addition, a university is a multicultural society and this being the case (Abdul Rahman and Alwi, 2018), this study aims to enable the same staff members to reflect on whether cultural values do impact their purchases of specialty products. More importantly, respondents will be increasingly aware of how their cultural values influence their purchasing behaviour. Cultural values are part of every individual's life (Idang, 2015). Hence, how these values impact the purchasing behaviour of specialty products is critical for marketers to understand in order to assist them in crafting a marketing strategy that is responsive to the needs of customers such as university employees.

It is envisaged that the findings of this study would assist marketing practitioners and scholars to understand the dynamics in the field of consumer behaviour. Firstly, this study aims to make a contribution to the body of literature on consumer behaviour and cultural values in the higher education sector, specifically regarding specialty products. Secondly, this study will lead to the development of cultural values and consumer behaviour models for specialty products. The

study envisages that the model on cultural values and consumer buying behaviour for specialty products, can guide businesses, managers and marketing strategists to understand various factors at play and subsequently deploy the relevant strategies in order to keep abreast of the changing needs of consumers.

1.7 METHODOLOGY DESIGN FOR THE THESIS

The following section highlights the research methodology used in this study.

1.7.1 Research design

This study adopted a descriptive research design because it aims at ascertaining the relationship between variables, namely cultural values and consumer behaviour in this study. In addition, descriptive research assists the researcher to project the results of a study to a larger population (Lune and Berg, 2017:33). Furthermore, this study adopted a quantitative research methodology.

1.7.2 Target Population

Academic and support staff at the University are conveniently accessible and available and were expected to indicate their willingness to complete the questionnaire. Given the culture and support structure in the university, the study population was also expected to generally respond positively towards participation.

There is generally a common purchasing trait or behavioural pattern that exists in a population. This study engaged an accessible population whereby a sample of the entire population was accessed. It is specifically out of this accessible population that the researcher was able to draw the relevant conclusions for the research (Berg *et al*., 2017:33). Thus, the accessible population for this study consisted of 300 MUT staff members, namely 150 academics and 150 support staff. The total population of the University is 782 staff.

1.7.3 Sampling method

The selection process to derive a research sample from a population is called a sampling method. Stratified random sampling is the technique used to group the population under different categories; in this case, support staff and academic staff members. Thus, the researcher randomly selected participants from the two strata (Kothari, 2004:69).

1.7.4 Sample size

Since this is a quantitative study, the research instrument used was a questionnaire and data was collected from a random sample of 300 staff members out of 782 staff members. This random sample covered both academic and support staff members. The 300 staff members as the sample size represent more than 50% of the entire population, which gave a more accurate representation, thus making the results more meaningful.

1.7.5   Data Collection

In this study, an electronic, self-administered questionnaire was distributed to respondents according to the requirements of the stratified random sample, namely academics and support staff at the designated university. Due to the pandemic and COVID-19 restrictions, this study was constrained as it was structured before the lockdown. Since the easing to level 2, administering the questionnaires online to staff was accomplished by sending questionnaires to the staff members' institutional email addresses. The questionnaires were sent in a Word format and participants responded online and returned them in a PDF format.

1.7.6 Data analysis

The data was analysed by employing the AMOS statistical package. The data in this study were analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Additionally, a structural equation model (SEM) was used to analyse data.

1.7.7 Reliability and Validity

In this study, reliability was measured using Cronbach's alpha. A Cronbach alpha coefficient above 0.6 is considered acceptable (Wiid and Digginess, 2013:249). The questionnaire was reviewed by the supervisor and marketing practitioner. Construct validity was reached through factor analysis. Factor analysis allowed the researcher to pick items that loaded perfectly and were therefore true representations of variables.

1.7.8   Ethical considerations

In line with good research practice, a gatekeeper's letter to conduct the research was obtained from the Mangosuthu University of Technology. In this study, all the respondents were informed about the intention of the study. In this regard, a letter of introduction informing the participant of the details of the study was provided. In addition, all the information collected in this study will not be disclosed to third parties and there will be no identification features that

will link the results of this study to the respondents. In so doing, the researcher will be able to achieve participant anonymity and confidentiality (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009:170).

Paper-based records were stored in a secure location, namely the researcher's office. Upon request, these can be made available only to the supervisor, the statistician who was involved in the study, co-coders and the Ethics Committee. Due to Covid-19 restrictions that limit social interaction and hygiene precautions to eliminate touching the same objects, the questionnaires were administered electronically. The files were stored in the researcher's cloud account, which is protected by a secret password. Similar to paper-based records, the electronic files are to be shared with the supervisor and Ethics Committee upon formal request. Signed confidentiality forms are compulsory in order to authorise a request to access the research records.

1.8   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study investigates a theoretical framework with particular reference to Hofstede and Schwartz's Theory of Culture; the Theory of Buyer Behaviour, cultural values and consumer buying behaviour, which are discussed in order to lay a foundation for this study. The theories and concepts mentioned are based on Hofstede's framework which will be guiding this study.

In the context of this study, culture is the set of beliefs, preferences, habits, symbols and articles that individuals obtain through learning, socialisation, exposure and experience. According to Lamb *et al*., (2015:107), each generation passes down to the next set of attitudes, norms and values, which also shape consumer behaviour. Culture includes the collections of treasured artefacts, materials and objects that were acquired from those who lived before. Culture is the invisible social force that sets the rules for individual consumers and uses specialty products as a measure of individual possession of the right aspirations, tastes, lifestyles and status (Lamb *et al*., 2015:107).

Lamb *et al*. (2015:107) state that, "Culture refers to the cumulative deposit of knowledge, experience, beliefs, values, attitudes, meanings, hierarchies, religion, notions of time, roles, spatial, relations, concepts of the universe, and material objects and possessions acquired by a group of people in the course of generations through individual and group striving". Culture controls personal standards and practices, social circles, and how individual consumers live their lives. The way in which one behaves and carries themselves stems from all the values that were taught to a child in their upbringing. As one grows older, one tends to live out those well-taught values, which ultimately affect one's buying behaviour. During the purchase of specialty

products, a cultural statement is also made in approval, justification or encouragement of the significant expenditure. The notion of people being what they learn from one's upbringing, beliefs, perspectives and views is known as 'cultural determinism'. This can influence daily purchasing decisions and is greatly influenced by culture (Jayira, 2012:62).

This study unpacked many theories that are significant such as cultural values; Hofstede's Cultural Theory Model, Schwartz's Cultural Dimensions; the Cross-cultural Consumer Behaviour framework; the Theory of Buyer Behaviour; the Consumer Decision Model; Theory of Reasoned Action; the Theory of Planned Behaviour and Hedonic Values.

1.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study was conducted at the Mangosuthu University of Technology (MUT) and was dependent on the generosity of the institution's staff members to set time aside from their busy schedules to complete the questionnaire. Since academic and support staff are very busy with their daily tasks, in some cases, appointments were made in order to recruit participants for the study. Also, the study drew from the preparedness of MUT staff members to disclose private information about their purchasing behaviour of specialty products.

Therefore, a great deal of the time in the research plan went into the design of the study, as well as the recruitment, distribution and collection of the questionnaires. Since this study was conducted at the Mangosuthu University of Technology, the results of this study cannot be generalised across all other universities in South Africa and beyond. In addition, the sample size used in this study is relatively small. Hence the necessity for caution in the application of the results. However, the results of this study can have potential relevance for similar institutions in the higher education sector, taking into account the contexts of location, organisational structure, cultural diversity and consumption habits.

1.10 OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

This thesis comprises eight chapters. Chapter One provides an introduction and an overview of the entire study. The main areas included and covered in this chapter are the background to the study, problem statement, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, research methodology, scope of the study and limitations of the study. This chapter sought to introduce the constructs under study; the background that gave rise to the gaps in

knowledge that necessitated and justified this research undertaking; and the parameters within which the study was undertaken.

Chapter Two is the first of the two literature review chapters and introduces the important constructs to be addressed in the study, namely the framework of cultural values; Hofstede's and Schwartz's theories; an overview of the higher education sector; and cultural dynamics at Mangosuthu University of Technology. The purpose of this chapter is to explain how these constructs were conceptualised.

Chapter Three is the second literature review chapter, which elaborates on culture and cultural values of consumer behaviour towards specialty products in a higher education context. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss how cultural values affect staff members' purchases of specialty products and higher education dynamics at the university in this study.

Chapter Four is the theoretical framework chapter, whereby different theories and models are unpacked. Some examples of these theories and models are Hofstede's cultural dimensions, Schwartz's model, Manrai and Manrai's cross-cultural Consumer Behaviour framework, the Consumer Decision model, the Theory of Reasoned Action and the Theory of Planned Behaviour.

Chapter Five explains the research methodology adopted in addressing the research questions and objectives. The research design, target population, sampling method, sample size, data collection method, data analysis, reliability and validity of the study are explained in this chapter.

Chapter Six presents the research findings and is organised based on the research questions and objectives. Both descriptive and Inferential statistics are used to report the findings.

Chapter Seven provides a discussion of the significant findings within the context of the research objectives. In addition, the chapter presents models based on the significant findings of the study and summarises the main findings based on the study objectives.

Chapter Eight concludes the study, provides recommendations based on the findings and offers some direction for future research.

1.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter of the thesis provided the introduction, background and scope of the study. The narrative provided details about the background to the study, problem statement, objectives of the study, research questions, the conceptual framework and hypotheses, significance of the study, research methodology, scope of the study, limitations of the study, and an outline of the thesis. The next chapter will discuss the literature for this thesis.

CHAPTER 2

THE IMPORTANCE OF CULTURE AND CULTURAL VALUES - THE INFLUENCE ON CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter of the thesis provided the introduction, background and scope of the study. This chapter explores the influence of cultural values on an individual's purchase decision. A literature review is conducted on the relevant literature to discuss the importance of culture and cultural values and their influence on consumer behaviour. The discussion centres on the following items, namely culture; consumer behaviour; factors influencing consumer behaviour; consumer purchases; consumer behaviour and buyer behaviour; sub-cultural influence on an individual's specialty products purchases, cultural values in different cultures and organisational cultural values.

There appears to be increasing attention paid how to understand the impact of culture on consumer behaviour within the field of marketing (Kire and RajKumar, 2017). Literature on consumer behaviour and marketing regards the cultural values of consumers as the primary element regarding what they want and how they behave (Kotler, 2003:67).

2.2 CULTURE

According to Kire and RajKumar (2017:1179), culture includes both physical materials as well as intangible matter that gives members of a society a sense of shared meaning, identity and world outlook. It can include unique possessions such as equipment and armaments, as well as common philosophies and standards. Culture has the power to govern individual members of society through developing systems to ensure the survival, transmission and maintenance of shared social group elements (Arnould and Thompson, 2005).

Culture is both an influence on and a reflection of consumer behaviour. It is the mirror that shows what members of a culture possess and what their values are. Marketing strategies affect culture, even though they cannot alter cultural beliefs (De Mooij and Beniflah, 2016). Consumers respond to marketing messages based on their cultural values and the kinds of needs they want to satisfy (Dubinsky, 2015).

Members of a society are generally expected to have adequate knowledge about their own culture. The children born into every generation acquire the culture of their society through a process of socialisation, acculturation and rituals so that they can embrace the society's history,

faiths, resources and systems (Kire and RajKumar, 2017). Culture gives individuals a special place to fit in and belong to a collective yet unique society which possesses a shared heritage that has existed over many years (Akhter and Fakir, 2019). It gives individuals the tools to express themselves through speech and visual codes that are transferred among members. Culture is the lens through which individual consumers view the external world and form their own perceptions about what is acceptable or not acceptable (Kire and RajKumar, 2017).

Cultural values can be expected to exert a significant influence on the behaviour of individual consumers and define their purchasing standards. However, there is no one culture. Different societies find meaning, belonging and influence through a range of internalised and unwritten ways of making choices and decisions about various commodities that are available in the market. Understanding cultural values is an important dimension in market segmentation so that marketers can be able to make accurate interpretations of the responses of a particular group of consumers towards specific products and promotion strategies (Rahman, 2019:32). Consumers can be expected to adjust their purchasing decisions and behaviour towards conformity with the norm, rather than to break the established patterns.

2.3 CULTURAL VALUES IN DIFFERENT CULTURES

Consumers seldom make practical decisions when they spend their money. Rather, consumers attach meaning to the commodities they possess. It is essential, therefore, to look at the context in which consumer behaviour takes place. Different cultural values may hinder the appreciation of consumer choices (Dubinsky *et al.*, 2015). The purchasing decisions of today's generation's specialty products are grounded on the cultural values that were handed to them by their elders (Gorodnichenko *et al.*, 2017). Most commonly, it is cultural values that condition individual choices on the consumption of fashion, cuisine and media outlets. At the same time, culture determines the values that are placed on buying products. Purchasing specialty products can affect their perceived hedonic or utilitarian value individual consumers based on their emotional responses, from the feelings of pleasure, creativity and accomplishment (Khaled *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, cultural values about what is useful and enjoyable will influence the continued purchase of specialty products by consumers (Anderson and Simester, 2014).

Values influence consumer behaviour because individuals pursue consumption activities that are directed towards their realisation and fulfilment, notwithstanding the constraints sometimes

imposed by the context (Wang and Lin, 2009; Lages and Fernandes, 2005, Schwartz and Bardi, 2001). Minton, Kahle and Kim (2015:1939) look at the relationship between religious values and eco-friendly lifestyles and found that Buddhists are more likely to engage in sustainable behaviour than other groups. Therefore, religion and beliefs regulate the value systems across cultures. However, cultural values are not homogenous due to differences such as demographics, class, religious denominations and political affiliations (Rokeach, 1973:737).

The variations in individuals' personal, societal and cultural experiences generate value differences, as well as the stability of values and value systems (Jha *et al.*, 2017:79). The common example of heterogeneous cultural values is India. "India's ancient culture, rich in spiritual culture, is unmatched by any other culture in the world and its value system which is based on, and aims at, direct realization of the ultimate reality, holds great promise for the future welfare of humanity" (Bhajanananda, 2013:21). Furthermore, different societies have different values. Indian values aim to build up well-being and harmony amongst humankind, the pursuit of divine knowledge and ethical living with nature (Bhajanananda, 2013).

Globalisation can both swallow up cultures and also integrate them into the whole world, and more research is required to explore these outcomes (Sukeníková, 2016). Concerns about one-sided globalisation may create ambivalence amongst consumers who come from cultures that are not dominant in the way the social and economic world is structured. Studies show that not all consumers want to embrace global influences on their culture because it is important for some consumers to preserve their cultural heritage (Harris and Crane, 2002).

Marketers play a role in increasing the effectiveness of companies to stay ahead of the competition while keeping up with the everyday business of consumers across different cultures. Comprehensive approaches are therefore required to target customers in ways that affirm their feelings, beliefs and practices. Kotler and Keller (2012) promote marketing orientations that are holistic and Sukeníková (2016) posits that marketers have to strive to get it right. Perhaps, consumers may be unconscious of the amount of economic power they possess (Pelsmacker, 2010; Schiffman and Kanuk, 1997). However, marketers cannot afford complacency and risk losing customers for their business clients. The astute marketing approach is to analyse both the cultural factors and broader environmental circumstances that influence the perceptions and practices of individual consumers who are positioned at the core of this arrangement (Sukeníková, 2016; Solomon, 2013; Lancaster and Reynolds, 2002). The

challenge for marketers is to get it right when promoting ecologically sustainable commodities (Jha *et al*., 2017). Billions of dollars in the United States are dispersed in order to sustain the value of hygiene (Shannahan, 2004:17). The Chinese and India, where poor hygiene remains a source of ill health, can be said to place a lower value on cleanliness, comparatively speaking (Kurian, 2002).

In marketing research, there seems to be a general consensus regarding the significant influence of culture on consumer behaviour (Hofstede *et al*., 2011:84). Theories that were applied in the past include individualism-collectivism; cultural differences in complaint behaviour (Luna and Gupta, 2001:46) and (Liu and McClure, 2001:57); consumer innovativeness (Steenkamp, 2001:32); consumer retailing (Mooij and Hofstede, 2002:81); and impulse buying (Kacen and Lee, 2002:164).

Despite the common application of the individualism-collectivism theory in the investigation of consumer behaviour (Bond *et al*., 2004), the same cannot be said about its users focusing on high-involvement products (Gupta *et al*., 2001). However, evidence suggests that culture inhibits the intentions of consumers to purchase high-involvement products (Henry, 1976). Darku and Akpan (2020:645) conducted a study to evaluate 'buy local' campaigns that were run in South Africa and Ghana to encourage consumers to support locally produced goods and services rather than foreign brands. The study took place in Cape Town to evaluate attitudes towards the Wear South African campaign and the National Friday Wear in Accra. The study found that the National Friday Wear campaign captured the popular imagination and was spread through word-of-mouth whereas the Wear South African campaign was less enthusiastically received by the public. The use of cultural rhetoric to influence the buying decisions of consumers in two different cultures produced different results. Thus, consumers attach different meanings to their cultural symbols.

2.4 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURAL VALUES

Organisations allow different members to come and go, yet the essence of the organisation persists despite changes in the composition of the membership, which is called organisational culture (Hadjri, Perizade and Farla 2019). It enables different group members to face challenges together because they share the same assumptions (Schein, 1992). Organisations' cultural values find expression in the shared norms and processes of an organisation and set the tone for the existing internal climate (Szydło and Bukłaho, 2020). It creates positive

attitudes and motivations towards work (Grant, 2007). Following the work of (Barney, 1986), organisational culture is also referred to as corporate culture (Bukłaho *et al.*, 2020).

Organisational cultural values are about the various elements that make up an organisation such as the internal arrangements, relationships and systems that are designed to allow an organisation to perform better and achieve its goals in the world (Beyer and Trice, 1987). It is the bond that allows organisations to make an impact and solidity internal cohesion (Barney, 1989:658). The nature of the organisations' cultural values that exist can be determined by a few related factors. These include the character of the organisation's leadership and management (Schein; 1992); alignment with the business strategy (Belias and Koustelios, 2014) and the flexibility to handle internal or external change (Burke, 2000).

Additionally, there must be collective awareness and ownership of the organisational cultural values to allow an organisation to implement necessary organisational changes or manage unforeseen environmental threats (Jha *et al.*, 2017; Burke, 2000). Unless it is understood and harnessed properly, organisational culture can frustrate organisational change (Bukłaho *et al.*, 2020). From a marketing perspective, cultural values are seen both as a constraint which slows product development as consultations are required to obtain the buy-in of key stakeholders, and an opportunity to reach a wider range of customers (Koustelios *et al.*, 2014).

The transformation of organisational culture is a complex mission. Right from the outset, the priority areas, justifications and the time-frames must be agreed upon and outlined (Tortorella, Vergara, Garza-Reyes and Sawhney, 2020). The challenge for leaders in dealing with organisational culture is to develop a shared view about the meaning of an organisation's cultural values amongst different members of the group. Thus, the leadership has to facilitate power sharing to allow the process to flow, formulating inclusive strategies and wider ownership and acceptance (Jha *et al.*, 2017).

2.5 CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

Consumer behaviour is the analysis of the bundle of factors that influences consumers to purchase particular supplies. The study of consumer behaviour involves the observation of consumers, expecting to have their needs satisfied through the acquisition of products and services, going through a process to search, purchase, consume, value assess and discard

undesired commodities (Barmola and Srivastava, 2010). In other words, it involves awareness of the favourites and tastes of buyers, their expectations and spending habits, as well as their sense of status and prestige (Stankevich, 2017). Marketers create a feedback loop to analyse the responses of different groups of consumers to the various products and services that are offered by suppliers. Gaining an advantage over the competition requires industry players to develop strategies to keep up with the changing demands, characteristics, patterns and loyalties of consumers (Money, *et al.*, 1998; Kumar, 2007). For example, a study into the factors that influence the purchase of specialty products amongst Moslems in Morocco found that the global culture moderated the impact of religious beliefs and personal attitudes (Nwankwo, Hamelin and Khaled, 2014:737). It showed that consumers buy what they can afford and women were more responsive to marketing stimuli than men. Therefore, the behaviour of different segments of consumers within the same country can be influenced by different sets of cultural factors.

2.5.1 Relationship between culture and consumer behaviour

The relationship between culture and consumer behaviour can be observed in the choices and actions of individuals regarding what kind of needs and wants are acceptable within their society and what is acceptable or not acceptable to do to meet them. Cultural norms and values dictate the appropriate menu for food and drink to be served during rituals and the attire to be worn during ceremonies (Kumar *et al.*, 2007). Specialty products may be seen as distasteful in one culture. Therefore, a sophisticated approach is required to define customers and to develop communication channels and messages towards reaching them and motivating their purchasing decisions. Marketers have to make accurate predictions about the acceptability of particular products amongst diverse cultures. Since culture involves a variety of unwritten rules, unspoken messages, invisible bonds as well as symbols and codes whose meaning is known within the members of a group, the lack of cultural awareness may backfire on casual marketing strategies that do not place adequate emphasis on the consumption patterns in different cultures (Kumar *et al.*, 2007).

Issues such as the consumer's position with the family or their loyalty to specific mass media channels can be affected what they buy and where they buy. It must be accepted that the consumer culture in the Third World setting is likely to demand more than production over consumption. In order to achieve market penetration, businesses have to match the cultural expectations of consumers and build customer loyalty (Comănescu, 2019). Marketers must

develop sufficient cultural sensitivity in order to develop effective strategies and avoid a hostile response from the consumer. Since traditional societies place emphasis on teaching individuals to observe and follow the society around them in order to regulate their own behaviour accordingly, this also determines the purchasing decisions of consumers, particularly regarding specialty products (Leo, Bennett and Hartel, 2005).

Culture is a celebration of history and guarantees a sense of belonging in the unknown future. Rituals are important to preserve the way of life from the past beyond today and to impart shared knowledge, practices and values. Access to the knowledge about the origin, meaning and performance of specific rituals within a culture can allow marketers to position their products in a manner that is sensitive to consumers. Clearly, culture is a key influence on purchasing decisions and consumption habits. For example, a study amongst fashion lovers in Mexico found that their intentions to purchase were influenced by the cultural context, as well as their personal preferences in following particular trends and their loyalty to specific stores and brands (Rajagopal, 2010).

2.6 FACTORS INFLUENCING CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

According to Bytygi *et al.* (2022: 293), consumer behaviour is a complex phenomenon; which starts with perceptions, through which attitudes and opinions are shaped, and in turn, manifest in behaviour. Pinki (2014) notes that many factors influence the individual in their consumption and purchase decision behaviour. Figure 2.1 illustrates the factors influencing purchase behaviour. Among these factors include culture, subculture, social class, family, personality, and psychological factors (Pinki, 2014). The aforementioned factors caused consumers to develop product and brand preferences (Pinki, 2014). By identifying and understanding the factors that influence HEI staff purchase behaviour towards specialty products, marketers and brand promoters may have the opportunity to develop a strategy to better meet the needs of its customers and increase sales. The subsections below detail the factors affecting consumer purchase behaviour.

Figure 2.1: Factors affecting Consumer Behaviour
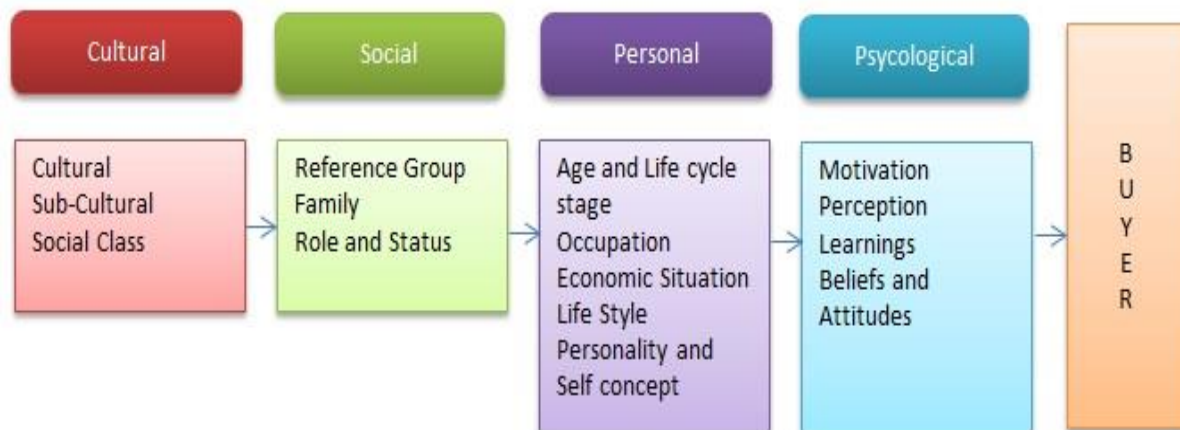
Source: Adapted from (www.wordpress.com) The factors that influence consumer behaviour may derive from culture, society as well as other individual characteristics.

2.6.1 Cultural influence

Families, schools and other institutions in different societies teach those cultural values and norms that are essential for those who belong to the group. Marketers have to take care to conduct an accurate analysis in order to develop strategies that are sensitive to the culture that is practised in each geographical location (Jisana, 2014). Market segmentation can be used to focus on the various racial, religious or language sub-cultures that are found in a particular location (Sarpong, 2014). For example, marketers of high-end cars who are targeting consumers with different cultural values must make attempts to not overwhelm these consumers with too much information that may lack appeal within their culture (Trompenaars and Woolliams, 2004).

A qualitative study to look into the relationship between cultural values and consumer behaviour in Nigeria found that the effect of globalisation was limited to secondary values (Halliru, 2013). For example, the core cultural values regarding the differentiation of gender roles between males and females are likely to remain intact, while there may be flexibility in rules regarding the appropriate dress code. Furthermore, a study on consumer behaviour towards specialty products found the influence of social value perceptions amongst consumers in the city of Bursa in Turkey (Ercis and Celik, 2018). Consumers search for products that have relevance to their personal needs as well as those of the family and society in which they find themselves, which form their reference groups.

Pentz, Terblanche, and Boshoff (2017) conducted a study to investigate the influence of ethnocentrism among black and white South African consumers. Findings showed that both black and white consumers were influenced by cultural openness; patriotism and individualism; and also that white consumers were influenced by nationalism, while black consumers found it acceptable to buy imports.

2.6.2 Social class

Societies often organise themselves according to rigid hierarchies where individuals are ranked based on their designated status or standing. This is social class and it has an effect on consumer behaviour. Since it creates explicit divisions among members of society, it is to be expected that consumers behave according to their class position and avoid pursuits that are regarded as unacceptable for their class (Kumar, and Kumar, 2019).

Due to the historical divisions in South Africa, the concept of class is fraught with conflict and contestation, which are beyond the scope of this particular study. For example, Burger, Steenekamp, Van der Berg and Zoch (2015:28) state that four different approaches are used in the analysis of 'class'. Class position is allocated by measuring occupational skills, vulnerability towards social and economic shocks, comparisons of the income divide and subjective social status. Therefore, targeting the middle-class demands careful analysis and comparisons of different sets of data.

Lappeman, Ferreira, Robertson and Chikweche (2019) conducted interviews with experts in order to define the features of the concept of a middle class in South Africa. The authors concluded that two types of the middle class can be identified in South Africa, namely the emerging middle class and the established middle class. The authors identified nine key obstacles that the emerging middle class have to overcome. Namely, the absence of a fall-back position in times of emergencies; inherited responsibilities to look after the family; tenuous asset ownership through indebtedness; proficiency in the English language and pride in the home language when making choices; local versus global modernisation; reliance on government's redress policies to achieve career aspirations; an ambiguous approach towards risk protection such as insurance and life policies; barriers towards education, where it is hard to live closer to opportunities for lifelong learning; and unfulfilled travel aspirations.

The growth of the black middle class is regarded as an informal measure of the progress or failure of the post-apartheid government to address the legacies of the past, namely inequality,

poverty and unemployment. Chikweche and Fletcher (2014) conducted a study to investigate consumers' purchasing decisions of the middle class in Botswana, Ghana, Kenya and South Africa. Factors used to define the middle class were economic indicators such as level of income; asset and home ownership; public infrastructure, especially electricity; as well as social indicators such as level of education, healthcare and residential location. The study found that the middle class in South Africa indicated greater aspiration for and were predisposed towards the acquisition of specialty products and imports in comparison to the other three countries. Branding, technical features and the performance of products and peers or social networks were found to be the top determinants of purchasing decisions amongst the middle class.

2.6.3 Social factors

Social factors, namely the reference groups, family, role and status, also impact the buying behaviour of consumers (Jisana, 2014:35). These are further elaborated below.

(a) **Reference Groups**:

Groups are formed by two or more individuals with a shared, defining feature and relationships that are sustained through interdependence. Reference groups are two or more companions who have a direct or indirect influence on the mindsets, selections and activities of each other. There are several categories of reference groups and these can all serve to either positively or negatively impact consumers' selection of specialty products (Gajjar, 2013). According to Ramya and Ali (2016:78), the perceptions and behaviour of individuals can be attributed to the direct or indirect influence of their frequent social interactions, namely primary and secondary reference groups. It is these reference groups that provide the prescripts for what is allowed or not allowed for the individual to think, feel or do. Family members and friends form the primary reference groups, while the secondary reference group is drawn from people in the local area, workplace or school.

Fernandes and Panda (2018) conducted a literature review of the influence of reference groups on consumer behaviour amongst different consumer segments. The literature shows that females are more susceptible to the social cues that determine what to buy, or not to buy which come from their husbands, parents, siblings, relatives and friends or colleagues. Cultural differences in the effect of reference groups were seen in previous studies. For example, peer influence plays a bigger role in the United States, with an individualist culture; whereas in Thailand, the reference group was the family since this is a collectivist culture. It was found in

the literature that reference groups become more relevant to consumer purchasing decisions regarding exclusive and brand products, which brings into focus individual considerations about being noticed for their conspicuous consumption as against the acquisition of private necessities.

(b) **Family**:

Two types of families can be identified in the buyer's life, namely nuclear and joint families. Nuclear families are smaller and individual members can take independent decisions, whereas joint families are larger and decisions have to align with the collective. Families influence purchasing behaviour in two ways:

> i) Through inherited similar features and shared beliefs and habits; and
>
> ii) To influence how the purchasing decision is made, for example, due to the allocated
>
> position and role.

Marketers must be responsive to the family dynamics around the purchase of specialty products and other goods (Fang, Chau, Wong, Fung and Woo, 2017).

Family membership has a significant influence on consumer behaviour since families allocate a clearly defined role and sphere of influence for each individual. However, it is not enough for marketers to develop marketing strategies for particular products based on common stereotypes. For instance, gender roles in families. Sometimes it is lifestyle factors that dictate roles and therefore purchasing decisions in the family (Kumar, 2019).

Furthermore, breadwinners and siblings who are not necessarily parents themselves can be expected to provide support to their family in those cultures where it is expected of them to do so. Lappeman *et al*. (2019) argued that there are two types of middle class in South Africa. One of the differentiations is family responsibility and the absence of a social safety net. There is the emerging middle class in South Africa, which is predominantly black and which has family responsibilities that stretch into the extended family system where their regular contribution is expected. On the other hand, for the established middle class, which is predominantly white, it is only those who are parents who have to carry the load of their nuclear family. Moreover, members of the emerging middle class are often the first amongst their families to acquire social and economic mobility towards the higher rank, but they remain vulnerable to shocks

due to their lack of access to long-term financial security and economic support from family and friends during difficult periods.

(c) **Roles and Status**:

Individuals take part in different types of groups based on familial, social, recreational or work bonds. Members are allocated explicit or implicit roles where they have to perform particular functions and the allotted status regarding their rank in the structure of the group. Individuals make purchasing decisions to announce and confirm their status and role in society. The role of marketers is to keep up with the changing trends in which commodities and brands carry the prestige of status (Gajjar, 2013).

Individuals are expected to play specific given roles in society and they are allocated status according to culturally determined factors such as age, gender and position (Jisana, 2014). These affect what they need to buy and how they are going to consume it. For example, a study on consumer behaviour towards specialty coffee products in the South African market found gender differences in consumption (Van der Merwe and Maree, 2016). The social significance of the purchase and consumption of specialty products is to indicate exclusive taste, in addition to concern for environmental sustainability, quality production, the collaboration between producers and consumers, as well as the ambience created by the aroma and the setting of coffee outlets. More males than females were found to consume specialty coffee, with a frequency of more than once per day and a preference for foam cappuccinos.

(d) **Personal Factors**:

A study to investigate purchasing behaviour amongst high-income consumers in China found a preference for specialty products among these consumers (Wang and Tong, 2017). It was suggested that the consumption of these goods aimed to satisfy both material and social needs.

Additionally, Emmanuel-Stephen and Gbadamosi (2021) conducted a study to investigate the factors that influence the consumer behaviour of black women in the United Kingdom towards luxury fashion. The results showed the influence of societal pressure; personal bonding with objects; the sense of belonging to society; and a cultural connection to assert their identity. Consumers obtain meaning from specialty products to make personal statements and also connect with others.

- Age

Consumers change their purchasing habits and preferences with the passing of time as they grow older and assume new roles and responsibilities as per the demands of their life cycle (Ali *et al*., 2016). For instance, the spending priorities of teenagers will be very different to those of their parents. A study amongst students in Malaysia found that students' perceptions of the brand, quality and price determined their intentions towards purchasing (Osman, Arif and Yean, 2018). Specialty products appealed to the lifestyles and spending power of the students and brought them the satisfaction of subjective self-esteem needs as well as pleasure in the consumption of these goods. Furthermore, the studies show that the influence of reference is unlikely to diminish because individuals in their middle ages were found to respond to social influence from those around them (Fernandes and Panda, 2018:275).

- Gender

Males and females have different perceptions of how the market works in its offerings of various products. Market researchers are also aware of the reasoning of males and females in creating gender-specific products. Specialty product manufacturers have specifications that need to be adhered to when dealing with males and females. For example, perfumes, fancy sports cars, expensive clothing and high-end sports or camera equipment preferences and buying behaviour will be unique to each gender (Hwang, Lee and Kim, 2019).

- Nationality and Race

An increase in international business has shown an increase in different products and brands. This impacts nationality, religion and race groups, ensuring that there are no hurt feelings or any offence in the advertising or branding. Demographic segmentation seems to be increasing due to the geographic area of businesses also increasing. This suggests that purchasing behaviour will be affected, for example, different languages should be considered in different nationalities and the diversity of purchasing specialty products. Every culture and race group has different preferences, purchasing patterns, specialty product interests and marketing responses. However, many businesses have to alter their marketing strategies and advertising based on different nationalities and ethnic preferences and beliefs throughout their customer segments (Hwang *et al*., 2019).

- Income

Individuals are segmented according to their monthly or yearly income, and personal or household income. This is suitable and effective when there is a highly specialised niche market with high-priced products such as specialty products. However, income segmentation can also be used for inexpensive products. By classifying both inexpensive and expensive products under different segments, a clearer picture is painted and feedback on affordability is clarified.

- Occupation

Occupations can place demands on individual lifestyle choices, personal image and perceived status, which will impact the type of purchasing decisions they have to make (Jisana, 2014). For example, the introduction of electronic payment methods amongst low-income consumers is not a predictor of the potential increase in spending. Greenacre and Akbar (2019) conducted a study into the effects of a cashless debit card system amongst social security grant beneficiaries in Australia and found that there was no significant increase in the purchasing behaviour of consumers. Low-income consumers appeared not susceptible to the marketing and competitive inducements by businesses to reduce prices to attract sales. Although the low-income consumers did not show a willingness to spend more when given the advantages of debit card transactions, these consumers became more sensitive to other cues such as the brand and quality of products.

- Qualification and Education

Every individual's education needs differ and each level of education brings about new knowledge and experiences which will affect how, where, what and why individuals purchase in unique ways. Occupation also inevitably affects purchasing behaviour and can play a role in the preferences of specialty product purchases. For example, some doctors and nurses will make different food choices compared to construction or mine workers or truck drivers. Top executives in prestigious positions will probably opt for specialty clothing choices, certain factory workers will require overalls, or school children will have set uniforms.

2.7 CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR AND BUYER BEHAVIOUR

A consumer is an individual subject visiting a shopping centre or going online to conduct shopping for products or services, whilst consumerism refers to the individual behaviour to integrate shopping into their recreational and past-time pursuit time (Comănescu, 2019:).

The process of consumption of products or services is an expression of individual identity in making choices, as it is also shaped by the prevailing environment in the society, culture and economy (Sharma and Jha. 2017). Individual satisfaction from their selection of products is drawn from their own perceptions as well as the anticipated responses of those around them. A study conducted by Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) found that there are symbolic, hedonic and aesthetic elements in the experience of buying that are part of the process of consumption. Purchasing can bring different emotions to consumers namely, feelings of pleasure, creativity and accomplishment.

Consumer behaviour "reflects the totality of consumers' decisions with respect to the acquisition, consumption and disposition of goods, services, time and ideas by human decision-making units," Solomon (2011:48) went on to state that consumer behaviour includes the role that marketers play to sell products and services to consumers and influence their purchasing decisions and consumption habits. The American Marketing Association defines consumer behaviour as "a dynamic interaction regarding impression and perception, behaviour and common natural events, through which human beings direct the changes taking place in their lives" (Grigorut and Comanescu, 2007:93).

In other words, "The field of consumer behaviour studies deals with how individuals, groups and organizations select, buy, use and dispose of goods, services, ideas or experiences that meet their needs and desires" (Kotler, 2003:233). These definitions encapsulate the complexity and multi-dimensionality of the personal, social and economic factors that lie behind the concept of consumer behaviour. It is a study that demands interdisciplinary research.

The study of consumer behaviour has been able to analyse the subtle shifts amongst consumers to embrace the leisure and entertainment value of shopping centres and to embrace online shopping. Leisure seems to have attracted considerable interest in the literature. According to Rodríguez and Agulló (2002:126), leisure involves spending time to take part in activities that are separate from the ordinary daily tasks of living. Shopping centres have restructured themselves beyond commercial activities in line with the consumer trends towards the importance of leisure and entertainment pursuits, consumers expect shopping centres to integrate recreation into the shopping experience (Millan and Howard, 2007).

The constantly changing line-up of movies that are offered in cinemas introduces the necessary variety to influence the decisions of consumers, it has been suggested that the diverse cultural characteristics that shape the values and lifestyles of consumers also regulate their leisure activities in shopping centres (Brengman, Geuens, Weijters, Smith and Swinyard. 2005).

It is important to link the understanding of the growth of online shopping with the usage of the internet amongst consumers. A study by Chen, Chang and Chen (2017) investigating the value of social commerce on consumers found that users of a retail website wanted features that support both online shopping and social networking. This showed that the consumers expected utilitarian value in the usability of the medium, as well as hedonic value through the satisfaction of affective needs from making connections to other shoppers. This suggests that there is an expectation amongst consumers of both useful information, convenience transaction, as well as entertainment and opportunities for socialising (Swinyard *et al.*, 2005).

Consumers can save themselves when they conduct instant transactions on the web and interactions on social media. A study looking at how internet usage affected the leisure behaviour of consumers in shopping centres conducted comparisons between online and box-office ticket sales, interestingly, fewer cinema-goers conduct online bookings than those who buy printed tickets (Doury, 2001).

Intermediaries have been established to facilitate the transactions between consumers and service providers in the film and entertainment industry, and further studies are required to explore the implications this has for consumer behaviour (Hwang and Jeong, 2016). The virtual behaviour of individuals generated evidence that has led to the increase of platforms that cater for the leisure needs of consumers (Rondán-Cataluña, Arenas-Gaitán and Ramírez-Correa, 2015). Consumers take their leisure pursuits seriously and it is often the reason for using technology in order to reach out and establish social, organisational or practical connections (Rabbiosi, 2016).

