NHH

# How culture influences the effect of CSR communication on corporate attractiveness

*A cross-cultural study*

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# Abstract

Building on previous research into the positive effects of CSR communication on corporate attractiveness, our study investigates if there are differences in this effect caused by culture. To test this relationship, students from both Norway (NHH) and the US (Gonzaga University) were chosen to participate in our study. Based on thorough research by Hofstede (1984 and 2001), Americans are believed to have a masculine culture and Norwegians a feminine culture. By including both Norwegian and American students, we were able to test if their cultural background would influence how CSR communication affected perceived corporate attractiveness. Respondents from both countries were first asked to read statements regarding a fictional company's CSR communication that were either assertive or modestly formulated. They were then asked to evaluate statements regarding corporate attractiveness; anticipated pride, value-fit, expected treatment and general attractiveness for the communicating company. Our results show significant differences in perceived corporate attractiveness based on the interaction between nationality and treatment received, with respondents from the masculine culture (US) showing more positive attraction towards the company when proposed with assertive CSR communication, and the feminine respondents (Norwegian) being more attracted to the company if proposed with modest CSR communication.

Further, we investigated the mediating effect of strategic intent through perceived self-centred motive. This was proposed as an explanatory factor for why feminine Scandinavians have been found to be more sceptical of CSR communication in previous studies. Our results show that the feminine respondents (Norwegian) do perceive more self-centred motive than the masculine respondents (US) in both treatment conditions, however they do not indicate lower corporate attractiveness as a consequence.

The implication of our study is that companies need to consider the cultural affiliations of their target group in communicating CSR. To reap the greatest benefits, companies operating in feminine cultures such as Scandinavia need to communicate using modestly formulated CSR messages, while companies operating in masculine societies such as the US need to communicate assertively.

# Preface

This thesis was written as part of our degree in Master of Science in Economics and Business Administration at the Norwegian School of Economics (NHH). The thesis was written within the Marketing and Brand Management master program and accounts for 30 credits. The purpose of this thesis is to examine whether culture will moderate the effects of CSR messages on corporate attractiveness.

We could not have written this thesis without help from certain persons and we would like to thank them for their support. First, we would like to thank our advisor Professor Magne Supphellen for guiding us and provide us with excellent feedback. In addition, we would like to thank Professor of Marketing James G. Helgeson at Gonzaga University for his assistance in distributing our survey amongst American students during the data collection.

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# 1. Introduction and research question

In today's hugely knowledge based business environment where competition is fierce, companies have realised that to attract customers, they also need to attract the best possible employees, and the factors influencing this include amongst others CSR performance (Turban and Greening, 1996). The underlying mechanisms of CSR effect on corporate attractiveness that will be elaborated on in the literature review (Ch. 2) have been identified as; the potential employees expected sense of pride in working for an employer, their perceived value-fit with the company and their expectations for how the company treats its employees (Jones et al., 2014). This is logical as CSR performance functions as a signal to both potential employees and consumers in general about the culture and values of a company. In this thesis, corporate attractiveness will be defined as positive perception consumers have of a company and potential employee's interest in working for a company (Yoon et al., 2006).

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) has in the past decades become and integrative part of the global corporate agenda as the result of today's socially conscious marketplace (Du et al., 2010). Companies have begun focusing on what they could contribute to people and planet, not only for the moral reasoning of opportunity and repayment for success, but also because of the business rewards, they identify. In the past decades or so almost all major companies have joined the wave, as sustainability has become such an important topic that those not devoting an effort to it, are missing out.

Corporate social responsibility has gained importance since the early 2000s and become an important focus of attention among company executives. PwC's Global CEO Survey for 2014 shows that 74% of chief executives believe that corporate responsibility in satisfying societal needs and protecting the interests of future generations is important for long-term success. McKinsey found similarly in 2010 that more than 50% of executives agree that sustainability helps their companies build a strong reputation (Bonini et al., 2010).

How stakeholders view and what they associate with (an organisation or) a company is recognised as essential information within the communication field, because this information influences the stakeholders response to the company and how they define themselves in relation to the company (Brown et al., 2006). Brown et al (2006) define "Reputation" as what stakeholders outside the company actually think about the company. Research shows that

CSR performance can affect a company's reputation both positively and negatively (Yoon et al., 2006).

In 2014, the reputation institute found that 89% of consumers would recommend a brand based on positive CSR reputation, whilst only 6% are willing to recommend a brand with negative CSR reputation (Smith, 2012).

CSR has also been proven to generally just be "good business", with social performance positively correlated to financial performance in several studies (Preston and O'Bannon, 1997; McGuire et al., 1988; Ruf et al., 2001). Previous research (e.g. Lawrence, 2002; Windsor, 2002; Lingaard, 2006) has shown that stakeholders including customers, potential employees and current employees, place a great importance on CSR efforts by a company (as cited in Morsing et al., 2008) in assessing their attitudes toward the company (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). This again translates into good reputation, purchase intention, brand loyalty, brand recommendation and attractiveness as an employer.

Therefore, there is no doubt that the CSR performance of companies has an impact. However, this is reliant on CSR performance awareness amongst the stakeholders, so communication of CSR is crucial for the manifestation of the proven benefits.

To create a positive CSR reputation, companies need to make consumers aware of their CSR initiatives through communication. We define CSR communication as any form of publicity concerning a company's CSR and sustainability initiatives. CSR communication comes in different forms such as cause related marketing (CRM), sponsorship agreements, donations, sustainability reports, internal company communication or general communication on a company's website. External communication through word of mouth, media coverage and customer recommendations have proven even more effective (Yoon et al., 2006).

CSR communication is fundamental in eliciting positive effects and to gain a high financial performance for CSR and sustainability initiatives (Ruf et al., 2001). Still brands and companies are hesitant in communicating CSR. This might be because of increased scrutiny (Brown and Dacin, 1997), a good example being Telenor in Norway and Shell worldwide.

A new branch of research emerged in the 2000s to induce how companies should optimally communicate their CSR initiatives to reap the behavioural benefits proclaimed in research. Their results vary greatly; from findings that CSR should not be communicated actively at all

(Morsing et al., 2008; Lii and Lee, 2012), to results saying consumers crave more information and CSR communication (Pomering and Volnicar, 2009).

How people perceive messages and signals is greatly affected by their pre-existing associations, values and assumptions. This is based on the national culture of which the person was raised or identifies as a member. Hofstede et al. (2010) cultural dimensions are the most established measures of differences between cultures in research and will be the theoretical foundation for this study. Individualism is the first and most researched dimension. It concerns how autonomous and independent people are as opposed to being group-oriented and interdependent (Hofstede et al., 2010). Most western cultures are individualistic, but vary greatly on other dimensions such as power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity and time orientation.

The cultural dimension especially interesting for CSR communications is masculinity. This dimension measures the degree to which a culture's values are masculine and gender roles are distinctly defined (Hofstede et al., 2010). Masculine values are more assertive and ego-oriented than feminine values, which are more modest, and relationship oriented. Research shows tendency that masculine cultures are of vertical orientation, whilst feminine cultures have a horizontal orientation (Nelson et al., 2006).

In relations to CSR communications, it is reasonable to question how the cultural affiliation towards masculinity or femininity will affect people's perception of a message. Characteristics within the message could be perceived and thereby judged differently based on cultural background, and affect the strength of CSR communication on corporate attractiveness. With masculine cultures it is reasonable to assume a preference toward assertive communications while feminine cultures should appreciate a more modest approach.

Following this line of thought, our research question for this thesis is:

### How may culture moderate the effects of CSR messages on corporate attractiveness?

In the following section a thorough literature review of relevant theories and research on CSR communications, corporate attractiveness and culture will be presented.

# 2. Literature Review

This part will give a short background of research done previously that is relevant for our study. We will give an overview of research relevant to the variables and terms, including mechanisms that will be tested in our study. We will start by explaining why corporate attractiveness is important and the antecedent mechanisms of corporate attractiveness that we will test in relation to CSR communication. Next we will discuss how CSR affects a company's reputation and how this relates to corporate attractiveness. Then we will give an overview of the research that has been done on CSR communication across the world and explain how our study will contribute to this plethora. After that we will introduce our proposed explanatory variable, culture, through Hofstede's cultural dimensions and why we believe this will have an effect on how CSR communication affects corporate attractiveness. Finally we introduce research related to motives behind CSR. We believe that the perceived motivation behind CSR can affect how people with different cultural background judge characteristics of CSR communication.

## 2.1 CSR and Corporate Attractiveness

Corporate attractiveness is defined in this thesis as positive perception consumers have of a company and potential employees interest in working for a company (Highhouse et al., 2003). As we will focus on potential employees in our study, it entails the envisioned benefits that a potential employee sees in working for a specific company. Corporate attractiveness constitutes an important concept in knowledge-intensive contexts where attracting employees with superior skills and knowledge comprises a primary source of competitive advantage. According to Turban and Greening (1997) there is a positive relationship between published ratings of firms CSR initiatives and job seekers ratings of companies' attractiveness. Their study concluded that organisational attractiveness perceptions would be influenced by company's CSR initiatives. Studies done by Backhaus et al. (2002) support that corporate social performance is an important attribute for job seekers. An earlier global survey of corporate executives suggests CEOs perceived that businesses benefit from CSR because it increases attractiveness to potential and existing employees (Economist, 2008).

Turban and Greening (1997) have done the most pioneering research on corporate attractiveness and the effect of CSR performance on potential employees. They tested independent CSR ratings on business school students to assert how they affected the overall attractiveness rating of companies. Their findings were that high CSR rating made companies more attractive as employers. Albinger and Freeman (2000) continued to build on this research and disinterred that CSR performance is especially positively related to employer attractiveness for candidates with high levels of job choice. This might sound obvious, but has the important implication that the most sought-after and qualified candidates are the most affected by CSR performance. This means that companies wanting to attract the best employees need to consider their CSR performance and reputation.

## 2.2 CSR and Reputation

Reputation is a recurring argument for companies engaging in CSR. In research and common language however, the word reputation is used somewhat inconsistent, and does not cover the many other positive effects of CSR on the company. Brown et al. (2006) developed a framework of key organizational viewpoints that are elementary within stakeholder theory, to organise the different aspects of stakeholder thinking around a company to avoid confusion in research over terminology. They defined Identity, Intended Image, Construed Image and Reputation as the four main perspectives.

First viewpoint is internal in the organisation and describes what the employees themselves believe about the company, the members associations. This is the *Identity* and entails the core associations held by the members that define "who we are as a company" (cited in Brown et al., 2006, p. 103). Second is what the company want others to believe about the company, the intended associations. This is called the *Intended image*. Third is what the employees actually believe that others think about the company, the construed associations. This is the *Construed image*. Lastly is what others actually believe about the company, the corporate associations. This is the *Reputation* of a company.

All these perspectives are important to consider within the scope of CSR initiatives as it affects all of them. Internally, CSR affects the *Identity* and can improve how employees feel about their own company and affect work morale and retention (Sen et al., 2006 ). Research

shows that CSR performance strongly affects the Identity of a company through stronger employee-company value-fit and pride (Jones et al., 2014).

Intended image is the background of all positioning and branding. For companies it is crucial to decide which associations and attributes stakeholders should have about the company (Keller, 2012). Intended image is therefore often criticised as the motive for CSR initiatives, because it entails a conscious and strategic way of creating the "right" associations amongst stakeholders. CSR performance is often deemed a part of association building and therefore attributed strategic motives, especially when communicated openly by companies (Morsing and Schultz, 2006). This perspective will be considered in more detail later in the review under Ch. 2.5 Strategic Intentions of CSR Initiatives.

Construed image is mostly important because it influences the identity. If employees believe that others outside the company only have negative associations, then this could affect their pride in working for the company, even if they themselves know the associations to be faulty. On the other hand, if a company's employees believe others have very positive associations, this could elevate their own beliefs (e.g., Bhattacharya et al., 1995; Dutton et al., 1994; Hatch and Schultz, 2000 - as cited in Brown et al., 2006).

Lastly reputation is described as the actual corporate associations held by stakeholders (Brown et al., 2006). This is the definition we will refer to throughout this thesis when we use "reputation". For the purpose of our research it is the effect CSR performance has on reputation that is of greatest interest, as our viewpoint comes from potential employees outside a company. Morsing et al. (2008) stated in their research that CSR initiatives are one of the key drivers of corporate reputation.

As stated in the section above, reputation is a key component in corporate attractiveness through its signalling effect. Reputation is how potential employees are likely to know about a company, and about their values. That way reputation is responsible for signalling the desired message about a company to potential employees and affects the mechanisms for corporate attractiveness. Reputation in particular has a strong effect on the prestige of a company, which relates to anticipated pride a potential employee associated with the company, through the social norms component of the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975) as referred in Highhouse et al., 2003). This is in line with the findings of Fombrum and Shanley (1990), that suggest that companies exist in a competitive market for reputational status,

which is directly linked to a company's social welfare initiatives (cited in Albringer and Freeman, 2000).

Summed up, to create a good reputation that will result in high corporate attractiveness as an employer, companies need to make stakeholders including potential employees aware of their CSR performance. This entails tailoring the intended image to include CSR performance information. The problem is that people are largely unaware of companies' CSR efforts (Sen et al., 2006), which is where communication comes into the equation.

## 2.3 CSR Communication

Most studies into mechanisms and outcomes of CSR performance have induced CSR awareness in the test subject (Du et al., 2010). In reality however, CSR awareness is very low amongst consumers (Pomering and Dolnicar, 2009). So CSR communication is fundamental in eliciting the positive effects and to gain a high return on investment (ROI) for CSR and sustainability initiatives (Bhattacharya et al., 2008; Du et al., 2007; Sen et al., 2006). This contingency calls for better CSR awareness amongst stakeholders. Still companies are hesitant in communicating CSR especially in Nordic countries. This might be because of increased scrutiny (Brown and Dacin, 1997), a good example being Telenor in Norway and Shell worldwide, or general stakeholder scepticism. For whilst stakeholders claim they want more information about CSR from the companies they invest in, purchase from or consider working for, they also feel dubious about CSR motives when CSR performance is aggressively communicated (Du et al., 2010).

A new branch of research emerged in the 2000s to discern how companies should optimally communicate their CSR initiatives to reap the behavioural benefits proclaimed in research (Du et al., 2010). Their results vary greatly; from findings that CSR should not be communicated openly at all (Morsing et al., 2008), to results saying consumers crave more information and CSR communication (Pomering and Volnicar, 2009).

Bert van de Ven (2008) found that in order to be and appear sincere, the motivation of the firms CSR initiative should always be revealed in a straightforward manner. If a company acts partly out of self-interest, it should not try to cover that up. In such a case, it makes sense to communicate against the background of the win-win scenario, admitting that both the cause and the company wins because of the CSR initiative. However, it seems better not to make

explicit reference to the self-interest of the company in the marketing communication. Since, a too strong explicit reference to business goals will probably weaken the positive effect of a CSR initiative on consumer overall attitude toward the company. This is in line with other research (Morsing et al., 2008) that finds that CSR communication is "a double edged sword", where not communicating means eluding all the benefits, but communicating actively can be perceived as conspicuous and insincere, which ultimately hurts the brand reputation.

Nan and Heo (2007) found that ads with an embedded cause-related marketing (CRM) message, compared with a similar one without a CRM message, elicits more favourable consumer attitude toward the company, implying that consumers attitude toward a company is positively affected by CSR communications. Singh et al. (2012) found a link between perceived ethicality of a company and brand affect and loyalty. This implies that effective CSR communication will increase consumer's general attitudes toward a brand through perceived ethicality, as CSR is the foremost way for a company to promote ethical values and agenda. The relationships between CSR and marketing outcomes, such as corporate brand credibility, corporate brand equity and corporate reputation have been found to be directly linked together (Lii and Lee, 2012).

As for potential employees, research has been clear on that CSR performance does have a positive impact (as discussed earlier). However, this research largely relies on induced CSR awareness in the respondents. Jones et al. (2014) did a field experiment where they measured the CSR content in recruitment information companies passed out at a career fair, and then measured the job seekers perceived corporate attractiveness. This study supported the previous research. They still do not say anything about the effect of the CSR message characteristics when it comes to eliciting favourable perceptions of company attractiveness, which is what we want to research in our study. In addition, since most research has been based on American business school students, who are more accustomed to CSR communication, it is unsure if the results translate to other cultures such as the Norwegian, where CSR communication largely is sequestered. A relevant aspect of this implication is that cultural background of the research subjects have not been thoroughly considered, and we do not know if culture is an aspect that affects how CSR communication is related to corporate attractiveness. Research pertaining to the different aspects of CSR communication is very limited, and to our knowledge, there has been no research into the characteristics of CSR communication. In relation to cultural differences, message characteristics such as assertive

versus modest traits, can be very interesting explanatory variables for differences in perception of corporate attractiveness based on CSR communication.

*For a comprehensive table of the various research on CSR communication, please see Appendix 2.1.*

## 2.4 Cultural Differences in Perception of Communication

Culture is the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others (Hofstede et al., 2010). Every nation has their own cultural mind-set based on history, religion and language.

Based on nationality, people differ dramatically in how they think, feel and act because of cultural difference (Hofstede et al., 2010). Culture is one of the most important variables influencing ethical decision-making (Rawwas, 2001; Rawwas et al., 2005). Ethics seems to vary from nation to nation due to historical patterns of behaviour (Babakus et al., 1994), and different concepts of norms and values (Rawwas et al., 2005). This also matters in terms of perception of advertisement messages, which could be inferred to translate into general communication.

There has not been extensive research done (as far as we can find) on how CSR communication differs around the world. Hartman et al. (2007) found evidence that CSR communication practises differ in the US versus European countries, especially in stated motivation behind the CSR initiatives. Also, there are differences in type of CSR initiatives undertaken. Maignan and Ralston (2002) researched the different CSR communication strategies of companies in the UK, US, France and Netherlands. They found that Anglo firms support ventures outside their day-to-day business, whilst the French and Dutch companies focus on business related societal and environmental initiatives. French and Dutch companies are not nearly as eager as the Anglo counterparts to convey good citizenship in their CSR communication, but rather prefer to communicate performance and stakeholder driven motives behind their CSR initiatives (Maigang and Ralston, 2002). This is not comprehensive for global differences but indicate that practice differs even amongst western countries that are relatively similar otherwise.

Very little CSR communication research has been conducted on Norwegian consumers, but Morsing and Schultz (2006) have done studies in Scandinavia, which are plausibly applicable to Norwegian consumers. In their research, Morsing and Schultz (2006) found that Scandinavians do believe companies should engage in CSR initiatives. However, the majority do not think companies should openly communicate CSR through advertising, only subtly communicate through their web pages, in non-financial reports or not at all. This scepticism was particularly strong in Scandinavia (Morsing and Schultz, 2006).

## *Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions*

Hofstede's (1984) work on cultural dimensions is the most recognised theoretical framework concerning culture and has been repeatedly proven valid. This will therefore be the basis for the culture variable in our study.

The first cultural dimension of interest to our study is the degree of individualism or collectivism in a society (Hofstede, 2001). Individualism versus collectivism is the broadest and most widely used dimension of cultural variability for cultural comparison (Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey, 1988). Hofstede (1984) defines individualism as societies where ties between individuals are loose. In individualistic cultures everyone is expected to look after him or herself, they value autonomy, emotional independence and initiative. A typical individualistic country is the United States. On the opposite is collectivism described as societies where people from birth are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, enforced in group solidarity and obligations. China is an example of a collectivist country. In our study we will focus on individualistic cultures as the goal is to find results applicable to western society where most cultures can be classified as individualist (Hofstede, 1984).

## *Horizontal and Vertical Orientation*

Even though a country has typically individualistic values, they may differ in terms of attributes within individualism. Norway and United States for example, are both individualistic cultures (Hofstede, 1984), but there are differences in terms of vertical and horizontal orientation (Nelson et al., 2006). Horizontal cultures value equality and view the self as the same in status as others, and verticals see themselves as different from others and accept a hierarchical social structure (Triandis, 1995). Triandis (1995) emphasised the importance of making distinction between the vertical and horizontal dimension within

individualism and collectivism. The vertical dimension of both individualist and collectivist cultures implies an acceptance of inequality and an attention to rank and status (and a view of self as "different" from others), whereas the horizontal dimension promotes an emphasis on equality and an assumption that everyone should be more or less similar in characteristics, especially status (Triandis, 1995).