Religion, family and the levels of cultural uniformity or diversity also influence consumer behaviour. For example, followers of Islam and the Catholic faith are expected to purchase articles that have a symbolic value about their religion, as compared to the Chinese to whom the influence of religious beliefs is not as significant (Al-Makaty *et al.*, 1996). Research on consumer behaviour in Mexico shows that adolescents appreciate parental involvement in their

purchasing decisions when compared to those in the United States (Keillor, Parker and Schaffer, 1996). It is important to recognise differences across cultures in the conceptualisation of a family as a narrow or broad unit. Amongst less individualistic Indian consumers, purchasing decisions are affected both by constructive family considerations and discouragement (Kripalani, 2005).

Uniform cultures are likely to be less tolerant towards divergent consumer behaviour, while diverse cultures will be more individualistic and place less value on collectivism. Research shows that in the uniform and collectivist cultures of Japan and China, consumers follow similar trends; whereas in the diverse and individualistic cultures of the United Kingdom and the United States, personal factors have more influence on consumers (Sun, Horn and Merritt. 2005).

2.8. SUB-CULTURE AND INDIVIDUALS' SPECIALTY PRODUCTS PURCHASES

A sub-culture stands out as a market segment with its own beliefs, values and habits even though it keeps its organic integration into the bigger group from which it originated (Mathur, Guiry, and Tikoo, 2016). Individuals with the desire to escape some of the cultural restrictions in their broader society can often set themselves apart through the formation of sub-cultures (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011). Since it descended from the wider culture of a society, a sub-culture affects consumer behaviour because it influences what the individual eventually deems as acceptable desires and what is appropriate to do in order to fulfil them (Mathur *et al.,* 2003). Figure 2.2 illustrates the path between individuals, their sub-cultures and purchase behaviour.

Since shared beliefs and proximity influence culture, the formation of sub-cultures is also linked to religious values and geographic regions (Choonga, Drennanb, Weeks and Weber, 2021). For example, cultural societies in the south and north of India bring different languages, dress codes, songs and cuisine, the same factors which obviously apply to their behaviour as consumers (Kumar *et al*., 2007). Sub-cultures are however not immune to cross-cultural stimuli, such as the fashion trends of people who are exposed to the mass media influence on attitude, lifestyle and brand culture. In India, gradual cultural changes have been observed due to consumer behaviour (Akhter *et al*., 2019). Women also form an important sub-culture as a demographic social group with shared values and lifestyles, as well as a consumer group.

Unique products that target women range from educational courses to household appliances; health and wellness equipment and services; and cosmetic products (Akhter *et al*., 2019).

Figure: 2.2: Individuals' linkage to cultural values, sub-culture and market behaviour
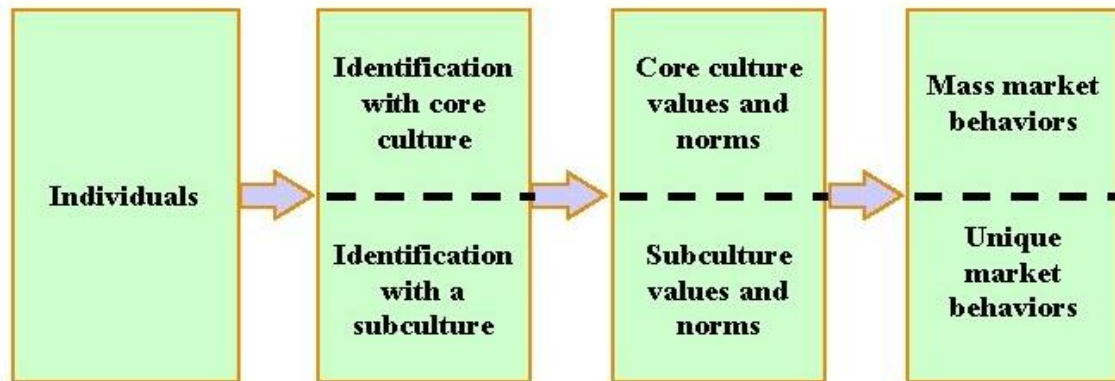
In the particular context of this study on the influence of cultural values on the consumption of specialty products amongst staff members in the higher education sector, it cannot be ignored that universities belong to the broader public sector. The public sector can adopt elements of a sub-culture where staff members are driven by a set of values, motivations and priorities that derive from the broader society, whilst also remaining distinct from those of the private sector. Ritz and Brewer (2013) conducted a study in Switzerland and found a relationship between the levels of motivation among public servants and those working in their home geographic regions and sharing a mother tongue. Public servants at the municipal level showed improved commitment to their jobs, compassion for their clients and hard work where there was a shared identity and culture.

2.9 CULTURAL CHANGE AND PURCHASING BEHAVIOUR

Three important factors must be taken into account when addressing cultural change, namely; culture is subtle (Goffee and Jones 2013) and ubiquitous (Vélez-Agosto, Soto-Crespo, Vizcarrondo-Oppenheimer, Vega-Molina and Coll, 2017); consensus about the form of the new culture (Jha *et al*., 2017; Burke, 2000); and the ability of leaders to influence the responses

of group members (Jha *et al.*, 2017). Ultimately, cultural change has to change what people think and do (Hatch, 2018; Davidson, 2002).

Furthermore, since culture is a dynamic rather than static phenomenon, changes in the historical context do have an influence on culture and in turn, affect the kinds of purchasing and consumption that is permissible. Patsiaouras (2017) analyzed the consumption patterns amongst United Kingdom consumers and found evidence of the embrace of unconventional conspicuous consumption since the end of the Second World War. From 1945 to 2000, society acquired a taste for specialty and status-driven consumption, which was influenced by youth fashions, global trade and rapid changes in technology. Consumption adds one more element for individuals within a culture to display the power they hold, the class to which they belong and their disposable income.

2.10 ROLE OF CULTURAL VALUES AND CONSUMER BUSINESSES

There are cultural differences in the manner of conducting business in different parts of the world. Western business leaders, such as the United States and Europe, may strive for efficient time, while Asian business leaders may emphasise personal engagement (Kumar *et al.*, 2007). The lack of sensitivity regarding diverse cultural norms, beliefs and choices may result in a breakdown in communication among partners (Firat and Venkatesh, 1995). For example, the global fast-food chain from the United States, Mcdonald's, designs different packages for each market segment across the world. On the other hand, Wal-Mart, a successful retailer in the United States, was not able to penetrate the German market due to its incongruent approach to human resource management. The style of management in a country is influenced by the cultural values of that particular nation (Gannon and Pillai, 2010).

Moreover, consumers interpret the meaning of products according to their own cultural values, while the products, as artistic commercial objects, also communicate particular messages to the world (Schlereth 1982). Consumers appropriate subjective meaning into their purchases based on their expectations and experiences of consumption (McCracken, 2021). Industries create goods for consumers, while the goods themselves also create a particular consumer culture in different contexts (Pietrewicz, 2015). Marketers have to customise their approaches towards different cultural segments and take into account how to best align their operations and branding strategies with diverse and ever-changing consumer perceptions (Kumar *et al.*, 2007). In addition, culture influences purchasing decisions and consumption habits (Milner, 2000),

while the consumption of products may generate prestige (Deutsch and Theodorou, 2010). There is a two-way flow as consumers look at products through their culture at the very same time as these products lead to subtle changes to the culture of consumers (McCracken, 2021).

2.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The preceding section of the thesis provided a review of the relevant literature to discuss the importance of cultural values and culture and its influence on consumer behaviour. The discussion covered the following items, namely culture, consumer behaviour, factors influencing consumer behaviour consumer purchases, consumer behaviour and buyer behaviour, sub-cultural influence on individual's specialty products purchases, cultural values in different cultures, the organisational cultural values, the role of cultural values and consumer businesses, and the role of cultural values and consumer businesses. It is evident from this chapter that cultural values serve to both create and interpret the world and consumer products live in this kind of world (McCracken, 1986). It is easy to ignore culture since it is invisible and operates in the background until something goes wrong (Kanuk *et al*., 1997). Literature abounds with studies that highlight the practical and theoretical implications for marketers to engage consumers from different cultures, especially to avoid a consumer backlash, to secure their identity and reject perceived cultural assimilation (Doku and Asante, 2011; Dimofte, Johansson and Bagozzi, 2010; Le Meunier-FitzHugh and Piercy, 2010; and Holt, Quelch and Taylor, 2004).

The next section provides an overview of the implications of culture, cultural values and specialty products in the context of higher education.

CHAPTER 3

CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR IN THE CONTEXT OF HIGHER EDUCATION: AN OVERVIEW OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CULTURE, CULTURAL VALUES AND SPECIALTY PRODUCTS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided a review of the relevant literature on the importance of cultural values and culture and the influence thereof on consumer behaviour. This chapter of the thesis provides an overview of the implications of culture, cultural values and specialty products in the context of higher education. The discussion covers the following items: specialty products; consumer behaviour relating to specialty products; an overview of the South African Higher Education Sector; the cultural dynamics at the Mangosuthu University of Technology; cultural characteristics and values; culture and consumer behaviour; and the relationship between cultural values and consumer behaviour.

3.2 SPECIALTY PRODUCTS

Specialty products are sold in specialty stores, which specialise in nothing else except specific brands or specific sets of brands (Agbele, Akase, Igyuve, and Akpede, 2019). Consumers go to these outlets, sometimes travelling long distances to find the preferred products. Specialty products are less likely to lose consumer loyalty and hence can demand a price premium. The marketer has to capture the role played by the culture of the buyer, sub-culture and social class. When a customer purchases specialty products, it seems to be rare that the exact behaviour is stimulated. Every specialty product differs from one type to another. In buying behaviour, a great deal of decision-making goes into planning the purchase of specialty products (Akbari, 2015).

Specialty products, over and above their unique and specialised character and commercial values, also communicate cultural meaning (Farrington, Venter and Richardson, 2018). These products are solid in nature, thus giving rise to the cultural meaning, which is intangible. Many customers embrace objects to become a part of self by habituation, knowledge (familiarity), self-creation, proximity or metonymic association with loved ones (Kumar *et al.,* 2007). Three vital factors validate consumers' decision-making when purchasing specialty products, namely the need to provide reasons for actions; accessibility of associations; and cognitive pressures (Richardson *et al*., 2018).

3.3 CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR RELATING TO SPECIALTY PRODUCTS

Consumers who are willing to invest extra time and effort in their purchase of specialty products have distinct characteristics and are generally brand-specific. This habitual willingness from consumers enables them to locate their preferred brands, services or products. When buying consumer products, a consumer almost always has a pre-determined notion or need or pattern for buying both convenience and specialty products. The major difference in the buying patterns of the two is that whereas convenience goods require low involvement, specialty products require high involvement. For example, consumers who buy convenience goods display high levels of brand loyalty and can pick whichever product is easily available under budget, whereas those buying specialty products show high levels of brand loyalty, and may go the extra mile to find the brand they wish to buy, the consumer may also pay a premium to acquire that specific brand (Lamb *et al*., 2015).

There is a diversity of specialty products and brands. However, consumers are only aware of some of the specific products and brands. Therefore, consumers' decisions when obtaining specialty products are often based on the knowledge that they already have embedded in their minds. Most of the data that individuals have interpreted may not be available in their memory when they are making decisions to purchase specialty products. This kind of selectivity is known as perceptual defences (Hawkins, 2012). Many consumers tend to pay more attention to stimuli that greatly contrast with their personal background, rather than focusing on those that blend in with it. For instance, when advertising Nissan, its use of colour advertisements for its Infinity G35 in various newspapers alludes to a valuable display of contrast (Hawkins *et al*., 2015).

Consumers purchase specialty products not on the basis of their brand attributes, but mainly on the feelings, perceptions and emotions that are associated with acquiring or using the brand. Therefore, consumers' decisions on the various brands of products may not be selected based on brand attributes such as price or style, but because it makes consumers feel good or their peers might like it (Hawkins *et al*., 2015). When consumers decide which store to purchase from, they take into consideration a variety of factors, including the atmosphere of the store; the music playing and ambience; the presentation of the products; floor coverings; and customer service. Particularly with regard to music, it must match the preferences of the target audience. Similarly, certain environments may be pleasing to some consumers, whilst others

may upset certain consumers. Therefore, stores must have a thorough knowledge of their customers (Conradie, Roberts-Lombard and Klopper. 2014).

Another important factor when consumers make decisions about which store to purchase from is whether that particular store is known for stock-outs or is always fully stocked. For instance, if a consumer wants to purchase a designer perfume at a particular store but the store does not have stock, then there could be severe consequences in the mind of the consumer. The high prices of specialty products may have a great influence on the intentions of the purchase and the satisfaction of the purchase. Should certain products be placed on special, the discount price for specific customers such as senior citizens, club members and frequent fliers must not be different from less frequent consumers (Schiffman *et al.*, 1997).

Customers' attitudes and lifestyles have an impact on what brands and specialty products they acquire. Marketers aim to control consumer behaviour by changing the attitude components. Marketers use strategies such as altering customer beliefs or adding beliefs to their shopping behaviour. To some consumers, a sports car is a need and to others sit is imply a material desire where a person may need a car to get to work and back; whilst yet others may want a car to modify it for car shows. This is a sign of either independence or social status. Advertisers of cars as specialty products should not overwhelm consumers with textures, colours, stimuli, movement and colours. They should have a motive which depicts that all consumer behaviour and cultural values will appreciate the advertising. This will allow consumers to take more interest in the product (Trompenaars and Woolliams, 2004). Understanding buyer behaviour has become a key theme in marketing since it provides marketers with the frameworks and tools for identifying and understanding user needs.

Customers of specialty products often take time to conduct research and are willing to spend additional time on such purchases. These consumers spend extra time seeking their desired specialty products since they are particularly loyal to certain brands. For example, a certain type of decadent chocolate will be purchased instead of all other available types of candy. Generally, they are not price-sensitive and will pay any price to ensure they acquire what they are looking for (Hsiao and Chen, 2016). In addition, consumers who purchase specialty products do not easily accept any substitute products and they will habitually go the extra mile to get the products they want. Whilst specialty products are not always expensive, they do

generally cost more than normal substitute products. For example, a brand of aged wine will be more expensive than other normal wines (Lamb *et al*., 2015).

When it comes to loyal consumers, generally the price is not a vital component as these consumers are looking for specific brands to match their own personal preferences. Some examples of specialty products are expensive sports cars, high-quality clothing, unique paintings, pipes, fittings, exclusive watches, fancy clothing, groceries, stunning shoes and various types of amazing photographic equipment. In addition, the lifestyles of individuals embrace either an extravagant or simple ethos, which generally impacts consumer behaviour and their choices of specialty products.

In Ghana, consumer buying behaviour is influenced by culture. Research shows that culture has a positive influence on consumer buying behaviour but does not exert a greater influence on consumers' purchases and buying behaviour of branded clothing, preferences and personal factors. Other factors that would possibly exert more influence on consumers' choices of branded clothing include economic, global and demographic factors (Sarpong, 2014).

A study conducted in Nigeria looked at how cultural factors affect consumers' purchasing of pork. The findings of this study showed that cultural factors have a positive and significant influence on consumers' purchasing of pork. Many cultures prohibit the eating of pork, whilst, in other cultures, their staple diet is pork (Akpan, 2016). Notwithstanding the fact that a set of values shapes an individual's purchasing behaviour, extant research investigated how cultural values affect the different ethnic groups in Nigeria. This study found one similar trait, which is the collectivist approach whereby male dominance is higher than that of a woman when it comes to the purchasing of products. In addition, it was noted that religion plays a vital role in determining which products are acceptable or not in certain cultures (Halliru, 2013). Similarly, a study in Turkey showed that culture does not only affect consumer behaviour, but also the purchases of products from families, personalities and cultural values (Durmaz, 2014).

Consumers in emerging markets, in comparison to their counterparts in the developed world, are said to be less experienced and familiar with the meaning behind particular brands, which they need in order to be able to make accurate and informed decisions during selection and consumption. Atwal and Bryson (2014:87) identified four segments of the consumer market

for specialty products in South Africa, namely The deluxe aspirer who was driven by conspicuous consumption; The self-made or new money who wanted to announce their newly acquired wealth; The established business magnates who are collectors and connoisseurs; and The money aristocracy who come from privilege. Stiehler (2016) conducted a qualitative study to explore the particular meaning that different consumer segments of specialty products may associate with particular luxury brands. A sample of 16 respondents was drawn from the Gauteng province to represent Atwal and Bryson's four segments of the consumer market for specialty products in South Africa. The study found that reputation was the main source of influence for deluxe aspirers; whilst the self-made searched for quality and distinction; the objective of investing wisely drove the business magnate; and the money aristocracy was driven by a sentimental attachment to these products. Different consumer segments can derive different meanings from the purchasing and consumption of specialty products.

Strictly speaking, consumer-buying performance is affected by issues such as increases in tax and prices which affect the purchases of specialty products by members of staff at institutions of higher learning. This study examined the impact of cultural values on consumer behaviour, with specific reference to specialty products purchased by employees of the University of Technology in KwaZulu-Natal (Murphy *et al*., 1986).

3.4 OVERVIEW OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN HIGHER EDUCATION SECTOR

Education in South Africa is governed by two national departments, namely the Department of Basic Education (DBE), which is responsible for primary and secondary schools; and the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET), which is responsible for tertiary education and vocational training. Prior to 2009, these two departments were operating under a single Department of Education. The DBE deals with public schools, private schools (also referred to by the department as independent schools), early childhood development (ECD) centres and special needs schools. The public schools and private schools are collectively known as ordinary schools and comprise roughly 97% of schools in South Africa (Mhlanga and Moloi, 2020:180).

The DHET is responsible for the further education and training (FET) colleges, now known as Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) colleges; adult basic education and training (ABET) centres; and higher education (HE) institutions. The nine provinces in South Africa also have their own education departments, which are responsible for implementing the policies of the national department, as well as dealing with local issues. The South African

higher education sector has a participation of more than a million students enrolled in the country's universities, colleges and universities of technology. The National Qualifications Framework (NQF) system of administering higher education broadly in the country is run by the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA Report, 2010:para. 5 line 8).

From the advent of democratic rule in South Africa in 1994, the transformation of education in South Africa was placed on the agenda, whereby there was a focus on the strategic alignment of the entire system towards redress, social cohesion and economic competitiveness (White Paper on Higher Education, 1997). One of the indicators of transformation was the changing of the demographic composition of academic and support staff in higher education to reflect the gender, race and rank diversity of the country. However, past inequalities have persisted over time. Breetzke, Hedding and Pijper (2020) conducted a study to trace transformation in the discipline of Geography and found that divisions by race and gender refused to go away. The mobility of black geographers towards senior levels remains low and there is a huge absence of black females in this field at only 10% competitiveness (White Paper on Higher Education, 1997).

At the same time, the higher education sector is also facing the same economic pressures as the same sector in every part of the world. There appears to be a gradual and global shift away from the public funding of higher education towards placing the burden on students. Naidoo and Whitty (2014), concerned about the potential impacts of the commodification of learning, analyzed the influence of organisational culture and institutional practice to determine educational impact. The authors suggest vigilance amongst institutions in the adoption of positive developments that empower students to take charge of their own learning, as against those that may lead to alienation and passive learning. The same higher institution can manifest diverse responses and experiences for students depending on their background upon entry and their location in the social hierarchy. These developments create constraints and opportunities for the higher education sector in South Africa as it seeks to define its inclusivity and relevance.

Morrison (2017) provides a critique of UK government policies to reduce grants towards universities, stating that the risk for higher education is the loss of credibility of the same universities amongst young people who may feel disappointed that they did not get their money's worth from the education. For South African universities that have to deal with

concerns over graduate unemployment, the global trend towards the expectation for students to pay their own fees is a source of concern.

According to Brown (2018:39), the notion of the university as a place of discovery and a platform for young people to achieve upward mobility depended on both public and private investment. The adoption of market principles in education contributed to the shift towards competition over ranking status and differentiation as world-class, which has in turn increased the costs to acquire a higher education qualification.

3.5 CULTURAL DYNAMICS AT MUT

The Mangosuthu University of Technology ('MUT') represents the most recognisable element of the name followed by 'Mangosuthu', which distinguishes MUT from other UoTs. It was felt that it is important to retain the strength of the institution's heritage, which links back to its name. There are many Universities of Technology, but only ONE Mangosuthu (2020: para.1 line 6).

MUT developed from a start of 15 students in 1979, surviving institutional mergers in 2003 and being promulgated as a University of Technology in 2007. However, there was no change in the appearance and public image of the institution back then till today. Forty years later, MUT has set a new course for itself: To 'shape and own the future'. Shaping and owning the future is the 2025 MUT Strategy Statement. The MUT Strategy Statement 'Shaping and Owning the future' seeks to demonstrate the institution's commitment to offering a revitalised academic value chain for the Fourth Industrial Revolution. The slogan, Shaping and Owning the Future, attempts to ask the question, what would a revitalised academic value chain entail for MUT? A revitalised academic value chain would mean adopting MUT's mission, vision and core values statements that reflect the mission as the purpose of the institution; the vision, which is what MUT aspires to be; and the guiding principles that will be used to reach the institution's goals, which form the core values.

As the institution seeks to 'Shape and Own the future, it aims to retain its core values: IIFASE, namely:

• Integrity;

• Innovation;

• Being at the Forefront;

• Accountability;

• Self-Respect and Respect; and

• Excellence (2020:para. 4 line 19).

For more than 39 years, the MUT emblem was a coat of arms as the institution's corporate identity. In developing its new identity, the institution had to examine its past, its present situation and where it wanted to be. It has been a wide-ranging process involving long-term planning and represents an integral part of MUT Strategy 2025. From the research undertaken during this journey, there is a strong sense of pride and purpose instilled within students, staff and alumni of the Mangosuthu University of Technology. MUT is perceived as a strong, distinctively African and proud brand (MUT, 2020: para 6 line 22).

In a report to the Portfolio Committee on Higher Education, in the national parliament on 12 February year, the Mangosuthu University of Technology provided the following background:

- MUT is the smallest of the country's six Universities of Technology (UoTs), with 13,896 students in 2020;

- MUT has the highest proportion of students registered in Science, Engineering and Technology (SET) of all the UoTs and of all the universities in KwaZulu-Natal;

- MUT makes a significant contribution to meeting the country's scarce skills requirements in Science and Technology;

- MUT has the second highest undergraduate pass rate, 80,8% in 2018, amongst the six UoTs, which is the degree credit success rate;

- MUT has a low proportion of permanent academic staff with PhDs, 16,17% in 2018, which is a concern towards achieving the National Development Plan target of 75% by 2030;

- MUT offers a limited number of opportunities for qualifying students to join the academy and become academics through the nGap programme, which is funded externally;

- MUT's students depend on the National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS), 69% in 2020, and the student fees are generally capped low;

- MUT has earned only about 2% of its annual income from third sources between 2016 and 2020, other than the national subsidy and student fees, which is lower compared to the average of 11% among other UoTs; and

- MUT received R88,1 million from the national HDI grant in 2020, which reflected an increase from the R13,5 million that was received in 2016.

The corporate image of the Mangosuthu University of Technology battled to escape the stereotype of an isolated and disadvantaged institution that is locked within the local dynamics of a predominantly underprivileged community. The report from the Independent Assessor appointed by the national higher education minister in 2018 decried the prevailing uncertainty and instability amongst the institutional leadership and the general culture of demoralisation and despair across the institution (page 65/106, Government Gazette No 42053, 23 November 2018). It proposed measures to deal with the deeper roots of the problem, beyond individual personalities, to redefine the institution's mission and vision in the world. Recommendations highlighted the urgent need to address the skills deficit and for the institution to project itself outwards and forwards to face the future with focus. The organisational culture at MUT has to allow for critical debate, the free flow of ideas and the exchange of information that can cultivate innovation, creativity and openness (page 67/108, Government Gazette No 42053, 23 November 2018). It is therefore hoped that the findings of this particular study have the potential to make a contribution towards self-reflection and the re-shaping of the institutional culture.

Based on a casual analysis of the kind of occupations that are predominantly performed at the Mangosuthu University of Technology, it is safe to make the assumption that the class composition of staff members can be regarded as an emerging middle-class. The appetite for specialty products amongst the staff of MUT cannot be seen as likely to indicator of extravagant consumers who have plenty of cash to spare. Rather, the opposite may be the case, where expenditure is used to impress those in immediate social circles. Lappeman *et al*. (2019:30) define the key features of an emerging middle class, and the middle broadly, as "those individuals who are skilled, educated and relatively earn a good salary and who are clearly defined by their consumption, which is the analysis of their income and spending habits". Without long-term financial security and a social safety net among family and friends, the emerging middle is yet to fully escape the clutches of poverty. The emerging middle class is often the first among their family to acquire social and economic mobility towards the rank of the middle class (Lappeman *et al*., 2019).

3.6 HIGHER EDUCATION AND CULTURE

The context of academic culture is the environment in which this study was conducted. Universities, as institutions of higher learning, bring together individuals who share a common goal to seek and exchange knowledge, guided by common norms and standards. Shen and Tian (2012) proposed three categories towards the understanding of academic culture, namely material culture which is about the shared access and use of the available facilities and resources; institutional culture which establishes the systems and operations to pursue the goals of research, teaching and learning; and the spiritual culture, which involves the common sets of values, philosophies and attitudes. The academic culture is conducive towards promoting openness, dialogue and tolerance in order to enable diversity, creativity and innovation to flourish.

Universities, therefore, provide places for stakeholders and interest groups to raise their voices about the approach, form and direction of desired goals. Beyond deliberations on pedagogy, higher education institutions have to face the realities of balancing the budget and ensuring the sustainability of their programmes into the future. For example, Saunders and Ramirez (2017) criticise universities in the United States for their emphasis on generating income, relating to students as consumers and institutional arrangements that make faculties position themselves and act like service providers. It is therefore in the nature of the academic culture to allow for the expressions of individuality on a range of matters.

Furthermore, universities are sub-divisions within the public sector and hence the organisational culture can be affected by the political players and policy choices of those who control these institutions. Public officials cannot be guaranteed autonomy and flexibility in decision-making and implementation. Claver, Llopis, Gascó, Molina and Conca (1999) propose that the analysis of organisational culture in the public sector has to involve field visits to conduct physical observations, the audit of documentation and other records, as well as surveys and interviews. Mashile, Munyeka and Ndlovu (2021) identified four typologies of organisational culture in the public sector, namely the cultural control model; the sub-culture model which allows for internal differentiation; professional's multi-culture model; as well as the public service or public interest culture model. The deterioration in the organisation culture in the public sector can be observed when these institutions become distant and unresponsive to the needs of their clients, whereby they only exist to serve themselves. The higher education

sector, which was the specific context of this study, experiences similar organisational dynamics as discussed here.

3.7 CULTURAL CHARACTERISTICS AND VALUES

By definition, culture encompasses "the pervasive and shared beliefs, norms, values and symbols that guide everyday life transmitted by symbols, stories and rituals often taken-for-granted"; "an integrated pattern of human knowledge, belief and behaviour that depends upon the capacity for symbolic thought and social learning"; and "the set of shared attitudes, values, goals and practices that characterizes an institution, organization or group" (Jariya, 2012:63).

Culture starts from a society to which a group of individual members belong. The culture of the society, transmitted across generations through socialisation and teaching, will include common values, norms and traditions. The shared worldview of the society may find expression as shared beliefs, customs and ideas that prescribe and guide the individual members, albeit unconsciously. Culture is innate to every individual and is adopted through processes of absorption as the individual participates in various events and situations as a member of the group. Cultural adaptation takes place with the passage of time and through the changing internal and external conditions and relations that have an effect on society and its members (Jariya, 2012).

The purchase of specialty products by members of a particular culture may be determined by cultural variables such as language, religious beliefs and traditions, as well as factors from the broader social and economic context in which the society lives. The cultural variables also influence the work attitude, lifestyles and aspirations for material possessions, independence and flexibility, which in turn may determine the individual's responses towards specialty products (Masovic, 2018).

3.7.1 Culture in the context of higher education

The following section highlights the importance of understanding the characteristics of culture in the context of higher education. Culture is a social invention that is developed and carried across generations through customs, rituals, beliefs, values and so on (Akhter *et al*., 2019). Culture is learned through formal and informal institutions that are established to teach the culture of a society. The social institutions for the transmission of culture include the family for the young; formal educational institutions for skills and patriotism; religious institutions for spiritual and moral guidance; and the mass media for cross-cultural exposure (Yu, Peng, Peng,

Tang, Chen, Qian, Tingting and Chai, 2016). Culture defines what is commonly shared in order to maintain the collective of individuals, namely shared customs, religion, language and history. Culture satisfies needs. For example, a car is a necessity in the United States, while it is a luxury purchase that brings status in India (Nia and Zaichkowsky, 2000). Culture defines necessities and luxuries for society. Culture is dynamic and never static. Cultures influence each other. Cultural change can only be gradual. In recent times, cultural changes are taking place rapidly due to exposure to other cultures through mass media (Chai *et al*., 2016). However, culture retains its core values. The effect of core values on consumer behaviour has to do with how these values remain accepted by the majority in society; whether these values can be preserved into the future; and the relationship between these values and consumer behaviour (Zaichkowsky, 2000). Culture helps in adaptation. Culture is differential – A uniform, universal culture does not exist and each society and country develops its own culture. Strong differences exist because of the practices followed in different societies.

The core higher education values receive protection from higher education principles and international human rights standards, which must be considered in purchasing behaviour. (Moloi *et al*, 2020). The principles of higher education, in contrast, have a narrower application, since they are limited to those institutions and individuals in the higher education sector, but may provide guidance on a wider range of operational issues, such as university governance, tenure, faculty hiring, and so on. These issues impact the choice of staff members regarding how, when, why and what their purchasing decisions will be, particularly in relation to specialty products. Core higher education values, therefore, need to consider both higher education principles and human rights standards to determine whether either or both offer protection in a given context. The overlap of these two areas sometimes leads to confusion about how specialty products and their values contribute to staff's purchasing behaviour (Higher Education Act, 1997).

3.7.2 Cultural Values

Cultural values are beliefs that are shared widely to affirm what is desirable in a society. Values have an effect on behaviour through norms. Norms regulate the acceptable range of an individual's response to a specific situation and strongly influence the decision-making of consumers. Body language, cuisine, attire, ceremonies, etcetera all have a great impact on consumer behaviour (Kire and RajKumar, 2017). Cultural values direct and guide the efforts

to solve problems by providing credible ways to satisfaction of personal, bodily and collective needs (Boer and Fischer, 2013).

Cultural values provide the medium, storage and expression of culture from one generation to the next (Mourali, Laroche and Pons, 2005) and they are acquired through the socialisation of individual members from birth (Triandis, 1995). Cultural values express the collective doctrines, ideals and main concerns through learning and acculturation (Kumar *et al.*, 2007:249). Cultural values tend to be honoured and treasured and so can last through the ages and will have an impact on consumer behaviour (Gupta *et al.*, 2001:48). Cultural values govern all social aspects in a community (Mourali *et al.*, 2005). Cultural value systems include common cultural elements that members who belong to the group possess, as well as peculiar values that are unique to particular individuals (Gupta *et al.*, 2001). Consumer behaviour alters depending on the cultural values of consumers.

Nevertheless, consumer behaviour differs because values inherited by consumers differ from culture to culture. Kire and RajKumar, (2017:1175) found that overall, despite controlling for price, individual consumers are differentially influenced by others in both planned and impulse purchase situations. Culture explains these differential influences. Levels of diversity and uniformity within cultures have an effect on consumer behaviour. Cultures that value diversity is likely to embrace different practices amongst individuals and also welcome greater choices in cuisine, clothing and other products and services (Chaudry, 2014).

Cultural values provide a measure of the expected individual response to certain situations (Jariya, 2012:69). Members of a group will share judgements about right or wrong, and this will also distinguish them from others. In the book, "Cultures' Consequences" (1980; 2001), Hofstede sought to apply the construct of national culture within organisations. According to Hofstede (2002:82), the interpretation of the difference between cultures has to cover shared values, defined as "broad tendencies to prefer certain states of affairs over others", and the models in which to predict those differences. Later studies sought to support Hofstede's original work (Jariya, 2012; Drenth and Den Hartog, 1998;).

Hofstede's book (1980; 2001) was a major breakthrough in the application of the national culture construct to organizations. Hofstede (1998) highlights that cultural differences can be interpreted as differences in shared values. His work is notable for its contribution towards the theoretical justification for expecting cultural differences and he proposed a model which can

be used to identify what differences should be expected. Hofstede's views are supported by Den Hartog *et al*. (1998) and Jariya (2012).

Critics of Hofstede raised concerns over the simplification of the dimensional concept of culture and the inadequate focus on culture as a dynamic concept (Jagne, 2004; McSweeney, 2002; Jackson, 2001; Sivakumar and Nakata, 2001). Alternative dimensional frameworks include those by Schwartz (1994); Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997); Hall and Hall (1989); Chang and Ding (1995); and those developed in the Globe study (House, Javidan and Dorfman, 2001). Also, Ng, Lee and Soutar (2007) came to the conclusion that Schwartz's dimensions are more prominent in the study of international trade than Hofstede's model. Trompenaars' model focused more on the micro or individual level, while Hall's model went in the direction to look at culture as a low or high context in communication (Muller, Spang and Ozcan, 2004). Ding *et al*., (1995) model, developed from the philosophy of Confucianism, was subsequently adopted by Hofstede as an additional dimension (Jariya, 2012).

A study to investigate the influence of the cultural characteristics of online reviewers in the hotel sector in the United States found that power distance affected ratings (Gao, Li, Liu and Fang, 2018). The hotel sector collects data from the reviews in order to determine the level of customer satisfaction with the service, as well as the personal characteristics of the online reviewers. At the same time, the hotel industry is global and the players seek to enhance their impact on consumers in different cultural contexts. The study found that online hotel reviewers from high power distance countries gave low ratings. The acceptance of inequalities in high power distance countries where customers regard themselves as superior to service providers was suggested as one of the explanations.

Furthermore, a study to compare the hotel booking decisions between British and Spanish customers found the influence of cultural dimensions on purchasing decisions (Ortiz, Frías-Jamilena and Garcia, 2017). The cultural differences in the dimensions of uncertainty avoidance and individualism/collectivism between the two countries had an effect on the perceived value of the hotel stay. The British culture is more individualist and therefore preferred online self-service than the collectivist Spanish culture, which looked for a travel agent. At the same time, the individualist British culture expressed greater concern about the potential loss of privacy in sharing their personal details online than the collectivist culture of Spain.

Kim (2019) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between the culture of a society and public service motivation. The individual's desire to serve others, the public service motivation, is born from social interaction and organisational absorption. Kim (2019) found that Hofstede's dimensions of masculinity give motivation towards improved individual performance; indulgent societies facilitate pleasant interactions and positive values; and collectivist cultures promote interdependence, which all have significant relationships with public service motivation.

3.8 CULTURE AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

Though it is known that culture influences various minor or major dimensions of consumer behaviour, besides the area of cross-cultural research, it is necessary to develop comprehensive approaches to explore these issues in international marketing (Cavusgil, 1998). Scholars have attempted to develop models to show what influences consumers in the international sphere. An early explanation of the differences amongst cultures in their perceptions, evaluations and consumption behaviour of products or services came from Sheth and Sethi (1977), who developed the comprehensive Theory of Cross-Cultural Buyer Behavior (Spiers *et al*., 2014).

Samli (1995) sought to make predictions about consumer behaviour through a scorecard with pre-determined cultural variables to find specific international consumer behaviour patterns. Samli (1995) proposed the following set of variables: class structure, language, context (low/high), interpersonal relationships, needs hierarchy, the role of the sexes, the role of children, territoriality, temporality, learning, work ethics, need for privacy, exploitation of resources, resource utilisation, family role in decision-making, family size, religiosity, tradition orientation, and technology grasp.

Later, Manrai and Manrai (1996) offered a model of the effect of culture on consumer behaviour. Due to the complexity of defining culture and differentiating its effects, the model sought to consider the components and consequences of culture, which were classified into social, personal and psychological categories. Furthermore, these were further classified as intermediary variables or processes that affect consumer behaviour domains, including product acquisition and consumption behaviour; the adoption and diffusion of innovations; either complaining or complimenting behaviour; consumer responses to advertising and marketing communication; responses to features on distribution; and responses to aspects on pricing. A

direct and indirect impact of culture on consumer behaviour was developed since the influence of culture on consumer behaviour through its manifestation in values, heroes, rituals and symbols was recognised (Spiers *et al.*, 2014).

Oyedele, Minor and Ghanem (2009) conducted a study to investigate the global advertising appeals to consumers in South Africa and Ghana and found an appeal for the use of hedonic advertising in both countries. The findings suggested that marketers gain advantages through better awareness of the particular consumer market, which in this case was for pharmaceuticals, cosmetics and financial services. Fun messages can bring the desired results for the right target consumers.

3.9 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CULTURAL VALUES AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

The beliefs, inclinations and practices that individuals feel free to display in public are acquired through a process of gradual acculturation from birth (Forsyth, 2009; Hawkins *et al.*, 2004). Learning about cultures continues throughout the life of individual members of a society (Karatepe, Avci and Tekinkus 2005). These doctrines eventually become the guiding standard of behaviour or code of conduct that regulates members of a society (Baloyi, 2013). Society establishes sanctions to discourage behaviour that deviates from these norms and to ensure the persistence of these core values throughout the stages of life an individual undergoes (Baloyi, 2013). Society forms a culture due to shared ethnicity as well as the commonly held beliefs, rites and social relationships (Werth, Belvins, Toussaint and Durham, 2002). Moreover, culture includes the acquisition of competencies, practices and systems that are essential for the survival of society (Halliru, 2013; Tylor, 2010).

Since culture involves unwritten and unspoken codes of being and behaving, those who do not belong to society require guidance in order to navigate through what is acceptable or not in specific situations (Masovic, 2018). Individuals do not choose their own culture, hence debates that attempt to compare and evaluate cultural differences are irrelevant because culture brings its own inherent regulation and is not meant to provide a measure of the intellectual development of a society (Baloyi, 2013). Moreover, sub-cultures are born out of the larger culture where members of the same society form a minority due to the manifestation of particular features that bring them together as a collective while it sets them slightly apart from the larger group (Kotler, 2003).

Each culture places emphasis on trying to meet the different needs of the members of society, such as companionship, self-esteem and guidance (Ekerete, 2001). Few people can be expected to abandon their culture, though they may change their secondary values, such as delaying the decision to get married and start a family rather than rejecting the core value of marriage in society (Venter *et al*., 2018). Thus, the alteration of secondary values lies within the possible realm of sensitive marketing strategies (Kotler and Keller 2021; White, 1997; Martin, 1993). Howard and Sheth (1969) suggest that purchasing decisions are not likely to deviate from cultural norms and values.

Taking into account the context of culture, the conception of consumer behaviour has to take into account why individual members of a society make purchasing selections and purchases; what happens after consumption; and how they express the satisfaction of their needs (White, 1997). Market competitiveness demands that companies must build customer loyalty by understanding and anticipating the motives of their customers, whenever these are observable, unambiguous and explicit (Kanuk *et al*., 1994). However, customers may be unable to express or show reluctance to disclose their cultural values, for instance.

Solomon (2011) looks at consumer behaviour as the study of the needs, choices and practices around which individual customers go about in their selection, purchasing, usage or disposal of particular commodities. Accurate knowledge of how customers behave is essential to enable companies to project the responses of their customers and tailor their products and services appropriately. Rani (2014) grouped the key influences on consumer behaviour into four categories focusing on culture, society, as well as the individual's characteristics that emanate from themselves as persons and their psychology. There is a relationship between these four categories and consumer preferences for brands. Marketers cannot control these factors, although they can apply them in developing relevant marketing mix strategies (Akpan *et al*., 2016).