In horizontal individualistic cultures, people want to be unique and distinct from groups and are highly self-reliant, but they are not especially interested in becoming distinguished or in having high status (Triandis and Gelfand, 1998). Norwegians have a horizontal individualistic orientation and they do not like people to "stick out" and do not wish to be considered as unique (Hofstede, 1984). The strong unwritten social modesty code, "The Law of Jante (Janteloven): *You are not to think you're anyone special or that you're better than us"* is an example of this. In the opposite side you have the vertical individualistic orientation where people often want to become distinguished and acquire status, and they do this in individual competitions with others (Triandis and Gelfand, 1998). Americans is known as a vertical individualistic culture and can take offense if someone suggest them to be "average", which is a vertical attribute (Triandis, 1995).

## *Masculinity versus Femininity*

While Norwegians and Americans both have individualistic cultures, they also differ considerably on a second dimension, the degree of masculinity. This dimension measures the degree to which a culture's values are masculine and gender roles are distinctly defined (Hofstede, 2010). Masculine values are more assertive and ego-oriented than feminine values, which are more modest, and relationship oriented.

A country is masculine when emotional gender roles are clearly distinct. Meaning that men are supposed to be assertive, competitive, tough, and focused on material success, whereas women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life. Gaps within work goals of men and women tend to be wider in countries labelled "masculine", and this is because gender roles in these countries are more distinct. Males are supposed to fulfil "ego" roles and females to fulfil "social" roles. A society is feminine when emotional gender roles overlap: both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life (Hofstede, 2010). Statistically this dimension shows a great difference in values of female and male respondents in masculine countries like the US and UK, whilst there is no

significant difference in feminine countries such as the Scandinavian countries. Actually, the women of feminine cultures show a higher degree of assertive behaviour and competitiveness than the men (Hofstede, 2010).

The distinction between country-level masculinity and femininity is often confused with the individualism and collectivism dimension (Hofstede, 2010). The reason for this mistake is that the collectivist characteristics are often based on interpersonal ties (e.g., family), but not necessarily feminine (relationship-oriented). According to Hofstede (2010), collectivism not altruistic, it is rather in-group egotism. This means that in the individualism- collectivism about "I" versus "we", in other words the independence from in-groups versus dependence on in-groups. However, in the masculinity - femininity dimension is about a stress on ego versus dependence on relationship with others, regardless of group ties (Hofstede, 2010).

Earlier research has shown that the perception of advertisements differs in terms of the cultural dimension masculinity - femininity. The study done by Nelson et al. (2006) showed that men in individualist masculine cultures preferred self-focused or egoistic ads while women preferred other-focused or altruistic ads. Nelson et al. (2006) also discovered that the opposite was true for men and women in individualistic, feminine culture. This difference in perception of advertisement is why the masculinity dimension is particularly interesting in our study. We want to focus specifically on CSR communication by companies, and it is likely based on the results from Nelson et al. (2006) that this cultural dimension will moderate the effect on corporate attractiveness.

Nelson et al. (2006) also discovered that there appears to be similarities between horizontal-vertical dimensions and masculinity - femininity. They found that masculine cultures tended to be vertically individualistic and feminine cultures were horizontally individualistic. In our study we will therefore focus on the masculinity dimension as it also to a large extent encompasses the vertical - horizontal dimension of culture.

## 2.5 Strategic Intention of CSR Initiatives

In terms of cultural differences in perception of CSR communication messages, the motive behind the initiative could be relevant as a differentiator. Perceived strategic intent in the motivation behind CSR communication, could be relevant in as an explanatory variable for

why feminine cultures such as Scandinavia do not appreciate CSR communication to the same degree as masculine cultures (Morsing and Schultz, 2006). As stated earlier, very little prior research has been done on CSR communication in a cultural setting. The different values held across cultural dimensions could explain why distinctive characteristics within CSR communication can be perceived differently and affect perceived motive. No studies we could find looked at triggers within the communicated message and how this affects behavioural and cognitive brand outcomes. The research so far has focused on the general perception of the message and channels, to find if consumers positively respond to CSR initiatives. Research has found varying results depending on geography, which is interesting. Especially concerning Scandinavian consumers inherent opposition (Morsing et al., 2008) (Morsing and Schultz, 2006) to CSR communication messages. Culture therefore seems to be an important factor in explaining the different strategies observed in CSR communications and success of these strategies. Scandinavians do not appreciate conspicuous CSR communication (Morsing et al., 2008), where they can identify a strategic motive rather than an altruistic one, which is not always the case for American consumers (Ellen et al., 2006).

Motive is an important aspect of CSR communication. This can be presented as virtuous or strategic oriented, and perceived as self-centred, other-centred, strategic or social (Ellen et al., 2006). How consumers perceive the motive behind CSR initiatives is proven to be complex and should be understood along a spectrum. Generally, stakeholders including potential employees attribute CSR motives as either extrinsic or intrinsic (Du et al., 2010). Extrinsic motives are seen as an attempt to increase profits, whereas intrinsic motivation comes from a genuine concern for the issue. Yoon et al. (2006) found that stakeholders make positive inferences about a company's underlying character and react more positively to the company when they attribute intrinsic motives. While the opposite is true for perceived extrinsic, or strategic motive. The research by Ellen et al. (2006) on US consumers however, show that consumers do not immediately condemn strategic self-centred motives, as long as they are paired with other-centred motives; then they are actually perceived more positively than either alone. Ellen et al. (2006) reasoned that this could be because the company seemed more sincere.

The strong scepticism amongst Scandinavian consumers towards CSR communication (Morsing et al., 2008; Morsing and Schultz, 2006), implies that there exist a cultural barrier in perception of such communication. We believe this barrier could be perceived "strategic intent" in conspicuous communication. In other words, that in a feminine culture where self-

promotion and exaggeration is frowned upon, stakeholders who perceive a strategic intent behind the communicated CSR initiatives will react more negatively than people from masculine cultures who are under the same perception. Matten and Moon (2007) hinted in their research that this difference on perception could stem from the societal structure, wherein the US it has been expected for private companies to contribute to society; whilst in Scandinavian countries the government is responsible for financial aid. This could explain why Scandinavians are more sceptic to CSR communications by companies, because they straightaway sense a strategic intent.

# 3. Research Model and Hypotheses

In this section we will present our research model (Figure 3.1) and hypothesised relationships in the model. This model is based on the theory and research stated above, to answer our research question.

*Figure 3.1 Conceptual Model*
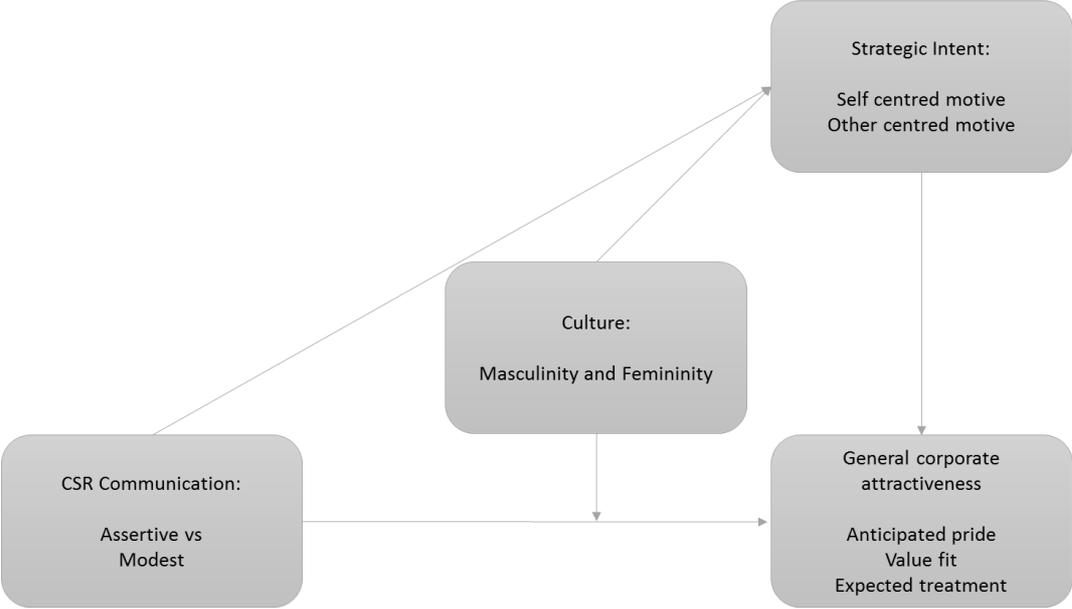


## 3.1 Hypotheses Development

Based on the proposed research model and literature review, we can pose some hypotheses for the suggested outcomes of our study. First, we will focus on the message characteristics of CSR communication and how our proposed moderator, culture, will affect the three proposed mechanisms of corporate attractiveness, as well as a measure of general corporate attractiveness. Lastly, we will look at the perceived motives behind CSR communication as a mediator for the cultural effect.

## 3.1.1 Replication

Following the arguments presented in the literature review, it is clear from research that CSR performance should have a positive impact on corporate attractiveness. Turban and Cable (2003) noted that companies with strong CSR reputations are viewed as attractive places to work and therefore will attract superior applicants. Based on methodology of previous studies (cf. Appendix 2.1), it seems that CSR information presented in a study setting results in higher corporate attractiveness. To ratify the link between CSR communication and corporate attractiveness we will look at the antecedents and mechanisms affecting their relationship.

*Mechanisms affecting CSR Communications effect on Corporate Attractiveness*

Turban and Greening (1997, p. 659) claim that "social policies and programs may attract potential applicants by serving as a signal of working conditions in the organisation". Research on recruitment has shown that job seekers often have little information about the recruiting companies, and need to rely on signals they receive to infer what they believe working conditions are like (Rynes, 1991). Jones et al. (2014) claim that the signals pro-social commitments and environmental sustainability efforts send, is linked to corresponding mechanisms that affect corporate attractiveness; anticipated pride through being associated with a prestigious company that has a good reputation, value-fit with the company's values demonstrated through CSR and expected treatment given the company's pro-social orientation. They found that CSR performance has a causal effect on corporate attractiveness. We have chosen to base our study on the three mechanisms proposed by Jones et al. (2014), and will therefore use some of their arguments in explaining how CSR affects the mechanisms that again effect corporate attractiveness.

*Anticipated Pride*

As Jones et al. (2014) argues, anticipated pride follows from a signal from CSR about organisational prestige, which again affects corporate attractiveness. This is grounded in social identity theory (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Collins and Han, 2004; Tajfel and Turner, 1992, cited in Jones et al., 2014). Since people derive some of their identity through group associations, they are prone to identify with companies that will enhance their self-worth. A company's reputation can trigger socially oriented considerations, such as amassing social

approval by being affiliated with a reputably prestigious company, because it is considered impressive by others (Highhouse et al., 2003). Jones et al. (2014) found support for anticipated pride as one of three mediators that affect corporate attractiveness.

## *Value Fit*

Chapman et al. (2005) argues that recruitment research proved early the person-organisation fit is one of the most important indicators of recruitment outcomes (cited in Jones et al., 2014). As CSR performance sends signals about a company's values, it should result in increased attractiveness when potential employees perceive a good fit with their personal values (Backhaus et al., 2002; Turban and Greening, 1997). Social identity theory suggests that working for a company ties a person's self-image to that of the company, so a positive company reputation based amongst other factors on CSR performance will, by extension, enhance the employee's self-image by association to the values this signals (Turban and Greening, 1997). Jones et al. (2014) found that perceived value-fit affects corporate attractiveness beyond any other mediator. Their results showed considerable support for this mechanism in two separate studies, especially in qualitative analyses of rationales behind company attractiveness ratings, where organisational values relating to CSR were mentioned.

## *Expected Treatment*

The final mediating mechanism suggested by Jones et al. (2014) is potential employees inferences about how favourably a company will treat them. Turban and Greening (1997) claimed that a company's social policies and programs would attract potential employees by serving as a signal of working conditions. They built this argument on prior research (e.g. Breaugh, 1992; Rynes, 1991; Spence, 1974) about how applicants have to interpret signals about working conditions in companies, as they have limited information on hand (cited in Turban and Greening, 1997). Turban and Greening (1997) continue their argument with that since CSR signals certain values and norms, it is likely that it will influence potential employees perceived working conditions and therefore attractiveness as an employer. Because CSR communications is exhibitive of a company's overall concern for ethical treatment of others (Aguilera et al., 2007), it is probable that potential employees will infer a positive effect of CSR communications on expected treatment as an employee. Jones et al. (2014) found support for their claim that CSR signals a company's prosocial orientation and inform potential employees about working conditions, which positively affects corporate attractiveness.

Based on the thorough research by Jones et al. (2014) we propose that CSR communication will have a positive impact on the three suggested mechanisms that in turn will result in increased corporate attractiveness. We will therefore not test this affect, but assume the relationship is valid also in our study. We will continue focusing on how culture will affect the relationship between CSR communication and the mechanisms of corporate attractiveness.

## 3.1.2 Cultural Moderators of the effects of CSR Communication

As explained in the literature review, cultural differences result in disparate values, norms and associations (Hofstede 2000). This means that potential employees could differ dramatically in how they think, feel and act because of cultural background (Hofstede et al., 2010). This also matters in terms of perception of advertisement messages. Aaker and Maheswaran (1997) found that there is a difference in persuasive effects across cultures. It is therefore contiguous to assume that culture will affect perception of corporate CSR communication and the extent of its effect on corporate attractiveness.

More specifically, we believe that the characteristics of the communicated CSR message will affect the antecedents of employer attractiveness because of cultural values. If the respondents do not appreciate or identify with the message because of their cultural collective programming based on nationality, this will affect the mechanisms of anticipated pride, value fit and expected treatment, and thus affect general corporate attractiveness.

What makes the masculinity dimension interesting in our research is how different cultures differ on the desirability of assertive versus the desirability of modest behaviour (Hofstede, 2010). This difference might be a crucial factor in why Scandinavians (feminine culture) have such an opposition to CSR communication that they find to be conspicuous and "bragging" (Morsing et al. 2008; Morsing and Schultz, 2006), whilst Americans do not mind companies "bragging" about their CSR initiatives and how altruistic they are (Ellen et al. 2006).

In assessing CSR communication, it is therefore likely that respondents from a feminine culture and a masculine culture will react differently to how assertive or modest the characteristics of the communicated CSR message are.

For example, respondents from a feminine culture are not likely to appreciate very assertive and "braggart like" communication because of their horizontal and "soft" values. Therefore, they are likely to feel less connection to the company values and want to distance themselves from such a company. This will affect their identification with the company and reduce the anticipated pride they would feel working for a company and the employee-company value-fit. Further, we believe that they will deem the expected treatment from a company with a communication style that is not compatible with their culture, to be negative despite the CSR message. On the other hand, the respondents from the feminine culture are likely to feel compatibility with a company with modest CSR communication. Such a message is in line with their cultural values and norms, and will increase their sense of value-fit and anticipated pride from working for a company. In addition, this modest message is likely to induce positive expectations of employee treatment and work culture, which will lead to a positive effect on corporate attractiveness.

By this argumentation, we propose that Culture will moderate the relationship between CSR communication and the mechanisms of corporate attractiveness; anticipated pride, value-fit and expected treatment. We therefore present our first set of hypotheses:

*H1: CSR communication will have a more positive outcome on a. corporate attractiveness and b-d. the mechanisms of corporate attractiveness amongst respondents from a feminine culture if the message is modest rather than assertive.*

*H2: CSR communication will have a more positive outcome on a. corporate attractiveness and b-d. the mechanisms of corporate attractiveness amongst respondents from a masculine culture if the message is assertive rather than modest.*

Since masculinity is the only dimension with proven gender discrepancies in expressed values (Hofstede, 2000), we propose that there will be varying results within the masculine respondent pool based on gender. This is based on Hofstede's (1984) research showing that in masculine cultures such as the US, there is greater divergence between males and females in assessing appropriate values, and Nelson et al. (2006) research that men in individualist masculine cultures prefer self-focused or egoistic ads while women prefer other-focused or

altruistic ads. From this, it can be inferred that men of masculine culture should be more positive toward the assertive CSR message, whilst women of masculine culture should prefer a message of more modesty and altruistic message.

One of the main differences found by Hofstede (1984) and Triandis (1996) in masculine cultures is how women and men value different qualities within the work environment when assessing a job or job opportunity. Men have greater focus on financial and advancement opportunities whilst women value good working environment and learning opportunities (Hofstede, 2001). This could affect the mechanisms of value-fit and expected treatment, so that women and men of masculine cultures score these differently. We believe that this will again affect corporate attractiveness for these groups. Therefore, our next hypothesis is that we will find a difference in the assessment of the CSR communication message within the masculine respondent group, but not in the feminine respondent group.

*H3a: Assertive CSR communications will induce more positive outcomes on corporate attractiveness for men from a masculine culture, than for women from the same culture, and the opposite for modest CSR communications.*

*H3b: No such difference will exist between the genders for respondents from a feminine culture.*

The strong scepticism amongst Scandinavian consumers towards CSR communication (Morsing et al., 2008; Morsing and Schultz, 2006), implies that there exist a cultural barrier in perception of such communication. We believe this barrier could be perceived "strategic intent" of the motive behind the CSR communication. Based on prior research we believe that strategic intent will have a greater negative effect on corporate attractiveness amongst respondents from a feminine culture than the same perception has in a masculine culture. In terms of CSR communication, it is likely that people of a feminine culture will sense more self-centred motive in an assertive CSR communication message, as they perceive it as "bragging" and not sincere, and less self-centred motive in modest CSR communications. Still the proven scepticism indicates that people of feminine culture will perceive more self-

centred motive and less other-centred motive than people from a masculine culture independent of other factors.

On the opposite side is non-strategic intent, or other-centred motivation behind the initiative in the CSR communication. This should have a positive effect on corporate attractiveness. Since feminist cultures tend to be more sceptical to CSR communication, it is likely that they perceive less other-centred motivation when confronted with CSR communication. Still, if feminist respondents do attribute other-centred motive to the communication, it is likely to have a greater positive effect on corporate attractiveness based on their altruistic and egalitarian value set.

Our final hypotheses are therefore:

**H4a: Perceived strategic intent through self-centred motive will mediate the effect of CSR communications on corporate attractiveness for both cultures.**

**H4b: Respondents from a feminine culture will perceive more self-centred motive in both assertive and modest CSR communication than respondents from a masculine culture.**

# 4. Methodology

The focus of this thesis was to answer the initial research question of how culture may moderate the effects of CSR messages on corporate attractiveness. Specifically we wanted to study how potential employees in Norway and the US perceived an assertive or modest CSR message and thereby judged corporate attractiveness. To study our research question, we chose an appropriate research design (Ch. 4.1), created an experiment (Ch. 4.2), and based on previous research established measures and questionnaire design (Ch. 4.3).

## 4.1 Research Design

The choice of research design are influencing how well our study was able to answer the research question postulated in Ch.1. Social research design can be classified into three different categories: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory/causal research. What design to choose depends on the goals of the study and what research on the topic currently exists (Saunders et al., 2009). Exploratory research is about discovering or identifying a problem, while descriptive research is used to explain or explore a topic. Researches that establish a causal relationship between variables and discover cause effect relationships are known as explanatory research. The purpose of explanatory research is to explain why phenomena occur and to predict future occurrences (Sue & Ritter, 2015). To answer our research questions an explanatory/ causal research design was the most appropriate since our goal was to explain, rather than to simply explore or describe, the phenomena (Maxwell & Mittapalli, 2008). As there has been previous research on similar topics (cf. Ch. 2), we wanted to build on this research in terms of research procedure, and tried to find evidential support for our postulated causal relationships.

## 4.2 Experiment Procedure

In order to answer our research question an experiment was conducted by manipulating (assertive vs. modest communication) the independent variable (CSR communication), and then observe the effect on the dependent variable (general corporate attractiveness and mechanisms of corporate attractiveness) for variation concomitant to the manipulation of the independent variable.

This approach was an experimental design with a 2x2 between-subjects factorial design:

2 (Assertive / modest CSR communication) x 2 (Feminine / Masculine culture)

Our research design was developed to find the initial reactions regarding the effect of the CSR message impact on corporate attractiveness, thus we were choosing to use at post-test design. In this case, the measures were taken after the experiment was applied. Because we were using a random selection and assignment, we assumed that the four groups were probabilistically equivalent to begin with and a pre-test was not required.

## 4.2.1 Sample

Based on our choice of research design, a population and sample was chosen (Iacobucci and Churchill, 2010). As elaborated in Chapter 2 we wanted to study what impact CSR communication characteristics may have for a potential employee's job choice, our choice of the population for this study was therefore potential employees. To best answer our research questions, and make the research applicable to recruiting companies in the Norwegian market, our sample was chosen to be business school students, as they were available test subjects and qualify as attractive potential employees. According to Järlström (2000) business students have specific personality traits that show more career consciousness and more positive attitudes to specific career opportunities than the general population. In addition, business students tend to expect to interview for more than one company and therefore have several job choices, making CSR an important variable in job choice (Greening & Turban, 2000).