Chawla *et al*. (2014) conducted a study on how cultural values impact consumer behaviour. Particular characteristics that stem from the culture of a society influence what customers choose or avoid (Chawla *et al*., 2014). Cultural values also assist marketers when they are creating advertisements and determining who their target markets are. Social factors also have an influence on consumer behaviour since age, personality and gender all affect how consumers

purchase. Spencer-Oatey (2012) found that as an individual interacts with people, culture is learned and developed. For example, when new babies undergo many different rituals and prayers, it normally stemmed from previous generations and chances are it will continue with generations to come. Babies born at the same time in different parts of the world will respond differently to their cultural surroundings.

Joshi *et al*. (2012:59) found that values and norms are established by the society in which they live, which forms part of the culture. Social experiences create an atmosphere for culture to be learned and taught. Cultural values give importance to every individual, which has an impact on their purchasing behaviour. Another study in the Iranian hospitality sector found that the cultural values in the Iranian context of consumer behaviour affect consumer behaviour. This study showed that consumers who conducted research on their cultural values found a more positive association between their values and consumer buying behaviour (Karami *et al*., 2015).

This study embraces the term 'Ubuntu' in the sense that different cultures will be included in the population and their buying behaviour patterns will differ. A South African study showed that 'Ubuntu' has impacted Chinese international organisations in South Africa in the way they manage their staff and overall business operations. This researcher has aimed to ensure emerging companies are able to have a multinational culture and have a spirit of Ubuntu (Liu, Öberg, Tarba and Xing, 2018).

Many consumers love the latest fashion, and shopping malls and are brand conscious. Expensive fashion apparel is an example of a specialty product, which shows that future researchers can build on this subject matter or reference such content. In similar studies, Gopal (2011) examined how consumer behaviour impacts the fashion retailing industry, particularly focusing on fashion apparel. A major contribution of the study was that future researchers may extend and add to this body of knowledge (Gopal, 2011).

In contrast to the above authors, Bediako (2016) conducted a study on the influence of culture on consumer buying behaviour. One of the findings of this research was that culture does have a positive influence on consumer buying behaviour, but does not exert a greater influence on consumers' purchases and buying behaviour of branded clothing, preferences and personal factors. Other factors that possibly exert more influence on consumers' choices of branded clothing would be factors such as economic, global and demographic factors (Sarpong, 2014). This study has found one similar trait, which is the collectivist approach whereby male

dominance is higher than women involving purchases of products. Religion plays a vital role in determining which products are acceptable or not in certain cultures (Halliru, 2013). Notwithstanding the fact that a set of values shapes an individual's purchasing behaviour, the researcher has investigated how cultural values affect and impact the different ethnic groups in Nigeria. Similarly, a study in Turkey has revealed that not only does consumer behaviour affect the purchases of products, but also families, personalities and cultural values (Durmaz, 2014).

Globalisation has exposed people to different cultures while introducing consumers to many new products from all over the world. Additionally, people still want to preserve their own cultures and make daily choices by following the regulations of their culture (Akpan *et al*. 2016; Speiers, Gundala and Singh, 2014:93; Koutroulou and Tsourgiannis, 2011). Cultural relativism can be defined as individuals from various cultural groups tending to think and behave differently. Ultimately, this determines how consumer perspectives and decisions are made (Lamb *et al.*, 2015).

The signs and symbols used in different cultures may also differ and cultural awareness helps one understand why certain aspects are right and wrong in various societies (Aguirre, Hyman, and Jones, 2020). When there is an increase in cultural awareness about what is acceptable and what is not in the different cultures, it is clear that tolerance and understanding of one another become more evident towards each other. Consumers are attracted to stimuli that are unusual compared to their familiar culture (Hawkins *et al*., 2010). Consumers' purchasing decisions on specialty products are not necessarily influenced by practical considerations about the product and are rather motivated by feelings of pleasure and the desire to impress others (Hawkins *et al*, 2010:).

The practices of individual consumers who regard themselves as members of a particular society will strive to fulfil the prescribed cultural standards set for them (Akpan *et al*., 2016; Ljewere and Odia, 2012). Since businesses exist to satisfy the needs and wants of customers, the chain of production and marketing strategies must be designed to supply what customers demand (Akpan *et al*., 2016; Cochran, 2006 cited in Durmaz, 2014; Font-i-furnols and Guerrero, 2014). For companies to succeed in the international market, they have to analyse the applicable cultural issues and address possible barriers in order to influence their target customers (Durmaz, Celik and Oruc, 2011).

The influence of environmental activism on consumers has promoted a change in attitudes and purchasing behaviour to discourage the consumption of specialty products that contribute towards the harm of animals and the destruction of the environment. The practice of ethical consumption encourages consumers to adopt new sets of values and, perhaps, instil the norm of environmentally-friendly lifestyles and eco-sustainable fashion. De Klerk (2020) conducted a study to investigate the influence of ethical concerns on the behaviour and intentions of consumers of luxury leather products in South Africa. The results show that consumers support ethical concerns, but are not likely to change their own behaviour, perhaps due to the influence of the social and cultural environment. The adoption, maintenance and widespread acceptance of the trend towards ethical luxury are likely to require changes in the broader society and culture.

3.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter provided an overview of the implications of the culture, cultural values and specialty products in the context of higher education. The discussion covered the following items, namely specialty products, consumer behaviour of specialty products, an overview of the South African Education Sector, the cultural dynamics at the Mangosuthu University of Technology, cultural characteristics and values, culture and consumer behaviour, and the relationship between cultural values and consumer behaviour. The following chapter of the thesis discusses the theoretical framework of the study.

CHAPTER 4

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter provided an overview of the implications of culture, cultural values and specialty products in the context of higher education. The following section of the thesis discusses the theoretical framework of the study. It covers the following topics, namely the theoretical framework of cultural values; Hofstede's cultural theory, the Schwartz model; the Cross-cultural consumer behaviour framework; the factors influencing consumer buying behaviour; the Theory of buyer behaviour; the Consumer decision model; the Theory of Reasoned Action; the Theory of Planned Behaviour; and customer motivation for buying specialty products. In this chapter theories, frameworks and models are to be discussed: the cross-cultural consumer behaviour framework adapted from Manrai and Manrai; the factors influencing consumer buying behaviour including consumer behaviour or buyer behaviour; the theory of buyer behaviour; the consumer decision model; theory of reasoned action and theory of planned behaviour.

4.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF CULTURAL VALUES

Culture sets the standard of what society is going to accept. Generations hand down a set of common worldviews, beliefs, norms and objects in order to nurture the behaviour of individuals who are born into a society, usually that share a geographic location and living environment (Lamb *et al.*, 2015). Culture influences where people buy, how they buy, what they buy and when they buy. In addition, culture has the power to influence a consumer's perception of how and where they purchase and also the types of specialty products they choose. For example, the choice of cars, branded watches, branded clothing and even the interior decoration of one's home or office (Lamb *et al.*, 2015).

Gopal describes culture as that which has the power to influence a consumer's perception of how and where they purchase and also the types of specialty products they choose. There may be many traditions in a culture that are generally passed on to future generations. Many theories exist, that support the notion that consumers make decisions and choices on the basis of their culture. Cultural differences generally lead to differences in consumers' attitudes, tastes and intentions (Gopal, 2011). Values can be divided into three categories, namely cultural/ethnic,

family and individual values. These values have an impact on consumer behaviour and the purchase of specialty products. Cultural or ethnic values largely influence individual behaviour, which can have an effect in two ways: lifestyle which includes relationships and the background of values and beliefs they were raised with, which in turn affects the purchases they make. A person's personality can be shaped and moulded by their childhood traditions, beliefs and symbols. A cultural environment is created which is made up of internal and external factors that are evident in one's attitude and shopping patterns. Culture surely changes over the years (De Mooij and Beniflah, 2016).

Family values have a very strong impact on consumer behaviour. For example, if there is a strong grounding of family ethics, morals and beliefs, then the tendency for the future generation of children in that family is viewed in the light that they will continue with those values. When families make decisions together on their purchasing choices, it clearly depicts how strong the family values are in their home. This also shows the importance of human behaviour, which is very often instilled from a very early age either from parents, guardians, grandparents, school teachers or close relatives. Individual values are a huge factor in a human being's life and well-being and they often define one's personality. They are a reflection of consumers' behaviour and impact their choice of specialty products. It is known that the needs, wants, values and desires of people may stem from a very early age in one's life (Ramya *et al*., 2016).

Cultural norms are generally standards used to judge someone's behaviour, assumed by society as an entirety, and the way one acts. Individuals have a tendency to judge their behaviour based on how they have or have not violated the social norms of society. In the same way, this affects their purchasing behaviour since it will regulate the types of specialty products they consume. Norms impact the purchases individuals make. For example, when a consumer wants a specialty product, he or she will need specific information to make a good judgment. Cultural norms will then suggest whether or not this information given is acceptable (Joshi and Gupta, 2012).

An individual's attitude is an ongoing persona that is shaped by one's beliefs and values. Many marketers aim at changing consumers' beliefs and attitudes about their products and brands through different forms of advertising. However, there is no guarantee to what extent they may or may not change (Samarasinghe, 2012). Family for the majority of individuals is the first

cultural environment where someone is taught values, beliefs and habits. The family also plays a huge role in moulding and shaping their buying behaviour. For example, when a parent wants to purchase a specialty product like a child's educational laptop, marketers will try to influence the child through advertising since they are aware the child also influences by the buying decision (Ramya *et al.*, 2016).

4.3 HOFSTEDE CULTURAL THEORY

A plethora of theories on culture and consumer behaviour forms the foundation of this study. For instance, Hofstede came up with a theory on culture which has been used and validated by many scholars in literature. The Hofstede Cultural Theory is based on the following dimensions, namely power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism and masculinity/Femininity as well as time orientation and indulgence.

Power distance is the first dimension. Power distance is whereby an individual who is seen to have less power in society will tend to accept unfairness in power as being normal to them or to be a normality (Leng and Bolteho, 2010). Power distance is the degree to which a society accepts that power is distributed unequally (Gouveia and Ros, 2000:). In this dimension, it is the followers or members of the lower-income groups who shape perspectives about inequality and power. The higher the degree of the community, the clearer the indication of established and executed hierarchies in society. A lower degree of power distance indicates assertiveness amongst people to raise questions about authority and take measures to distribute power (Leng and Bolteho, 2010).

Uncertainty avoidance is the second dimension. Uncertainty avoidance deals with the degree of tolerance a society has for uncertainty in terms of whether people address or avoid unexpected, unknown events that are unfamiliar to the current situation. A high score suggests that the society is rigid and members are expected to follow the prescribed values, norms and rules. During the occurrence of unforeseen events, discomfort, frustration and intolerance become obvious. A lower degree indicates tolerance and acceptance of difference. Tolerant societies have more willingness to accept risks and they are better prepared for innovation (Leng and Bolteho, 2010).

The third dimension is **Individualism vs. collectivism**. This is the degree of integration and group membership in a society. Individualism is where members of society are loosely tied. Individuals either look after themselves or take care of their immediate families. Individualism is used to describe people whose aim 'is me, myself and I', rather than 'we' as a team. They focus primarily on adjusting their own lifestyles to suit their personal preferences; their own opinions and value their own time rather than considering others; and adjusting their lives to have all the freedom to achieve all their goals. They inevitably prefer social surroundings that are closed (Gouveia and Ros, 2000). Collectivism refers to a society where there are tight and integrated relationships that connect individual members to each through extended families and in-groups. The in-groups provide a source of social support and loyalty in times of conflict between in-groups (Gouveia and Ros, 2000).

Masculinity vs. femininity is the fourth dimension. The preference for masculinity is expressed through the emphasis on what individuals achieve; the celebration of heroic acts; creates an environment for individuals to become assertive; and the measure of success through material rewards. Women here tend to show less assertiveness and competition than men. On the other hand, femininity is represented through inclinations towards cooperating with others; showing humility during interactions; taking care of those who are vulnerable; and striving for satisfaction with life. Women here display modesty and care as equally as men. A gap exists between the values of males and females. In highly masculine societies, this dimension is often regarded as taboo (Gouveia and Ros, 2000).

Time Orientation is the fifth dimension. Each society must preserve its own past without losing focus to address issues that arise or prepare for the future. Societies place different priorities on these two existential goals. A low score on the dimension for time orientation indicates a society, which is steeped in its heritage and traditions that adopts a conservative approach to transformation. A high score shows pragmatism to embrace the future and focus on long-term social investments, such as education. The Chinese and Japanese are examples of societies whose time orientation is long-term, compared to the short-term orientation of the Moroccans (Hofstede, 2011).

The final dimension is the indulgence dimension. This is a relatively new dimension to the model. This dimension focuses on the ability of individuals to exercise self-control over their desires and impulses, according to their upbringing. Indulgence indicates relatively weak

control and restraint indicates relatively strong control. Cultures can lean towards Indulgence or Restraint. Indulgent societies are relatively permissive towards the gratification of basic and natural human drives such as the enjoyment of life and having fun. Societies that show restraint suppress the gratification of needs and establish rigid standards of behaviour in order to ensure obedience (Hofstede, 2011).

Figure 4.1: Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions (Hofstede, 2011: 3)

4.4 THE SCHWARTZ MODEL

The Schwartz model depicts that the individualism-collectivism approach has been very popular in various cultures, but there have been some differences linked to it. The three criticisms to this end are as follows: Firstly, there are values that involve and affect both individualism and collectivism, such as family, personal, and security needs or shared goals. Secondly, this approach is not sufficient since it accommodates only collectivist goals. Schwartz states that there should not be a conflict between individualists and collectivists. Instead, he clearly distinguishes between values such as self-direction, which may be important to the individual but not collectively as a whole (Gouveia and Ros, 2000). The dimensions of the Hofstede model mentioned above have indeed become an exemplar to other researchers who have built on these dimensions in research when comparing universal cultures. Hofstede emphasises the importance of these dimensions and the extent to which they depend on

aggregation. He aims to eliminate any confusion that may exist at an individual level when it comes to cultural values (Hofstede, 2011).

An individual, group or society needs to cope with reality by ensuring that they are able to represent values such as social interaction with others, be respectful and be responsive to emerging goals that are expressed (Schwartz, 1994:3). The Schwartz Theory of Basic Values offers a set of 10 values that are universal across all cultures and seeks to provide an explanation about their origin. Its basic tenet is that values can be placed in a circular structure to show which are similar and which are complete opposites. The lack of consensus about the definition of values creates difficulties in operationalising this theory in social science research. In addition, individuals may rank values in different ways than the manner in which these are presented in the model.

Table 4.1: Universal values linked to Schwart's model (themarketingacademy.org)

Basic Value	Goal	Universal Requirement	Related Values
Self Direction	Independent thought and action, choosing, creating, exploring	The needs of individuals as biological organisms	Creativity, Freedom, Curiosity, Independence
Stimulation	Excitement, novelty, challenge in life	The needs of individuals as biological organisms	Self direction, Daring
Hedonism	Pleasure for oneself	The needs of individuals as biological organisms	Pleasure, Enjoying life, Self-indulgence
Achievement	Personal success through demonstrated competence according to social standards	The needs of individuals as biological organisms The survival and welfare needs of a group	Ambitious, Successful, Capable, Influential
Power	Social status and prestige	The requirements of coordinated social interactions	Authority, Wealth, Social Power, Recognition
Security	Safety, harmony and stability	The needs of individuals as biological organisms The survival and welfare needs of a group	Clean, Healthy, Belonging, Family Security, National Security
Conformity	Restraint of action likely to upset or harm others, or violate social norms	The requirements of coordinated social interactions	Obedience, Politeness, Honoring elders
Tradition	Respect, commitment and acceptance of customs	The requirements of coordinated social interactions The survival and welfare needs of a group	Respect for traditions, Humble, Devout, Moderate
Benevolence	Preserving or enhancing the welfare of those you are in frequent contact with	The requirements of coordinated social interactions The survival and welfare needs of a group	Helpful, Honest, Forgiving, Responsible, Loyal, Love
Universalism	Understanding, appreciation, tolerance and protection for all people and things	The needs of individuals as biological organisms The survival and welfare needs of a group	Broadminded, Social Justice, Equality, Peace, Nature, Wisdom, Harmony

There is a relationship among all of these 10 basic values that form the core of the Schwartz theory. The behaviour that is expressed based on each of these values has the potential to clash with another value within the circle or show the same interaction with another value within the circle.

4.5 CROSS-CULTURAL CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR FRAMEWORK
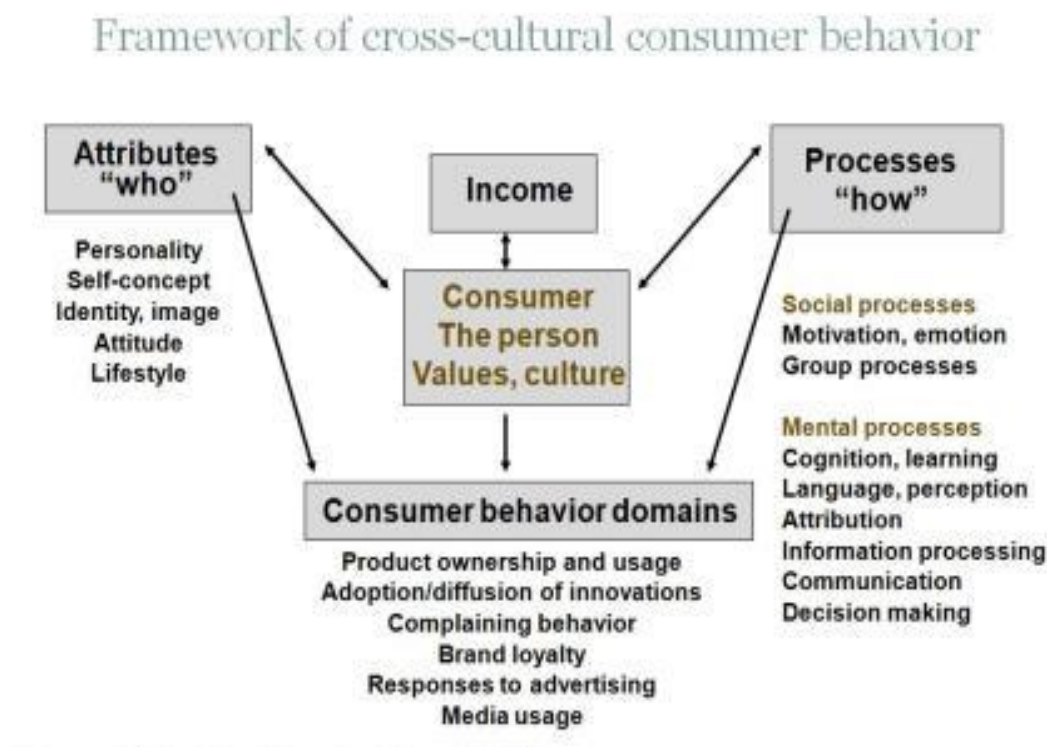
Figure 4.2: Cross-Cultural Consumer Behaviour Framework (Adapted from Manrai and Manrai 1996: 10)

The above diagram illustrates the Cross-Cultural Consumer Behaviour Framework (figure 4.2), which was inspired by a conceptual model by Manrai and Manrai (1996:10). The model structures the cultural components of individuals as consumer attributes and processes and the cultural components of behaviour as consumer behaviour domains. Income creates interferences since consumption is either absent or insignificant when income is not available to affect the purchase in the first place. A separate box is therefore created for income. Personal attributes refer to ("the who") alongside processes ("the how"). When required to give an answer to "Who am I?", people can be expected to elaborate on their character, qualities, backgrounds and habits. Processes are about the attitudinal and mental elements that culminate in the observable practices of individuals, which can be viewed simply as the "me" of individual behaviour (Mooij and Hofstede, 2011:186).

4.6 FACTORS INFLUENCING CONSUMER BUYING BEHAVIOUR
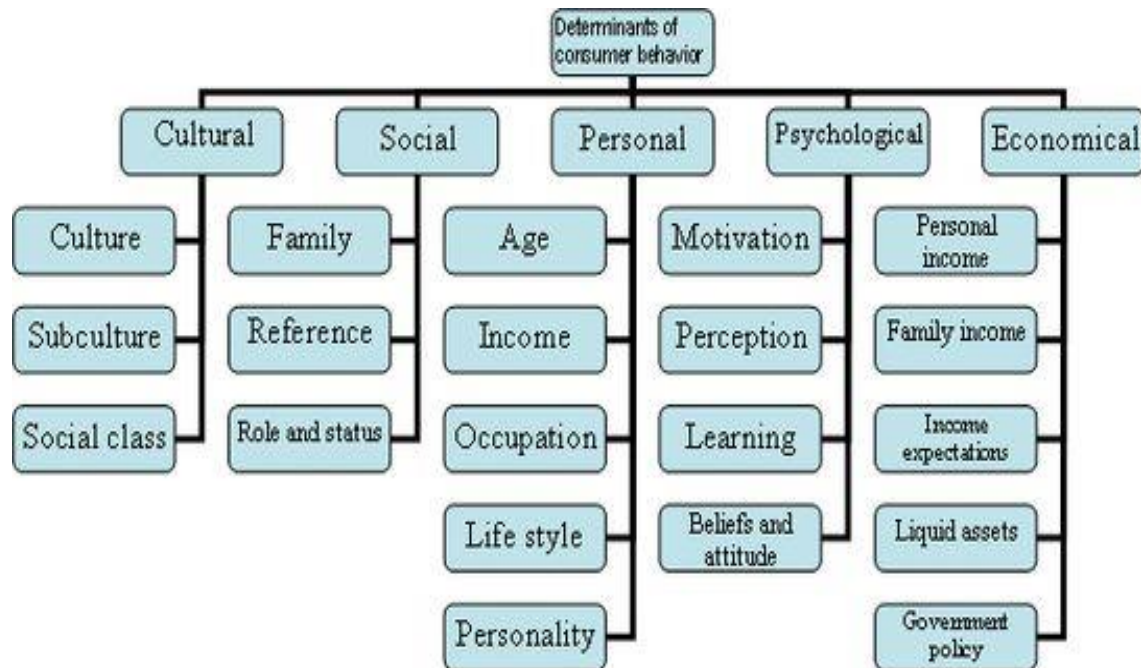
Figure 4.3: Factors Influencing Consumer Buying Behaviour

4.6.1 Internal or psychological factors

Numerous internal or psychological factors influence the purchasing behaviour of individual consumers. This model focuses on Motivation and Perception, which both have a potential positive or negative effect on the purchase of specialty products and consumer buying behaviour.

a) Motivation

Stanton *et al*. (2004: 30) stated that, "A motive can be defined as a drive or an urge for which an individual seeks satisfaction. It becomes a buying motive when the individual seeks satisfaction through the purchase of something". In this study, the consumer's motive is viewed as an internal urge or need that moves an individual to participate in purchasing actions of specialty products to satisfy their wants. Wants can be divided into two kinds, namely core wants and secondary wants. Needs turn into motives following sufficient and intense levels of arousal; while a motive is a pressing need that sufficiently drives individuals towards action. Motivation is therefore the internal energy that triggers individuals to take action towards

meeting their goals. Motivation drives what individuals do towards the satisfaction of their needs. Motivation, as an internal factor, influences consumer behaviour.

b) Perception

The senses of humans are much wider than the narrow five physical senses of touch, taste, smell, sight and sound. Awareness about direction, timing and balance, for example, comes from the senses. Based on the stimuli it receives from the senses, the brain processes information to formulate a big picture about what is going on in the world. However, the information itself is not necessarily detailed enough and individuals complete the picture through past experience or imagination. In the context of the purchasing behaviour of specialty products, while customers do conduct research on the product, the information is insufficient, hence they make the final decision based on their subjective feelings about whether it is the right thing to do.

4.6.2 Social factors

Humans are social beings who respond to the influences of people around them, both for endorsement or disapproval. Few people are prepared to face the risk of going against the norm. Social factors influence consumer behaviour to affect the purchasing behaviour of consumers during the selection of specialty products.

a) Family: Families, have an influence on purchasing behaviour. b) Reference Groups: approve or criticise the purchasing behaviour of individual members; and c) Roles and status play a huge role when consumers purchase specialty products.

4.6.3 Cultural factors

Cultural factors consist of a) Culture; b) Sub-culture; and c) Social class, which greatly impact the culture and purchasing behaviour of consumers:

a) Culture

Culture gives unwritten and unspoken messages to individual members of a society about what is normal behaviour, which is consistent with the restrictions imposed by the group and to restrict thoughts, actions and perceptions that are regarded as outside the nature of the group (Parker-Pope, 1996; Fielding, 2006). Culture approves norms, ideas, beliefs and activities for belonging in the society, and those that are proscribed. Culture primarily governs individual

wants and behaviour and consumption. Research shows that there is a relationship between the buying behaviour of consumers and culture, sub-culture and social classes (Chaudry, 2014). Marketers are best advised to focus on finding strategies to work within the boundaries of culture, rather than the massive undertaking of cultural transformation (Woo *et al.*, 2017).

b) Sub-Culture

A sub-culture stands out as a market segment with its own beliefs, values and habits even though it keeps its organic integration into the bigger group from which it originated (Mathur *et al.,* 2003). At times, the sub-culture may adopt an ethos that stands
 opposite to those of the main group (Gajjar, 2013). Marketers can take advantage of the sub-culture and target specific goods to their needs.

c) Social class

Societies often organise themselves according to rigid hierarchies where individuals are ranked based on their designated status or standing. This is social class and it has an effect on consumer behaviour. Since it creates explicit divisions among members of society, it is to be expected that consumers behave according to their class position and avoid pursuits that are regarded as unacceptable for their class (Kumar, 2019). Social class is determined by a range of factors such as education, income, occupation, lifestyle and position. There are three different social classes in society, which exhibit different purchasing behaviour, namely the lower, middle and upper classes (Singh, Pushkar and Mall, 2020:15607). The purchasing behaviour of the upper class aims to affirm its prestige through high-end products. The middle class makes comparisons across different outlets and hunts for bargains. The lower class tends to make impulsive purchases. Knowledge of the different classes and their purchasing habits will enable marketers to provide goods that appeal to their needs (Mall *et al.*, 2020).

4.6.4 Economic Factors

Economic factors have an influence on consumer behaviour. Examples are:

a) Personal Income,

b) Family income,

c) Income expectations,

d) Savings,

e) Liquid assets of the Consumer,

f) Consumer credit, and

g) Other economic factors (Ramya *et al*., 2016:79).

a) Personal Income

Personal income determines purchasing behaviour. Individuals tend to increase or reduce expenditure according to their disposable income, which is the amount of money left after deductions from the gross income. A higher disposable income enhances the living standards of individuals (Ramya *et al*., 2016).

b) Family income

Family income is the aggregate income based on the contributions of every member of a family. Pooling finances together can create a surplus that shifts consumer behaviour and facilitates the acquisition of high-end products (Shah, 2020).

c) Income Expectations

Income expectations determine the buying behaviour of individuals, enabling them to adjust their expenditure based on optimism or pessimism about their future earnings. The higher the expected income, the higher the likelihood for individuals to purchase high-end goods; while lower income expectations also lower the individual's expenditure (Kumar *et al*., 2007).

d) Savings

Savings allow individuals to live debt-free and make purchasing decisions based on affordability. Individuals who are keen to increase their savings are likely to reduce their expenditure towards non-essential items.

e) Liquid assets

Liquid assets refer to assets that can be quickly placed on sale and converted into cash so that no losses are incurred. For example, physical materials and financial shares. Access to liquid assets creates incentives for individuals to buy specialty products while reducing access to liquid assets discourages this purchasing behaviour (Kumar *et al*., 2020).

f) Consumer credit

Consumer credit refers to the direct credit facilities offered by vendors or indirectly through financial institutions to selected qualifying customers to access goods on hire purchase or obtain cash loans. Consumer credit provides an inducement for consumers to increase their expenditure, with aspirations for higher standards of living, while exposing themselves to rising personal debt levels (Ramya *et al*., 2016:79).

g) Other economic factors

Macro or micro-economic factors, such as inflation, lending rates, fuel prices and consumer confidence, have an influence on consumer behaviour (Shah, 2010).

4.6.5 Personal factors

Personal factors also influence buyer behaviour. The important personal factors that influence buyer behaviour are:

a) Age, b) Occupation, c) Income and d) Lifestyle

a) Age

Consumers change their purchasing habits and preferences with the passing of time and as they grow older and assume new roles and responsibilities as per the demands of their life cycle (Ali *et al*., 2016:80). For instance, the spending priorities of teenagers will be very different to those of their parents.

b) Occupation

Occupations can place demands on individual lifestyle choices, personal image and perceived status, which will impact the type of purchasing decisions they have to make (Jisana, 2014:35).

c) Income

The income levels of individuals influence consumer behaviour. Access to income provides purchasing power and it can therefore define their lifestyles and patterns of consumption. Specialty products are expensive in comparison to other goods, which is part of their appeal to status buying. Should discounts be offered, all customers must be allowed to pay the special price and not, for example, offer separate discounts for certain groups such as senior citizens, club members and frequent fliers, which must not differ from less frequent consumers (Kanuk *et al*., 1997:174).

d)   Lifestyle

Lifestyle refers to the set of consistent formal or informal activities, avenues of entertainment, past-time pursuits, physical appearances and explicit attitudes that individuals embrace in order to give expression to their personal experience of the world around them. Marketers target customers with particular lifestyles such as outdoors, sports or foodies.

4.7 THEORY OF BUYER BEHAVIOUR

The theory of buyer behaviour depicts how all marketing influences are integrated into a sequence of information that affects consumers' choices when purchasing. Consumers' purchasing choices can be analysed using this model since there are various types of products depicted in the model, particularly specialty products which this study focuses on. For example, the use of the term 'consumer' is preferred over the term 'buyer'. The model which depicts the Theory of Consumer Buying Behaviour highlights important components such as culture, personality, satisfaction, the sensitivity of the information, search for relevant information and attention (Bray, 2008).

The Theory of Buying Behaviour goes into deeper levels of involvement such as the amount of energy, resources, thought, time and effort that go into choices when customers shop. There are many individuals who invest much time searching for information, to the extent that their cognitive state has to be stable and accept that they are ready to make a purchase.
When purchases are planned, it shows that impulsive buying behaviour has been practised in the past (Bellini, Cardinalli and Grandi, 2017).

The amount of preparation that a customer goes through greatly influences their buying behaviour, especially when there is more preparation. Planned purchases are in sharp contrast to impulse purchases, such that when there is less preparation, the amount of purchases is low. Decisions whether to purchase or not may always happen in the store or at the point of purchase displays, or when passing through the aisles and seeing items one may not require on promotion, but can also occur when outside of the store or on the way to the store (Bellini, Cardinalli and Grandi, 2017).

The theory of buying behaviour has an impact on the perceptions of consumers before they make actual purchasing decisions. For example, when purchasing a house, there are many factors to consider such as the location, surrounding environment, features, market value and

other aspects which link to the buyer's intention and which affect the customer's buying behaviour (Chia, Harun, Kassim, Martin and Kepal, 2016).

Shopping is an inherently regular and repetitive activity. Consumers soon develop a conscious or unconscious purchasing cycle, which indicates the frequency, or lack thereof, in which they may return to make the purchase. The speed and regularity of the purchase cycle are determined both by the type of product, such as cosmetics versus appliances, and the purchasing decisions of consumers, such as brand loyalty versus cost factor. However, theories on buying behaviour must still conduct further exploration of the processes that explain consumer purchasing decisions. Marketers can benefit by developing a better understanding of the kinds of product awareness and situational factors that influence purchasing decisions.

The elements of a buyer's brand-choice decision are:

 (i) Motives,

(ii) Available options, and

(iii) Factors which mediate between the motives and the available options. Motives can be bound to a particular class of products and also indicate the primary needs of buyers. The - available options are the alternative brands that can potentially give satisfaction to the motives of buyers (Bray, 2008).

- Motive: The general or specific needs that urge individuals to take action towards their fulfilment;

- Evoked Set: The evaluation by consumers of the potential satisfaction to be derived from the purchasing decision and consumption;

- Decision mediators: The thought processes of consumers in the selection of the products and assessment of available options;

- Predispositions: The personal favourites towards which the consumer already holds affinity, as per their existing attitudes.;

- Inhibitors: Constraints against the preferred choice consumption that emanates from the context of the environment, such as lack of time or inadequate budget; and

- Satisfaction: The feedback loop that reflects post-purchase behaviour and information for future purchasing decisions (Bray, 2008).

Through learning the customer's decision-making process, marketers are able to keep consumers updated and anticipate the likelihood of more purchases. The variations in customers' awareness and attitude towards particular brands lead to different decision outcomes (Howard and Sheth, 1969). Customers who lack adequate information about particular brands will feel ambiguous and so overthink their decisions about whether or not to purchase (Jacintha, 2020).

Exogenous variables are external variables that can significantly influence decisions. However, the process to arrive at a definition of these exogenous variables is tricky since individual buyers bring unique experiences into the process (Howard and Sheth, 1969:42).

The five output variables on the right of the model represent the buyer's response, and follow the progressive steps to purchase:

• *Attention*: Amount of information the buyer has the capacity to absorb;

• *Comprehension*: The buyer processes the information and derives meaning to apply the information in their decision;

• *Attitudes*: The buyer makes judgements regarding the potential of the brand to bring satisfaction to their motives;

• *Intention*: The preference, or first choice, that the buyer is likely to acquire; and

• Purchase Behaviour: The observed behaviour of the buyer, which can also confirm their predisposition towards the brand in the absence of inhibiting factors (Jacintha, 2020).

The Theory of Buyer Behaviour integrates all the relevant variables and displays the manner in which they relate to each other (Hunt and Pappas, 1972). For example, it attempts to show that the attitudes of the buyer contribute towards their intentions (Howard and Sheth 1969). The model creates a flow among the variables (Loudon and Della-Bitta, 1993). Furthermore, the Theory of Buyer Behaviour is able to show coherence among the influences that have an effect on consumers, from sources such as society to the individual's own mental processes and marketing cues (Howard and Sheth, 1969).

4.8 CONSUMER DECISION MODEL
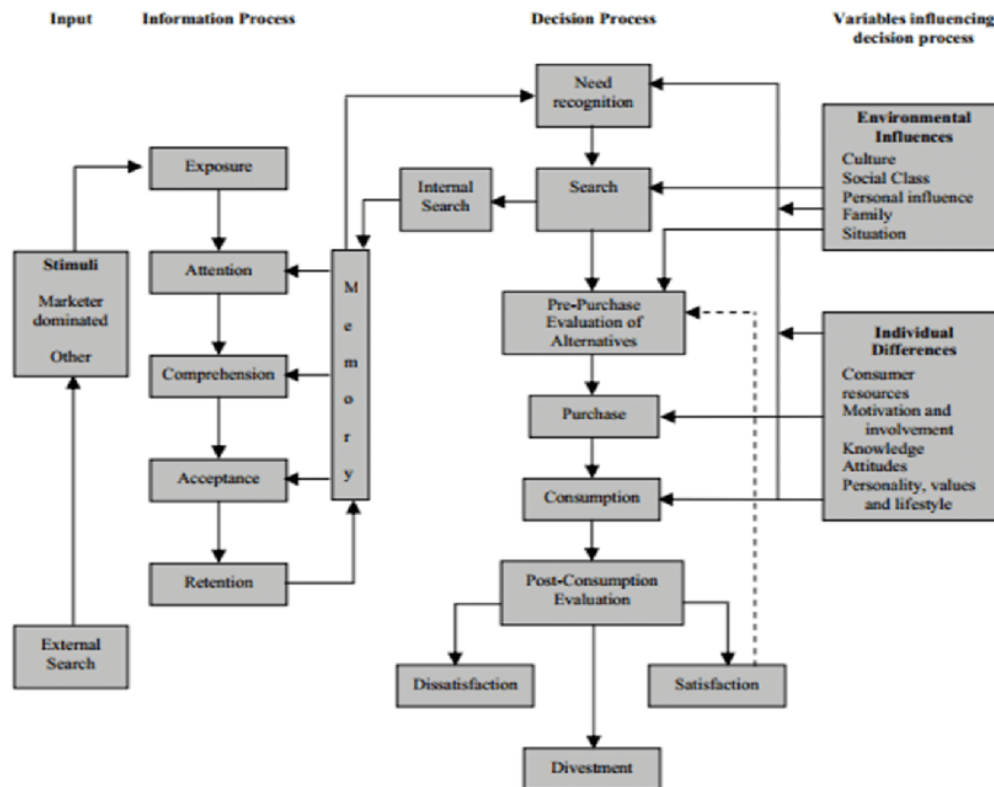
Figure 4.4: The Consumer Decision Model
Source - Blackwell et al., 2001

The Consumer Decision Model, also known as the Engel-Blackwell-Miniard Model, developed originally in 1968 by Engel, Kollat and Blackwell, has been revised many times. It has many similar elements to the Theory of Buyer Behaviour (Howard and Sheth, 1969), despite structural differences and arrangements of interactions between the variables. There are seven points in the Consumer Decision Model: need recognition, followed by a search for information both internally and externally; the evaluation of alternatives; purchase; post-purchase reflection; and finally, divestment. Two key factors influence these decisions. Firstly, the reception and processing of stimuli by the consumer are assimilated into existing experiences that are stored in memory. Secondly, the environment provides external stimuli, namely culture, social class, personal influence, family and situation. Individual influences are consumer resources, motivation and involvement, knowledge, attitudes, personality, values and lifestyle (Crilly, Blackwell and Clarkson 2006).

In terms of the model, the process begins when the consumer makes recognition of an immediate or long-term need that must be fulfilled in order for them to achieve their goals.

Individual differences and the stimuli from the environment interact to influence the consumer to conduct information searches, both from prior experience captured in their memory repository and from sources that are available in the external domain. The speed, scale and depth to which the consumer engages in searching for information are subject to whether the problem is new, complex and consequential (Panwar, Anand, Ali, and Singal, 2019; Loudon *et al.*, 1993;).

The information undergoes five stages of processing before it is stored and used, namely exposure, attention, comprehension, acceptance and retention. Individual differences and the stimuli from the environment interact again to enable the consumer to evaluate alternative choices as per their perceptions and intentions to purchase. Since it focuses less on inhibiting factors, despite highlighting the individual and environmental influence, the model is predicated on positive outcomes where the consumer makes the purchase. Subsequent to consumption, the next stage in the model is post-consumption evaluation about whether the consumer experienced satisfaction or dissatisfaction, thus generating feedback for the next information search. The final stage is divestment which gives recognition to the possibility of the eventual disposal of the product in future by the consumer. The evolution of the Consumer Decision Model continues in line with new questions and current developments in the field (Diksha *et al.*, 2019; Foxall 2017).

However, criticism of the model suggests that it assumes a rigid mechanical approach that can be inapplicable in certain contexts; contains vague definitions; and lacks explicit elaboration about the constant interaction between the variables (Loudon and Della-Bitta, 1993). For example, there is an inadequate exploration of the influence of individual variables beyond the recognition of needs (Gurhan-Canli *et al.*, 2002; Loudon and Della-Bitta, 1993).

This study will also focus largely on the consumer decision-making process and how this links to culture and the purchase of specialty products. The five stages of this process are as follows:

Step 1. Problem Recognition (awareness of need):

When one is hungry, the first need that person will is food, which means hunger stimulates one's need to eat. In the same way, when one is in need of a high-quality camera, designer shoes or clothing, then one automatically started the process by becoming aware. Cultural values that will be highlighted in this study include social factors, religion, norms, beliefs and customs that impact the awareness of one's needs (Stankevich, 2017).

Step 2. Information search:

When the customer decides which needs have been aroused, then the extensive information search begins since specialty products are not routine purchases of shopping and convenience products. There is then an internal or external search which takes place during this stage. An internal search suggests that the consumer retrieves information from memory from past experiences and knowledge about this specialty product. An external search is generally linked to many environmental factors, for example, word-of-mouth (Diksha *et al*., 2019).

Step 3. Evaluation of alternatives:

Consumers look for many options when purchasing. They evaluate the different criteria involved when purchasing. For example, when purchasing an expensive sports car, the consumer will evaluate the colour, price, features, brand and many other features. When evaluating the alternatives to sports cars, the consumer must feel somewhat involved. By being involved, one must feel the relevance and importance of their purchase. There are two types of involvement namely:

  i.   Low-involvement purchases: purchasing routine shopping and convenience products like bread, milk, soap, cereals and butter.
 ii.   High-involvement purchases: specialty products such as buying designer clothing or purchasing a home (Stankevich, 2017:10).

Step 4. Purchase decision:

This stage involves the actual purchase after all the alternatives were evaluated. A consumer may go to the store to purchase/buy and may be influenced differently when they perhaps see a sales promotion and purchase something differently. This is known as an impulse purchase. On a similar thread, a consumer may find a product with more value for money (Stankevich, 2017). Consumer behaviour also shows that the purchasing decisions of consumers involve the consideration of whether a particular outlet has a reputation for running out of products or it is always fully stocked (Lamb *et al*., 2015).

Step 5. Post-Purchase Evaluation:

Customers either experience satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their purchase at this stage. The customer evaluates whether their expectations were met. If the customer is satisfied, chances are that they will repeat the purchase or be a loyal customer of that company. Cultural values

also influence the level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction and ultimately affect the consumer decision-making process (Diksha *et al.*, 2019).

4.9 THEORY OF REASONED ACTION
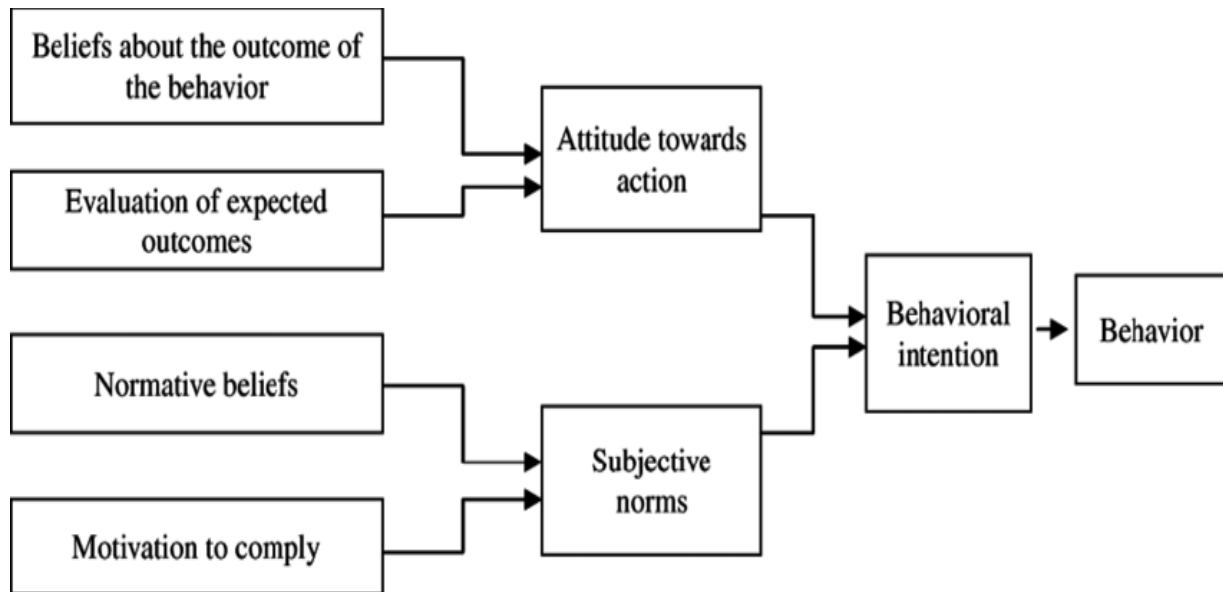
Figure 4.5: The Theory of Reasoned Action
 Source - Fishbein and Ajzen (1975); Loudon and Della-Bitta (1993)

In terms of the Theory of Reasoned Action, behaviour is likely to match the intentions of the said behaviour. These flow from the attitude of the consumer towards the product and their subjective norms regarding their behaviour. The role of social influence on the purchasing decision and the potential for the customer's compliance thereof is given recognition through the variable of subjective norms in the Theory of Reasoned Action (Bray, 2008; Solomon, Bamossy, Askegaard and Hogg, 2006; Miller 2005). Furthermore, the Theory of Reasoned Action emphasises the measurement of the consumer's attitude towards buying a product which goes beyond measuring the consumer's attitude toward the product since, for example, consumers are not necessarily bound to buy according to their wishes all the time (Hogg *et al.*, 2006).

4.10 THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR
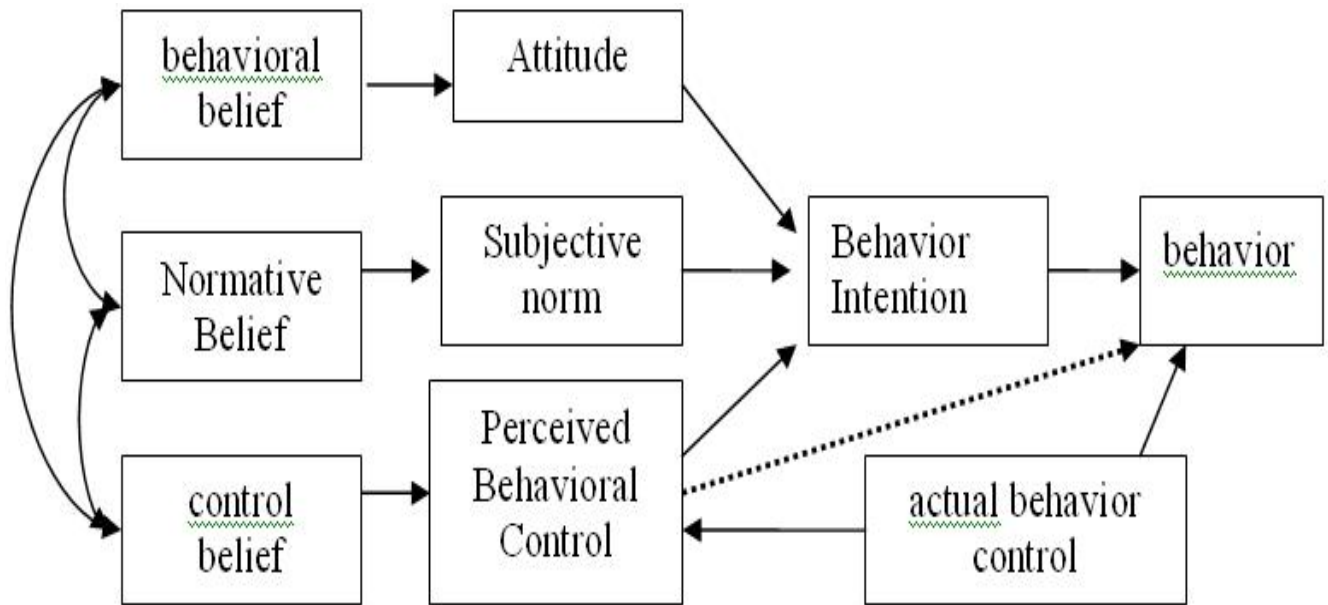
Figure 4.6: Theory of Planned Behaviour
Source - Ajzen (2006)

In terms of the Theory of Planned Behaviour, the consumer's behavioural intentions are regulated by the complex interaction between attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control variables. Behavioural intention leads to the actual behaviour, which is about the competencies and resource capacities of a person to perform a behaviour. In turn, actual behaviour is mediated through perceived behavioural control, which is about the evaluation of the presence and potential of facilitating or inhibiting factors (Chen, 2000). The Theory of Planned Behaviour seeks to make predictions about the intentions of behaviour and empirical studies and modifications are designed towards achieving this goal (Ajzen, 1991).

4.11 CUSTOMER MOTIVATION FOR BUYING SPECIALTY PRODUCTS

The process of consumption of products or services is an expression of individual identity in making choices, as it is also shaped by the prevailing environment in the society, culture and economy (Zukin and Maguire, 2004). Individual satisfaction from their selection of products is drawn from their own perceptions, as well as the anticipated responses of those around them. A study conducted by Holbrook and Hirschman (1982:137) found personal elements in the experience of buying that are part of the process of consumption.

4.11.1 Utilitarian values and Hedonic values

Purchasing can bring different emotions to consumers, namely feelings of accomplishment pleasure and creativity. Utilitarian values refer to the practical and usability features of a product that bring benefits to the consumer. Hedonic values refer to the subjective experiences of amusement and relaxation that are derived by customers from the consumption of specialty products. The interaction between utilitarian and hedonic values is mutually inclusive and they both have an influence on the intentions of buyers (Ozturk *et al.*, 2016) and the purchasing decisions by customers regarding specialty products (Babin *et al.*, 1994). Customers can obtain hedonic values while undergoing the selection stage of the buying, which results in repeat purchases (Lin and Lu, 2015) and establishing loyalty in e-commerce (Chiu *et al.*, 2014). Both utilitarian and hedonic values bring direct and indirect influences to purchasing decisions and the of specialty products.

4.11.2 Uniqueness

The need for uniqueness refers to the pressing urge that drives an individual to distinguish themselves from others (Snyder and Fromkin, 2002:414). The need for uniqueness may be high or low amongst individuals and those who want to be different possess a high need for uniqueness against those whose need for uniqueness is lower. Specialty products symbolise exclusive tastes and therefore meet the high standards of individuals with a high need for uniqueness (Goldsmith, and Clark, 2018) who see these as extrinsic outlets of their intrinsic uniqueness (Fromkin *et al.*, 1992). Consumers regard the distinctive design features of specialty products as consistent with their beliefs and the manner in which these must be expressed (Goldsmith *et al.*, 2018:5). Specialty products with explicit branding are likely to attract consumers whose need for uniqueness is high along, with motivation factors that are extrinsic, as opposed to those with high uniqueness need customers with intrinsic motivation factors who look for understated and discreet designs on specialty products (Babin *et al.*, 1994). Consumer behaviour shows that personal improvement is more important to individualists because they want to show their uniqueness, while collectivists prefer to fit in with others. The purchase of eco-friendly specialty goods is also intended to enhance the self-esteem and image of individuals with a need for uniqueness (Kang and Ma, 2020).

4.11.3 Status

Status is the rank bestowed upon or appropriated by particular members, based on a hierarchy of objective characteristics that are significant within a particular society. For example, position, level of education, income, family origins, place and social network may credit

individuals with high or low status within the group. The focus of status consumption is on the processes that motivate buying, rather than the act of buying, "by which individuals strive to improve their social standing through the conspicuous consumption of consumer products that confer and symbolize status both for the individual and surrounding significant others" (Anderson and Simester, 2015:258). Status is a recognisable motivation in purchasing behaviour, especially for shopping that is conducted under the public gaze (Griskevicius *et al*., 2011:1018). Some motivators to explain status shopping can be common. For example, the high or low needs for uniqueness where, respectively, individuals may seek to distinguish themselves or follow the crowd, as well as extrinsic motivation such as the display of material success (Delgado-Ballester and Fernandez, 2015). The concepts of snob effects and bandwagon effects are also used, where the former refers to the purchase of exclusive products and the latter refers to the purchase of goods that enable the individual customer to fit in (Inwon and Ilhwan, 2020).

4.11.4 Quality

According to Kotler and Armstrong (2010:34), product performance is impacted by the quality of the product, which affects the satisfaction and value of the customer. Quality can be used as a competitive tool and should be continually changing positively since products are constantly changing with customers' needs and want. When customers are satisfied with the specialty products they purchase, it is considered that they are satisfied and pleased to regard it as high quality. However, if customers' expectations are not met generally, the product is regarded as low quality. The quality of products influences the customers' intention to purchase. When customers are purchasing specialty products, they generally should have high expectations of the quality since specialty products are luxurious in nature. Therefore, if the quality is excellent and high, then inevitably customer's purchasing intentions should be high. Companies that offer specialty products should ensure that product quality is one of their core competencies. Quality can also enhance the customer's satisfaction with the product and this could create positive word of mouth for the business (Akhter and Fakir, 2019).

4.12 CONSUMER CULTURE THEORY

Consumer culture theory (CCT) is a field of inquiry that seeks to unravel the complexities of consumer culture (Arnould and Thompson, 2018). The CCT is relevant in this study as the researcher aim to understand the cultural factors influencing the purchase behaviour of specialty products. Firstly, the CCT view of culture differs dramatically from the conventional consumer research representation of "culture as a fairly homogenous system of collectively

shared meanings, ways of life, and unifying values shared by a member of society" (Arnould and Thompson, 2005: 868–869). Secondly, in CCT, consumer culture refers to what consumers do and believe rather than an attribute of character. Thus, the CCT explores the "heterogeneous distribution of meanings and the multiplicity of overlapping cultural groupings that exist within the broader socio-historical frame of globalization and market capitalism" (Arnould and Thompson, 2005: 869).

The seminal work of Arnould and Thompson (2005: 869) defines consumer culture as "a social arrangement in which the relations between lived culture and social resources, and between meaningful ways of life and the symbolic and material resources on which they depend, are mediated through markets." Several years later, the authors note that the idea of consumer culture has a broad, even all-embracing quality (Arnould and Thompson, 2018). According to their report, in the modern world, core identities are defined and oriented in relation to consumption. While in the early years, CCT focused largely on agentic identity projects and symbolic consumption, however, this has shifted towards an interest in socio-historical and institutional structures shaping consumption (Thompson, Arnould, and Geisler 2013). This shift, according to Thompson and team, gave way to a broader perspective on market inequities, propelling a better understanding of "power, social stratification, gender hierarchies, ideological interpellations, and other structuring forces" (Thompson, Arnould, and Geisler, 2013: 159). This view agrees with the early proposition by Slater (1997) that consumer culture denotes a socio-economic arrangement in which markets either directly or indirectly mediate the relationships between lived experiences, that is, between meaningful ways of life and the symbolic and material resources on which they depend.

Furthermore, and from the perspective of CCT, consumer culture is a dynamic network of boundary-spanning material, economic, symbolic, and social relationships, or connections (Arnould *et al.,* 2019: 7). Thus, "the consumption of market-made commodities and desire-inducing commercialized symbols is central to consumer culture" (Arnould and Thompson, 2018a: 5). Kilbourne *et al.* (1997) refer to this as an ideology of consumption, which literacy implies that people view their quality of life in terms of their ability to consume ever-greater quantities of goods. In other words, people are materialistic in orientation. Nevertheless, it is practical to note that CCT is not a unified theory. Instead, it is a continuously evolving perspective on consumer society and markets that shape cultural life. CCT offers a way of assessing consumption from particular socio-cultural systems embedded in globalization and market capitalism (Joy and Li, 2012).

Arnould and Thompson (2018a) outlined four analytical domains that systematize CCT scholars' theoretical contributions. These include:

- Work at the individual level: which explores the shaping of consumer identity projects
- At the group level: which examines the influence of the marketplace on lived culture and cultural resources.
- At the societal level: which investigates the intersection of social categories, social organization and consumption; and,
- At the macro level: which addresses consumers' strategies of interpreting mass-mediated marketplace ideologies and discourses.

Although each of these four research domains investigates different aspects of consumption, they are united by the goal of arriving at a deep cultural understanding of consumer lifeworld. Thus, it becomes essential to explore CCT in the context of consumer consumption of specialty goods in South Africa.

4.13 CONSUMER CULTURE THEORY APPLICATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

Specialty products such as luxury brands are rapidly growing due to the heightened demand for premier brands worldwide (Shukla *et al.,* 2016). Kauffmann *et al.* (2016) note that emerging markets such as the continent of Africa are contributing significantly to this growth. While limited spending power may become a major hindrance to the consumption of specialty products, it is said in the literature that more middle-income consumers are developing a unique taste for these products (CPPLuxury, 2019). This may likely be connected to the assumption that the consumption of these goods, particularly foreign-made ones is considered an effective sign of status in African societies, and South Africa is no exception. Walters (2017) attributes the high desire for specialty products such as luxury goods to the lifting of many Africans from poverty to joining a rapidly growing middle class that is eager to cement their newfound status This makes African societies among the most brand-conscious (Naude, 2015), particularly for specialty products such as luxury brands.

South Africa, for example, is currently assessed as one of the most developed luxury brand markets among emerging markets within the African continent, where the appetite for luxury brands is ever-increasing (Chipp *et al.,* 2011). Additionally, with the growth of globalisation the luxury realm has expanded and caused a customer base to emerge that is more culturally diverse than ever. South Africa not only comprises indigenous individuals with diverse cultural

backgrounds but also individuals of European and Asian descent. The country's economy and consequent job opportunities attract people from the rest of the African continent, thereby adding to its cultural diversity (Ford and Versi, 2017). The number of international luxury brands that have arrived within the South African market has increased drastically over the years and is expected to continue in future years (Euromonitor International, 2013). Luxury Brands such as Burberry, Louis Vuitton, and Gucci, to name a few maintained a presence in South Africa (Zici *et al.*, 2021: Deloit, 2017). The increasing interest in these luxury brands is driven by the growth of the self-improving and ambitious consumer market that has surfaced within South African middle-class society (Bills, 2017). South African consumers continue to strive towards these luxury brands in order to fulfil their psychological needs unlike non-luxury brands that serve merely functional needs (Bills, 2017).

Equally important and relevant to this study is that the influx of luxury brands into SA has presented the opportunity for previously disadvantaged consumers to purchase specialty products such as luxury brands. Considering this transformation of the South African market, the potential for luxury brands to ultimately strengthen the SA economy is patent (Gohary and Hanzaee, 2014). A recent survey in South Africa by Zici *et al.* (2021) found that higher-order cultural values such as individualism and collectivism have a predictive influence on individuals level values, self-enhancement, and materialism. This meant that South African cultural values had a direct influence on materialism tendency.

4.14 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

The conceptual model attempt to facilitate the understanding of how cultural values drives the purchasing of specialty at a higher education institution in South Africa. Particularly, the conceptual model focuses on Hofstede cultural dimensions that influence the consumer purchase behaviour of specialty products (Hofstede, 2013). In the past, culture has been used in various studies as a key dimension to explain consumer buying behaviour. Lamb *et al.* (2015) note that culture has the power to influence a consumer's perception of how and where they purchase and also the types of specialty products they choose. Moreover, Gopal (2011) notes that cultural differences generally lead to differences in consumers' attitudes, tastes and intentions. From a marketing perspective, it becomes practical to understand the influence of cultural values on higher education staff's purchase of specialty products.

Several attempts in recent years pushed forward to develop and understand the motives behind consumers' behaviour toward specialty products such as luxury goods (Jain *et al.,* 2019).

While these studies lend some insights into factors influencing purchase intention and behaviour (Pena-García *et al.,* 2020; Jian *et al.,* 2019), there is a knowledge gap about the motives that promulgate the actual purchase behaviour of specialty products. Moreover, despite the great achievement made in consumer behaviour, from a South African perspective, and particularly from higher education institutions context, there is room for further advancement in understanding consumer purchase behaviour of specialty products based on cultural values. According to Rahman (2019:32), understanding cultural properties in the analysis of consumer behaviour is an essential component of marketing segmentation. The conceptual model for this study is therefore premised on the Hofstede cultural dimensions and consumer motivation theory.

4.14.1 The perceived role of individualism and purchase behaviour of specialty products based on status

According to Aliyev and Wagnev (2018:159), individualists possess emotional detachment from collective perceptions and thus view their personal goals as more important. Extant literature reveals that status-driven consumers may purchase specialty products primarily for additional-oriented or individual-oriented motives, with the concluding inclination typically including ostentatious product display (Kim and Kim, 2016; Vigneron and Johnson, 2004). More so, other scholars reported that consumers in emerging markets like South Africa, tend to purchase highly noticeable specialty products for reasons of pure ostentation (Kim and Kim, 2016:447; Yang and Mattila, 2014:528). In light of the findings of the extant literature, the study hypothesised that:

H1:   *There is a positive relationship between individualism cultural value and the purchase of specialty products based on status.*

4.14.2 The perceived role of collectivism and purchase behaviour of specialty products based on status

According to Aliyev and Wagnev (2018:160), people with collectivist values are more concerned with public image or face and thus emphasise publicly visible possessions. Additionally, collectivist people purchase luxury products to uphold a particular image and

physical front (Li and Su, 2007) and thus may likely seek products that convey status and prestige. In light of the findings of the extant literature, the study hypothesised that:

H2:   *There is a positive relationship between collectivism cultural value and the purchase of specialty products based on status.*

4.14.3 The perceived role of powder distance and purchase behaviour of specialty products based on status

Leng and Botelho (2010) explain that an individual who is seen to have less power in society will tend to accept unfairness in power as being normal to them or to be normal. This is corroborated by Hofstede *et al*. (2010) who said that inequalities are generally accepted by individuals from societies with a high power distance. Amatulli, Pino, Iodice and Cascio (2016) and Bissessar (2018) said that in emerging markets, luxury consumers may be inclined to flaunt wealth to distinguish themselves from less affluent people. In light of the findings of the extant literature, the study hypothesised that:

H3:   *There is a positive relationship between power distance cultural value and the purchase of specialty products based on status.*

4.14.4 The perceived role of masculinity/femininity and purchase behaviour of specialty products based on status

Masculinity-femininity (MF) refers to "the extent to which society values achievement, assertiveness, competitiveness, materialism, ambition and success (masculinity) versus caring, nurturance, modesty, relationships and equality (femininity) (Lu *et al.,* 2017). Faqih (2022) notes that people in developing countries show feminine cultural values as opposed to those in developed countries who tend towards masculinity cultural values. This resonates with the view that high femininity considers caring for others and quality of life as the dominant values in society, whereas high masculinity considers personal success and the achievement of material goals as the dominant values (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011). According to Tang (2017: 88), people tend to value modesty in feminine culture, whereas, in masculine cultures, people tend to value self-enhancement, high social status and personal success. In light of the findings of the extant literature, the study hypothesised that:

H4:   *There is a positive relationship between masculinity/feminity cultural value, and the purchase of specialty products based on status.*

4.14.5 The perceived role of uncertainty avoidance and purchase behaviour of specialty products based on status

Aryani and Koesma (2020) state that in strong uncertainty avoidance cultures, individuals feel threatened by unknown or uncertain situations. High levels of uncertainty are anticipated to boost customers' propensity to form enduring relationships with businesses in order to reduce future unpredictability (Samaha *et al.,* 2014). Barari *et al.* (2021) note that an increase in uncertainty avoidance will decrease the effectiveness of engagement formation. Particularly, according to Cheah *et al.* (2020), a culture with a high level of uncertainty avoidance reacts to ambiguous or uncertain situations more forcefully than a society with a low level of uncertainty avoidance, which is more risk-averse. The authors note that consumers' level of uncertainty avoidance will probably have an impact on how they perceive (i.e., how they perceive value, how they perceive trust, and how they perceive attitude), which becomes more obvious when they have to pay more in luxury retail stores. In light of the findings of the extant literature, the study hypothesised that:

H5:   *There is a positive relationship between uncertainty cultural value and the purchase of specialty products based on status.*

4.14.6 The perceived role of individualism and purchase behaviour of specialty products based on quality

The consumption of specialty and rare products to satisfy hedonic and symbolic demands is referred to as luxury consumption (Das and Jebarajakirthy, 2020; Han and Kim, 2020; Mrad *et al*., 2020). This meant that consumers that are high on individualism values may purchase specialty products to stand out due to such product qualities. This is corroborated by Meyer (2017) who posited that specialty products have the highest reputation and quality. In light of the findings of the extant literature, the study hypothesised that:

H6:   *There is a positive relationship between individualism value and the purchase of specialty products based on quality.*

4.14.7 The perceived role of collectivism and purchase behaviour of specialty products based on quality

According to Akhter and Fakir (2019:30), quality can also enhance the customer's satisfaction with the product and this could create positive word of mouth for the business. For specialty products, it thus means that if the quality is excellent and high, then inevitably customers' purchasing intentions should be high. This is vital in collectivism society where people believe that any success is regarded as success for a group (Han et al., 2020: 299). In light of the findings of the extant literature, the study hypothesised that:

H7:   *There is a positive relationship between collectivism value and the purchase of specialty products based on quality.*

4.14.8 The perceived role of masculinity/femininity and purchase behaviour of specialty products based on quality

Lin (2015) notes that individuals high on masculinity cultural values are generally goal-oriented and therefore tend to show positive perceptions towards the adoption of new technology for the benefit of achieving more effective and efficient work processes to enhance an individual's work quality. Tewari and Solanki (2022: 12) found that individuals high on masculinity are more concerned with the quality of the product they purchase. In light of the findings of the extant literature, the study hypothesised that:

H8:   *There is a positive relationship between masculinity/femininity value and the purchase of specialty products based on quality.*

4.14.9 The perceived role of power distance and purchase behaviour of specialty products based on quality

In light of the fact luxury consumers may be inclined to flaunt wealth to distinguish themselves from less affluent people (Bissessar, 2018; Amatulli, Pino, Iodice and Cascio, 2016), the study hypothesised that:

H9:   *There is a positive relationship between power distance value and the purchase of specialty products based on quality.*

4.14.10 The perceived role of uncertainty avoidance and purchase behaviour of specialty products based on quality

As previously mentioned in this chapter, strong uncertainty avoidance cultures feel threatened by unknown or uncertain situations (Aryani and Koesma, 2020). This implies that state that in strong uncertainty avoidance cultures, individuals feel threatened by unknown or uncertain situations. Al-Omoush et al. (2022) note that such individuals prefer to carefully shape their behaviour and actions. One could rightly assume that individuals high on uncertainty avoidance will opt for specialty products with known quality than attempt unknown products. In light of the findings of the extant literature, the study hypothesised that:

H10:   *There is a positive relationship between uncertainty avoidance value and the purchase of specialty products based on quality.*

4.14.11 The perceived role of individualism and purchase behaviour of specialty products based on the uniqueness

The consumption of specialty products (luxury goods) is one way by which an individual can demonstrate uniqueness (Kim and Kim, 2016). It thus meant that consumers who are high on individualism values will prefer specialty products due to their uniqueness. This assumption agrees with Goldsmith and Clark (2018) who stated that specialty products are scarce and thus attractive to individuals who possess a high need for uniqueness. In light of the findings of the extant literature, the study hypothesised that:

H11:   *There is a positive relationship between individualism value and the purchase of specialty products based on uniqueness.*

4.14.12 The perceived role of collectivism and purchase behaviour of specialty products based on the uniqueness

In light of the view that ingenious choice people may prefer specialty products that are popular and appreciated by others in society (Kastanakis and Balabanis, 2014), it is hypothesised that

H12:   *There is a positive relationship between collectivism value and the purchase of specialty products based on uniqueness.*

4.14.13 The perceived role of masculinity/femininity and purchase behaviour of specialty products based on the uniqueness

According to Marito *et al.* (2019: 65), masculinity-femininity shows the degree or extent to which society adheres to the role of gender or traditional sexual values based on gender differences. The authors add that masculine society emphasizes achievement and firmness so that challenges, progress, and recognition prioritize, while the feminine community prioritizes interpersonal relations, harmony, and group performance. It thus implies that purchasing behaviour with respect to specialty products will differ based on the value system between masculinity and femininity. Soares *et al.* (2007) note that the specialty and its uniqueness are obtained from the value of the culture of the city. In light of the findings of the extant literature, the study hypothesised that:

H13: *There is a positive relationship between masculinity/femininity value and the purchase of specialty products based on uniqueness.*

4.14.14 The perceived role of power distance and purchase behaviour of specialty products based on the uniqueness

The need for uniqueness may be high or low amongst individuals and those who want to be different possess a high need for uniqueness against those whose need for uniqueness is lower. This implies that individuals with high power distance may opt for specialty products due to the product uniqueness. According to Goldsmith and Clark, 2018: 4), specialty products symbolise exclusive tastes and therefore meet the high standards of individuals with a high need for uniqueness. Consumers regard the distinctive design features of specialty products as consistent with their beliefs and the manner in which these must be expressed (Goldsmith *et al.*, 2018:5). In light of the findings of the extant literature, the study hypothesised that:

H14: *There is a positive relationship between power distance value and the purchase of specialty products based on uniqueness.*

4.14.15 The perceived role of uncertainty avoidance and purchase behaviour of specialty products based on the uniqueness

Das *et al.* (2020) note that in the avoidance of similarity, people distance themselves from accepted products as a way of showing their uniqueness. In light of the findings of the extant literature, the study hypothesised that:

H15: *There is a positive relationship between uncertainty avoidance value and the purchase of specialty products based on uniqueness.*

4.14.16 The Relationship between demographic variables and purchase behaviour of specialty products

According to Farrukh *et al*. (2019: 984), cultural values tend to differ in demographics, language, non-verbal communication, and values. These differences are reported in the literature to change consumer purchasing behaviour (Chaudry, 2014). According to Dubois, Czellar and Laurent (2005:117), education is needed to fully appreciate specialty products while Wang and Tong (2017), specialty products are expensive in relative and absolute terms. Equally, the professions people hold have an important influence on their purchasing performance. Jisana (2014), for example, notes that a marketing manager of an organization will try to purchase business suits, whereas a low-level worker in the same organization will purchase modest work clothes. In addition, Stokburger-Sauer and Teichmann (2013) reveal that attitudes towards luxury brands favour women over men. In light of the findings of the extant literature, the study hypothesised that:

H16: *There is a positive relationship between demographic variables and buying behaviour of specialty.*

4.14.17 The Relationship between cultural values and purchase behaviour of specialty products

Karami *et al.* (2015: 303) reported that consumers' purchasing behaviour is predicated on his/her cultural values. Bissessar (2018:79), for example, notes that culture has an influence on customers' insights steering towards differences in purchasing patterns in collectivistic and individualistic cultures. According to Nwankwo, Hamelin and Khaled (2014:735), there is considerable ambivalence in how different societies and cultures relate to the consumption of specialty goods. In light of the findings of the extant literature, the study hypothesised that:

H17: *Cultural values will have a significant positive influence on customer buying behaviour of specialty products.*

The above-hypothesised relationships can be depicted in the conceptual model reflected in Figure 4.7. It encompasses cultural values dimensions, consumer buying behaviour dimensions

and demographic variables. The conceptual model represents the primary constructs of this study and their relationships with one another. In this conceptual model, cultural values are the predictor variables while customer buying behaviour is the outcome. The demographic variables are mediating variables.

Figure 4.7 Model of cultural values and consumer buying behaviour for specialty products
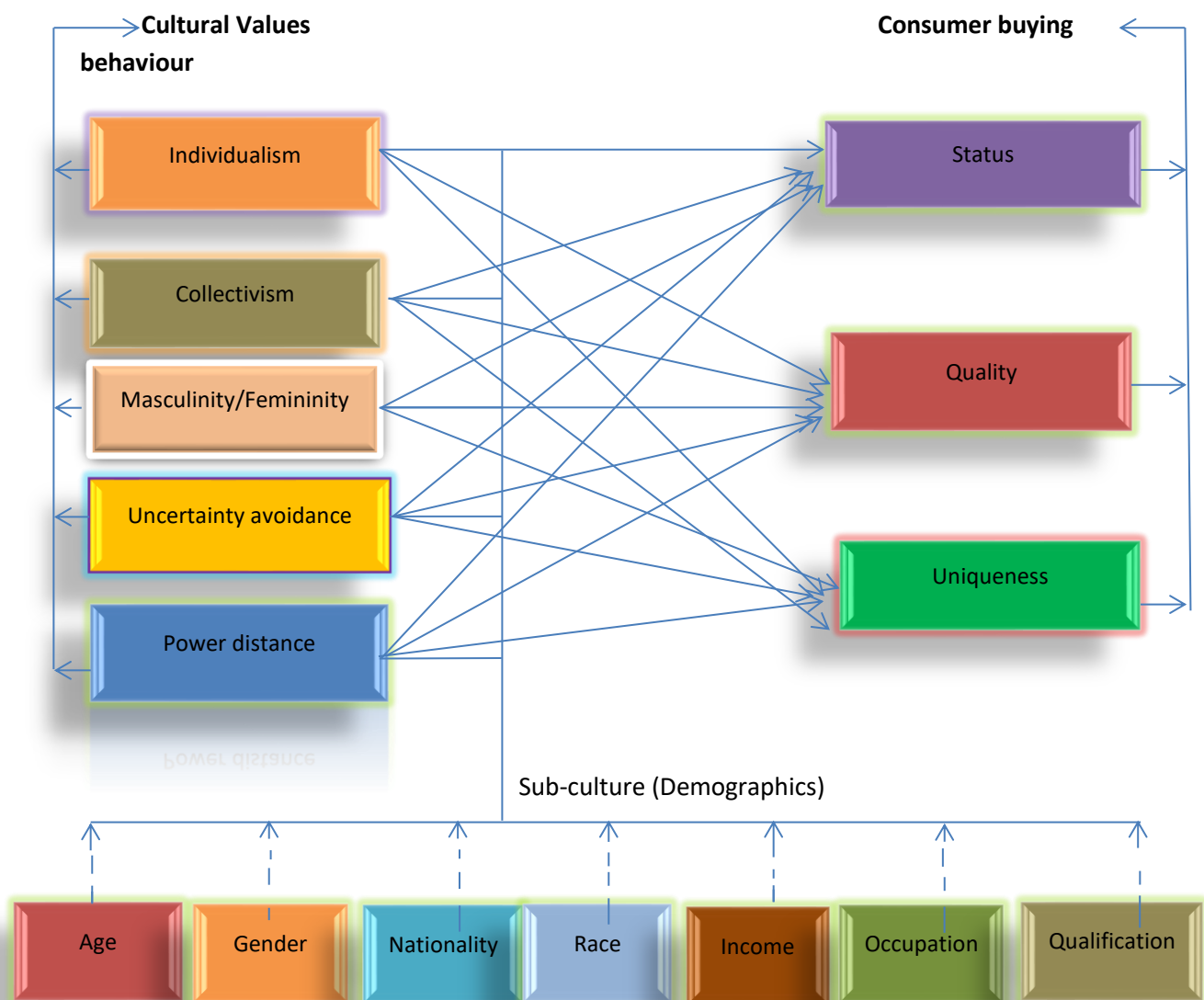
4.15 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The above section of the thesis discussed the theoretical framework of the study. It covered the following topics, namely the theoretical framework of cultural values; the Hofstede cultural theory; the Schwartz model; the Cross-cultural consumer behaviour framework; the factors influencing consumer buying behaviour; the Theory of Buyer Behaviour; the Consumer Decision model; the Theory of Reasoned Action; the Theory of Planned Behaviour; and customer motivation for buying specialty products. Consumer behaviour impacts the purchase behaviour of specialty products and is critical for marketers to understand in order to assist them in crafting a marketing strategy that is responsive to the needs of customers, such as university employees. Hedonic values such as uniqueness and status motivation were also vital factors in this chapter.

Theories such as the theory of Reasoned Behaviour, Consumer Behaviour model and Buyer Behaviour were discussed, which are significant to this study. Consumers with a hedonic motivation that achieves satisfaction through the purchase of specialty products can be expected to develop re-purchase intentions. In addition to exploring consumer motivation, future research could also address the level of consumer involvement with specialty products. Consumer behaviour does not only occur at the point of purchase for specialty products or any other product as it is a continuous process. It has stages that start before, during and after, the actual buying experience (Chen, Chen and Lin, 2012:177). Each consumer is a unique individual, with a vast array of exclusive needs, motivations and desires, which increases the complexity and difficulty of studying and measuring consumer behaviour.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the theoretical framework of the study. This chapter discusses the research methodology. The following topics were covered: the objectives, design, the developed conceptual framework as well as data collection, analysis and ethical considerations. Building on the review of literature conducted in the previous chapters, this chapter focuses on the description of the research methodology. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2019:602) describe research methodology as the theoretical and philosophical assumptions that determine how research is conducted. Research methodology also addresses how the methods are chosen impact a particular study. The major aspects of the research methodology presented in this chapter are the research objectives, research design, sampling methods, questionnaire design, data collection, validity, reliability and ethical issues.

5.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES

Saunders *et al*., (2019:610) define research objectives as well-spelt statements that describe what the researcher seeks to achieve by carrying out the research. Aaker, Day, Lawley and Stewart (2004:51) refer to a research objective as a "statement, in as precise terminology as possible, of what information is needed". This implies that a good framework of research objectives would make it possible to obtain information that satisfies the purpose of the research. The primary objective of the study is to determine the impact of cultural values on consumer behaviour when purchasing specialty products. The following are the research objectives that the study is based on:

5.3.1   To examine employee perceptions of cultural values dimensions;

5.3.2   To evaluate the relationship between cultural values and demographics;

5.3.3   To analyse employee perceptions of consumer behaviour dimensions;

5.3.4   To evaluate the relationship between consumer behaviour and demographics;

5.3.5   To evaluate the impact of cultural values on consumer behaviour; and

5.3.6   To develop a model for cultural value and consumer behaviour for specialty products.

Based on the proposed conceptual framework (Figure 4.7), the research hypotheses are as follows:

H1:   *There is a positive relationship between individualism cultural value and the purchase of specialty products based on status.*

H2:   *There is a positive relationship between collectivism cultural value and the purchase of specialty products based on status.*

H3:   *There is a positive relationship between power distance cultural value and the purchase of specialty products based on status.*

H4:   *There is a positive relationship between masculinity/feminity cultural value and the purchase of specialty products based on status.*

H5:   *There is a positive relationship between uncertainty cultural value and the purchase of specialty products based on status.*

H6:   *There is a positive relationship between individualism value and the purchase of specialty products based on quality.*

H7:   *There is a positive relationship between collectivism value and the purchase of specialty products based on quality.*

H8:   *There is a positive relationship between masculinity/femininity value and the purchase of specialty products based on quality.*

H9:   *There is a positive relationship between power distance value and the purchase of specialty products based on quality.*

H10:   *There is a positive relationship between uncertainty avoidance value and the purchase of specialty products based on quality.*

H11:   *There is a positive relationship between individualism value and the purchase of specialty products based on uniqueness.*

H12:   *There is a positive relationship between collectivism value and the purchase of specialty products based on uniqueness.*

H13:   *There is a positive relationship between masculinity/femininity value and the purchase of specialty products based on uniqueness.*

H14: *There is a positive relationship between power distance value and the purchase of specialty products based on uniqueness.*

H15: *There is a positive relationship between uncertainty avoidance value and the purchase of specialty products based on uniqueness.*

H16: *There is a positive relationship between demographic variables and buying behaviour of specialty.*

H17: *Cultural values will have a significant positive influence on customer buying behaviour of specialty products.*

5.3 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHIES AND APPROACH

Saunders *et al.* (2016) view research philosophies as assumptions, and ideas about the chosen area of inquiry that serves as a framework for determining the study design, research methodologies, and strategies for examining and constructing object or construct knowledge. According to Žukauskas *et al.* (2018: 121), research philosophy is a way of thinking that the researcher adheres to in order to get fresh, trustworthy knowledge about the study object. In other words, it serves as the foundation for the research, which also includes the formulation of the problem, the selection of the research approach, and the gathering, processing, and analysis of the data. Wilson (2014) advised that it is integral for one to have a firm grasp on research philosophy as it is primal to their research approach in terms of clarifying the adopted design, and how evidence therein is gathered and interpreted. Three major branches of research philosophy exist, namely: Epistemology, Ontology and Axiology. These are further elaborated on below.