A sample group from the Norwegian School of Economics (Norway) and Gonzaga University (United States) were chosen to participate in our study because they meet the requirements for our research. Both groups consisted of business school students from respectively Norwegian School of Economics (NHH) and Gonzaga University (GU). These students were selected based on their applicability as potential job seekers of "high quality" (Greening and Turban, 2000) as they are attractive to companies and expect to apply for jobs within the coming few years. They were therefore a good representation of the population we chose for this research. The selection method is described in 4.2.2 Survey procedure.

The reason both Norwegian and American students are selected is because of the cultural difference between the countries. According to Hofstede (1984) and Triandis (1995) Norway

is a horizontal - individualistic country, while the US is a vertical - individualistic country. The countries also differ in terms of the masculinity - femininity dimension, where the US is a masculine culture and Norway is a feminine culture (Hofstede, 1984). This makes the sample suited to test our research question of whether cultural difference moderates the effects of CSR messages on corporate attractiveness.

## 4.2.2 Survey Procedure

The data collection method used in this study was a cross-sectional survey. A cross-sectional survey collects data from a sample drawn from a specified larger population at one point in time (Iacobucci and Churchill, 2010). By using a cross-sectional design, it was possible to observe many variables at the same time.

We distributed the questionnaire through a Qualtrics-link, and in order to collect the needed responses from the Norwegian and American students, the survey was active for 22 days. The Qualtrics-link was distributed amongst Norwegian students via a link on Facebook, while the respondents from America were contacted via professor James G. Helgeson (Ph.D., Professor of Marketing) at Gonzaga University. The respondents were ensured their anonymity as no personal identification was requested in the survey. We inferred that the requirements for anonymity were lower in a survey with a student sample that was not connected to any company and because of the insensitive nature of the survey questions. We did not need to use incentives for the Norwegian sample, as students of NHH are used to this type of survey and answer out of solidarity to the researchers. Because we were not sure of how our response rate would be for the students of GU, they were offered the possibility to win a gift card of $25, as the use of monetary incentives is a widely used strategy for raising the response rate (Saunders et al., 2009). The following statement ensured full anonymity: "The survey is still anonymous as only the names of the winners will be sent to your professor, not the answers".

The participants were given instructions to read carefully the information provided about a hypothetical bank called BLUE that were considering expanding in the Norwegian and US markets. The respondents were told that the goal of the survey was to determine how they evaluate the company. We chose a fictional company to avoid biases to certain brands as this could influence the respondents. However, it could be possible that some respondents had some biased perceptions from similar existing companies.

The participants were asked to read an informational text about the company (appendix 4.1 a), followed by an excerpt about the company's CSR initiatives as presented on the company web page. Then the respondents were asked to answer statements on how they evaluated the different aspects of the company based on the information given (full questionnaire in appendix 4.2). The same informational text was given to everyone, but the section about the company's CSR initiatives were programmed to alter randomly to establish two separate treatment groups. The information given to the assertive group was boasting, confident and aggressive with statements such as "we are the best in class…" and "we make more donations per employee to cancer research than any other bank in the world" (see full description of assertive communication in appendix 4.1b). Based on our hypothesis H2 the assertive communication may be seen as provocative and aggressive for respondents from the feminine culture and make them feel uncomfortable, while respondents from the masculine culture may appreciate the assertive communication and evaluate it as forceful and direct (Samovar et al., 2010).

A challenge of communicating the modest message was to communicate the CSR message without be seeing as too passive, as we still wanted to discover if CSR communication was an important attribute in potential employees job choice. The modest group received more discreet and moderate message characteristics and includes sayings like "we try to make our impact on the planet minimal" and "we focus on social responsibility" (see full description of the modest communication in appendix 4.1c). Based on earlier research (Ch. 2) it would be likely that the modest communication was more preferable among the respondents from the feminine culture compared to respondents from the masculine culture. Respondents from the feminine culture would evaluate the modest communication as humble and honest, while the respondents from the masculine culture may value it as vague and abstract (Samovar et al., 2010).

Because the cultural difference between Norwegians and Americans is only assumed (on the basis of prior research, Hofstede, 1984 and Trinadis, 1995) we included questions to assert this distinction both in terms of horizontal vs. vertical, and masculine vs. feminine affiliation. Lastly, the participants were asked to fill out demographics including age, gender, nationality and educational level.

The participants were randomly chosen by Qualtrics to be involved in one of the two treatment groups (cf. table 4.1): assertive CSR message (group 1 and 2) or modest CSR

message (group 3 and 4). Representatives of both cultures were randomly exposed to one of the two different information ads about the fictional company BLUE, with different types of CSR messages. Then, the respondents evaluated the ads they had seen. These judgments were later evaluated as a function of cultural group (Norway vs. US), and information type (modest appeal vs. assertive appeal).

## *Table 4.1 Experiment Groups*

| Experiment Groups | Norwegian Student | American Student |
|---|---|---|
| Assertive CSR Communication | (Group 1) ASSERTIVE CSR, NOR | (Group 2) ASSERTIVE CSR, US |
| Modest CSR Communication | (Group 3) MODEST CSR, NOR | (Group 4) MODEST CSR, US |

# 4.3 Measures and Questionnaire Design

This section describes our questionnaire design (4.3.1), steps taken to avoid common method variance (4.3.2), how we measured the data through the constructs (4.3.3) and the demographic variables (4.3.4).

# 4.3.1 Questionnaire Design

Questionnaire is a widely used technique within explanatory research because they tend to examine and explain the relationship between different variables (Saunders et al., 2009). We used a questionnaire format that according to Saunders et al. (2009) is referred to *self-administered questionnaires*. Since the questionnaire was completed by the respondents online, it was also an *Internet-mediated questionnaire*. In terms of the design of the questions was *rating questions* used to collect opinion data, and *list questions* to collect demographics. Our questionnaire consisted of 34 different questions and are presented in the appendix 4.2. Our questionnaire was developed with established constructs from previous research (discussed in Ch. 4.3.3).

Rating of the statements was done in a bipolar likert scale system ranging from 1 to 7. The ranging refers to how strong the participants feel the words are describing their perceptions. The number 1 refers to positive on the scale, "Strongly Agree", while 7 indicate to the

opposite, a negative state, "Strongly Disagree". Both negative and positive statements were included to ensure clarity and to assist the respondent to find the most appropriate answer (Brace, 2008). We chose not to use negative scores (such as -3 to 3) because previous research has deemed the 1-7 scale to give more reliable results (Schaeffer and Barker, 1995) and because this was the method of the studies on which we have built our research design. For the cultural statements was a likert scale 1-5 used, as we wanted to use the same likert scale as Hofstede and Vunderink (1994) used in their study to maintain consistency (elaborated in 4.3.3). The likert scale on cultural statements had the same logic as the other system; 1 was positive (utmost important) and 5 was negative (not important).

## 4.3.2 Steps to avoid Common Method Variance

When self-administered questionnaires are used to collect data from the same respondent at the same time may common method variance (CMV) be a concern (Chang et. al., 2010). CMV is "variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent" (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p. 879) and is caused when studies are conducted using self administered questionnaires and both the dependent and explanatory variables are perceptual measures collected from the same respondent (Chang et. al., 2010). When common methods variance causes systematic measurement error, correlations among variables can differ from the correct values that the population answer (Kamakura, 2011).

As CMV was of concern to our study, we were taken both ex-ante and ex-post actions to ensure the lowest possible effect. For our study, the measures for our constructs were taken from valid previous research to ensure validity, and such was also the method of measuring the constructs. This means that our measurements were largely done on a 7-point likert scale using "Strongly Agree" and "Strongly Disagree" as extremes. Because of this, obviously common method bias was of concern. Therefore, we programmed our survey to be divided into separate brackets of questions for each measurement. So even though the method was the same for most questions, the respondents need to click "forward" and a new page would appear with new questions for each measurement.

As for ex-post measures, we included a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in our descriptive statistics.

## 4.3.3 The Constructs

According to Groves et al. (2004) are there two aspects of surveys; the measurement of constructs and the description of population attributes. In order to measure the different variables, constructs were defined. To ensure consistency with other studies, we chose measurements that was already used within the research field. These measurements we believed to have high validity as they are recognised and widely used within previous research.

Our survey consisted of several constructs to measure the different variables, and so there was a probability that respondents would drop out of our survey because of the tedious length of 34 questions (Brace, 2008). According to Brace (2008) the most common cause of complaints from respondents is the length of the survey, and we therefore chose to decrease the number of questions for all constructs to avoid respondent fatigue. However, all the constructs have three or more items to make sure they cover the constructs satisfactorily.

### *Corporate Attractiveness*

In order to measure the dependent variable *Corporate Attractiveness*, measurements from Highhouse et al. (2003) was used. The corporate attractiveness measurement we used was a compiled version of two of the constructs in Highhouse et al. (2003); *General Attractiveness* and *Intentions to Pursue*. This variable was measured using a 1-7 likert scale ranging from "Strongly Agree" to "Strongly Disagree", with statements provided such as "For me, this company would be a good place to work", "This company is attractive to me as a place for employment", and "A job at this company is very appealing to me" (full list in Appendix 4.2). We included a statement from the construct intention to pursue, "If this company invited me for a job interview, I would go", based on Highhouse et al. (2003) argumentation that this behavioural component of corporate attractiveness is crucial in predicting actual behavioural pursuit.

### *Mechanism of Corporate Attractiveness*

The Mechanisms of Corporate Attractiveness used in our study was based on studies from Jones et al. (2014), and the measurements were therefore based directly on their method to

increase validity. They were measured in the same way as the other dependant variable *Corporate Attractiveness* using a 7-point likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree".

*Anticipated Pride* was measured using three statements acquired from Cable and Turner (2003) as cited in Jones et al. (2014): "I would feel proud to work for BLUE", "I would be proud to tell others that I work for BLUE" and "I would be proud to personally identify with BLUE".

*Value fit* was gathered from Cable and DuRue (2002) as cited in Jones et al. (2014). The construct consisted of three questions: "Blue's values and culture is a good fit with the things that I value in life", "My personal values match BLUE's values and culture" and "The things that I value in life are very similar to the things BLUE values".

The final mechanism, *Expected Treatment,* was measured using consolidated statements from Ambrose and Schminke (2009) and Aguilera et al. (2007), as cited in Jones et al. (2014) article. The measure consisted of three questions; "BLUE probably treats their employees well", "I think BLUE probably treats their employees fairly" and "BLUE probably treats their employees with respect".

## *Strategic Motive*

Proposed as an explanatory variable as to why cultural differences might affect perception of CSR message characteristics, Strategic Motive was included in our model. This construct was theoretically based on arguments used by Morsing et al. (2006) and practically taken from Ellen et al. (2006), who studied the effect of other-centred versus self-centred motives in CSR communication. We chose the six statement measures with highest scores from Ellen et al. (2006) studies, three from both categories, to use in our study. For Other-Centred Motive the statements were: "BLUE cares about the causes and want to help", "BLUE has a long-term interest in the community" and "BLUE's employee's cares about these causes". For Self-Centred Motive: "BLUE is trying to affect what people think of them", "BLUE will get more customers/sales from CSR" and "BLUE feels their customers expect them to do CSR". These were similarly to the other constructs above measured using a 7-point likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". Self-centred motive was the most important

variable relating to strategic intent, whilst other-centred motive was included as an addition not to skew the respondent's thoughts only toward that side of the scale.

## *Culture*

The last part of the survey was used to determine the respondent's cultural orientation based on work goals orientation (Hofstede and Vunderink, 1994).

The work goals orientation used in Hofstede and Vunderink (1994) research proved that differences in key goals for females and males, distinguish the national groups (Hofstede, 1998). According to their studies, there would be a difference in key goals in terms of gender in the masculine culture, while the key goal scores for feminine culture would be more equal regardless of gender. Hofstede and Vunderinks (1994) questionnaire consisted primarily of 22 different items, but we choose the four statements with highest validity to ensure a high completion rate. To be consistent with Hofstede and Vunderink (1994) study we use the original five point likert scale from their survey where the importance of different statements are measured from 1 (of utmost importance) to 5 (of very little or no importance). Assertions as "Have an opportunity for high earnings" measured degree of *Masculinity*, while "Have training opportunities (to improve your skills or learn new skills)" measured degree of *Femininity*.

Table 4.2 summaries briefly the different constructs that were measured in our survey.

*Table 4.2 Summary of the Constructs*

| Measures | Constructs | Definition | Sample item | Literature |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Femininity | Culture | Modest and tender culture. Emotional gender roles overlap | Have considerable freedom to adopt your own approach to the job | Hofstede, (1985) Hofstede et al., (1998) |
| Masculinity | Culture | Assertive and ego-oriented culture. Emotional gender roles are clearly distinct | Have an opportunity for advancement to higher level jobs | Hofstede, (1984); Hofstede et al., (1998) |
| Vertical Individualism | Culture | Individuals want to become distinguished and acquire status and they do this in competitions with others | Winning is everything | Triandis, (1995); Triandis & Gelfand, (1998) |
| Horizontal Individualism | Culture | Individuals want to be unique and distinct from groups, but they do not want to be distinguished. | I rely on myself most of the time; I rarely rely on others | Triandis, (1995); Triandis & Gelfand, (1998) |
| General Attractiveness | Corporate Attractiveness | How attractive an organisation is to a prospective job seeker | For me, this company would be a good place to work | Highouse et al., (2003); Vroom, (1966) |
| Intentions to Pursue | Corporate Attractiveness | The likelihood of accepting a job within the company | If this company invited me for a job interview, I would go | Highouse et al., (2003); Singh, (1973) |
| Anticipated Pride | Mechanism of corporate Attractiveness | Pride followed from a signal from corporate social performance about organisational prestige | I would feel proud to work for BLUE | Turban & Greening, (1997); Cable and Turban, (2003); Jones et al., (2014) |
| Value Fit | Mechanism of Corporate Attractiveness | Attraction to companies that have values and norms that they also see as important | My personal values match BLUE's values and culture | Jones et al., (2014); Cable and DeRue, (2002) |
| Expected Treatment | Mechanism of Corporate Attractiveness | The impression that companies with CSR initiatives also treats their own employees fairly | BLUE probably treats their employees well | Ambrose & Schminke, (2009); Aguilera et al., (2007) via Jones et al, (2014) |
| Other-centered Motive | Strategic motive | Consumers assumption that companies motives to do CSR are values driven and stakeholder driven | BLUE cares about the causes and want to help | Ellen et al., (2006) |
| Self-centered Motive | Strategic motive | Consumers assumption that companies motives to do CSR are strategic and egoistic | BLUE feels their customers expect them to do CSR | Ellen et al., (2006) |

# 4.3.4 The Demographic Variables

Primary data such as the demographic characteristics age, nationality, education and gender were used as variables to cross-classify data to make sense of the respondent's responses.

The use of demographic variables has often been criticised because it is risky to generalise about people (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010). However, in our research will the demographic variable "nationality" be rather relevant in order to discover if cultural background will affect the results. The demographic variable "gender" was important to measure in relation to the femininity and masculinity dimension. Further were the attributes respondent's age, gender, and level of education, readily verified (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010).

# 5. Results

In this section we will first explain how we did preliminary cleaning of the survey response (5.1) and assessment of our proposed measures (5.2), the present the results of our analysis and hypotheses testing (5.3 and 5.4).

## 5.1 Cleaning the Dataset

After the survey was deactivated and results transferred to the statistical program IBM SPSS, we did a thorough review of the responses. Cases where the survey was incomplete, 76 responses, were deleted completely. These responses were lacking most or all of the questions. Then we did a check for careless respondents using the manipulation checks we had incorporated in the study. One of the questions in the survey ("I would not be interested in this company except as a last resort") was reversed to catch these careless respondents, so if they had the same value on this question as non-reversed questions, they were deleted. Two numbers of responses was deleted based on this criterion. Lastly, we deleted respondents who recorded a different nationality than Norwegian or American. We deleted one Chinese and one Indian respondent.

This left us with 62 Norwegian and 55 US respondents with the gender ratio of 65 males to 53 females (cf. Appendix 5.1). The treatment was distributed with 60 respondents receiving the assertive communication, whilst 58 respondents received modest communication, which is a 50.8% to 49.2% distribution (cf. Appendix 5.2). The respondents were mainly master students (64.9%) and had a mean age of 25.48 years (Appendix 5.4 and Appendix 5.3).

## 5.2 Assessment of Reliability

Reliability concerns itself with the precision of our measurement, in other words, how reliable our measurements are. Reliability addresses whether the measurement is susceptible to random influences or random error (Breivik, 2014). The most common approach for evaluating reliability is to assess internal consistency among multiple measures. Internal consistency refers to the interrelatedness among the measures.

To assess the measures we have proposed in our model, we first did a Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The purpose of CFA is to confirm the relationship between the questions

within each measure, and the proposed relationships of our model. The CFA will confirm if the measures used fit well with the data (Hair et al., 2010). Unlike Exploratory factor analysis (EFA), we are allowed to test our model for fit, but that does not mean that the model is the best possible for the relationships. A CFA only confirms that our model is "good enough" to test what we propose. We chose this approach because of the clear theoretical indices in our model, which we have built our study on.

The procedure we used was AMOS Graphics in SPSS. We specified the relationships in our model, and then ran the CFA to test the relationships.

The results from the CFA show that our model is a good fit (cf. Appendix 5.5).

CFI should optimally be above 0.95, and RMSEA lower than 0.07. In our model, the CFI is 0.933, which we deem satisfactory, and the RMSEA 0.08. These results are not really adequate, but for the purpose of our study, we will deem the CFA satisfactory and continue our analysis. In the CFA relationships are constructed so we would expect rather high loadings between the constructs. Optimally loadings should be above 0.7, but 0,5 is satisfactory. One of the three questions for the "value-fit" measure and the "expected treatment" measure was revealed to not have a satisfactory standardized regression weight (0,375 and (0,558), so we removed these questions from the measure for all further analysis.

## *Cronbach's Alpha*

A very popular measure of reliability is Cronbach's alpha, which is used to measure the internal consistency of the identified factors.

To assert that the results from our confirmatory factor analysis were indeed valid, we checked the Cronbach's alphas for our proposed measures suggested by the factor analysis. Cronbach's alpha is a commonly used measure of reliability. This is an Alpha coefficient between 0 and 1, where levels above 0,7 are deemed valid (Sauders et al., 2009). This coefficient will indicate if the measures within one variable are internally consistent. The result can be viewed in table 5.1 below. All of our Cronbach's alphas are above the 0,7 level, and we can therefore conclude that our variables are good.

*Table 5.1 Cronbach Alpha*

| Variable | Alpha value | Number of items |
|---|---|---|
| General attractiveness | 0.911 | 6 |
| Antcipated pride | 0.966 | 3 |
| Expected treatment | 0.864 | 2 |
| Other-centered motive | 0.844 | 3 |
| Self-centered motive | 0.820 | 3 |
| Value fit | 0.931 | 2 |

Next, we checked the distribution of the data through a linear regression to see if the data would satisfy the criteria of normal distribution, homoscedasticity and multicollinearity.

The output of the regression can be seen in the Appendix 5.6. The distribution is not completely normal especially in the American sample, but since our sample is relatively large altogether, we deem it ok. Next, the residual plot looks acceptable as it is close to the mean. Homoscedasticity does not appear to be a problem judging from the scatterplots. There are some outliers, but generally, the data looks satisfactory.

## 5.3 Descriptives and Correlations

For the purpose of checking the dataset and getting a general feeling of the data, we did general descriptives and a correlation matrix.

From the descriptive statistics in table 5.2 we see that not all 117 respondents have valid scores for all variables, but we will deal with this doing pair-wise eliminations of missing data in SPSS when running our analysis. Skewness and Kurtosis levels are not perfect, but for our purpose, we deem them ok to continue the analysis.