5.3.1 Epistemology

Epistemology relates to holding assumptions or views about knowledge, and the type of contribution a researcher makes to a body of knowledge is determined by the assumptions they hold. The writers add that the researcher's knowledge of what he implies to know, what is deemed to be acceptable, genuine, and legitimate knowledge, and how he might impart this knowledge to others serve as the philosophy's guiding principles. In order to condense this description, Wilson (2014) states that epistemology is concerned with the nature of knowledge and how we conceptualize our surroundings. The epistemology philosophical assumptions are viewed as:

- Positivism

Under epistemology philosophy, positivism is an approach that dispassionately and objectively examines a phenomenon without regard for people who are involved in a research study (Wilson, 2014). Positivism uses a naturalist approach to generalize an observed social occurrence in order to create statements that establish precedents and take on the status of laws (Saunders *et al*., 2016). According to positivism, the social world can be comprehended objectively. According to this research ethic, the scientist is an impartial observer who, using it as a foundation, separates himself from personal values and conducts independent research (Žukauskas *et al.,* 2018). The opposite of the positivist approach is interpretivism.

- Intepretivism

Interpretivism is subjective in nature (Žukauskas *et al.,* 2018). Saunders *et al*. (2016) note that this philosophical approach places emphasis on human behaviour in organisational settings, where it is upheld that humans are different to physical phenomena, in that humans are able to develop meanings or individual interpretations of phenomena out of lived experiences and cultural artefacts. is linked to or immersed with persons involved in the study, acquiring profound insight into the phenomena being examined through questioning those involved (Wilson, 2014).

- Pragmatism

Another epistemological approach is pragmatism. Žukauskas *et al.* (2018) note that this approach deals with the facts. Thus, the choice of research philosophy is mostly determined by the research problem. It can be said that pragmatism is neither positivist nor interpretivist, but rather takes cognisance of the social and physical world, with researchers focusing on the research problem in terms of 'what' and 'how' (Wilson, 2014:11). The author continues, "In order to effectively generate the highest degree of significant insight into a study, a mixed methods social enquiry technique is best used, with emphasis focused on the research problem and questions as the main point of an investigation." In such an approach, a researcher might decide to conduct in-depth interviews with key sales personnel after surveying a company's clients (Wilson, 2014).

- Realistic research

The final epistemological approach is realistic research philosophy. Ružas (2006: 43) notes that realistic philosophy is based on the principles of positivist and interpretivist research philosophies. Žukauskas *et al.* (2018: 123) concur by revealing that realistic research philosophy is based on assumptions that are necessary for the perception of the subjective nature of the human.

5.3.2 Ontology

As a research philosophy, ontology examines the nature of the world, reality, and how people perceive the social world. Based on these considerations, the researcher selects the objects and phenomena that will serve as the focus of their research and chooses the method of inquiry that will be used to learn more about them (Saunders *et al.,* 2016; Wilson, 2014). According to subjectivism, an alternative theory of ontology, social phenomena are determined by the motivations of social actors and their interactions with one another. This theory calls for researchers to understand the subjective attitudes and beliefs that motivate these actors' behaviour (Wilson, 2014). For instance, a researcher might look into how managers perceive a particular phenomenon while considering each manager's detailed feedback based on their individual experiences, perspectives, and interactions within their managerial roles. The alternative ontology of objectivism maintains that social phenomena are based on independent, external facts that are outside the control and influence of social actors (Saunders *et al.,* 2016; Wilson, 2014).

5.3.3 Axiology

Axiology "refers to the role of values and ethics within the research process, which involves considerations concerning how researchers deal with their own values as well as those of research participants," according to Saunders *et al*. (2016:151). To put it briefly, it is concerned with the researcher's perception and values as they are independent of the research topic or phenomenon; as a result, the researcher approaches research from the outside looking in (Wilson, 2014:12). A second method of axiology entails the researcher participating in the events under study, witnessing and interpreting them subjectively, and bonding their values to the research process (Aldawod and Day, 2017).

5.3.4 Methodology

Van Wyk (2012) explains that research methodology focuses on selecting research processes and the tools and procedures used. Methodology in research is discussed in terms of the qualitative, quantitative, or mixed-method approach that uses the two's strengths (Kumar, 2018; Queirós, Faria, and Almeida, 2017). In the field of research, there appears to be a never-ending debate about the choice of research methodology, particularly the debate between the quantitative and qualitative components. This debate might have been influenced by the fact that qualitative and quantitative analysis have distinct features because they are based on different ideologies (Kyngäs, 2020). These differences are elaborated on below.

- Quantitative approach

Quantitative research methods, according to Connaway and Powell (2010: 3), are systematic and structured, and they incorporate reasonably structured data collection methods in addition to the quantification and assessment of concepts. Studies that used quantitative methods looked at the relationship between variables that were measured numerically and analyzed with the use of statistical and graphical methods (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). Thus, the quantitative approach uses a survey method consisting of measurement scales to evaluate psychological behaviour (Leedy and Ormrod, 2010). It thus implies that the quantitative method may be an ideal approach to measure the influence of cultural values on the purchasing behaviour of higher education staff about specialty products. This is supported by the fact that in the quantitative approach, the findings can be interpreted using statistics and graphs, and the results are presented as aggregated data (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014). According to Saunders *et al.* (2016: 179), it is simple to explain and comprehend the results of quantitative surveys, and it enables comparison of the gathered data. It's also crucial to remember that quantitative research allows for sample generalizations.

- Qualitative approach

Qualitative research aims to collect data using in-depth interviews, focus groups, and observations. When conducting qualitative research, the researcher must be present with the subjects constantly in order to obtain specific information about a problem from either

individuals or groups (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). Leedy and Ormrod (2014) note that the qualitative approach is appropriate if the research question becomes exploratory and interpretive. Given this reason, the researcher does not deem the qualitative research appropriate for the study. This is attributable to the concern that in the qualitative approach, research questions are broad questions rather than specific questions, and the researcher may not ask respondents the same questions (Allen, 2017). For this reason, the qualitative approach is not considered suitable for the study.

- • Comparison between quantitative and qualitative research Approaches

Due to its emphasis on testing theories and hypotheses, quantitative research, for instance, mostly adopts the confirmatory science approach (Choy, 2014). In order to determine whether one's beliefs are supported by observational data, it is crucial for quantitative researchers to first articulate their hypotheses (Choy, 2014). Comparatively speaking, a scientifically exploratory method is the major focus of qualitative analysis.

Qualitative analysis is also employed when there is limited knowledge about a topic or phenomenon and when one needs to grasp or learn more about it. To comprehend people's experiences and hear their opinions, it is frequently employed (Choy, 2014). Accordingly, qualitative research concentrates on finding and explaining the intricacies of social relations, focusing on aspects of reality that cannot be quantified (Queirós, Faria, and Almeida, 2017). Rather than focusing on numerical representation, qualitative research enhances comprehension of the subject (Queirós, Faria, and Almeida, 2017). The objective of the qualitative technique is to incorporate in-depth and illustrated knowledge to describe the various facets of the topic being researched (Queirós, Faria, and Almeida, 2017).

In contrast to qualitative research questions, which are typically open-ended, quantitative research questions are typically closed, qualitative research is typically quantified by numbers and is typically collected through questionnaires (Basias and Pollalis, 2018). Data for qualitative research is typically in the form of spoken words that are converted to text (Basias and Pollalis, 2018). However, quantitative methods allow us to statistically characterize phenomena and identify correlations between two or more variables through the use of statistics (Stockemer, Stockemer and Glaeser, 2019). The main technique for establishing empirical relationships is quantitative research. While this method describes the components or underlying causal process of a statistical relationship, however, it is less effective (Stockemer,

Stockemer and Glaeser, 2019).

Qualitative and quantitative data collection differ significantly; pure quantitative analysis is based on the compilation of quantitative statistics (i.e., numerical data) and adheres to numerous characteristics of the quantitative research technique (Choy, 2014). Collecting qualitative data—that is, non-numerical data like words and images—is necessary for pure qualitative analysis (Choy, 2014). In contrast to qualitative research, which is constructivist, quantitative research is objectivist (Kyngäs, 2020).

One must keep in mind that the transferability of research findings is not the same as a generalization in order to understand the additional goal of qualitative analysis, which is to prevent the generalization of findings (Kyngäs, 2020). This clearly distinguishes it from quantitative analysis, which relies on methods that produce data that can be applied across different contexts (Kyngäs, 2020).

- Deductive and Inductive Approach

The fact that qualitative research is inductive and quantitative research is deductive is another important distinction between the two (Kyngäs, 2020). When making empirical observations regarding an interesting occurrence and developing conceptions and theories based on them, this process is known as induction (Woiceshyn and Daellenbach, 2018). It is regarded as a bottom-up strategy since it moves from logical conceptualizations to evidence (Varpio, Paradis, Uijtdehaage, Young, 2020). This study adopts a deductive methodology because it is a quantitative one. This is based on the fact that the deductive approach moves from the general to the specific by starting with a theory, drawing hypotheses from it, testing those hypotheses, and then updating the theory is what is meant by the deduction (Woiceshyn, and Daellenbach, 2018).

Furthermore, deductive reasoning begins with a theory (Varpio, Paradis, Uijtdehaage, Young, 2020). The theory offers elements that can be put to the test, such as the causal connections that should be examined, the concepts that can be operationalized, and the variables that are crucial for monitoring (Varpio, Paradis, Uijtdehaage, Young, 2020). Additionally, these testable elements are utilized to generate original hypotheses that serve as the foundation for the study (Varpio, Paradis, Uijtdehaage, Young, 2020).

5.3.5 Selected Research Philosophy and Approach

In this study, the researcher adopted positivism, which is a branch of epistemology. The researcher deemed the positivism approach appropriate for conducting an extensive investigation among the eight constructs that are linked with cultural values and consumer buying behaviour. Positivism entails the verification of theory via hypothesis testing, using a quantitative survey as the ideal mode of research. Haig (2013) notes that the positivist philosophy pays attention to what is observed and considers theory as the key instrument that provides a blueprint to align claims regarding observables. Hence, the study uses a survey approach to understand the relationship between cultural values and consumer buying behaviour with respect to specialty products. This approach is best suited to meet the research needs and goals of the study, as it takes an objective perspective in viewing the phenomena in question, where the yielded findings are true, and reality is comprehended from a single point of view.

Equally, the researcher opts for a quantitative approach as the empirical research objectives and formulated hypotheses cannot be addressed using a qualitative method. This is attributable to the fact that the study aims to assess the causal relationships between variables in the proposed conceptual model. More specifically, quantitative research methods such as survey questions with predetermined answer categories could be the most effective way to examine the hypotheses in the conceptual model.

5.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Giffin *et al*. (2010:75), the research design serves as a comprehensive guiding plan for the operation of the research. It provides the structure that underpins the procedures that are adhered to in the data collection and analysis of a study (Peterson *et al*., 2006). The research design establishes the coherent, logical arrangement of the steps to be followed in conducting the inquiry to generate the required outcomes of the study (Gray, 2020). The research problem is a huge determinant in the selection of a research design (Bryman, 2008).

There are three types of research designs, namely exploratory, descriptive and causal research. Descriptive research shows the profile of respondents included in the study, which gives a clearly defined picture of the sample from which data will be collected. Exploratory research is used when the final research design has to be improved by determining each step of data

collection and the priorities that need to be established. Causal research is conducted when the relationships between certain variables are investigated to determine the exact link between the variables. In other words, causal research focuses on a specific problem or situation which will explain the patterns and relationships thereof (Saunders *et al*., 2019:139). This study adopts a descriptive research design because it aims at ascertaining the relationship between variables, namely cultural values and consumer behaviour. In addition, descriptive research assists the researcher to project the results of a study to a larger population (Berg *et al*., 2017:33). Figure 5.1 subsumes the research design for the study, and thus highlights the process and methods adopted by the researcher.
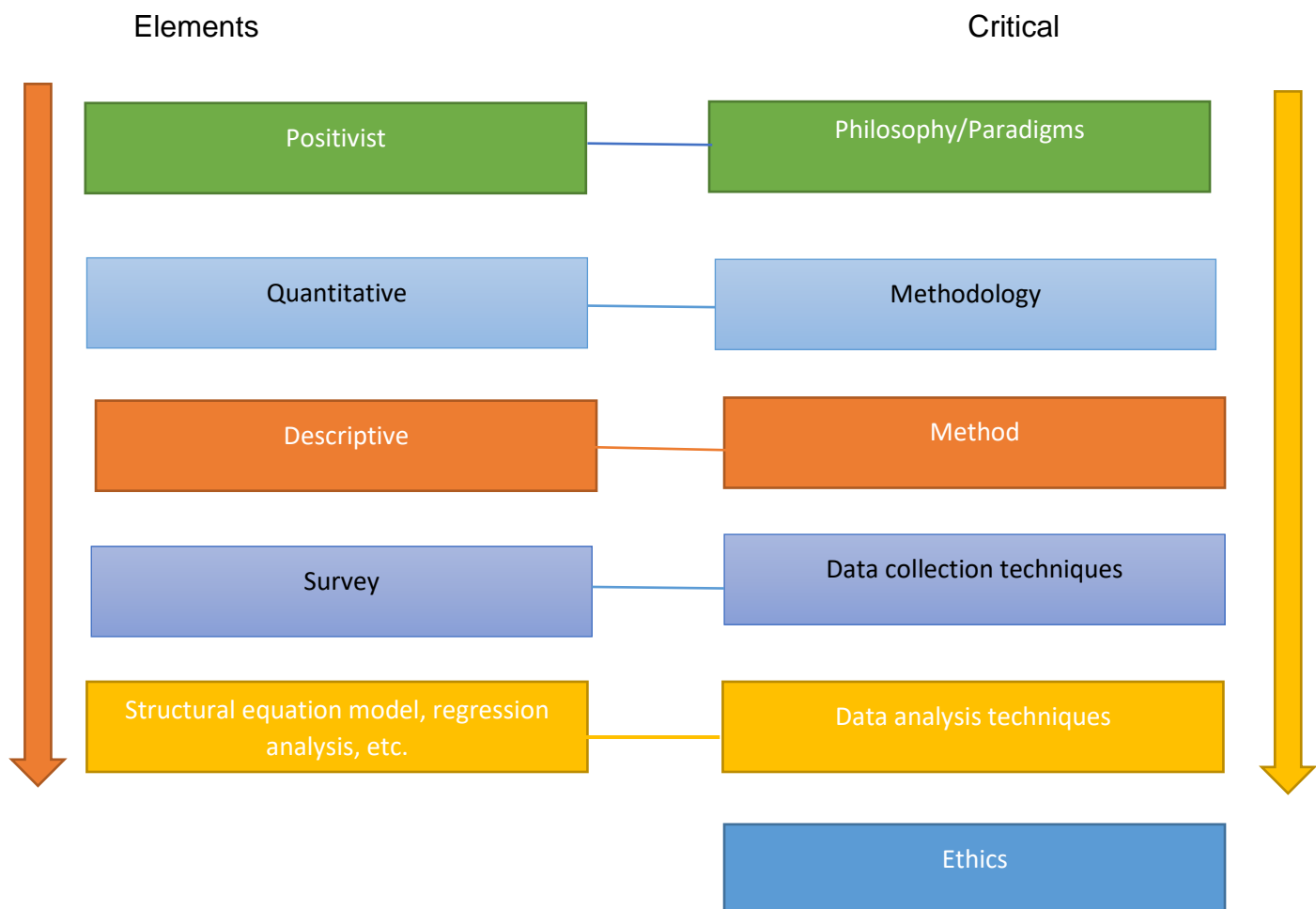
Figure 5.1: Research design

5.5 SAMPLING METHODS AND SAMPLE SIZE

Sampling is the process of surveying a part of the population to make inferences about the whole population (Neuman, 2014). It involves using a part or a portion of the population so that conclusions can be drawn from the whole population. Its purpose is to estimate the true picture of a particular population. A sample is therefore a sub-set or some part of a population. Saunders *et al*. (2019) and Giffan *et al*. (2010) provide the rationale behind sampling as accurate and reliable results; the destruction of test units; as well as pragmatic reasons. Pragmatic reasons are concerned with the fact that marketing research may cost a lot of money and may take a long time to accomplish, whilst some cases or elements of the population may not be accessible.

These constraints give rise to the need for sampling. In this case, sampling reduces costs; reduces manpower requirements; and saves time. In some cases, sampling gives more accurate and reliable results than a census because errors may increase in a census due to the large volumes of work involved. It is easier to supervise a smaller group working in a sample than a larger group working on the whole population. In most cases, research in quality control requires destroying items or cases (destruction of test units) after testing. The same applies to customers if there is a finite population and every customer in the population takes part in the research. They cannot be replaced and there would be no prospects to contact after the research. Once the decision to make use of sampling has been made, there is a need to define the target population (Neuman 2014).

For example, Jusoh and Ling (2012) investigated the factors influencing consumer purchasing behaviour toward e-commerce purchases through online shopping in Malaysia. Faced with the unavailability of the list of online shoppers, they used a sample of 100 respondents based on convenience sampling. To analyse consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards domestic and foreign products in South Africa, Pentz *et al.* (2011) considered consumers older than 18 years with an average income of R5,000. He argued that these consumers are adults who are self-earning and who can make decisions to purchase products on their own.

Shafiq, Raza and Zia-ur-Rehman (2011) argued the factors affecting customers' purchase intention, specifically looking at the mediating role of perceived value in Pakistan. They used a sample of 220 consumers who were self-earning and self-spending. In a study to investigate consumer-perceived quality in 'traditional' food chains in Greece, Chryssochoidis,

Krystallis, and Perreas (2007) only considered those participants who had been food shoppers in the households alone or who shared the responsibility with their partners. They used a sample of 268 consumers. Chiou (2004) investigated the antecedents of consumers' loyalty toward Internet service providers in Taiwan and used a sample of 209 consumers. In measuring consumer awareness in Zimbabwe, Rousseau and Venter (1995) considered only Harare and Bulawayo, the two major cities, and used a sample size of 256.

In this study, an online sample calculator known as Raosoft was used to calculate the sample size. The target population was both academic staff and non-academic (support staff) members of the selected University of Technology. Using an approximate target population of 782 staff, a 5% margin of error, 95% confidence interval level, and 50% response distribution, the estimated sample size calculated was 258. This was subsequently rounded up to 300. It is specifically out of this accessible population that the researcher was able to draw the relevant conclusions for the research (Berg *et al*., 2017). Thus, the accessible population for this study consisted of 300 MUT staff members, namely 150 academics and 150 support staff.

5.5.1 Probability and Non-probability sampling

The selection process to derive a research sample from a population is called a sampling method. Two techniques of sampling exist, namely non-probability and probability sampling. Non-probability sampling is also known as deliberate sampling, purposive sampling and judgement sampling. Non-probability sampling is when the researcher chooses the sample group. Thus, it is known beforehand which individuals will be selected from the population. Ultimately, the researcher uses their discretion to select respondents based on their possession of particular characteristics that are relevant to the study. Considerations in the selection criteria of participants can include demographics, elimination of bias and reducing the sampling error (Singh, 2004). Examples of non-probability sampling include convenience, snowballing and quota sampling (Etikan, 2017; Kothari, 2004).

Probability sampling means that all the elements in the population possess equal chances of selection as per the representative sample, which also eliminates all bias and allows for the measurement of errors (Kothari, 2004). This forms the foundation of random sampling. The sample may be unrestricted or restricted. Individual samples are extracted from the entire population in the former, whereas the opposite is conducted in the latter. Examples of

probability sampling include random, systematic and cluster sampling. In this study, stratified random sampling was used. Stratified random sampling is the technique used to group the population under different categories. In this case, support staff and academic staff members. Thus, the researcher randomly selected participants from the two strata (Kothari, 2004).

5.6 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN AND DATA COLLECTION

The need for an appropriate questionnaire cannot be over-emphasised. Aaker *et al*. (2007) observed that a good questionnaire accomplishes the objectives of the research. Questionnaires are efficient and cost-effective instruments to generate data. However, caution is required in the design, administration and analysis of data from questionnaires. Singh (2004) warns that questionnaires should not be elevated as if these are scientific tools or the substance of the individual respondents other than the representation of their perceptions. Structured questionnaires ask predetermined questions, such as closed-ended questions and Likert scales that require precise answers from respondents, with little or no open-ended questions; whilst unstructured questionnaires, usually used during interviews in qualitative studies, have questions that are formulated in different ways (Kothari, 2004). The Likert scale measures the feelings of respondents based on a numerical range, where 1 represents strongly agree and 5 strongly disagree, in response to a set of closed-ended questions in a questionnaire (Saunders *et al.*, 2019:381).

The design of a questionnaire should be done in cognisant of a particular study. As such, Hair Jr. *et al*. (2010) and Aaker *et al*. (2007) propose certain steps that should be followed in order to come up with a good questionnaire. The five steps to be followed when designing the questionnaire are as follows: - planning what to measure; formulating questions that collect research data; deciding on the order and wording of questions, as well as the layout of the questionnaire; pre-testing the questionnaire; and making corrections. Although the presentation of the development of the questionnaire for this research did not follow these stages, the steps have been very useful in guiding the researcher in coming up with an appropriate questionnaire for this study. The questionnaire intended to collect data relevant to this research. It is imperative for researchers to consult literature in order to make it easier to conceptualise constructs (Churchill, 1979).

Questionnaires can be distributed electronically or handed out to respondents, and they may be self-administered by the respondents or administered by the researcher, which particularly applies to telephonic questionnaires. In this study, due to COVID-19 regulations, the

questionnaires were administered via the email addresses of academic and support staff members and sent to staff members in a Microsoft Word format and returned to the researcher in a PDF format.

A thorough literature study plus logic guided the development of the questionnaire. The instrument was divided into major sections that cover the main themes of the research, namely cultural values dimensions and consumer buying behaviour dimensions. Cultural values dimensions include individualism, collectivism, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty avoidance and power distance. Consumer buying behaviour dimensions include status, quality and uniqueness. In other words, the questionnaire was informed by the conceptual model of the study (Figure 5.1) as presented and explained. Less sensitive questions were placed at the beginning of the instrument and more sensitive questions were placed at the end.

5.6.1 Purposes of data collection

Data must be collected in order to validate the hypotheses of the study (Singh, 2004). Researchers must choose between types of data, namely primary data which is obtained from the original sources and secondary data which are compiled from intermediate sources (Kothari, 2004:95). Different data collection methods are applicable, depending on whether primary or secondary data is sought. Standardised or self-constructed research instruments can be used and administered as questionnaires, experiments, personal observations, interviews, and so on (Singh, 2004:224).

According to Singh (2004.:212), in a research study, data is a collection for the following broad purposes:

  i.   Quality: Data forms the primary basis for the credibility of the study;
  ii. Solutions: Data brings the answers based on the research questions and hypotheses;
  iii. Estimates: Data can be tested and generalised across relevant situations; and
  iv. Applications: Data facilitates the formulation of findings or fresh theories and the testing of innovations.

Quantitative data is in effect numerical and can be presented in tables and graphs, while qualitative data involves words and can be presented through pictures and drawings (Neuman, 2014:179). In quantitative research, a discrete question is formulated in order to narrow down the inquiry to verify the hypotheses, which are based on the broad topic of the study (Neuman,

2014:174). The integrity of quantitative research is validated through systematic techniques to remove ambiguity and achieve numerical precision and procedural standardisation as well as the replicability of outcomes (Neuman, 2014:171).

5.7 DATA ANALYSIS

Data were analysed by means of the AMOS statistical package. A Structural Equation Model (SEM) was used to analyse data. Structural equation models are normally referred to as Linear Structural Relations (LISREL) models and are useful when assessing the relationship between latent variables. The relationship is formulated by linear regression equations and graphical representations by path diagrams using arrows (Nachtigal, Kroehne, Funke and Steyer, 2003). The limitation of SEM is that it cannot be used to perfect or cover the flaws of a study. Furthermore, a poorly executed research plan, inaccurate and invalid data, insufficient theoretical guidance and the over-interpretation of causal relationships can lead to false conclusions (Beran and Violato, 2010).

5.7.1 Statistical analysis

Descriptive and inferential statistics are the two types of statistics. In this study, both statistical types were employed to analyse and present the findings. These are elaborated upon below:

Descriptive statistics

According to Cooper and Schindler (2014:398), descriptive statistical measures are important preliminary measures for describing occurrences because they show the "centre, spread and shape of distributions". Accordingly, descriptive statistics were used in this study to summarise and present the demographic variables. This is done through the use of frequency distribution tables to show the total number of occurrences (Atiku, 2014; Sekaran *et al*., 2016). The descriptive data was also presented in bar graphs and pie charts. According to Sekaran *et al*. (2016), descriptive data may be displayed in a variety of ways, including bar graphs, pie charts and histograms.

Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics were used in this study to permit inferences from a sample to a population and to test whether descriptive results are likely to be due to random factors or due to a real relationship. Inferential statistics rely on principles from probability sampling, by which one uses a random process to select cases from the entire population. Inferential statistics are a precise way to talk about how confident one can be about inferring from the results in a sample to the population (Neuman, 2014).

Inferential statistical analysis involves sampling, the selection for the study of a small group that is assumed to be related to the large group from which it is drawn. The small group is known as the sample. The large group, the population or the universe in statistics is a measure based on a sample. A statistic computed from a sample may be used to estimate a parameter, i.e. the corresponding value in the population from which it is selected (Singh, 2004).

Inferential statistics, by contrast, use the laws of probability to make an estimate of a population's values and the process of validating statistical assumptions or hypotheses (Schindler *et al*., 2014). This type of statistical analysis is concerned with generating inferences about a population based on observations made on its sampled units (Everitt and Skrondal, 2011). In inferential analysis, parametric and non-parametric tests are employed to examine for statistical significance during hypothesis testing (Saunders *et al*., 2016). When the sample distribution is normal, parametric tests are used with interval and ratio data, whereas non-parametric tests are used with nominal and ordinal data when the sample is not normally distributed. In this study, the parametric tests employed are explained below.

5.7.2 One-way ANOVA

ANOVA was used to compare the mean differences in the constructs (Cultural values and consumer buying behaviour) and the demographic variables of the respondents. Barnes, Filippi, Stumpf and Thorne, (2012) noted that the ANOVA is the most appropriate parametric test to identify the mean differences, and for testing any significant differences between three or more variables.

5.7.3 Standard Multiple Linear Regression

Multiple regression is defined by Saunders *et al*. (2016) as "a statistical technique for developing a self-weighting estimating equation that predicts values for a dependent variable (DV) (Consumer buying constructs) based on the values of independent variables (IV)" (Cultural values construct). Pallant (2016:246) states that each independent variable is evaluated based on its predictive power, beyond that of all other IVs projected onto a DV. The coefficient of multiple determination (R2) achieved in this parametric test indicates the amount of the generated multiple regression equation's goodness of fit (Saunders *et al*., 2016).

5.7.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis

By evaluating what contributes to the variation in a measure, EFA is a test for discovering patterns amongst variables (or factors) in order to determine if there is a basic combination of

original components defining the original structure (Schindler, *et al.,* 2014). It is utilized in the early phases of a study to analyze or investigate the interrelationships amongst a collection of elements in a structure, according to Pallant (2016). EFA, according to Ullman (2006), helps to expose the true number of variables and their corresponding construct items inside the survey instrument. EFA is used to assess a survey instrument's content validity, or "the extent to which it adequately covers the investigative questions that guide the study" (Schindler *et al.,* 2014).

The typical decision rules used to analyze EFA and the number of variables, according to Pallant (2016:319) and Hadi, Abdullah and Sentosa (2016), are as follows:

• Kaiser's criterion –converts the eigenvalue of a variable into the amount of total variation explained by the variable. Variables with a value of 1.0 or factors explaining 70-80% of total variation are maintained for further analysis as a rule of thumb.

• Bartlett's Test of Sphericity – The multivariate normality of the collection of variables is used to assess the strength of the factors' connection. A significant score of 0.05 indicates that the components are multivariate normal and do not produce an identity matrix, making them appropriate for further research.

5.7.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

"A procedure that postulates that the correlations or covariances between a set of observed variables arise from the relationship of these variables to a small number of underlying, unknown and unobservable latent variables..." Everrit and Skrondal (2011:161) define CFA as "a procedure that postulates that the correlations or covariances between a set of observed variables arise from the relationship of these variables to a small number of underlying, unknown and unobservable latent variables. The model comprises the observed variables' regression coefficients or factor loadings on the latent variables". CFA is described by Brown (2013) as a latent variable measurement model for identifying the quantity and form of latent variables that account for variance and co-variation across observable indicators.

5.7.6 Goodness-of-Fit Indices

In factor analysis, goodness-of-fit indices (GFI) reflect how well the model predicts parameters like factor loadings, factor correlations and error covariances, as well as how well the model can replicate the observed relationships in the sample data (Brown, 2013). These indices also

indicate the degree to which model-implied linkages replicate those seen in the sample data, according to the author. The GFIs utilized in this investigation include the following:

• Chi-squared statistic (4: or T) – The degree of disagreement between the sample matrix and the fitted covariance matrix is measured using an absolute fit index (Newsom, 2017; Hu and Bentler, 2009).

• Degrees of freedom (df) – evaluates the sample and covariance matrix's discrepancy (Hu and Bentler, 2009).

• Normed chi-square (CMIN or 4:/ df ratio) – The suggested coefficient is 5 and an absolute fit index is determined by dividing Chi-square by df (Newsom, 2017; Atiku, 2014).

• Comparative fit index (CFI) – a noncentrality-based metric that compares the MM and baseline model's chi-square values to determine model fitness (Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen, 2008; Newsom, 2017). The CFI number should be less than 0.90 (Alalwan *et al.*, 2018). Incremental fit index (IFI) – a relative fit measure that compares the tested model's chi-square value ratios to the baseline model's (Newsom, 2017). The IFI number should be less than 0.90 (Newsom, 2017; Hu and Bentler, 2009).

• Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) – a non-centrality-based metric for determining how effectively the MM is matched to the population covariance matrix (Newsom, 2017; Katou and Budhwar, 2010). To show fit approximation, the RMSEA value should be between 0.05 and 0.08 (Hooper, 2007; Mimouni-Chaabane and Volle, 2010).

5.7.7 Structural Equation Modelling

SEM is a statistical procedure that "tests complicated connections between observable (measured) and unobserved (latent) variables, as well as relationships between two or more latent variables" (Little, 2013). It is a good way to look at models that are route analytic and include mediating factors, such as many constructs which include numerous aspects (Atiku, 2014). SEM is a strong multivariate analytic approach derived from multiple regression analysis that allows researchers to quantify direct and indirect effects, as well as perform model testing with many latent variables (Alavifar *et al.*, 2012). Each hidden variable is determined

by the number of indicators, and one or more measurable variables are determined by a number of indicators, all while employing a number of regression equations at the same time (Alavifar *et al.*, 2012).

5.8 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Bryman (2008:148) describes reliability as the consistency of a measure of a concept. It is a measure of internal consistency (Giffin *et al.*, 2010:308). An instrument is said to be reliable when it is possible to achieve more or less the same results after different attempts of measuring the phenomenon (Giffan *et al.*, 2010:305). Internal consistency, according to Giffan *et al.* (2010:306), represents a measure's homogeneity. This implies the convergence of an indicator of a particular construct on some common meaning. An attempt to measure a construct such as buying behaviour when purchasing specialty products actually requires a set of questions being asked.

Saunders *et al.* (2019) submit that reliability can also be achieved by comparing research data with data collected from other studies. In addition to this, Saunders *et al.* (2019) suggest three approaches that can be used to determine reliability. These are test-retest, alternative form and internal consistency. The test-retest approach advocates the administering of a scale to a group of respondents twice at different times. The tests should be done under more or less the same environments. This approach tests for stability (i.e. to ensure that the measure does not fluctuate with time) (Bryman, 2008; Giffin *et al.*, 2007). Thus test-retest reliability signifies a measure's repeatability (Giffan *et al.*, 2010). Test-retest measures of reliability present two major challenges associated with longitudinal studies.

Firstly, respondents may be sensitised by the first participation and this is likely to influence subsequent measures. Secondly, if the other measure is taken after a considerable time, there may be a change of attitudes/variables being measured or maturation of the subjects. In this case, low reliability may be explained by an attitude change, not necessarily by a lack of reliability (Giffen *et al.,* 2010; Bryman, 2008). The alternative form is concerned with comparing responses to the same questions. When these questions are included, questionnaires are typically long and the questions are usually referred to as 'check questions' (Saunders *et al.*, 2019:374). However, check questions are not usually recommended due to various reasons. Firstly, it may be a challenge to ensure that the questions are significantly equivalent. Secondly, long questionnaires are tiring. Thirdly, the respondents may notice similar questions and will just revert to the previous answer (Saunders *et al.*, 2019).

There are several methods used to calculate internal consistency, but the most frequently used is Cronbach's alpha (Saunders *et al*., 2019; Giffen *et al*., 2010). Thus, Cronbach's alpha (α) was used to test for the internal reliability of the questionnaire in this study. The coefficient α denotes internal consistency. The computed α coefficient ranges between zero (0) and one (1). The value of zero denotes that there is no reliability, while one denotes that there is perfect reliability. The typical acceptable level of internal reliability is 0.80. However, in many studies, slightly lower values have been accepted (Bryman, 2008:151). In view of this, Giffan *et al*. (2010) propose that scales with an α coefficient that ranges between 0.80 and 0.95; between 0.70 and 0.80; between 0.60 and 0.70; and below 0.60 are considered to have very good reliability, good reliability, fair reliability and poor reliability respectively.

Reliability is the degree to which a research method shows steady, constant and consistent results. A particular measure is viewed to be consistent if the repeated use of a similar object of measurement determines the same results. In other words, reliability measures the degree of consistency in a measuring instrument (Hair *et al*., 2013). In this study, reliability was measured using Cronbach's alpha. Thus, a Cronbach alpha coefficient above 0.6 is considered acceptable (Wiid and Digginess, 2015). On the other hand, validity is merely an indication of how comprehensive or rigorous the individual's research is. Validity directly relates to the methods and design of the research. Thus, the findings of the research study must be a true representation of what was claimed to be measured (Sekaran *et al*., 2013).

Reliability and validity often seem to have the same meaning. However, they mean different things when it comes to the evaluation of measures (Bryman, 2008). It is necessary for a measure to be reliable even though this does not guarantee that the measure is valid. Validity goes beyond reliability (Giffan *et al.,* 2010). Precision and accuracy are the key features of a good measure. In this case, reliability denotes precision, while validity denotes the accuracy of a measure. Thus, validity refers to the accuracy of a measure or the degree to which a score or instrument truthfully represents a concept, i.e. measures what the researcher intends it to measure (Saunders *et al*., 2019; Giffan et al., 2010). There are many ways of assessing validity. Giffan *et al*. (2010:310) present the three major approaches to assessing validity as face (content) validity, criterion validity and construct validity.

Concurrent validity and predictive validity are the two major classifications of criterion validity. One condition is necessary for concurrent validity to take place. Both the new and criterion measures should be taken at the same time and should be valid. In concurrent validity, a criterion that can be used to measure job satisfaction may be absenteeism. The intention would be to see if satisfied employees are less likely to be absent from work. If there is a lack of correspondence (e.g. there is no difference in the levels of job satisfaction amongst frequent absentees), it can be doubted if the measure really addresses job satisfaction (Giffan *et al*., 2010; Bryman, 2008). When a new measure predicts the future, then it has predictive validity. With predictive validity, the researcher would take future levels of absenteeism as the criterion against which the validity of a new measure of job satisfaction would be examined. This differs from concurrent validity in that the future rather than a simultaneous criterion measure is employed (Giffan *et al.,* 2010; Bryman, 2008).

Construct validity takes place when a scale is able to give a measure that actually represents a specific concept. There are various forms of construct validity, but the major ones include face (content) validity, convergent validity, criterion validity and discriminant validity (Giffan *et al*., 2007). The implication of this is that the definition of construct validity is consistent with the definition of validity in general. Content validity and criterion validity have already been explained. In some cases, a measure's validity has to be evaluated by making comparisons with measures of the same concept developed through other methods, for example, comparing the results of a questionnaire with those from an observation measuring the same concept (Bryman, 2008).

This is concerned with convergent validity, which is an alternative way of expressing internal consistency/reliability. Highly reliable scores contain convergent validity (Giffan *et al*., 2010). The implication is that the estimation of internal reliability would also result in the estimation of convergent validity (see the section under reliability). Discriminant validity refers to how distinct or unique a measure is. The basic requirement for discriminant validity to occur is that the correlation between two different measures should not be too high if the measures are really different (Giffan *et al*., 2010). The general guideline is that the correlation of two scales or measures should not exceed 0.75. To ensure content validity, a thorough literature study was conducted to guide the development of the instrument. The instrument was also sent to experts for their input. According to Sekaran *et al*. (2009:327), when well-validated measures are used,

there is no need to establish their validity again for the study. However, the reliability of the items can be tested.

5.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics is a branch of philosophy that is concerned with academic reasoning about what is right and wrong when conducting research (Fisher and Goodman, 2009). Aaker *et al.* (2007) submit that ethical issues are an important consideration in any research because they impact clients, respondents and the research profession itself. In other words, the conduct of researchers should be ethical. Ethics refers to values or moral principles. It usually shapes how the individual conducts himself/herself (Aaker *et al.*, 2007). Saunders *et al.* (2019) suggest that seven ethical issues be taken into account when conducting research. These include: - privacy; voluntary participation; consent and deception; confidentiality; the manner in which the researcher collects data; the use or general management of data collected from the respondents; and the researcher's behaviour and objectivity (Figure 5.2).

Giffan *et al.* (2010) refer to informed consent as a means of ascertaining that the individual understands what the researcher wants him or her to do and consents to the research study. The informed consent form specified the nature and aim of the research; sought voluntary participation of the respondents; stated that responses would be treated in confidence; stated that anonymity would be ensured; and specified that participants were free to withdraw from participation at any stage without any undesirable consequences. It also stipulated that there were financial or direct benefits that could arise due to taking part in the research. In line with good research practice, a gatekeeper's letter to conduct the research was obtained from the Mangosuthu University of Technology (Appendix 5) while ethical clearance was granted by the institution's ethics committee (Appendix 4). In this study, all the respondents were informed about the intention of the study. In this regard, a letter of introduction informing the participant of the details of the study was provided (Appendix 2). In addition, all the information collected in this study will not be disclosed to third parties and there will be no identification features that will link the results of this study to the respondents. In so doing, the researcher was able to achieve participant anonymity and confidentiality in accordance with Saunders *et al.* (2019).

Paper-based records were stored in a secure location, namely the researcher's office. Upon request, these can be made available only to the supervisor, the statistician who was involved in the study, co-coders and the Ethics Committee. Due to Covid-19 restrictions that limit social

interaction and hygiene precautions to eliminate touching the same objects, the questionnaires were administered electronically. The files were stored in the researcher's cloud account, which is protected by a secret password. Similar to paper-based records, the electronic files are to be shared with the supervisor and Ethics Committee upon formal request. Signed confidentiality forms are compulsory in order to authorise a request to access the research records.