*Table 5.2*

| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | Skewness | | Kurtosis | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic | Std. Error |
| General attractiveness | 117 | 1.00 | 7.00 | 2.9316 | 1.07971 | .876 | .224 | 1.629 | .444 |
| Anticipated Pride | 117 | 1.00 | 7.00 | 2.9145 | 1.35765 | .916 | .224 | .699 | .444 |
| Value-fit | 117 | 1.00 | 7.00 | 3.1368 | 1.19878 | .196 | .224 | -.008 | .444 |
| Expected treatment | 116 | 1.00 | 5.33 | 3.5776 | 1.31976 | -.468 | .225 | -1.201 | .446 |
| Other-centred motive | 118 | 1.00 | 7.00 | 2.9294 | 1.05306 | .729 | .223 | 1.022 | .442 |
| Self-centred motive | 117 | 1.00 | 5.67 | 2.5613 | 1.00635 | .596 | .224 | -.198 | .444 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 114 | | | | | | | | |

A correlation measures how two variables correlate with each other. When high values of one variable correlates with values of other variables, a positive correlation exist (Keller, 2006). A correlation matrix is used as a tool to discover where high correlation exists, and a correlation above 0.3 is defined as high.

The Pearson correlation coefficient ranges between -1 and 1, and the further from 0, the stronger the linear association between the numbers. A positive correlation implies that a high value in one variable is associated with a high value in the other variable.

Generally, the correlations in table 5.3 are quite strong meaning there is a high degree of correlation between the variables. As evident in the table below, all variables seem to have good correlation. When there is a strong linear correlation amongst two variables in a regression, there could be multicollinearity that creates unstable results that makes it hard to analyse our data set. When there exists correlations above 0,6 it could be a problem for multicollinearity (Keller, 2006).

Some values are on the verge of multicollinearity (0.715, 0.615 and 0.725) but we choose to ignore this based on theoretical implications of removing these variables from our study. The correlation output shows that general attractiveness and anticipated pride(0.715), general attractiveness and value-fit (0.615), and anticipated pride and value-fit (0.725), all have a correlation above 0,6, which could be a concern. However, this is very logical because the three construct measure theoretically similar variables, so we would expect some high correlations.

## Table 5.3 Correlations

**Correlations[c]**

| | | Total General Attractiveness | Total Anticipated Pride | Total Value-fit | Total Expected treatment | Total Other-centred motive | Total Self-centred motive | Total Masculinity | Total Femininity |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total General Attractiveness | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .715** | .615** | .442** | .600** | .404** | .048 | .042 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .609 | .654 |
| Total Anticipated Pride | Pearson Correlation | .715** | 1 | .725** | .452** | .555** | .337** | .111 | .076 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .237 | .418 |
| Total value-fit | Pearson Correlation | .615** | .725** | 1 | .454** | .564** | .446** | .151 | .047 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 | | .000 | .000 | .000 | .107 | .617 |
| Total Expected treatment | Pearson Correlation | .442** | .452** | .454** | 1 | .584** | .388** | .197* | .142 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 | .000 | | .000 | .000 | .035 | .129 |
| Total Other-centred motive | Pearson Correlation | .600** | .555** | .564** | .584** | 1 | .333** | .117 | .187* |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | | .000 | .214 | .046 |
| Total Self-centred motive | Pearson Correlation | .404** | .337** | .446** | .388** | .333** | 1 | .014 | .118 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | | .884 | .208 |
| Total Masculinity | Pearson Correlation | .048 | .111 | .151 | .197* | .117 | .014 | 1 | .184* |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .609 | .237 | .107 | .035 | .214 | .884 | | .049 |
| Total Femininity | Pearson Correlation | .042 | .076 | .047 | .142 | .187* | .118 | .184* | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .654 | .418 | .617 | .129 | .046 | .208 | .049 | |

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

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

c. Listwise N=115

## *Control Variables*

To control whether our sample of Norwegian and American respondents really are different culturally, a control variables were used in the study; degree of Masculinity. This variable was included so that if we did indeed found significant differences between Norwegian and American respondents, we could be sure these were caused by different cultural affiliations in the sample.

Masculinity proved to be very significant with $p = .000$, when we controlled for differences in age and educational level within the sample. Norwegian mean $M=5,71$ and US mean $M=6,18$, view the full output in Appendix 5.7 This difference asserts that the US respondents are significantly more masculine than the Norwegian respondents as Figure 5.1 shows.

*Figure 5.1 Means for Masculinity*
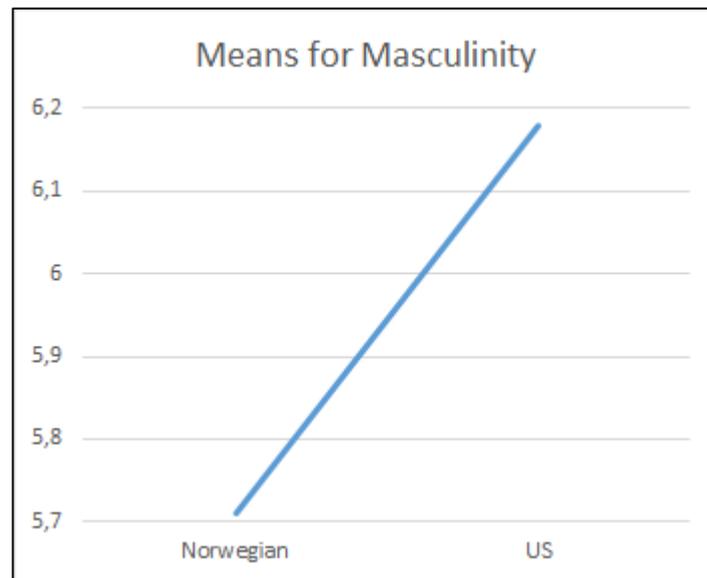


Masculinity is theoretically measured in terms of "degree of masculinity" on a scale and the opposite pole of very masculine culture is feminine culture. We included a measure of femininity in our study to increase the validity of our results on masculine orientation. For femininity we did not find as significant results as for masculinity, but when controlled for covariates including masculinity, the difference between Norwegian and US respondents was almost significant on a 10% level with $p = .103$. Norwegian mean $M= 6.03$ and US mean $M= 5,87$, view full output in Appendix 5.8. This difference is not significant but is clearly

indicates that the Norwegian respondents are more feminine than the US respondents as figure 5.2 shows.

*Figure 5.2 Means for Femininity*
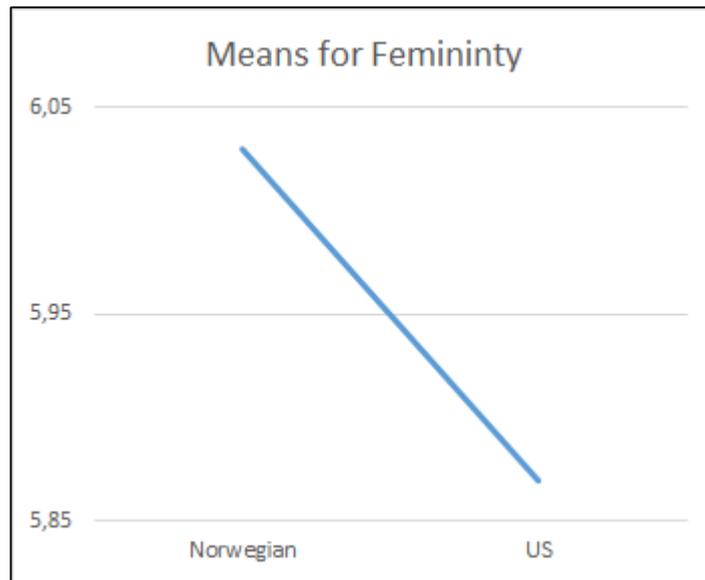


We believe the reason we did not get significant results for this control variable is largely due to the limitations of only 2 questions per orientation (masculine and feminine). Previous studies by Hofstede (1984 and 2001) and Triandis (1996) have both concluded that there are strong cultural differences between Norway and USA on this dimension, however, their studies have been conducted over a much larger scale than ours with up to 40 questions measuring each orientation. This means that for our study, the results are vastly limited, as we cannot claim they are caused by differences in cultural background. We will discuss this further in part 8. Limitations to our study.

# 6. Hypothesis Testing

To test our hypotheses we have done a combination of analyses of variance (ANOVA) and used the PROCESS macro by Andrew Hayes for SPSS to specifically determine mediating relationships (Hayes, 2013, p. 207). PROCESS uses a regression-based procedure instead of factorial analysis of variance. It is the same mathematically, but more general and flexible practically.

Previous studies have confirmed in that CSR communications will positively affect corporate attractiveness. We did not see the value in testing this relationship once again and therefore decided against having a control group in our study. We focused on getting as many respondents as possible in the treatment groups instead, to test how the CSR communication effect on corporate attractiveness is affected by culture.

**Hypothesis 1 a-d. and 2 a-d:**

The first set of hypotheses asked if culture moderated the relationship between CSR communication and mechanisms of corporate attractiveness, so that modest CSR communications would cause a more positive effect on corporate attractiveness amongst respondents from the feminine culture than in the masculine culture (H1 a-d.), and the other way around for masculine culture (H2 a-d.). To test this an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted for all variables. An ANOVA determines if there are significant differences in the mean between two or more groups, and checks the internal variance in the responses for each group (Pallant, 2013). We conducted this analysis using a two way ANOVA (Univariate in SPSS) for each of the mechanisms of corporate attractiveness and general attractiveness as dependent variables. The independent variables included were Nationality (Norwegian or American) and Treatment (Assertive or Modest CSR communication). Since Nationality and Treatment are both categorical variables with only two groups, no Post-hoc tests are necessary. We will combine the results of the two hypotheses pairwise with 1a and 2a discussed together and so on because of their inherent connection. We will list the results for each variable.

Table 6.1 shows the means and standard deviations for all combinations. We will discuss the results in detail for each variable below.

*Table 6.1 Means and Standard Deviations for all Combinations*

|  | Norwegian-Assertive | Norwegian-Modest | American- Assertive | American- Modest |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Anticipated pride** | *M*= 4,72 SD= 1,58 | *M*= 5,42 SD= 1,27 | *M*= 5,37 SD= 1,07 | *M*= 4,78 SD= 1,37 |
| **Value fit** | *M*= 4,72 SD= 1,56 | *M*= 5,64 SD= 0,99 | *M*= 5,22 SD= 1,14 | *M*= 4,85 SD= 1,13 |
| **Expected treatment** | *M*= 4,70 SD= 1,10 | *M*= 5,30 SD= 0,87 | *M*= 4,91 SD= 1,32 | *M*= 4,77 SD= 1,09 |
| **General attractiveness** | *M*= 4,79 SD= 1,44 | *M*= 5,44 SD= 0,89 | *M*= 5,10 SD= 0,74 | *M*= 4,86 SD= 1,06 |

# 6.1 General Attractiveness

H1a) Responses to general corporate attractiveness within the feminine (Norwegian) sample were significantly higher for the modest CSR communications condition (*M*=5,44, SD= 0,89) than for the assertive CSR communications condition (*M*=4,79, SD=1,44).