Figure 5.2: Research ethics principles
Source: Adhikari (2013)

5.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The above chapter of the thesis explained the conceptual model and research methodology of the study. The following topics were covered: the objectives, research design as well as data collection, analysis and ethical considerations. The appropriate research philosophy and design were identified for this study. Sampling issues were discussed and the appropriate sample size for the study was determined. The chapter went on to identify appropriate data collection methods for the study. The next chapter presents and discusses the results and discusses social and demographic characteristics, cultural values dimensions, the association between socio-

demographic variables, consumer buying behaviour dimensions and the validation of the research constructs.

CHAPTER 6

PRESENTATION OF THE RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter of the thesis described the research methodology. This chapter of the thesis presents and discusses the results and the outline discusses social and demographic characteristics; cultural values dimensions; associations between socio-demographic variables; consumer buying behaviour dimensions; and validation of the research constructs. The discussion on the social and demographic characteristics covers the age group, gender, race, qualification, academic status and annual income bracket. The discussion on cultural values dimensions encompasses individualism, collectivism, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty-avoidance and power distance. The discussion on the association between socio-demographic variables and cultural values looks at the influence of consumer buying behaviour dimensions. The discussion on consumer buying behaviour dimensions covers status, quality and uniqueness. The discussion revolves around the validation of research constructs using factor analysis and the discussion of the Structural Equation Model.

This chapter presents the results obtained from the questionnaires. In this study, the questionnaire was the primary tool that was used to collect data and was distributed to 300 academic and support staff at the Mangosuthu University of Technology. The data collected from the responses were analysed with SPSS (version 27®) in relation to the objectives outlined in Chapter One.

6.2 SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

This section details the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents.

6.2.1 Age group

As shown in Table 6.1, 42.3% of the respondents were within 31-50 years of age; 32.7% were within 51-65 years; 22.7% were within 18-30 years of age, while seven of the respondents indicated another age group.

Table 6.1: Respondents' age group

		Frequency	Percent
Age group	18 – 30 years	68	22.7
	31 – 50 years	127	42.3
	51 – 65 years	98	32.7
	Other	7	2.3
	Total	300	100.0

6.2.2 Gender

The gender of the respondents is shown in Table 6.2. The majority of the respondents (53%) were females, while males constitute only 47%.

Table 6.2: Gender of respondents

		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	141	47.0
	Female	159	53.0
	Total	300	100.0

6.2.3 Race

Figure 6.1 indicates that the overwhelming majority of the respondents were Black (92%).
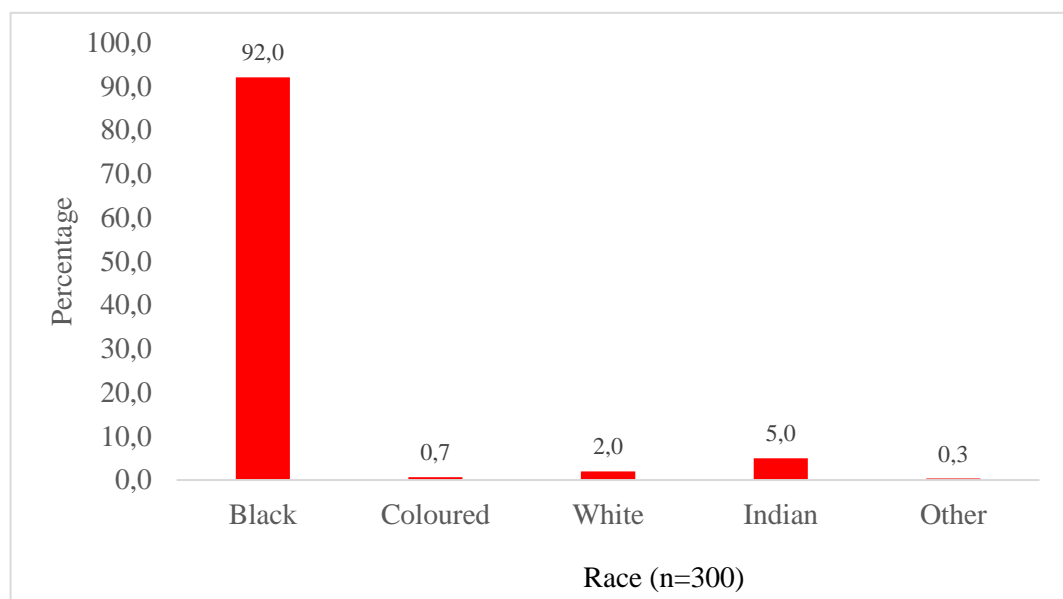
Figure 6.1: Respondents' race

6.2.4 Qualification

More of the respondents 34.3% had Master's Degree qualifications; 28.7% had a Degree qualification; 16.3% had an Honours Degree qualification; 9.3% hold a certificate-level qualification; 6.3% had a Doctoral Degree qualification; and 4% hold Matric (Grade 12 National Certificate). In addition, three of the respondents indicated having other types of qualifications.

Table 6.3: Respondents' qualification

		Frequency	Percent
Level of qualification	Matric	12	4.0
	Certificate	28	9.3
	Degree	86	28.7
	Honours Degree	49	16.3
	Master's Degree	103	34.3
	Doctoral Degree	19	6.3
	Other	3	1.0
	Total	300	100.0

The respondents' level of academic qualifications is given in Table 6.3.

6.2.5 Academic status

The pie chart in Figure 6.2 indicates that 55.3% of the respondents were support staff, while 44.7% were the academic staff.
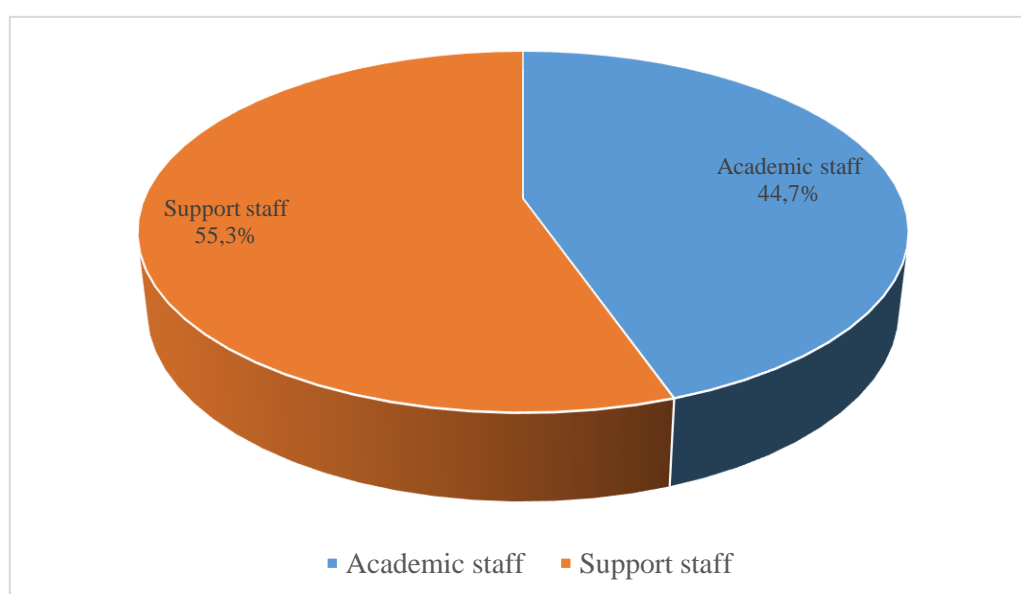
Figure 6.2: Academic status of the respondents (n=300)

6.2.6 Annual income bracket

The annual monthly incomes of the respondents are detailed in Table 6.4. Many of the respondents (45%) are within 201000 to 400 000 Rands p/a; 23.3% are within 401000 to 600 000 Rands p/a; 20% within 0 to 200 000 Rands p/a; 6% within 601 000 to 800 000 Rands p/a; and 5.7% within 801000 to 1000 000 Rands p/a.

Table 6.4: Respondents' annual income bracket

		Frequency	Percent
Income bracket	0 to 200 000 Rands p/a	60	20.0
	201 000 to 400 000 Rands p/a	135	45.0
	401 000 to 600 000 Rands p/a	70	23.3
	601 000 to 800 000 Rands p/a	18	6.0
	801 000 to 1 000 000 Rands p/a	17	5.7
	Total	300	100.0

6.3 CULTURAL VALUES DIMENSIONS

This section highlights cultural values dimensions. The cultural values were measured under five pre-defined constructs, namely Individualism, Collectivism, Masculinity/Femininity, Uncertainty avoidance and Power distance. The following sub-sections show the descriptive statistics of participant responses (n=300).

6.3.1 Individualism

Table 6.5 shows that the mean values for the 1st and 2nd and 3rd statements were below 3.00, which suggests that the respondents agreed with the statements: "My personal life is the most important (M=1.60±0.7); "Everyone should care for himself" (M=1.70±0.8); "I put my interests above the interest of others" (M=2.46±1.0). On the other hand, the mean value for the 4th statement is close to "neutral", which suggests that the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement "Myself is more important than others" (M=3.19±1.1). However, the mean value for the 5th and 6th were above 3.00, which suggests that the respondents disagreed with the statements: "My opinion is always right" (M=4.17±0.9) and "Individual's rights are more valuable than people's rights" (M=3.53±1.2).

Overall, the One-test indicates that there were significant differences in the responses of the respondents in all the statements (P<0.001). Based on the level of agreement, the 1st statement had the most support for Individualism.

Table 6.5: Respondents' views on their Individualism as a cultural value

	Individualism (n=300)					Mean	SD	*P*-value
	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Neutral**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**			
My personal life is the most important	49.3%	43.7%	5.3%	1.3%	0.3	1.60	0.7	0.000***
Everyone should care for himself	48.7%	38.3%	9.3%	2.0%	1.7%	1.70	0.8	0.000***

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	SD	P-value
I put my interests above the interest of others	18%	36.7%	28.3%	15.3%	1.7%	2.46	1.0	0.000***
Myself is more important than others	9.7%	12.3%	38.3%	28.3%	11.3%	3.19	1.1	0.000***
My opinion is always right	1.0%	5.0%	8.0%	48%	38%	4.17	0.9	0.000***
Individual's rights are more valuable than people's right	5.7%	17.7%	17.3%	36.3%	23%	3.53	1.2	0.000***
	p value - significant at <1%***							

6.3.2 Collectivism

Table 6.6 shows that the mean values for the 1st and 2nd statements were below 3.00. This suggests that the respondents agreed with the statements: "I want to feel that I belong to the group" (M=2.34±0.9) and "Others play roles in my decisions" (M=2.49±1.0). On the other hand, the mean value for the 3rd statement was closest to neutral, which suggests that many respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement "I feel bad to do what others do not" (M=3.36±0.9). The mean value for the 4th statement was however closest to disagreed, which suggests that there was significant disagreement with the statement "Personal interests are less important than group interests" (M=3.40±1.1).

Overall, the One-sample test indicates that there were significant differences in the responses of the respondents in all the statements (P<0.001). Based on the level of agreement, the 1st statement had the most support for "Collectivism".

Table 6.6: Respondents' views on Collectivism as a cultural value

	Collectivism (n=300)							P-value
	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean	SD	
I want to feel that I belong to the group	18.3%	36.7%	38.3%	5.7%	1.0	2.34	0.9	0.000***
Others play roles in my decisions	12.7%	43.3%	28.7%	12.7%	2.7%	2.49	1.0	0.000***
I feel bad to do what others do not	3.7%	8.3%	46%	32%	10%	3.36	0.9	0.000***
Personal interests are less important than group harmony	5.3%	14.3%	30%	36%	14.3%	3.40	1.1	0.000***
	p value - significant at <1%***							

6.3.3 Masculinity/Femininity

Table 6.7 shows that the mean values for the 1st statement were below 3.00. This suggests that there is a significant agreement that respondents fight to be the best, with results indicated as (M=2.34±0.9), t (299) = 39.4, p<.0001. On the other hand, the mean value for the 2nd statement was closest to "neutral", which suggests that a significant number of respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement "I feel bad to do what others do not", with yielded results given as (M=2.96.±1.0), t (299)=50.6, p<0.001. Equally, the mean value for the statement "I am only satisfied when I have the best things" was closest to neutral, which indicates that significant proportions of the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed, with results yielding as (M=3.22±1.4), t(299)=40.3, p<0.001. Based on the level of agreement, the 1st statement had the most support for "Masculinity/Femininity".

Table 6.7: Respondents' views on Masculinity/Femininity as a cultural value

	Masculinity/Femininity (n=300)							*P*-value
	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Neutral**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**	**Mean**	**SD**	
I fight to be the best	34.7%	25.7%	38.3%	0.3%	1.0	2.07	0.9	0.000***
Normal and usual things are enough	8.7%	24%	33.3%	30.7%	2.7%	2.96	1.0	0.000***
I am only satisfied when I have the best things	15.7%	18.7%	15%	29.3%	21.3%	3.22	1.4	0.000***
p value - significant at <1%***								

6.3.4 Uncertainty Avoidance

Table 6.8 shows that the mean values for the 1st and 3rd statements were closest to neutral. This suggests that a significant proportion of the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with the statements: "I try to avoid risks in life" (M=2.74±1.1, t(299)= 44.8, p<0.001) and "Where there is no risk, there is no fun" (M=3.05±1.1, t(299)=48.3, p<0.001). On the contrary, the mean value for the 2nd statement indicates that there was significant agreement that respondents do not like situations with unclear ends, with the results yielding as (M=2.06±0.9), t (299) =39.3, p<0.001. Based on the level of agreement, the 2nd statement had the most support for "Uncertainty avoidance".

Table 6.8: Respondents' views on Uncertainty Avoidance as a cultural value

| | Uncertainty Avoidance (n=300) | | | | | | | *P*-value |
	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Neutral**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**	**Mean**	**SD**	
I try to avoid risks in life	15%	23.3%	23.3%	38.3%	19.3	2.74	1.1	0.000***
I do not like situations with unclear ends	31.3%	37.3%	25.7%	5.0	7.0%	2.06	0.9	0.000***
Where there is no risk, there is no fun	11%	19%	29%	35.7%	5.3%	3.05	1.1	0.000***
	p value - significant at <1%***							

6.3.5 Power distance

Table 6.9 shows that the mean values for the 1st, 2nd and 3rd statements were below 3.00. This suggests that there is a significant agreement that through power distance, respondents believe that inequality is unavoidable (M=2.26±1.2, t(299)=33.6, p<0.001). Moreover, any society is like a ladder, one is placed higher and one lower ((M=1.84±0.8, t(299)=37.9, p<0.001) and it is okay that some are placed higher than them in the society (M=2.44±1.3, t(299)=33.4, p<0.001). On the other hand, the mean value for the 4th statement is closest to "neutral", which suggests that the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed that through power distance, it bothers them that some are placed higher in society (M=3.40±1.3, t(299)= 46.8, p<0.001). Based on the level of agreement, the 2nd statement had the most support for "Power distance".

Table 6.9: Respondents' views on Power distance as a cultural value

| | Power Distance (n=300) | | | | | | | *P*-value |
	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Neutral**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**	**Mean**	**SD**	
Inequality is unavoidable	27.7%	44%	8%	15.3%	5%	2.26	1.2	0.000***
Any society is like a ladder : one is placed higher and one lower	38%	45%	12.7%	3.3%	1.0%	1.84	0.8	0.000***
It is ok that some are placed higher than me in society	27.7%	31.3%	20%	11.7%	9.3%	2.44	1.3	0.000***
It bothers me that some are placed higher in society	6.7%	21%	24%	22.3%	26%	3.40	1.3	0.000***
	p value - significant at <1%***							

6.4 ASSOCIATION BETWEEN SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND CULTURAL VALUES

After analysing the scoring patterns on each item measuring the cultural value dimensions, it becomes critical to evaluate the relationships between cultural values and the respondents' socio-demographic variables. The items (categorical variables) for each of the cultural values dimensions were transformed into continuous variables using the formulae shown below:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{Xi}{n}$$

The one-way analysis of variance was performed to determine whether respondents differ in their views for each of the cultural value dimensions (Individualism, Collectivism, Masculinity/Femininity, Uncertainty avoidance and power distance) and their socio-demographic variable (gender, age group, race, highest qualifications, academic designation and average annual income). The results are summarised in Table 6.9.

In terms of respondents' gender and cultural value dimensions, statistically significant differences were observed for individualism and the respondents' gender ($p<0.01$). The mean value measured for male respondents ($M=2.84\pm0.6$) was higher when compared to those for females ($M=2.72\pm0.5$). This suggests that males were more "neutral" to individualism constructs when compared to females. No differences were found for other cultural value dimensions (collectivism, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty avoidance and power distance) and the respondents' gender ($p>0.05$).

Regarding the age group and the respondents' views on cultural value dimensions, the ANOVA value obtained indicates that there is a statistically significant difference with respect to the dimensions of masculinity/femininity ($p>0.001$), power distance ($p<0.009$) and the respondents' age group. For masculinity/femininity, it was found that respondents within the age group 18-30 years agree more ($M=2.42\pm0.7$) than other groups; while for power distance, respondents within the age group 51-65 years agree more ($M=2.41\pm06$). This suggests that while respondents within 18-30 years showed more masculinity/femininity, those within 51-65 years display power distance. No differences were found for other cultural value dimensions (individualism, collectivism and uncertainty avoidance) and the respondents' age group ($p>0.05$).

For the respondents' race, the ANOVA value indicates that there is no statistically significant difference with respect to respondents' race and the cultural value dimensions ($p > 0.05$). This suggests that regardless of the respondents' race, the views on cultural value dimensions highlighted in Table 6.9 remain the same.

In terms of respondents' qualifications and their views on the cultural value dimensions, the ANOVA test indicates that there was a statistically significant difference with respect to collectivism ($p < 0.034$), masculinity/femininity ($p < 0.001$), uncertainty avoidance ($p < 0.01$), power distance ($p < 0.041$) and the respondents' qualification. In terms of the mean value measured, it was found that respondents with Matric had the lowest mean for masculinity/femininity ($M = 2.14 \pm 0.8$), uncertainty avoidance ($M = 2.14 \pm 0.8$) and collectivism ($M = 2.52 \pm 0.8$), respectively. This suggests that they "agree" more with these dimensions when compared to other qualifications. On the other hand, and with respect to power distance, the mean value measured for respondents with degrees was the lowest ($M = 2.39 \pm 0.5$), which suggests they agree more with power distance than any other level of qualifications. No differences were found between individualism and the respondents' qualifications ($p > 0.05$).

Regarding academic status, no differences were found for cultural value dimensions such as Individualism, collectivism, masculinity/femininity and uncertainty avoidance ($p > 0.05$). However, the ANOVA value measured for power distance indicates that there was a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.001$). It was found that the mean value measured for the support staff ($M = 2.39 \pm 0.5$) was lower when compared to those for the academic staff ($M = 2.61 \pm 0.6$. This suggests that support staff agree more with power distance as a cultural value when compared to academic staff.

In terms of respondents' annual income and their views on cultural value dimensions, the ANOVA value indicates a significant difference with respect to Masculinity/Femininity ($p < 0.005$) and Power distance ($p < 0.011$). It was found that respondents who earn within 801000 to 1000000 Rand p/a had the lowest mean value ($M = 2.39 \pm 0.7$) for Masculinity/Femininity, which suggests that they agree more with this dimension when compared to other annual income brackets. On the other hand, respondents who earn 601000 to 800 000 rand p/a had the lowest mean value ($M = 2.31 \pm 0.6$) for Power distance, which

suggests that they also agree more with this dimension. No differences were found for cultural value dimensions such as Individualism, collectivism and uncertainty avoidance (p>0.05).

Table 6.10: Association between cultural value dimensions and respondents' socio-demographic variables

Socio-demographic	Individualism	Collectivism	Masculinity /Femininity	Uncertainty avoidance	Power distance
	M±SD	M±SD	M±SD	M±SD	M±SD
Gender					
Male	2.84±0.6	2.84±0.6	2.78±0.8	2.62±0.7	2.46±0.6
Female	2.72±0.5	2.95±0.6	2.72±0.9	2.62±0.6	2.51±0.6
Sig.	0.046**	0.087	0.535	0.990	0.410
Age group					
18 – 30 years	2.75±0.6	2.80±0.6	2.42±0.7	2.51±0.7	2.68±0.5
31 – 50 years	2.84±0.5	2.96±0.6	2.82±0.8	2.67±0.6	2.43±0.6
51 – 65 years	2.71±0.5	2.88±0.6	2.92±0.9	2.64±0.7	2.41±0.6
Other	2.76±0.6	3.00±0.4	2.43±0.9	2.52±0.9	2.71±0.5
Sig.	0.326	0.305	0.001***	0.417	0.009***
Black	2.77±0.5	2.89±0.6	2.77±0.8	2.63±0.7	2.47±0.6
Coloured	2.25±0.1	3.38±0.2	2.00±0.5	3.17±0.7	2.13±0.2
White	2.97±0.8	3.46±0.5	2.61±0.6	2.89±0.7	2.25±0.5
Indian	2.88±0.5	2.78±0.7	2.58±0.7	2.33±0.4	2.82±0.5
Other	2.83±	3.25±	3.00±	2.33±	2.75±
Sig.	0.487	0.105	0.609	0.241	0.137
Qualification					
Matric	2.65±0.8	2.52±0.6	2.14±0.8	2.14±0.8	2.48±0.6
Certificate	2.68±0.6	3.13±0.5	2.46±0.7	2.46±0.6	2.42±0.6
Degree	2.80±0.5	2.85±0.5	2.60±0.9	2.60±0.6	2.39±0.5
Honours Degree	2.79±0.5	2.96±0.6	2.65±0.7	2.65±0.6	2.62±0.5
Master's Degree	2.78±0.5	2.86±0.7	2.74±0.8	2.74±0.7	2.45±0.6
Doctoral Degree	2.83±0.7	2.99±0.5	2.40±0.6	2.40±0.7	2.84±0.6
Other	2.56±0.2	3.42±0.6	3.22±0.6	3.22±0.7	2.58±0.2
Sig.	0.874	0.034**	0.001***	0.010**	0.041**
Academic status					
Academic staff	2.76±0.5	2.83±0.6	2.74±0.9	2.67±0.6	2.61±0.6
Support staff	2.78±0.5	2.95±0.6	2.76±0.8	2.57±0.7	2.39±0.5

Sig.	0.766	0.070	0.780	0.190	0.001***
Annual Income					
0 to 200 000 Rands p/a	2.71±0.6	2.98±0.5	2.52±0.8	2.51±0.7	2.52±0.5
201 000 to 400 000 Rands p/a	2.75±0.5	2.79±0.6	2.75±0.8	2.66±0.6	2.51±0.5
401 000 to 600 000 Rands p/a	2.77±0.6	2.98±0.6	2.99±0.8	2.70±0.6	2.37±0.6
601 000 to 800 000 Rands p/a	3.07±0.4	3.08±0.5	2.93±0.7	2.57±0.6	2.31±0.6
801 000 to 1 000 000 Rands p/a	2.91±0.6	2.94±0.8	2.39±0.7	2.35±0.6	2.88±0.7
Sig	0.082	0.058	0.005***	0.183	0.011**

6.5 CONSUMER BUYING BEHAVIOUR DIMENSIONS

This section highlights the cultural values dimensions. The cultural values were measured under five pre-defined constructs, namely Status, Quality, and Uniqueness. The following sub-sections show the descriptive statistics of participants' responses (n=300).

6.5.1 Status

Table 6.11 shows that the mean values for the 1st, 2nd and 3rd statements were closest to "neutral". This suggests that respondents neither agree nor disagree with the statements "The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would improve my image in the presence of other people' (M=2.90±1.4); "The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would show my social prestige in the presence of others" (M=2.95±1.3); and "The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would show my social status in the presence of others" (M=2.80±1.3).

On the other hand, the mean values for the 4th and 5th statements were above 3.5. This indicates that respondents disagreed with the statements: "The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would symbolise my wealth in the presence of others" (M=3.69±1.2) and "Since several other people and my colleagues have purchased specialty products such as luxury products, I have to purchase luxury products myself to feel acceptable" (M=4.19±0.9).

Overall, the One-test indicates that there were significant differences in the responses of the respondents to all the statements (P<0.001).

Table 6.11: Respondents' views on their status in consumer buying behaviour

	Status (n=300)					Mean	SD	*P*-value
	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Neutral**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**			
The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would improve my image in the presence of other people	19%	29.7%	14%	17.3%	20%	2.90	1.4	0.000***
The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would show my social prestige in the presence of others	15%	27%	17.7%	29%	11.3%	2.95	1.3	0.000***
The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would show my social status in the presence of others	18.3%	30.3%	15.7%	24.3%	11.3%	2.80	1.3	0.000***
The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would symbolise my wealth in the presence of others	5%	14.3%	19.7%	29%	32%	3.69	1.2	0.000***
Since several other people and my colleagues have purchased specialty products such as luxury products, I have to purchase luxury products myself to feel acceptable	2.3%	4%	7%	45.7%	41%	4.19	0.9	0.000***
	p value - significant at <1%***							

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6.5.2 Quality

The mean value, standard deviations and scoring patterns of the responses are given in Table 6.12. The mean values measured for all our items measuring quality suggest that there was significant agreement by the respondents. The statement with the most support is the 4th statement: "I would purchase specialty products due to their certain quality" (M=1.77±0.8, t(299)= 37.4, p<0.001).

Table 6.12: Respondents' views on quality in consumer buying behaviour

	Quality (n=300)					Mea n	SD	*P*-value
	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Neutral**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**			
The performance of specialty products such as luxury products is my primary reason for purchase	15.3%	59.7%	10.3%	10.3%	4.3	2.27	1.0	0.000***
The certain quality of specialty products appeals to me	15.7%	34.3%	46.3%	3.3%	0.3%	2.38	0.8	0.000***
I think positively of the latest design and features	28.7%	44%	14.7%	12.7%	0%	2.11	1.0	0.000***
I would purchase specialty products due to their certain quality	44.3%	37.7%	15.3%	2.3%	0.3%	1.77	0.8	0.000***
p value - significant at <1%***								

6.5.3 Uniqueness

The mean values, standard deviations and percentage scoring patterns of the respondents on the items measuring uniqueness as part of consumer buying behaviour dimensions are given in Table 6.13. The mean values measured for the 1st and 4th statements suggest that the respondents agree with these two statements: "Rare products appeal to me" ((M=2.59±1.2), t(299)=37.6, p<0.001) and "I enjoy trying new products before other people do" (M=2.07±1.0), t(299)= 37.1, p<0.001. On the other hand, the mean values measured for the 2nd statement were closest to neutral, which suggests that significant numbers of the respondents neither agreed

nor disagreed with the statement "I am a leader rather than a follower in terms of fashion" (M=2.87±1.3), t(299)=48.6, p<0.001. However, the mean value for the 3rd statement suggests that there was significant disagreement by the respondents with the statement "I detest possessing things that everyone possesses", with the results yielding (M=3.42±1.2), t(299)=48.6, p<0.001). Overall and based on the mean values measured, the 4th statement had the most support for product uniqueness in consumer buying behaviour.

Table 6.13: Respondents' views on uniqueness in consumer buying behaviour

	Uniqueness (n=300)							*P*-value
	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Neutral**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**	**Mean**	**SD**	
Rare products appeal to me	25.3%	19.7%	30%	20.7%	4.3	2.59	1.2	0.000***
I am a leader rather than a follower in terms of fashion	19.3%	20.3%	25.7%	23%	11.7%	2.87	1.3	0.000***
I detest possessing things that everyone possesses	11%	11.7%	18.7%	41.3%	17.3%	3.42	1.2	0.000***
I enjoy trying new products before other people do	32.7%	37%	22.3%	6.7%	1.3%	2.07	1.0	0.000***
p value - significant at <1%***								

6.6 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND CONSUMER BUYING BEHAVIOUR

After analysing the scoring patterns on each of the items measuring the consumer buying behaviour dimensions, the relationships between socio-demographic variables and the consumer buying behaviour dimensions were evaluated. The items (categorical variables) for each of the consumer buying behaviour dimensions were transformed into continuous variables using the formula shown below:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{Xi}{n}$$

The one-way analysis of variance was performed to determine whether respondents differ in their views for each of the cultural value dimensions (Status, quality and uniqueness) and their

socio-demographic variable (gender, age group, race, highest qualifications, academic designation and average annual income). The results are summarised in Table 6.14.

In terms of respondents' gender and customers' buying behaviour dimensions, no statistical differences were measured for status, quality and uniqueness (p>0.05). Regarding the age group and the respondents' views on customers' buying behaviour, the ANOVA value obtained indicates that there was a statistically significant difference with respect to the dimension of status (p=0.044). It was found that respondents within the age group 18-30 years had the lowest mean value (M=3.02±1.0), which suggests that they were neutral when compared to other age groups. No differences were found in other cultural value dimensions (quality and uniqueness) and the respondents' age group (p>0.05).

For the respondents' race, the ANOVA value indicates that there was a statistically significant difference with respect to the respondents' race and the quality dimension (p=0.017). The mean value measured for the Coloured respondents (M=1.00 ±0.0) was the lowest, which suggests that Coloured respondents agreed more with the quality dimension than any other race group. No differences were found for status and uniqueness and the respondents' qualifications (p>0.05).

In terms of respondents' qualifications and their views on customers' buying behaviour, the ANOVA test indicates that there was a statistically significant difference with respect to the respondents' status and the respondents' qualification ((p<0.001). It was found that respondents with Matric had the lowest mean (M=2.47±0.5), while the respondents with other qualifications had the highest mean value (M=3.80±0.7). This suggests that respondents with other qualifications "disagree" more with these dimensions. No differences were found for quality and uniqueness and the respondents' qualifications (p>0.05).
Regarding academic status, no difference was found in customers' buying behaviour, such as status, quality and uniqueness (p>0.05).

In terms of respondents' annual income and their views on customers' buying behaviour dimensions, the ANOVA value indicates that there was a significant difference with respect to the status dimension (p=0.013). It was found that respondents who earn between 601000 to 800 000 rand p/a had the highest mean value (M=3.77±0.9), which suggests that they disagree

more with this dimension. No differences were found for quality and uniqueness and the respondents' annual income (p>0.05).

Table 6.14: Association between customers' buying behaviour and respondents' socio-demographic variables

Socio-demographic	Status	Quality	Uniqueness
	M±SD	M±SD	M±SD
Gender			
Male	3.33±1.0	2.10±0.5	2.73±0.8
Female	3.28±0.9	2.17±0.5	2.75±0.9
Sig.	0.698	0.258	0.892
Age group			
18 – 30 years	3.02±1.0	2.11±0.6	2.60±0.9
31 – 50 years	3.39±0.9	2.12±0.5	2.77±0.9
51 – 65 years	3.39±0.9	2.19±0.5	2.81±0.7
Other	3.26±1.1	2.00±0.9	2.54±1.2
Sig.	0.044**	0.658	0.350
Race			
Black	3.32±0.9	2.16±0.5	2.76±0.8
Coloured	2.70±1.6	1.00±0.0	1.63±0.9
White	3.10±1.3	1.88±0.6	2.33±1.1
Indian	3.20±0.8	2.03±0.6	2.75±0.7
Other	2.00±	2.25±	2.75±
Sig.	0.500	0.017***	0.274
Qualification			
Matric	2.47±0.5	1.79±0.7	2.46±1.1
Certificate	2.93±0.9	2.10±0.4	2.68±0.7
Degree	3.23±0.9	2.23±0.5	2.83±0.9
Honours Degree	3.42±1.0	2.16±0.6	2.79±0.8
Master's Degree	3.57±0.9	2.11±0.5	2.72±0.8
Doctoral Degree	2.91±0.7	2.11±0.6	2.62±0.8
Other	3.80±0.7	1.92±0.1	2.33±1.2
Sig.	0.000***	0.161	0.695
Academic status			
Academic staff	3.37±0.9	2.15±0.5	2.74±0.8
Support staff	3.25±0.9	2.13±0.5	2.74±0.9
Sig.	0.282	0.812	0.995
Annual Income			
0 to 200 000 Rands p/a	3.03±0.9	2.18±0.6	2.68±0.9
201 000 to 400 000 Rands p/a	3.41±1.0	2.12±0.5	2.76±0.8
401 000 to 600 000 Rands p/a	3.26±0.9	2.11±0.4	2.78±0.9
601 000 to 800 000 Rands p/a	3.77±0.9	2.26±0.6	2.72±0.6
801 000 to 1 000 000 Rands p/a	3.11±0.7	2.12±0.5	2.66±0.7

Sig	0.013***	0.753	0.953

6.7 FACTOR ANALYSIS AND VALIDATION OF THE RESEARCH CONSTRUCTS

Factor analysis is a form of analytical procedure, with a core objective of data reduction. As reported in the literature, factor analysis has the ability to reduce the gathered items into smaller and more meaningful components or factors (Sekeran, 2006). The Promax extraction method was used to identify the underlying constructs and patterns of relationships amongst the items/factors constituting the questionnaire.

6.7.1 Validating the cultural dimensions constructs

Factor analysis was performed to validate the cultural dimensions constructs. The factors for cultural dimensions were identified in the literature and grouped under the following themes: Individualism, Collectivism, Masculinity and Femininity, Uncertainty avoidance and Power distance. To help validate the cultural dimensions constructs, exploratory factor analysis making use of the principal component analysis (PCA) extraction method and Promax rotation on all 20 statements measuring cultural dimensions was conducted. The Kaiser-Meyer value was 0.645, which exceeds the recommended value of 0.5 (Field, 2007:640) and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was statistically significant, thus supporting the suitability of the correlation matrix. Using the eigenvalues-greater than-one, the PCA revealed seven clear factor dimensions explaining 63% of the total variance.

Table 6.15: KMO and Bartlett's Test for cultural value dimensions

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.645
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1360.000
	Df	190
	Sig.	.000

Table 6.16: Factor loading for cultural value dimensions

Compone nt	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.322	16.608	16.608	3.322	16.608	16.608
2	2.508	12.538	29.147	2.508	12.538	29.147
3	1.704	8.521	37.668	1.704	8.521	37.668
4	1.446	7.229	44.896	1.446	7.229	44.896
5	1.366	6.830	51.727	1.366	6.830	51.727

6	1.242	6.210	57.936	1.242	6.210	57.936
7	1.025	5.124	63.060	1.025	5.124	63.060

Structure Matrix							
	Component						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am only satisfied when I have the best things	.753						
I fight to be the best	.741						
It is ok that some are placed higher than me in society	-.683						
I do not like situations with unclear ends	.594						
Others play roles in my decisions		.714					
I feel bad to do what others do not		.692					
I want to feel that I belong to the group		.647					
Any society is a ladder: One is placed higher and one lower			.774				
Inequality is unavoidable			.712				
Where there is no risk, there is no fun							
Normal and usual things are enough							
Myself is more important than others				.769			
I try to avoid risks in life				.634			
My opinion is always right				.596			
Everyone should care for himself					.866		
My personal life is the most important					.800		
Individual's rights are more valuable than people's right						.824	
I put my interests above the interest of others						.707	

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Personal interests are less important than group harmony							.786
It bothers me that some are placed higher in society	.515						.521
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.							

As a basic principle, only the factor with loading 0.5 and above was retained and used for further analysis, while items below the recommended value were dropped from the original constructs. Moreover, factors with negative loading were deleted and discontinued from further analysis. Table 6.17 provides a complete listing of all as their respective reliability coefficients. Overall, seven factors emerged. The emerged Factor 1 had a good mix of the items related to masculinity/femininity (Items 11 and 13) and uncertainty avoidance (Items 15 and 16) under the new dimension of "Perfectionism". The emerged Factor 2 contained three items (Items 7, 8 and 9) which could be categorised under the initial pre-defined "Collectivism" dimension of cultural values. The emerged Factor 3 which had two items (Items 17 and 18) still related to the "Power distance" dimension of cultural value. On careful examination of the emerged Factor 4, it emerged that three items (Items 4, 5, and 14) drawn from the original Individualism dimension (Items 4 and 5) and Uncertainty avoidance (Items 14) were re-grouped into a new "Egoism' dimension. The emerged Factor 5 had two items (Items 1 and 2), which constitute the original Individualism dimension and was therefore retained. The emerged Factor 6 had two items (Items 3 and 6), which were drawn from the original Individualism dimension and subsequently re-grouped into a new dimension of "Self-interest". The emerged Factor 7 had two items (Items 10 and 20), which were re-grouped into a new dimension "Harmony".

Table 6.17: Emerged dimensions for cultural value

Original items	Dimensions	Emerged factor	Emerging Items	New dimensions
Item 11-13 and Item 14-16	Masculinity/Femininity and Uncertainty avoidance	1 (4 items)	Items 11, 13, 15, 16	Perfectionism
Item 7-10	Collectivism	2 (3 items)	Items 7, 8, and 9	Collectivism
Item 17-20	Power distance	3 (2 items)	Items 17 and 18	Power distance
Item 1-6 and items 14-16	Individualism and Uncertainty avoidance	4 (3 items)	Items 4, 5, and 14	Egoism

Item 1-6	Individualism	5 (2 items)	Items 1 and 2	Individualism
Item 1-6	Individualism	6 (2 items)	Items 3 and 6	Self-interest
Items 7-10 and 17-20	Collectivism and power distance	7 (2 items)	Items 10 and 20	Harmony

6.8 CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE CULTURAL VALUE CONSTRUCTS

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was further used to validate the EFA analysis. All items for collectivism were removed from the model to get a good fit to the data (Chi Square= 80.5361; df=31; p< 0.001; RMSEA=0.073; GFI= 0.953; AGFI= 0.916; CFI=0.889). As shown in the Figure, all items loaded significantly on their hypothesised latent constructs that demonstrate a construct's validity. As shown in Figure 6.3, all items loaded significantly on their hypothesised latent constructs that demonstrate a construct's validity. In this study, the convergent validity was assessed using the factor loadings, construct reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE). According to Hair *et al*. (2010), a standardised factor loading with a value of 0.50 or higher provides strong evidence of convergent validity. As seen in the model, nearly all the items had significant factor loadings, which suggests adequate convergent validity. Furthermore, and as shown in Table 6.17, the AVE values measured for the dimension uniqueness and status were greater than 0.5 for each of these constructs, suggesting an adequate convergence (Hair *et al*., 2010). The construct reliability (CR) of this study indicates adequate convergence with values ≥ .7, thus indicating good reliability (Hair *et al*., 2010).

Farrell (2010:326) suggests a way of assessing the discriminant validity of two or more factors by comparing the AVE of each construct with the shared variance between constructs. In this study, all the constructs' scale items were less than AVE, which indicated that discriminant validity is supported (Table 6.18).
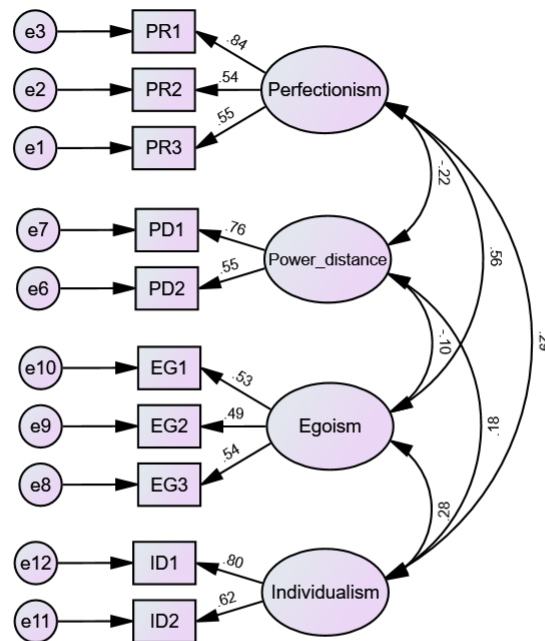
Fitness Indexes:

1. GFI = .953
2. AGFI= .916
3. CFI = .889
4. RMSEA= .073
5. TLI= .839
6. ChiSqdf = 2.598

Figure 6.3: CFA model and fit indexes for cultural values dimensions

Table 6.18: Convergent and discriminate validity for cultural values dimensions

	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)
Egoism	0.530	0.273	0.309	0.531
Perfectionism	0.687	0.434	0.309	0.767
Power_distance	0.604	0.439	0.048	0.641
Individualism	0.674	0.512	0.082	0.707

6.9 VALIDATING THE CONSUMER BUYING BEHAVIOUR DIMENSIONS

Factor analysis was used to validate three dimensions that constitute consumer buying behaviour. The Principal Component Analysis (PCA) extraction method and Promax rotation on all 13 statements measuring cultural dimensions were conducted. The Kaiser-Meyer value was 0.645, which exceeds the recommended value of 0.5 (Field 2007) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was statistically significant, thus supporting the suitability of the correlation matrix.

Using the eigenvalues greater than one, the PCA revealed clear four-factor dimensions explaining 62.7% of the total variance (Table 6.19).

Table 6.19: Factor loading for customers' buying behaviour dimensions

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.748
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1359.142
	Df	78
	Sig.	.000

Table 6.19: Factor loading for customer buying behaviour dimensions

Compone nt	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.049	31.144	31.144	4.049	31.144	31.144
2	1.668	12.833	43.978	1.668	12.833	43.978
3	1.316	10.125	54.103	1.316	10.125	54.103
4	1.111	8.546	62.650	1.111	8.546	62.650

Structure Matrix				
	Component			
	1	2	3	4
The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would improve my image in the presence of other people	.835			
The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would show my social prestige in the presence of others	.921			
The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would show my social status in the presence of others	.866			

Since several other people and my colleagues have purchased specialty products such as luxury products, I have to purchase luxury products myself to feel acceptable	.459			-.453
The performance of specialty products such as luxury products is my primary reason for purchase				.431
The certain quality of specialty products appeals to me	.646	.468		
I think positively of the latest design and features			.791	
I would purchase specialty products due to their certain quality				.558
Rare products appeal to me		.816		
I am a leader rather than a follower in terms of fashion		.628	.590	
I detest possessing things that everyone possesses		.765		
I enjoy trying new products before other people do			.743	
Revised	-.508	-.487		.709
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.				

Overall, four factors emerged and the 13 items were reduced to 11 items. The emerged Factor 1 had a good mix of the items related to status (Items 1-3) and quality (Item 7) and were retained in its original dimension "Status". The emerged Factor 2 contained three items (Items 10-12), which could be categorised under the same dimension "Uniqueness". The emerged Factor 3 had two items (Items 8 and 13), which had a good mix of quality and uniqueness and were re-grouped into a dimension of "newness". The emerged Factor 4 had two items (Items 4 and 9), which were drawn from the original status and quality dimensions and were thus re-grouped into a new dimension of "Symbolism".

Table 6.21: Emerged dimensions for customers' buying behaviour dimensions

Original items	Dimensions	Emerged factor	Emerging Items	New dimensions	Cronbach alpha
Item 1-5 and Item 6-9	Status and Quality	1 (4 items)	Item 1-3 and Item 7	Status	0.861
Item 10-13	Uniqueness	2 (3 items)	Item 10-12	Uniqueness	0.647
Item 6-9 and Item10-13	Quality and uniqueness	3 (2 items)	Items 8 and 13	Newness	0.534
Item 1-5 and Item 6-9	Status and Quality	4 (2 items)	Items 4 and 9	Symbolism	0.130

6.9.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the cultural value constructs

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was further used to validate the EFA analysis. All items loading below 0.5 values were removed from the model to get a good fit to the data (Chi Square= 65.114; df=21; p< 0.001; RMSEA=0.089; GFI= 0.949; AGFI= 0.896; CFI=0.950; TLI =0.918). As shown in Figure 6.4, all items loaded significantly on their hypothesised latent constructs that demonstrate a constructs' validity. In this study, convergent validity was assessed using the factor loadings, construct reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE). According to Hair *et al*. (2010), a standardised factor loading with a value of 0.50 or higher provides strong evidence of convergent validity. As seen in the model, nearly all the items had significant factor loadings, which suggests adequate convergent validity. Furthermore, and as shown in Table 6.21, the AVE values measured for the dimension's uniqueness and status were greater than 0.5 for each of these constructs, suggesting an adequate convergence (Hair *et al*., 2010). The construct reliability (CR) of this study indicates adequate convergence with values ≥ .7, thus indicating good reliability (Hair *et al*., 2010).

Farrell (2010:326) suggests a way of assessing the discriminant validity of two or more factors by comparing the AVE of each construct with the shared variance between constructs. In this study, all the dimensions were less than AVE, which suggests that discriminant validity is supported (Table 6.22).

Table 6.22: Convergent and discriminate validity for customer buying behaviour dimensions

	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	Uniqueness	Status	Specialty
Uniqueness	0.922	0.831	0.198	0.598	**0.912**		
Status	0.879	0.654	0.118	0.972	0.289	**0.809**	
Newness	0.544	0.378	0.198	0.565	0.445	0.344	**0.614**

Fitness Indexes:
1. GFI=.949
2. CFI=.950
3. AGFI=.896
4. TLI=.918
5. RMSEA=.089
6. ChiSq/df=3.385
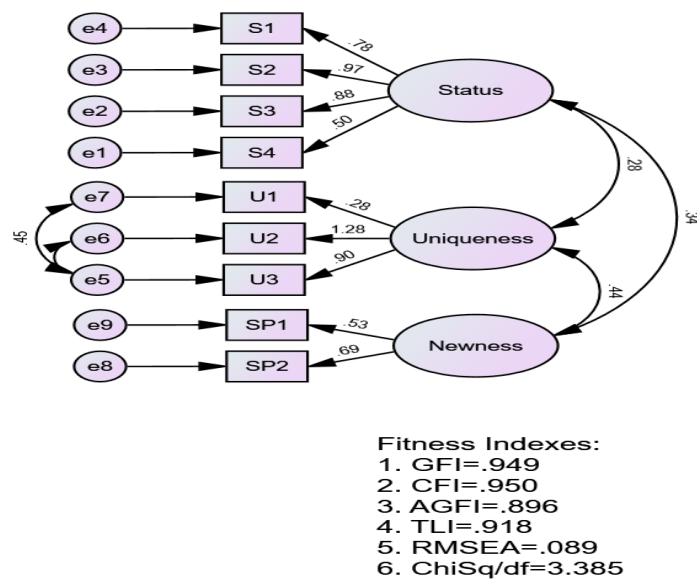
Figure 6.4: CFA model and fit indexes for customers' buying behaviour dimensions

6.9.1.1 Regression on customers' buying behaviour predictors

Standardised multiple regression analysis in the study was used to define the interrelationship amongst the dimensions within two or more sub-constructs of a model (Sekaran *et al.*, 2016:315). This analysis allows for the determination of how well items within the two sub-constructs predict the desired outcome. Multiple regression analysis was carried out, given a significance level of $p < 0.001$ to determine the relationship between cultural value dimensions (Perfectionism, power distance, egoism and individualism) and consumer buying behaviour dimensions (Status, uniqueness and specialty). The data were screened for the presence of collinearity. According to Pallant (2016) and Saunders *et al.* (2016), collinearity can be diagnosed by checking the tolerance coefficient and variance inflation factor (VIF) values.

Table 6.23: Collinearity statistics

Tolerance	VIF
.870	1.149
.960	1.042
.888	1.126
.942	1.061

Based on the rule of thumb, if the tolerance coefficient is less than 0.10, it suggests collinearity. Equally, if the VIF value is above 10.0, it suggests multi-collinearity. In this study, the collinearity values indicated that all tolerance coefficients were above the recommended value of 0.10. The yielded VIF values also show that all the variables were below 10.0. Therefore, all the independent variables were retained in the regression model, as the multi-collinearity assumption was not violated. The yielded results are summarised below.

6.9.1.2 Predictors of status

The regression coefficient (r=0.535; p<0.01) suggests a strong causal relationship in the predicted model. The beta coefficients for perfectionism (0.430), power distance (0.211), egoism (0.106) and individualism (0.111) were all positive and significant predictors. The R^2 values measured suggest that there was a strong explanatory power (28.7%) for the predictors in the model. Overall, perfectionism (0.430) constitutes the strongest contributor to status as customers' buying behaviour (Table 6.22).

The regression equation for this relationship is:

Status= 0.142 + (0.430*Perfectionism) + (0.211* Power distance) + (0.106 * Egoism) + (0.111*Individualism).

Table 6.24: Multiple regression on cultural values predictors of status as customers' buying behaviour

Predictor	F-value	P-value	R	Beta Coefficients	Error	R Square	Predicted	Significance
Perfectionism	29.643	0.000	0.535	.430	.065	0.287	Status	.000
Power distance				.211	.061			.000
Egoism				.106	.074			.043

| Individualism | | | | .111 | .079 | | | .029 |

6.9.1.3 Predictors of Uniqueness

The regression coefficient (r=0.588; p<0.01) suggests a strong causal relationship in the predicted model. The beta coefficients for perfectionism (0.563) were positive and significant predictors of uniqueness, while that of power distance (0.010) and egoism (0.070) were not significant predictors. The beta coefficient measured for individualism (-0.008) was negative and not significant. The R^2 values measured suggest that there was a strong explanatory power (35.75%) for the predictors in the model. The model suggests that perfectionism (0.563) was the only significant predictor of uniqueness in customers' buying behaviour (Table 6.24).

The regression equation for this relationship is: Uniqueness = 1.080 + (0.563*Perfectionism)

Table 6.25: Multiple regression on cultural values predictors of uniqueness as customers' buying behaviour

Predictor	F-value	P-value	R	Beta Coefficients	Error	R Square	Predicted	Significance
Perfectionism	38.901	0.000	0.588	.563	.057	0.355	Uniqueness	.000
Power distance				.010	.054			.838
Egoism				.070	.065			.162
Individualism				-.008	.069			.864

6.9.1.4 Predictors of Newness

The regression coefficient (r=0.431; p<0.01) suggests a strong causal relationship in the predicted model. The beta coefficients for perfectionism (0.332) and power distance (0.270) were positive and significant predictors, while that of individualism (0.065) was not a significant predictor. The beta coefficient measured for egoism (-0.053) was negative and not significant. The R^2 values measured suggest that there was a strong explanatory power (18.5%) for the predictors in the model. The model suggests that perfectionism (0.332) was the strongest predictor of newness as customers' buying behaviour (Table 6.26).

The regression equation for this relationship is:

Newness = 0.793 + (0.332*Perfectionism) + (0.270 *Power distance)

Table 6.26: Multiple regression on cultural values predictors of newness as customers' buying behaviour

Predictor	F-value	P-value	R	Beta Coefficients	Error	R Square	Predicted	Significance
Perfectionism	16.794	0.000	0.431	.332	.054	0.185	Newness	.000
Power distance				.270	.050			.000
Egoism				-.053	.062			.339
Individualism				.099	.065			.069

6.9.1.5 Association between cultural values and consumer buying behaviour

Part of the research objective this study sought to address was to determine the relationship between cultural values and consumer buying behaviour. Table 6.26 indicates that cultural values correlate positively with consumer buying behaviour. This suggests that there is a positive association between cultural values and consumer buying behaviour, and this association is significant (r=599; p<0.00).

Table 6.27: Associations between cultural values and consumer buying behaviour

		Culture value	Consumer buying behaviour
Culture value	Pearson Correlation	1	.599**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	300	300
Consumer buying behaviour	Pearson Correlation	.599**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	300	300
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

6.10 STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODEL

A Structural equation model (SEM) was conducted to test the relationship between the cultural value dimensions (perfectionism, power distance, egoism and individualism) and customers' buying behaviour dimensions (status, uniqueness and newness). According to Kline (2011), there are sets of criteria used to determine the model fit in SEM. The generated Chi-square value $\chi2$ divided by df expressed as CMIN/DF must be less than 5 (Atiku, 2014). The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) is another determining value, which is a form of incremental fit indices that measures the model fitness. As a rule of thumb, the CFI value is recommended to be greater than 0.9 for the model to be considered a good fit (Kline (2011). Another important measure of model fit is the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). For the RMSEA, a value that is less than 0.08 is recommended which suggests a fit approximation (Hooper, 2008:54). From the SEM illustrated in Figure 6.5, the observed model fit indices are: $\chi2 = 226.495$, df = 88, p < .001, CMIN/DF = 2.574, CFI = .903; GFI = .916; RMSEA = .073; AGFI= 0.870, which suggests that the SEM possesses an adequate model fit.

Figure 6.5: SEM model
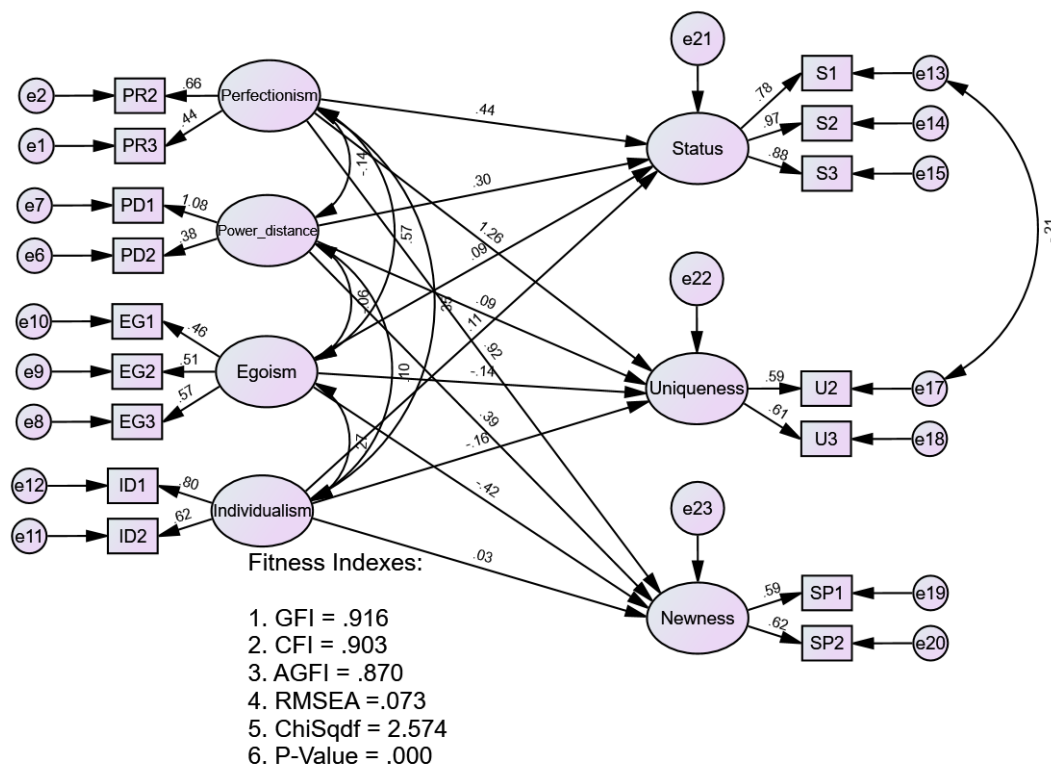
Furthermore, the model estimate highlighted in Table 6.27 suggests that some of the causal paths within the SEM are significant at the p< 0.001 level. The data suggests that there was a

causal relationship between perfectionism and uniqueness, as well as perfectionism and status. This reinforced the regression analysis that perfectionism predicts uniqueness and status. Power distance and perfectionism were found to predict newness and status.

Table 6.28: Estimate of the model

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Decision
Uniqueness	<---	Perfectionism	2.389	.421	5.672	***	Supported
Uniqueness	<---	Power distance	.209	.197	1.058	.290	Not supported
Uniqueness	<---	Egoism	-.171	.200	-.857	.391	Not supported
Uniqueness	<---	Individualism	-.216	.166	-1.299	.194	Not supported
Newness	<---	Perfectionism	1.348	.265	5.088	***	Supported
Newness	<---	Power distance	.706	.174	4.066	***	Supported
Newness	<---	Egoism	-.406	.167	-2.422	.015	Supported
Newness	<---	Individualism	.036	.124	.288	.774	Not supported
Status	<---	Perfectionism	1.229	.286	4.299	***	Supported
Status	<---	Power distance	1.011	.227	4.455	***	Supported
Status	<---	Egoism	.158	.184	.858	.391	Not supported
Status	<---	Individualism	.233	.153	1.526	.127	Not supported

The correlation index for all the factors considered in the SEM was assessed and results show that the squared multiple correlations were satisfactory for perfectionism and egoism, and perfectionism and individualism. Omar, Joarder and Riaz (2015:263) state that the closer the value is to 0.850, the better the correlation.

Table 6.29: Correlations of the estimate

			Estimate
Perfectionism	<-->	Egoism	.570
Perfectionism	<-->	Power distance	-.136
Perfectionism	<-->	Individualism	.348
Power_distance	<-->	Egoism	-.060

Power_distance	<-->	Individualism	.101
Egoism	<-->	Individualism	.265
e13	<-->	e17	-.214

6.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In summary, the chapter highlighted the results on the impact of cultural values on consumer behaviour, with specific reference to specialty products at the University of Technology in KwaZulu-Natal. Data collected from both academic and support staff were analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics in line with the research objectives. The descriptive data summarises the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents. It emerged that the majority of respondents were adults within the age group 31-50 years, mostly females, African, support staff, hold a master's degree and earn on average between 201,000 to 400, 000 rands per annum.

The research analysis consisted of two parts. The first part addressed the cultural value dimension in line with Hofstede's seminal work. Five dimensions were assessed, namely individualism, collectivism, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty avoidance and power distance. The Chi-Square test revealed a significant difference in the perceptions of the respondents. The ANOVA test was conducted to test the relationship between the demographic variables and the dimensions. The results indicate that there was a statistical difference in the age group and two dimensions, namely masculinity/femininity. The gender of the respondents was found to differ on the individualism dimension. Qualification was found to differ on four of the dimensions except for individualism. The income of the respondents was found to differ on two dimensions, namely power distance and masculinity/femininity. Academic status was found to differ only in the power distance dimension.

Furthermore, consumer buying behaviour was assessed under three dimensions, namely quality, status and uniqueness. The Chi-Square test reveals that there were significant differences in the respondents' perceptions of the items constituting each of the dimensions. The ANOVA test reveals no difference in the respondents' gender, academic status and perceived buying behaviour. The perceived buying behaviour based on status was found to differ by age group, annual income and qualification; while quality was found to differ by the respondents' race.

In the second part of the analysis, factor analysis using both EFA and CFA was computed to validate Hofstede's dimensions, as well as the consumer buying behaviour dimension. The EFA analysis revealed that the cultural value dimensions loaded strongly into seven dimensions, namely perfectionism, collectivism, power distance, egoism, individualism, self-interest and harmony. The CFA analysis however validated only four of the emerged dimensions, namely perfectionism, power distance, egoism and individualism. In terms of consumer buying behaviour dimensions, the EFA analysis revealed four dimensions, namely status, uniqueness, newness and symbolism. The CFA however validate three dimensions, namely status, uniqueness and newness.

A regression analysis was further performed to test the relationship in the emerged constructs using cultural values as the independent variable and the consumer buying behaviour dimension as the dependent. It was found that perfectionism, power distance, egoism and individualism were all significant predictors of status. In terms of uniqueness, only perfectionism significantly predicts it, while perfectionism and power distance predict newness. The correlation coefficient indicates a significant association between cultural values and consumer buying behaviour. The chapter concluded with the path analysis model. The SEM revealed that perfectionism, power distance and egoism were supported as significant predictors of consumer buying behaviour. The next chapter provides a discussion, drawing on relevant literature to support the study findings.

The above section of the thesis gave a presentation and discussion of the results and the outline discussed social and demographic characteristics; cultural values dimensions; the association between socio-demographic variables; consumer buying behaviour dimensions; and validation of the research constructs. The discussion on the social and demographic characteristics covered age group, gender, race, qualification, academic status and annual income bracket. The discussion on cultural values dimensions covered individualism, collectivism, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty-avoidance and power distance. The discussion on the association between socio-demographic variables and cultural values looked at the influence of consumer buying behaviour dimensions. The discussion on consumer buying behaviour dimensions covered status, quality and uniqueness. There was also a discussion on the validation of research constructs using factor analysis and a discussion of the Structural Equation Model. The next section of the thesis describes the results.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Although cultural values are perceived as a determinant factor in consumer behaviour (Farrukh *et al*. 2019), cultural values tend to differ in demographics, language, non-verbal communication, and values. These differences are reported in the literature to change consumer purchasing behaviour (Chaudry, 2014). Moreover, studies have shown that there is a difference in the way consumers react to non-traditional products, how information sources appeal to them and their preferred advertising sources which is evident in different cultures and cultural values (Pronpitakpan and Francis, 2001; Gurhan-Gnli and Maheswaran, 2000; Money, Gilley and Graham, 1998). This in turn has a direct influence on consumer buying behaviour. South Africa is a multi-cultural country with an enriched diversity of people, colours, languages and tribes. As such, it became critical to understand how cultural norms could be applied in the marketing and purchasing of specialty products. This study, therefore, aimed to explore the impact of cultural values on consumer behaviour, with specific reference to specialty products at the University of Technology in KwaZulu-Natal.

This chapter summarises and discusses the main findings obtained from the data analysis presented in the previous section. Drawing from relevant literature, the discussion of the chapter is presented in line with the research objectives of the study, namely:

- To examine employees' perceptions of cultural values dimensions.
- To evaluate the relationship between cultural values and demographics.
- To analyse employees' perceptions of consumer behaviour dimensions.
- To evaluate the relationship between consumer behaviour and demographics.
- To evaluate the impact of cultural values on consumer behaviour in the purchasing of specialty products; and
- To develop a model for cultural value and consumer behaviour for specialty products.
  .

7.2 PERCEPTIONS OF CULTURAL VALUES DIMENSIONS – RESEARCH OBJECTIVE ONE

According to Rahman (2019:32), understanding cultural properties in the analysis of consumer behaviour is an essential component of marketing segmentation. Culture affects how consumers use or consume products. While research depicts changes in the cultural value perceptions of purchasing behaviour of consumers has been viewed from Western (mainly individualist) and Eastern (mainly collectivist) lenses, there is however limited evidence in developing countries like South Africa. This study builds on the gap in the literature by examining cultural values from the perspective of employees at the University of Technology in South Africa.

The seminal work of Hofstede (2013) provided the framework for researchers to investigate the influence of cultural values on consumer behaviour. Hofstede's (2013) original framework typified cultural value into five dimensions, namely uncertainty avoidance; short-term versus long-term orientation; power distance; femininity/masculinity and individualism-collectivism. However, the findings from this study uncovered seven cultural dimension categories under perfectionism, collectivism, power distance, egoism, individualism, self-interest and harmonic (Table 6.17). This suggests that respondents' perceptions of cultural values dimensions slightly differ from those proposed by Hofstede (2013). This could be attributed to the uniqueness of cultural beliefs and values found in South Africa. This can be corroborated by Morris *et al*. (2014:20), who said that cultural value consists of shared beliefs which include ideas represented in the minds of its people, enacted in their practices and inscribed in its institutions. Accordingly, the discussion on the perceptions of cultural value dimensions was centred on each of the aforementioned cultural value dimensions uncovered in this study.

7.2.1 Perception of individualism and Collectivism values

From the EFA analysis, the findings of this study suggest that respondents perceived the statements "my personal life is more important" and "everyone should care for himself" as individualistic values (Table 6.18). According to Aliyev and Wagnev (2018:159), individualists possess emotional detachment from collective perceptions and thus view their personal goals as more important. The finding from this study also reaffirmed that South Africa, with a Hofstede's score of 65, is an individualist society. This means there is a high preference for a loosely-knit social framework in which individuals are expected to take care of themselves and their immediate families only.

By contrast, collectivism has interdependence and a holistic way of thinking. This is also supported by the majority of those who agreed with the two statements "I want to feel that I belong to the group" and "Others play roles in my decisions" (Table 6.6). According to Aliyev and Wagnev (2018:160), people with collectivist values are more concerned with public image or face and thus emphasise publicly visible possessions. Additionally, collectivist people purchase luxury products to uphold a particular image and physical front (Li and Su, 2007) and thus may likely seek products that convey status and prestige.

7.2.2 Perception of perfectionism values

Furthermore, the three statements "I fight to be the best", "I am only satisfied when I have the best" and "I do not like situations with unclear ends" suggest a perfectionist value. This is in agreement with DiBartolo and Rendón (2012), who said that perfectionism is the tendency to set high personal standards along with concerns about making mistakes. The findings also reveal that the perfectionism value is a hybrid of Hofstede *et al*. (2010) masculinity and uncertainty avoidance. For example, the statement "I fight to be best" is indicative of masculinity values. This is corroborated by Sirte and Karahanna (2006), who said that seeking competitiveness is a trait of masculinity. Thus, it may be said that the respondents in this study had a characteristic of masculinity values. Uncertainty avoidance can also be seen in the statement "I do not like situations with unclear ends". Aryani and Koesma (2020) state that in strong uncertainty avoidance cultures, individuals feel threatened by unknown or uncertain situations.

7.2.3 Perception of power distance values

Power distance is included in Hofstede's (2013) seminal framework on cultural value dimensions. Leng and Botelho (2010:263) explain that an individual who is seen to have less power in society will tend to accept unfairness in power as being normal to them or to be normality. Consistent with this, the EFA analysis confirmed that respondents perceived the two statements "Inequality is unavoidable" and "Any society is like a ladder, one is placed higher and one lower" to be power distance. While Leng and Botelho (2010:263) argue that a lower degree of power distance signifies that people question authority and attempt to distribute power, this study found that there was a strong agreement on power distance amongst the respondents (Table 6.9). This, perhaps, might be attributed to the high inequality in South African society. This is corroborated by Hofstede *et al*. (2010), who said that inequalities are generally accepted by individuals from societies with a high power distance. Moreover, the finding of this study concurs with Hofstede's scores of 49 for South Africa on power distance.

This means that people to a large extent accept a hierarchical order in which everybody has a place, and which needs no further justification.

7.2.4 Perception of egoism and self-interest values

Another new dimension emerging from this study is the concept of egoism. Lazzel (2016) identified egoism as one of the personality traits of people. The seminal report by Burgess and Di Bartolo and Rendon (2016) revealed that a person who has a more egoistic personality tendency holds more self-interested values. In this study, it was found that the respondents perceived the three statements "Myself is more important than others", "My opinion is always right" and "I try to avoid risks in life" to be egoistic (Table 6.18). Nevertheless, the majority of the respondents disagreed with having an egoistic personality. This may be attributed to the spirit of Ubuntu philosophy, which is centred on society's collectiveness against self-interest values. This also can be supported by those who disagreed that individual rights are more valuable than people's rights (Table 6.5).

7.2.5 Perception of harmony values

Harmony values, according to Masuda *et al.* (2019:296), are the relative importance society gives to peace. In this study, respondents perceived two statements of cultural values, namely "personal interests are less important than group harmony" and "It bothers me that some are placed higher in society" as harmony values. For example, respondents disagreed that it bothers them that some are placed higher in society which reflects harmony with society, and power distance (Table 6.9).

7.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE PERCEPTIONS OF CULTURAL VALUES AND DEMOGRAPHICS – RESEARCH OBJECTIVE TWO

This section summarises the differences between the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents and their cultural values perceptions.

7.3.1 Gender and cultural values

In terms of individualistic values, it was found that males and females differ statistically. This finding is in agreement with Arora-Johnson (2011), who found that males and females differ in individualism values. According to Arora-Johnson (2011:748), cultural values differences between male and female genders may be attributed to the way women and men are socialized by parents, schools and mass media contributes to the values between the two groups. This factor may have played a role in the difference found between male and female respondents. For example, the study found that females were more likely to have individualistic values when

compared to males (Table 6.10). This is contrary to other studies that women are less individualistic when compared to men (Burgess and Di Bartolo 2016; Hofstede, 2001). The difference in the finding and that of other scholars mentioned may be attributed to the high incidence of single mothers in South African society, which has seen women take on the traditional roles of men in raising children.

Furthermore, while this study found no differences in the collectivism values between males and females, Arora-Johnson (2011:749), found that females are more collectivist than males. The perceived differences may be attributed to the differences in the cultural setting. For example, South Africa adopts more westernised cultural values, which are more individualistic when compared to Asian countries like India. This is also corroborated by Burgess and Di Bartolo (2016), who found that females in the United Arab Emirates are more collectivist in values when compared to men.

7.3.2 Age group and cultural values

In addition, it was found that age played a significant role in masculinity/femininity values, as well as power distance. It emerged that younger respondents (18-30) showed a higher tendency to have masculinity/femininity personality traits when compared to older adults. This thus suggests that younger men are highly competitive when compared to older men. According to Bissessar (2018:79), individuals high on masculinity usually value competitiveness, assertiveness, and ambition and focus on performance and material possessions. Equally, and agreeing with Meyer (2017), the power and respect that comes with masculinity values amongst young male peers may also have influenced the masculinity values among younger men found in this study.

In terms of power distance, the study found that older respondents (51-65 years) showed a higher tendency to power distance when compared to younger adults. This may be attributed to the fact that older respondents have accepted the hierarchical structures in place in South African society, as against the younger ones who may strive for a new system. This corroborates with Bissessar (2018), who said that in societies where there is evidence of a high power distance, hierarchical structures are in place and there are rigid positions of leaders and subordinates.

7.3.3 Race and cultural values

South Africa is a multi-cultural country and multilingual society, where several ethnic groups maintain separate cultural identities arising from the way they are raised by different traditions. As such, one would expect that the cultural values will differ amongst the racial groups. However, it was found that race played no significant role in the cultural value dimensions measured in this study. This may be attributed to the government's efforts to unite the country under the rainbow nation ideology. This process may have a set of common rules and regulations, which could have enabled the standardization and harmonization of all cultural values within all ethnic and racial groups in South Africa. According to Yusuf, Azzah and Kamil (2016:2308), rules and regulations in society provide structural order in terms of stability and peace.

7.3.4 Academic status and cultural values

With regard to the academic respondents' status and their cultural values, this study found that their cultural value perceptions differ only in the power distance dimension. It emerged that support staff agree more with the concept of power distance when compared to academic staff. This may be understood given the fact that in higher education institutions, the support staff is subordinate to the academic staff. This aligns with Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) who said that in large power distance situations, superiors and subordinates consider each other as existentially unequal, thus the hierarchical system is based on this existential inequality.

7.3.5 Annual income and cultural values

In terms of the annual income of the respondents and the perception of their cultural value, the findings from this study suggest that they differ in the masculinity/femininity dimension, as well as also power distance (Table 6.10). For example, the study found that respondents with a higher annual income had more masculinity values. This supports Meyer (2017), who said that in South Africa, masculinity values represent wealth and money. Wealth is perceived to bring power and respect within the community. This view is further reinforced by respondents who earn R601000 to R800 000 per annum in agreement with the power distance dimension.

7.3.6 Education level and cultural values

In terms of respondents' qualifications and their views on the cultural value dimensions, the findings of this study revealed differences in four dimensions, namely collectivism, masculinity/femininity, power distance and uncertainty avoidance. It emerged that respondents with a Matric showed a higher tendency toward masculinity/femininity, uncertainty avoidance

and collectivism; while respondents holding degrees showed evidence of power distance. The plausible explanation for these variations in cultural values may require further investigation.

7.4 PERCEPTIONS OF THE CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR DIMENSIONS – RESEARCH OBJECTIVE THREE

Understanding consumers' needs are one of the hallmarks of marketing. Several studies (Shao, Grace and Ross 2019; Meyer, 2017) argue that social, functional and personal value perceptions are basic dimensions of specialty products. From the literature review, it was gathered that consumer purchase decision studies are defined by the products' hedonic values, quality, uniqueness and status (Jain *et al*., 2017; Vigneron and Johnson, 2004). Nevertheless, the EFA analysis indicates that the respondents' buying behaviour was based on the status, uniqueness, symbolism and newness of the products (Table 6.24).

7.4.1 Status

Extant literature reveals that status-driven consumers may purchase specialty products primarily for additional-oriented or individual-oriented motives, with the concluding inclination typically including ostentatious product display (Kim and Kim, 2016; Eastman and Eastman, 2011; Vigneron and Johnson, 2004). In this study, it was found that a significant number of respondents agreed with the three statements: "The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would improve my image in the presence of other people"; "The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would show my social prestige in the presence of others"; and "Specialty products such as luxury products and brands would show my social status in the presence of others" (Table 6.11). This indicates a strong tendency of purchasing specialty products based on status. The finding is in agreement with other scholars (Kim and Kim, 2016; Yang and Mattila, 2014) who said that consumers in emerging markets like South Africa, tend to purchase highly noticeable specialty products for reasons of pure ostentation. Furthermore, the high positive agreement with the statement "The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would show my social prestige in the presence of others" suggests the flaunting of wealth to demonstrate social class. This agrees with Amatulli, Pino, Iodice and Cascio (2016) and Bissessar (2018), who said that in emerging markets, luxury consumers may be inclined to flaunt wealth to distinguish themselves from less affluent people.

While some studies suggested that self-presentation may induce consumers to attach greater importance to the visibility of specialty products than to their superior quality or excellent worth (Das and Jebarajakirthy, 2020), the finding of this study, found that the respondents emphasize quality. For example, a significant number of respondents agreed that certain quality specialty products appeals to them (Table 6.12). This could also be reinforced by the EFA analysis in Table 6.22, which reveals a hybrid of status and quality.

Drawing from the above, while it is obvious that respondents' purchase intention for specialty products is influenced by status, it can also be gathered that respondents highly emphasised the quality of the products. A reasonable explanation for this may be linked to the statement made by Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov (2005), that while emerging countries' level of specialty products consumption should showcase customers' desired needs in a western lifestyle, it similarly provides both emotional and functional benefits.

7.4.2 Uniqueness

The consumption of specialty products (luxury goods) is one way by which an individual can demonstrate uniqueness (Kim and Kim, 2016). Consistent with this, a significant agreement was found for the two statements "Rare products appeal to me"; "I am a leader rather than a follower in terms of fashion"; and "I detest possessing things that everyone possesses" (Table 6.12). This suggests the respondents' need for uniqueness in specialty products. This agrees with other scholars (Das *et al*., 2021; Blagov 2020) who revealed that consumers' need for uniqueness is the extent to which they want to be seen as different through the consumption of products. Equally, the finding of this study agrees with Goldsmith and Clark (2018), who stated that specialty products are scarce and thus attractive to individuals who possess a high need for uniqueness.

In reviewing related literature on the subject, three distinct dimensions of the uniqueness of the needs of customers were uncovered, which include avoidance of similarity, unpopular choice counter-conformity and creative choice counter-conformity (Das *et al*. 2021; Meyer 2017). Innovative people with a spirit of excellence demonstrate uniqueness by using products that are distinct and in line with social norms. Unpopular choice, on the other hand, exhibits their uniqueness using products that violate social norms in view that it becomes a trendsetter in the

future; while the avoidance of similarity people distance themselves from accepted products as a way of showing their uniqueness (Das *et al*. 2021). In this study, the two statements "Rare products appeal to me" and "I am a leader rather than a follower in terms of fashion" may be linked to creative choice. Das *et al*. (2021) explained that people with creative choice tendencies exhibit their uniqueness by using products that offer distinctiveness such as unique features, exclusivity and/or prestige.

Drawing from the above finding, it is sufficient to assume that the higher education staff who participated in this study are creative choice people. This finding is reinforced by the significant number of respondents who disagreed with the statement "I detest possessing things that everyone possesses" (Table 6.12). This is further corroborated by Kastanakis and Balabanis (2014), who postulated that ingenious choice people may prefer specialty products that are popular and appreciated by others in society.

7.4.3 Symbolism

The consumption of specialty and rare products to satisfy hedonic and symbolic demands is referred to as luxury consumption (Das and Jebarajakirthy, 2020; Han and Kim, 2020; Mrad *et al*., 2020). In this study, it was uncovered that the symbolism dimension is a hybrid of status and quality. This agrees with other scholars (Klatzkin, Baldassaro and Rashid 2019; Greene, Cowan and McAdams, 2020) who claimed that specialty products suggest emblematic advantages throughout societal collaborations and also satisfy the need for status in society amongst consumers. For example, the statement "The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would symbolise my wealth in the presence of others" loaded on the symbolism dimension. This statement agrees with Park *et al*. (2021) and Sanyal, Mazumder, Singh and Sharma (2021) that people like to associate with specialty things to set themselves apart from others. Although a significant number of respondents disagreed on associating specialty products and brands with wealth in the presence of others (Table 6.11), the majority agreed to purchase specialty products due to their certain quality (Table 6.12). Based on the study finding, it can be inferred that the higher education staff purchase specialty products due to the quality rather than symbolism. This may be attributed to the fact that specialty products are perceived to be of high quality and come with prestige. This agrees with Meyer (2017:85) who posited that specialty products have the highest reputation and quality.

7.4.4 Newness

Owusu-Mensah (2017) stated that numerous qualities and characteristics a product holds, including complexity, quality, name of the brand, quality and newness can affect buyer behaviour. In this study, the EFA analysis revealed the statements "I think positively of the latest design and features" and "I enjoy trying new products before other people do" loaded a new of newness, which is a hybrid of quality and uniqueness. According to Owusu-Mensah (2017:85), the physical appearance of the product, packaging and labelling information can also influence whether consumers notice a product in-store, examine it and purchase it. In this study, it was found that a significant number of the respondents think positively of the latest design and features (Table 6.13). For specialty products, this suggests that the physical appearance of the products would influence a purchase decision.

Furthermore, it was found that a significant number of respondents agreed that they enjoy trying new products before other people do. The attempt of the respondents to create a unique identity that others will follow may be consistent with the creative choice uniqueness (Das *et al*. 2021:3). As such, the newness of a product is a strong motivating factor for the purchase decision of specialty products amongst higher education staff. A similar finding was reported by Atasu *et al*. (2010:58) who found that Indian participants in their study show a newness-conscious behaviour toward specialty products.

Equally important, the finding of this study, particularly the statement "I enjoy trying new products before other people do" agrees with Jung Choo, H., Moon, H., Kim, H. and Yoon, N. (2012), who postulated that purchases of new specialty products are centred on emotions and the exploration intended for unique relations with prestigious brands to connect value to emotions. Hence, it is sufficient to assume that product newness drives the purchase due to its uniqueness. In addition, positive agreement to the statement "I think positively of the latest design and features" may be attributed to the product design characteristics delivering symbolic meaning, which is highly applicable in customers' mental responses and purchase behaviour (Cheng-Xi Aw, Chuah, Sabri and Basha, 2021).

7.5 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND CUSTOMERS' BUYING BEHAVIOUR – RESEARCH OBJECTIVE FOUR

According to Üstüner and Holt (2010:39), the purchase of specialty products may be influenced by the consumer's personal qualities, as well as the market's economic maturity. Essential individual elements that inspire purchasing behaviour are occupation, personality, lifestyle, self-concept, economic situation and age (Ali *et al*., 2016). As such, part of the research

objective this study sought to address was to evaluate the relationship between consumer behaviour and demographics. It was hypothesised that there is a relationship between demographic variables and customers' buying behaviour. In light of the study finding in Table 6.14, the hypothesis was partially accepted as it emerged that there is a significant relationship between age group, qualification, annual income and status, race and quality. No relationship was found between gender and customer buying behaviour, as well as demographic variables and uniqueness. The findings of the study are discussed in detail in the subsequent sub-sections.

7.5.1 Age and specialty products consumer behaviour

Regarding age group, studies by Hauck and Stanforth (2007) and Schade, Hegner, Horstmann and Brinkmann, (2016) reported a significant difference amongst age clusters in the perceptions and attitudes towards specialty products. In this study, it was found that younger and older respondents significantly differ in their perception of specialty products. It emerged that younger respondents agree more which purchasing specialty products due to status when compared to older respondents (Table 6.14). This finding can be corroborated by Brinkmann *et al*., (2016:315), who found the purchase of specialty products is leading amongst the youthful population.

Although Ajitha and Sivakumar (2019:443) noted that it may be difficult to explain the motives for different age groups' consumption of specialty products, other authors explain certain motives which may shed light on the difference in specialty consumption between older and younger adults. For example, Rocha, Hammond and Hawkins, (2005:382) stated that the demand for specialty products amongst younger consumers is motivated by luxury and cosiness. On the other hand, Kim (2019:4221) found that in order to express their exclusive lifestyle and look young, older consumers display a great curiosity in specialty brand consumption. The aforesaid reasons may be contributed to the differences in the perceptions between younger and older respondents. For example, older respondents agreed more to purchasing specialty products due to their uniqueness (Table 6.15). Hence, and agreeing with other scholars (Bian and Forsythe, 2012; Brinkmann *et al*., 2016:315; Stokburger-Sauer and Teichmann, 2013), it is sufficient to conclude that psychosocial differences between older and younger respondents drive the purchase behaviour of specialty products.

7.5.2 Gender and specialty products consumer behaviour

According to Stokburger-Sauer and Teichmann (2013:890), attitudes towards luxury brands favour women over men. However, in this study, no differences were found between males and females in their perception of specialty products based on status, quality and uniqueness. Nevertheless, it was found that men agreed more with the consumption of specialty products based on uniqueness and quality. This finding can be corroborated by Kauppinen-Räisänen *et al.* (2018), who posited that men display a more sophisticated level of importance in luxury brands toward improving their self-image presentation and appearance than females. Given that higher education is a male-dominated environment, this could have contributed to the higher interest observed in males based on the quality and uniqueness of specialty products. This is contrary to the finding of Meyer (2017), who stated that females tend to be captivated by the value, uniqueness, quality and external look of products.

7.5.3 Race and specialty products consumer behaviour

In terms of race, the findings of the study revealed a significant difference only in the perceived quality dimension in the purchase behaviour of specialty products. While there was positive agreement on quality as an influence in specialty products, Coloured respondents were more likely to purchase specialty products due to quality, followed by White respondents (Table 6.15). The plausible explanation for this may require further investigation.

7.5.4 Qualification and specialty products consumer behaviour

According to Dubois, Czellar and Laurent (2005:117), education is needed to fully appreciate specialty products. In this study, it was found that there was a significant difference in the respondents' level of education and specialty product purchase behaviour due to status. It emerged that employees with the lowest level of education were more likely to purchase specialty products based on status. The plausible explanation for this may require further investigation.

7.5.5 Annual income and specialty products consumer behaviour

According to Wang and Tong (2017:196), specialty products are expensive in relative and absolute terms. Therefore, it is assumed that the request for specialty products may be determined by income level. However, the findings of this study reveal that lower-income earners were more likely to purchase specialty based on status. This is contrary to Lee and Hwang's (2011) finding that low-income populations exhibited more unfavourable attitudes toward luxury restaurants than did middle and high-income populations. Moreover, Wang and

Tong (2017) found that customers through greater revenue and education probably buy specialty products. The plausible explanation for this in the context of higher education staff may require further investigation.

7.5.6 Academic status and specialty products consumer behaviour

The professions people hold have an important influence on their purchasing performance. A marketing manager of an organization will try to purchase business suits, whereas a low-level worker in the same organization will purchase modest work clothes (Jisana, 2014). However, there was no difference in the academic status of the respondents and buying behaviour. This could be attributed to the fact that in higher education, the constructs of a boss and subordinate do not directly apply to academic and supporting staff.

7.6 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CULTURAL VALUES AND CONSUMER PURCHASE BEHAVIOUR – RESEARCH OBJECTIVE FIVE

According to Hofstede and Hofstede's (2005) submission, a nation's *cultural values* affect consumers' behaviour. More recent studies have shown that consumers' purchasing behaviour is predicated on his/her cultural values (Karami *et al*., 2015). Consistent with this, it was found that cultural values correlate positively with consumer buying behaviour (Table 6.29). This is in agreement with an Iranian study where the authors found a positive association between cultural values and consumer buying behaviour (Karami *et al*., 2015). Similarly, the findings of this study are further corroborated by Park *et al*. (2017) who found a strong relationship between consumer behaviour and culture.

While scholars such as Sharma (2011) and Bissessar (2018) argue that culture has an influence on customers' insights steering towards differences in purchasing patterns in collectivistic and individualistic cultures, Sarpong (2014:3) moots that culture does not exert a greater influence on consumers' purchase and buying behaviour of specialty products (luxury goods) such as branded clothing. This may be attributed to the values of the consumer, their preferences and personal factors. This is corroborated by Jain *et al*., (2017:649), who stated that specialty goods consumption is motivated by personal and non-personal values. This supports Vigneron and Johnson (2004), who categorised the perception of specialty products into two sets, namely personal values (extended shelf and hedonism) and non-personal values (uniqueness, quality and conspicuousness). In this study, the confirmatory analysis uncovered three non-personal values (uniqueness, newness and status).

According to Nwankwo, Hamelin and Khaled (2014:735), there is considerable ambivalence in how different societies and cultures relate to the consumption of specialty goods. Whilst several studies have investigated the consumer purchase of specialty products (luxury goods), the patterns of consumption of these products had largely remained contentious issues (Walley *et al.*, 2013; Bian and Forsythe, 2012). Whilst some scholars see consumer purchases of specialty products as a necessary by-product of a shift from an agricultural society to an expanding manufacturing society (Ramos, 2016), others hold the view that specialty consumption reflects negative moral consequences. Consequently, the relationship between the respondents' perceived buying behaviour was compared with the cultural values confirmed by the CFA analysis (perfectionism, power distance, egoism and individualism).

From the regression analysis carried out, it was found that both perfectionism and power distance were significant predictors of status in the purchase of specialty products (Table 6.22). As such, the first hypothesis which states that the perfectionism effect on status will be significant was accepted. The finding may be attributed to the concept of staff buying products to maintain their status in the academic environment. According to Parguel, Delecolle and Valette-Florence (2016), personal values are consumer-driven. Moreover, it has been suggested in the literature that social role and status profoundly influence consumer behaviour and purchasing decisions (Jisana, 2014). This may also explain the influence of power distance in the status buying of specialty products (luxury goods).

This can be corroborated by Tuu, Olsen and Cong (2017), who posited that specialty products such as fashion brands help communicate a consumer's power, such as prestige, status and dominance over others.

According to Theodorou, Buchli and Schaal (2010:1138), the purchase of expensive goods creates a certain status for the buyer. In a developing country like South Africa, it is sufficient to assume that higher education staff may purchase expensive products which symbolise their status in society. This view is consistent with other scholars (Bissessar 2018; Kim and Kim, 2016) that those who purchase expensive products consider themselves to be among the few consumers who can afford them.

While this study hypothesised that the individualism dimension will be a significant predictor of uniqueness, the finding of this study however suggests no relationship (Table 6.27). This may be attributed to the fact that individualist values are more associated with personal values

than non-personal values (Jain *et al.,* 2017). Tsai (2005) explained that individualists place more emphasis on experiential value and the personal meanings of their belongings. Hence, selfish motives are the driving force for the consumption of specialty products (Aliyev and Wagner 2018). However, it was found that the cultural value of perfectionism predicts uniqueness (Table 6.27). The plausible explanation for this may be connected to the fact that the perfectionism dimension is the subsumption of masculinity and uncertainty avoidance. For example, Ko *et al.,* (2020) stated that males utilise superior brands to donate wealth plus success, whilst females purchase high-status brands as signals to other women about their partner's devotion. Hence, one would infer that the purchase of specialty products based on the uniqueness of the brand may portray a form of masculinity. This is corroborated by other studies where the symbolic meaning associated with masculinity is central to a luxury appeal (Ko *et al.*, 2020; Seo and Buchanan-Oliver, 2015).

Another non-personal value uncovered in this study is newness. The data gathered from the regression analysis led to the acceptance of two hypotheses that state that perfectionism on newness products will be significant and power distance on newness products will be significant (Table 6.28). It was found that perfectionism and power distance significantly predicts newness as consumer buying behaviour. This may be attributed to the fact that a new product comes with a higher amount and a higher quality symbolises power distance for those who can purchase such products. This supports the view of Valette-Florence *et al*. (2016) that the more expensive a luxury is, the higher the perceived quality. Another factor that could have influenced interest in specialty products may be attributed to the democratization of luxuries. South African higher education institutions are known to form a strong collaboration with western institutions. Arguably, and corroborating Roper, Caruana, Medway and Murphy, (2013), structural and cultural shifts in western marketing systems may have also influenced the interest in specialty products, particularly as newer specialty products are introduced into the South African market.

7.7 MODEL FOR CULTURAL VALUE AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR FOR SPECIALTY PRODUCTS – RESEARCH OBJECTIVE SIX

Part of the research inquiry was to develop a model for cultural value and consumer behaviour for specialty products. Hofstede's seminal work on cultural value provided the basis for the

departure of this study (Hofstede, 2013). The theoretical contribution of this study provides an extension of Hofstede's original work. From the model below, the four cultural values among staff in higher education confirmed include perfectionism, power distance, egoism and individualism.

Perfectionism is a hybrid of Hofstede's masculinity and uncertainty avoidance, which suggests a link between this study and Hofstede's. DiBartolo and Rendón (2012) explained that perfectionism is the tendency to set high personal standards, along with concerns about making mistakes. This suggests that while higher education staff set high standards, which is an attribute of masculinity, they also try to avoid mistakes, which is the characteristic of uncertainty avoidance. Furthermore, the SEM model in Figure 6.5 confirmed Hofstede's individualism dimension. It thus means that the higher education staff who participated in the study had individualistic values. The hallmark of individualistic cultural values is that people place their personal goals as more important (Aliyev and Wagnev, 2018). This may be influenced by the academic environment where there is ranking and performance rating.

Power distance based on Hofstede's dimension was also confirmed in this study. The central premise of power distance is that there is a hierarchy in society (Leng and Botelho, 2010). In an academic environment, there is a hierarchical structure. It thus suggests that the staff who participated in this study understand the power distance in higher education.

7.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The results of this study have the potential to enhance the ability of marketers to target employees in higher education and attempt to align their cultural values with their appetite for specialty products. At the same time, these are consumers who have to work in the context of institutional and cultural transformation in the higher education sector, as well as the dynamics of a country with diverse languages, cultures and values. Evidence was produced in this study that marketers can apply appropriate tools to analyse the purchasing decisions and actions of consumers towards specialty products based on their cultural values. Informed marketers can avoid relating with potential customers from different cultural backgrounds and cast them into rigid stereotypes, rather than as consumers who buy specialty products to communicate particular meanings within their own culture.

The results from the study frame a profile of consumers from higher education to share several characteristics that enable them to fit as a sub-culture into existing market segments, or as an

entirely new target market for some different types of specialty products. The profile of the staff members from the University of Technology shows their support for similar individualist cultural values towards promoting self-independence and the search for status; accommodation of the collectivist values to seek belonging; power distance attitudes that have a tolerance for prevailing inequalities; and they strive to find a place themselves within the hierarchy, as well as striving to stand out as unique members within their society.

Consumers bring cultural beliefs, perceptions and practices that define themselves apart from others. However, the study has tried to show that there are shared characteristics in the way that the same consumers select, inspect and make use of the specialty products they buy.

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the results. This chapter of the thesis draws conclusions and makes recommendations from the results and findings of the investigation. The chapter discusses the conclusions of the study, with a particular focus on employee perceptions of cultural values; the relationship between employees' perceptions of cultural values; the demographics and consumer behaviour dimension; the relationship between employees' perceived buying behaviour and demographic variables; the relationship between cultural values and consumer purchase behaviour; and a summary of the whole thesis. Additionally, a brief narrative is given on the contribution to the body of knowledge, recommendations for future research and the limitations of the study.

8.2 OVERALL SUMMARY OF THE KEY FINDINGS FROM THE STUDY

The findings of the present study are presented in line with the research objectives of this study.

8.2.1 Employees' perceptions of cultural values

The key findings from this study revealed the employees' perceived cultural values in seven dimensions, namely perfectionism, collectivism, power distance, egoism, individualism, self-interest and harmony. The finding of this study, therefore, extends Hofstede's (2013) original framework, which categorises cultural value dimensions into five dimensions, namely short-term versus long-term orientation, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism individualism, femininity/masculinity and power distance.

Furthermore, the findings of this study reveal that the majority of the respondents agreed with the statements "my personal life is more important", and "everyone should care for himself," which is indicative of individualism. This finding re-affirms Hofstede's assertion that South Africa is an individualist society. The study also found collectivism in the two statements "I want to feel that I belong to the group" and "Others play roles in my decisions". It can therefore be concluded that there is an interplay between the individualism and collectivism tendency amongst the employees.

Furthermore, the three statements "I fight to be the best"; "I am only satisfied when I have the best"; and "I do not like situations with unclear ends" are indicative of a perfectionist. The findings also reveal that perfectionism value is a hybrid of Hofstede *et al.* (2010) masculinity and uncertainty avoidance.

Equally significant, the findings of this study reveal that employees perceived the two statements "Inequality is unavoidable" and "Any society is like a ladder, one is placed higher and one lower" to be power distance. The finding concurs with Hofstede's score of 49, which suggests that South Africa is high on power distance.

Further to the above, egoism is another cultural dimension uncovered in this study. The finding reveals that the respondents perceived the three statements "Myself is more important than others"; "My opinion is always right"; and "I try to avoid risks in life" to be egoistic. The finding, however, suggests that there is no egoistic tendency amongst the respondents.

Additionally, the finding reveals that the employees perceived two statements "Personal interests are less important than group harmony" and "It bothers me that some are placed higher in society as harmony value" to be harmony values. The results indicate that the employees are high on harmony values.

8.2.2 The relationship between employee perceptions of cultural values and demographics

The key finding that emerged from this objective is that males and females differ statistically in their individualistic values. This finding is in agreement with Arora-Johnson (2011), who found that males and females differ in individualism values. The study also reveals that females had higher individualist values when compared to males. This is in contrast to other studies where males had higher individualistic values (Burgess and Di Bartolo, 2016; Hofstede, 2001).

For collectivism, the finding of this study reveals no difference between males and females. This is in contrast to other studies where it is reported that females had a higher collectivism value when compared to males (Arora-Johnson, 2011).

In terms of age group, the key finding is that younger employees showed a higher tendency toward masculinity/femininity values when compared to older employees. On the contrary, it was found that older employees had a higher tendency to power distance.

In terms of race, the finding of this study reveals no statistical difference in any of the cultural values. Regarding academic status, the finding of this study reveals a significant difference in power distance value. It was found that support staff perceived the presence of power distance more than academic staff. In terms of annual income, the finding of this study reveals that employees differ in their perception of masculinity/femininity values. It was found that higher-income earners showed a higher tendency toward masculinity.

Another key finding is that the employees' qualifications played a significant role in their perception of collectivism, masculinity/femininity, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance values. The finding reveals that lower qualification holders had a higher tendency toward masculinity/femininity, uncertainty avoidance and collectivist values, while degree holders showed evidence of power distance value.

8.2.3 Employees' perceptions of the consumer behaviour dimension

The key findings from this study revealed that employees' perceived consumer behaviour were all personal factors (status, uniqueness, symbolism and newness dimensions). The finding of this study slightly differs from Vigneron and Johnson's (2004) and Jain *et al*. (2017).

In terms of status, the finding of this study reveals that employees perceived status as a hybrid of status and quality. It was found that the three statements "The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would improve my image in the presence of other people"; "The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would show my social prestige in the presence of others"; and "Specialty products such as luxury products and brands would show my social status in the presence of others" signified status, while the statement "Certain quality of specialty products appeals to them" signified quality.

In terms of uniqueness, the finding reveals that employees perceived three of the statements "Rare products appeal to me"; "I am a leader rather than a follower in terms of fashion"; and "I detest possessing things that everyone possesses" to uniqueness. The finding also reveals that employees had a creative choice tendency, which means that they want to be the first to use specialty products.

Furthermore, the findings of this study reveal that the symbolism dimension is a hybrid of status and quality. Employees perceived the statement "The purchase of specialty products

such as luxury products and brands would symbolise my wealth in the presence of others" to symbolise status, while the statement "I purchase specialty products due to their certain quality" is indicative of quality.

In terms of newness, the finding of this study reveals that it is a hybrid of quality and uniqueness. It was found that the statement "I think positively of the latest design and features" and "I enjoy trying new products before other people do" reflects quality and uniqueness, respectively.

8.2.4 Relationship between employees' perceived buying behaviour and demographic variables

The findings of this study reveal mixed results between employees' demographic variables and their perceived buying behaviour. In terms of age group, results indicate that younger and older respondents significantly differ in their perceptions of specialty products. The finding reveals that younger respondents agree more with purchasing specialty products due to their status when compared to older respondents. This finding can be corroborated by Brinkmann *et al.* (2016), who found that the consumption of specialty products is predominant amongst the younger generation.

In terms of gender, no differences were found between males and females and their perceived buying behaviour. On the other hand, the findings reveal that there was a significant difference in the employees' race and their perceived buying behaviour. It was found that Coloured employees had the highest tendency to purchase specialty products based on quality, while Blacks had the lowest possibility.

Furthermore, it was found that qualification played a crucial role in the employees' perceived buying behaviour based on status. It emerged that employees with the lowest level of education were more likely to purchase specialty products based on status. Similarly, it emerged that employees' annual income influenced their perceived buying behaviour. It was found that employees with the lowest income bracket were more likely to purchase specialty products.

8.2.5 The relationship between cultural values and consumer purchase behaviour

The findings of this study reveal that cultural values correlate positively with consumer buying behaviour. This is in agreement with other authors who found a positive association between cultural values and consumer buying behaviour (Park *et al.*, 2017; Karami *et al.*, 2015). It was

found that both perfectionism and power distance were significant predictors of status in the purchase of specialty products. This led to the acceptance of the first hypothesis (H1). However, individualism was not a significant predictor of uniqueness, thus the hypothesis was rejected (H5). On the other hand, it was found that perfectionism value predicts uniqueness.

The finding of this study reveals that perfectionism and power distance significantly predict newness as consumer buying behaviour. This led to the acceptance of the second and third hypotheses (H2 and H3).

8.3 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The introduction and background to the research, the problem statement, research objectives, research questions, the significance of the study, the research methodology, the scope of the study, the limitations of the study and an outline of this study were all covered in Chapter 1.

Culture and empirical understandings of the influence of culture on consumer behaviour were the focus of Chapter 2. Culture plays a significant role in how consumers purchase specialty products and their ultimate purchasing behaviour. The factors that influence consumer behaviour were unpacked. Sub-culture is one of the main components in this research and also culturally influences consumers' purchasing behaviour.

The third chapter focused on cultural values in relation to specialty products, particularly in the context of higher education. Literature on specialty products and how culture and consumer behaviour impact the purchases of these products were reviewed. An overview of the South African Education system was covered based on this study's population and sample at a university. Cultural values, cultural characteristics, cultural dimensions and the relationship between cultural values and consumer behaviour were explained in this chapter.

The fourth chapter elucidated the theoretical framework, along with various models and theories. Some examples of the models and theories covered are Hofstede's and Schwartz's model; Manrai and Manrai; factors influencing consumer behaviour; the theory of Buyer Behaviour and the Consumer Decision Model. All the theories and models covered highlighted many valuable insights into culture, cultural values, specialty products and consumer behaviour.

The research methodology was captured in the fifth chapter. The research design for this study was the main focus of this chapter which included sampling, population, data collection, questionnaire design, validity, data analysis and questionnaire design.

The sixth chapter covered the statistical analysis, where the interpretation and presentation of the results were depicted. A discussion of results in accordance with the research objectives, research questions and hypotheses was the focus of the seventh Chapter. The purpose of the discussion chapter was to explain the significance of the research findings and to highlight any new developments, insights or understanding that has emerged from this study.

The eighth chapter focused on the conclusions and recommendations of this study. The conclusions derived after collecting data, analyses and interpretations and discussions of the results were covered in this chapter. Recommendations made for future researchers will be useful to assist them in, for example, avoiding the limitation experienced in this study.

8.4 CONTRIBUTION TO THE BODY OF KNOWLEDGE

The finding of this study contributes new knowledge on cultural studies, particularly among higher education staff in South Africa. For example, the perfectionism dimension drawn from this study is an extension of Hofstede's model, which suggests that staff members in the university who participated in this study had individualistic values. A new dimension that emerged from this study is egoism, among various personality traits that exist among consumers. An individual is said to have an egotistic personality when they consider self-aligned values to be very important. This study has shown the spirit of society-centred collectiveness rather than self-interest. This is strong in a democratic country like South Africa, which beliefs in the power of Ubuntu: together as a nation we are better and stronger. It emerged that egoism is a hybrid of Hofstede's individualism and uncertainty avoidance. Burgess and Di Bartolo (2016) hold that a person with an egoistic personality tendency holds more self-interested values. Self-interest is one of the hallmarks of individualism values.

The further theoretical contribution of this study was the applicability of Vigneron and Johnson's (2004:493) consumer buying behaviour in the context of higher education and specialty products. Vigneron and Johnson's (2004) original theory typified consumer buying behaviour into personal (Hedonic) and non-personal factors (quality, uniqueness and status).

The SEM model in Figure 6.5 confirmed that higher education staff's buying behaviour towards specialty products was based on uniqueness, status and newness. It was found that newness is a hybrid of uniqueness and quality. While the participants perceived unique features and design characteristics as important, they also emphasised the quality of such products. The study, therefore, provides new insight into the field of consumer buying behaviour among the staff of higher education institutions in South Africa. The implication is that it will help marketers and brand promoters in identifying the influencing factors of higher education staff in South Africa in the purchase specialty products. This will help in formulating marketing strategies to encourage retailers of specialty products to target specific consumers.

Furthermore, the model revealed that there is a correlation between some of the cultural values. For example, it was uncovered that perfectionism correlates with egoism and individualism, while egoism correlates with individualism. This confirmed that both perfectionism and egoism are extensions of Hofstede's individualism, thus contributing to the field of cultural studies.

Lastly, another contribution of this study was to uncover how cultural values influence the buying behaviour of specialty products. The SEM model in Figure 6.4 reveals that perfectionists will buy specialty products based on their uniqueness, newness and status, while those who exhibit power distance will buy based on newness and status. Individualism does not influence any consumer buying behaviour. This study, from a marketing perspective, implies that marketers can tailor their marketing strategy to target higher education luxury consumers based on their cultural values. Thus, the study contributes and provides new insight into the consumer culture theory with emphases on the relation relationship between cultural values and consumer buying behaviour.

This study has explored how staff members view their personal goals in comparison to collective beliefs and perceptions. Staff members that have perfectionism instilled within them tend to focus on setting quite high personalised goals.

8.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Upon reviewing the literature of this study and the findings, the following suggestions should be considered for future research:

8.5.1 Offering tailored made specialty products for the higher education sector

This study highly recommends marketers and brand promoters offer unique products tailored to suit the needs of higher education staff. This has been found to influence their purchase behaviour. Besides, the findings of the study reveal that higher education staff wish to be leaders in fashion, and detest possessing things others possess. Thus, offering specialised products to suit their status and position will no doubt influence their purchasing behaviour. This agrees with other scholars (Das *et al*., 2020; Blagov 2020) who revealed that consumers' need for uniqueness is the extent to which they want to be seen as different through the consumption of products.

Moreover, the newness has come through strongly in this study, whereby respondents agree that trying out new products is a positive. New features and quality-enhancing specialty products that exude excellent quality. Future research can unpack how newness is related to how individuals' emotions affect their purchasing of specialty products.

8.5.2 Special design offer that denotes symbolism

This study highly recommends that brand promoters offer special designs to higher education staff. This is supported by the fact that higher education staff views such products to denote quality and status. Moreover, the finding indicates that the higher education staff views the purchase of specialty products to symbolise wealth. The recommendation can be further supported by other scholars such as Klatzkin, Baldassaro and Rashid (2019) and Greene, Cowan and McAdams (2020) that speciality products suggest emblematic advantages throughout societal collaborations also satisfy the need for status in society amongst consumers.

The recommendation is also supported by Wang *et al.* (2022) who advised that luxury brand promoters pay attention to competent consumers' sensitivity to luxury symbolism. This is attributable to the concern that luxury management does not sufficiently consider the social consequences of their actions such as when they choose certain materials, aesthetics, or narratives. This is highly critical as brand creators that are sensitive to social dimensions of higher education staff specialty consumption will be able to navigate contemporary social issues surrounding the brand.

8.5.3 Targeting male higher education staff with unique product design

This study highly recommends that marketers promote more male luxury brands/specialty products to higher education staff. It was found that consumption of specialty brands was

higher among men when compared with women based on their uniqueness and quality. It thus implies that more men will be interested in specialty products. The recommendation is further supported by Kauppinen-Räisänen *et al*. (2018:73) who said that men display a sophisticated level of importance in luxury brands toward improving their self-image presentation and appearance than females. Given that higher education is a male-dominated environment, it will be of interest to marketers to promote and market unique specialty products to this gender.

8.5.4 Brand awareness of social influence on purchase behaviour

In contrast to other studies, this study has shown that females have more interest in individual values. Perhaps some female academic and support staff members are single mothers raising children and automatically have taken on some of the male roles. This could be very interesting for future researchers to give more insight into this topic. In addition, it was uncovered that staff that hold lower levels of education purchase specialty products more frequently due to status. The finding suggests that social factors may be influencing higher education staff purchase behaviour beyond the institutional factors. Thus, specialty brand promoters and creators must be aware that they can no longer control all aspects of their branded products due to the influence of social influence. Hughes *et al.* (2019) note that social influencers cooperate and compete with brand promoters and marketers to communicate and recommend products. Consequently, and agreeing with Wang *et al.* (2022), marketers and or brand creators need to manage the brand images and impressions that influencers intentionally or unintentionally have created for the products.

8.5.5 Uncovering the motivating factors behind the consumption of specialty products

While it is noted in the literature that specialty products are expensive in relative and absolute terms (Wang and Tong, 2017), it was nevertheless, uncovered that lower-income earners were more likely to purchase speciality based on status, It is, therefore, pertinent to know if driving the latest BMW or Mercedes, for example, portrays enhanced status, image and perceptions based on superior luxury? Does the education level of staff members affect their purchases of specialty products in terms of price, and affordability, or is it all about one's image? Future research can explore the motivating factor behind the behavioural purchase of speciality products based on status.

8.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, certain research procedures had to be altered to accommodate and comply with strict COVID-19 regulations. The data collection phase for this study was

during the pandemic. Therefore, the way in which data was collected had to be carefully managed. Questionnaires had to be administered online via respondents' email addresses. Once the respondent completed the questionnaire, they had to return it to the researcher via email. This process was quite arduous since many respondents did not insert their electronic signatures. Perhaps they did not have one or it is confidential that they chose not to. Although the study was centred on a quantitative research approach, South African universities, however, have different institutional value systems that could influence their behaviour. Thus, the survey of one university may limit the study's generalizability. Future studies will compare the buying behaviour of historical universities, comprehensive universities and the university of technology. In addition, future research should cover and represent a combination of students and staff members or students only as their sample from more than one university. This will provide more robust and rich data in understanding the influence of cultural values on buying behaviour towards specialty products among higher education staff.

Another limitation is that the research focused on one product type, namely specialty products. It would be quite interesting to gain insight into the culture and purchasing behaviour towards unsought products.

8.7 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER

The above section discussed the conclusions and recommendations that can be drawn from the results and findings of the investigation. It discussed the conclusions of the study, with particular focus on employees' perceptions of cultural values; the relationship between the employees' perceptions of cultural values; demographics and consumer behaviour dimension; the relationship between employees' perceived buying behaviour and demographic variables; the relationship between cultural values and consumer purchase behaviour; and a summary of the whole thesis. Furthermore, a brief narrative was given about the contribution to the body of knowledge, recommendations for future research and the limitations of the study.

8.8 CONCLUSION

The rich diversity of South Africans inspired this study to analyse the deep rooted attitudes that shape responses towards specialty products amongst a section of the population, which was drawn from the higher education sector. A university campus is a space for inquiry and the exchange of knowledge so that the academic culture is open to a multitude of intellectual, spiritual and cultural influences. The campus culture challenges staff members to remain conscious of their own social and economic backgrounds so that they can draw contrasts and comparisons, which are crucial to their own learning and pursuit of innovation. Members of

staff in higher education have access to their own social and cultural backgrounds, both access to their lived experiences and academic knowledge, as well influences of a global culture. The campus environment can become a distinct sub-culture with the capacity to blend, assimilate, reject or resist the imposition of ideas, beliefs and practices that are deemed as intrusive, irrelevant or offensive.

The literature does suggest that people can ignore the influence of the global culture or choose to apply those secondary elements that do not create conflict with their original roots. Individual staff members in a dynamic context of a university campus therefore have to make choices to conform to the prevailing norms and make themselves feel at home, adjust the principles that were instilled during their formal or informal upbringing and make attempts to adapt their choices and actions, or maintain their traditional way of life and stand out from the rest. From the perspective of the study, where and how staff members choose to spend their money can tell a complete story about what they feel strongly about, what they believe is very important to them and what is worth their money. The staff members in the university of technology have shown a preference for specialty product and this indicates their intentions to use the power behind the money they possess to define their distinct positions and ranks in the social and economic hierarchy. It is hoped that this thesis makes contributions towards the development of a rich body of knowledge on how cultural norms shape the marketing and purchasing of specialty products amongst individual consumers who come from a higher education institution that is based in the province of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE

The impact of cultural values on consumer behaviour: A case study of speciality products at a university of Technology in KZN.

1. Please indicate your gender:

Option	**Tick (✔)**
Male	
Female	
Other	

2. How old are you?

Option	**Tick (✔)**
18 – 30 years	
31 – 50 years	
51 – 65 years	
Other	

3. Which race group do you belong to?

Option	**Tick (✔)**
Black	
Coloured	
White	
Indian	
Other	

4. What is your highest qualification?

Option	Tick (✔)
Matric	
Certificate	
Degree	
Honours Degree	
Master's Degree	
Doctoral Degree	
Other	

5. Please indicate academic or non-academic staff member:

Option	Tick (✔)
Academic staff	
Support staff	
Other	

6. Which income bracket in South Africa do you fall under?

Option	Tick (✔)
0 to 200 000 Rands p/a	
201 000 to 400 000 Rands p/a	
401 000 to 600 000 Rands p/a	
601 000 to 800 000 Rands p/a	
801 000 to 1 000 000 Rands p/a	
Above 1 000 000 Rands p/a	

This questionnaire highlights cultural values and consumer behaviour dimensions in relation to purchasing specialty products. Culture plays an important role in individuals lives, affects

their behaviour and the decisions that they make. These decisions include the type of specialty products that they purchase. Examples of specialty products include designer clothing, sports cars and high quality camera equipment.

No.	Questions and Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		1	2	3	4	5
	CULTURAL VALUES DIMENSIONS					
	Individualism					
7	My personal life is the most important					
8	Everyone should care for himself					
9	I put my interests above the interest of others					
10	Myself is more important than others					
11	My opinion is always right					
12	Individual's rights are more valuable than people's right					
	Collectivism					
13	I want to feel that I belong to the group					
14	Others play roles in my decisions					
15	I feel bad to do what others do not					
16	Personal interests are less important than group harmony					
	Masculinity/Femininity					

17	I fight to be the best					
18	Normal and usual things are enough					
19	I am only satisfied when I have the best things					
	Uncertainty avoidance					
20	I try to avoid risks in life					
21	I do not like situations with unclear ends					
22	Where there is no risk, there is no fun					
	Power distance					
23	Inequality is unavoidable					
24	Any society is like a ladder : one is placed higher and one lower					
25	It is ok that some are placed higher than me in society					
26	It bothers me that some are placed higher in society					
	CONSUMER BUYING BEHAVIOUR DIMENSIONS					
	Status					
27	The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would improve my image in the presence of other people					
28	The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would show my social prestige in the presence of others					
29	The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would show my social status in the presence of others					
30	The purchase of specialty products such as luxury products and brands would symbolise my wealth in the presence of others					

31	Since several other people and my colleagues have purchased specialty products such as luxury products, I have to purchase luxury products myself to feel acceptable					
	Quality					
32	The performance of specialty products such as luxury products is my primary reason for purchase					
33	The certain quality of specialty products appeals to me					
34	I think positively of the latest design and features					
35	I would purchase specialty products due to their certain quality					
	Uniqueness					
36	Rare products appeal to me					
37	I am a leader rather than a follower in terms of fashion					
38	I detest possessing things that everyone possesses					
39	I enjoy trying new products before other people do					

APPENDIX 2: LETTER OF INFORMED CONSENT

<u>**School of Management, Information Technology and Governance, Pietermaritzburg Informed Consent Document**</u>

I am Lynelle Martin, a doctoral student at the University of Kwa-Zulu Natal. You are invited to please participate in this study, the title of which is mentioned above by completing the questionnaire below. The purpose of this research is to determine how cultural values impact consumer buying behaviour when purchasing specialty products. The questionnaire will not take longer than 25 minutes to complete.

Kindly note that this study is voluntary and you are welcome to withdraw your participation at any time. There will be strict confidentiality applied to all these responses and there are no foreseeable risks in this study.

If you have any concerns or need clarity on any part of this questionnaire, kindly contact the following academics:

Dr. Steven Msosa   - msosa.steven@mut.ac.za

Miss. Lynelle Martin   - martin.lynelle@mut.ac.za

Prof. Maxwell Phiri   - phirim@ukzn.ac.za

Participants consent:

I understand that participating in this study is voluntary and I can withdraw at any given time. I have been informed about the contact persons and I am aware that my responses will be strictly confidential.

Signature : …………………………

Date   : …………………………

APPENDIX 3: TURNITIN REPORT

THE IMPACT OF CULTURAL VALUES ON CONSUMER
BEHAVIOUR: A CASE STUDY OF SPECIALITY PRODUCTS AT A
UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY IN KWA-ZULU NATAL

ORIGINALITY REPORT

7 %	%	7 %	%
SIMILARITY INDEX	INTERNET SOURCES	PUBLICATIONS	STUDENT PAPERS

PRIMARY SOURCES

1	Spiers, Sherrard, Raghava R. Gundala, and Mandeep Singh. "Culture and Consumer Behavior—A Study of Trinidad & Tobago and Jamaica", International Journal of Marketing Studies, 2014. Publication	<1 %
2	Oluwabunmi A. Falebita, Christopher F. Ogunlusi, Adeniyi T. Adetunji. "A review of advertising management and its impact on consumer behaviour", International Journal of Agriculture Innovation, Technology and Globalisation, 2020 Publication	<1 %
3	Murenga Mwimali, John Derera, S. Mugo, P. Tongoona. "Response to S1 recurrent selection for resistance to two stem borers, Busseola fusca and Chilo partellus, in two tropical maize populations", Euphytica, 2015 Publication	<1 %

APPENDIX 4: ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNIVERSITY OF ™
KWAZULU-NATAL
INYUVESI
YAKWAZULU-NATALI

13 November 2020

Mrs Lynelle Cerene Martin (208527148)
School Of Man Info Tech &Gov
Westville Campus

Dear Mrs Martin,

Protocol reference number: HSSREC/00001567/2020
Project title: The impact of cultural values on consumer behaviour: A case study of speciality products at a University of Technology in KZN
Degree: PhD

Approval Notification – Full Committee Reviewed Protocol

This letter serves to notify you that your response received on 10 November 2020 to our letter of 19 August 2020 in connection with the above, was reviewed by the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC) and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number. PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

This approval is valid for one Year until 13 November 2021
To ensure uninterrupted approval of this study beyond the approval expiry date, a progress report must be submitted to the Research Office on the appropriate form 2 - 3 months before the expiry date. A close-out report to be submitted when study is finished.

All research conducted during the COVID-19 period must adhere to the national and UKZN guidelines.

HSSREC is registered with the South African National Research Ethics Council (REC-040414-040).

Yours faithfully

....
Professor Dipane Hlalele (Chair)

/dd

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
UKZN Research Ethics Office Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building
Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000
Tel: +27 31 260 8350 / 4557 / 3587
Website: http://research.ukzn.ac.za/Research-Ethics/

Founding Campuses: ■ Edgewood   ■ Howard College   ■ Medical School   ■ Pietermaritzburg   ■ Westville

INSPIRING GREATNESS

APPENDIX 5: PERMISSION LETTER

Research Directorate

UMLAZI KWAZULU-NATAL

PO Box 12363 Jacobs 4026 Durban
Tel: 031 907 7450

08 February 2021

REF: RD1/07/2021

Mrs Lynelle Cerene Martin
Mangosuthu University of Technology

Dear Mrs Martin

PROTOCOL: The impact of cultural values on consumer behavior: A case study of specialty products at a University of Technology in KwaZulu-Natal

The MUT Research Ethics Committee considered your application at their meeting held on 18 January 2021. It is my pleasure to inform you that permission to conduct the research project above was granted.

The approval is valid for two years from 01 February 2021. Any changes to the project must immediately be brought to the attention of the MUT Research Ethics Committee.

Your acceptance of this approval denotes your compliance with South African National Research Ethics guidelines (2004) and the MUT Research Ethics Policy, Procedures and Guidelines

Good luck with your research.

Yours sincerely,
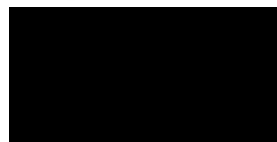
Dr A Mienie
Director: Research

1

APPENDIX 6: PROOF READING AND EDITING CERTIFICATION

EDITOR'S LETTER

Researchers Beyond-Borders (PTY) LTD
51 Myro Drive
Glenmoore
Durban

10 September 2021

 To whom it may concern

Editing of a Doctoral dissertation: Lynelle Cerene Martin

THE IMPACT OF CULTURAL VALUES ON CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR: A CASE STUDY OF SPECIALTY PRODUCTS AT A UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY IN KWA-ZULU NATAL

This letter serves as confirmation that the aforementioned dissertation has been language edited.

Any queries may be directed to the author of this letter.

Regards

Maleni Pillay
For the Researchers Beyond-Borders
consult@researchersbeyondborders.com
www.researchersbeyondborders.com

College of Law and Management Studies
Supervisors Permission to Submit Thesis/ Dissertation for Examination

Name: Lynelle Cerene Martin		No: 208527148	
Title: THE IMPACT OF CULTURAL VALUES ON CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR: A CASE STUDY OF SPECIALTY PRODUCTS AT A UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY IN KWA-ZULU NATAL			
Qualification: PHD – MS – PhD		School: Management, IT and Governance	
		Yes	No
To the best of my knowledge, the thesis/dissertation is primarily the student's own work and the student has acknowledged all reference sources		Yes	
The English language is of a suitable standard for examination without going for professional editing.		Yes	
Turnitin Report		7% - Yes	
Comment if % is over 10%:			
I agree to the submission of this thesis/dissertation for examination		Yes	
Supervisors Name: Dr Maxwell Phiri			
Supervisors Signature:			
Date: 8/09/2022			
Co- Supervisors Name:		N/A	
Co- Supervisors Signature:		N/A	
Date:		N/A	