H2a) For the masculine (US) sample, responses were higher for the assertive CSR communications condition (*M*=5,10, SD= 0,74) than for the modest CSR communications condition (*M*=4,86, SD=1,06).

Treatment and Nationality alone were not significant predictors, but the interaction effect between the two was significant at $F(1,115) = 5,47$, p=0.02. See figure 6.1. The interaction effect is what is interesting, as we have no control group that did not receive any treatment. This is important because it confirms our general hypothesis that culture moderates the relationship between CSR communications and general corporate attractiveness. The results confirms H1a that modest CSR communication causes more positive outcomes on general corporate attractiveness in the feminine (Norwegian) sample, and H2a that assertive CSR communications causes relatively more positive outcome in the masculine (US) sample. Full output in Appendix 6.1 a-c.

*Figure 6.1 Means for General attractiveness*
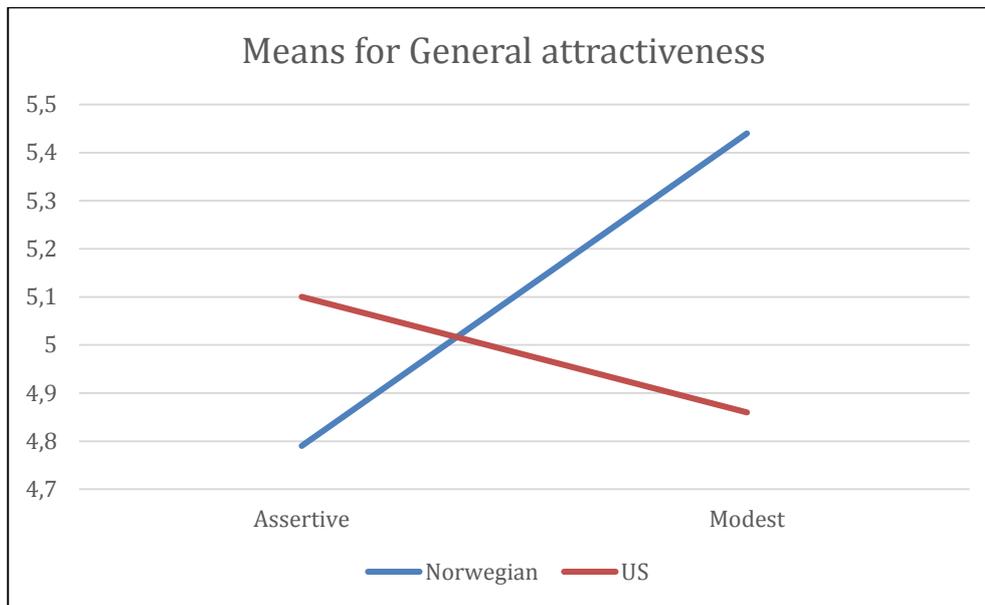


**6.2 Mechanisms of corporate attractiveness**

*Anticipated pride*

H1b) Responses to anticipated pride within the feminine (Norwegian) sample were significantly higher for the modest CSR communications condition (*M*=5,42, SD= 1,27) than for the assertive CSR communications condition (*M*=4,72, SD=1,58).

H2b) Responses to anticipated pride within the masculine (US) sample were significantly higher for the assertive CSR communications condition (*M*=5,37, SD= 1,07) than for the modest CSR communications condition (*M*=4,78, SD=1,37).

The effect of Treatment or Nationality separately were not significant predictors (p = 0.755 and p = 0.773), but the interaction effect of Treatment and Nationality was very significant: $F(1, 116) = 6.64$, p = 0.011. See figure 6.2. This is visible from the difference in means for the two nationalities and treatments, with Norwegian assertive scoring lower than US assertive (4,72 < 5,37), and Norwegian modest scoring higher than US modest (5,42 > 4,78). Full output in Appendix 6.2 a-c.

The significant interaction effect confirms our general hypotheses that culture moderates the effect modest versus assertive CSR communication has on perceptions of anticipated pride in working for the test company. More specifically this confirms our H1b that modest CSR communications will cause a more positive outcome on anticipated pride than assertive in the case of feminine culture, and H2b that assertive CSR communication will cause a more positive outcome on anticipated pride than modest in the case of masculine culture.

*Figure 6.2 Means for Anticipated Pride*
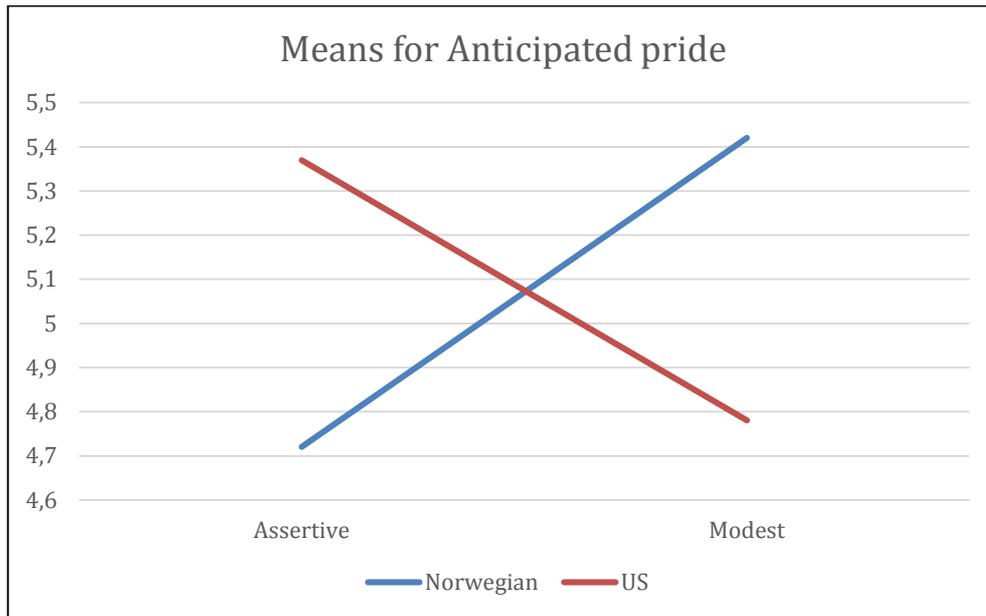


## *Value-fit*

H1c) Responses to value-fit within the feminine (Norwegian) sample were significantly higher for the modest CSR communications condition (*M*=5,64, SD= 0.96) than for the assertive CSR communications condition (*M*=4,72, SD=1,56).

H2c) Responses to anticipated pride within the masculine (US) sample were higher for the assertive CSR communications condition (*M*=5,22, SD= 1,14) than for the modest CSR communications condition (*M*=4,85, SD=1,13).

The effect of Treatment or Nationality separately were not significant predictors (p = 0.209 and p = 0.717), but the interaction effect of Treatment and Nationality was highly significant: $F(1, 116) = 8,18$, p = 0.005. See figure 6.3. Full output in Appendix 6.3 a-c.

The results prove that H1c, modest CSR communications will lead to higher value-fit than assertive in the case of feminine culture, and H2c, assertive CSR communication will lead to higher value-fit than modest in the case of masculine culture, are both confirmed.

*Figure 6.3 Means for Value-fit*
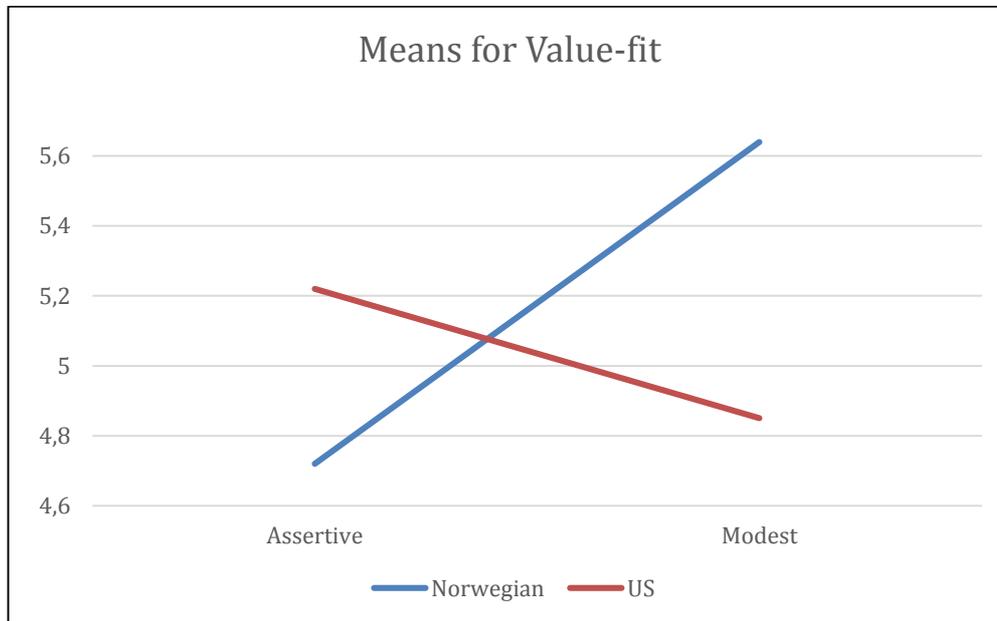


Value-fit is found to be strongly significant, meaning that this mechanism is greatly affected by the cultural affiliation of the respondent. It is not surprising that value-fit is the most affected mechanism as culture is strongly related to values of a society and the people living in it. Therefore, different CSR communication characteristics aspire different perceived fit with a company, dependent on the culture of the job seeker.

## *Expected Treatment*

H1d) Responses to expected treatment within the feminine (Norwegian) sample were significantly higher for the modest CSR communications condition ($M$=5,30, SD= 0.86) than for the assertive CSR communications condition ($M$=4,70, SD=1,10).

H2d) Within the masculine (US) sample, responses to expected treatment were higher for the assertive CSR communications condition ($M$=4,91 , SD= 1,32) than for the modest CSR communications condition ($M$=4,77, SD=1,09), though not significantly.

For expected treatment to have significant results between the nationality and treatment groups, both age and education were added to the analysis as covariates. Interestingly they are both significant (age p=0.025 and education p=0.027). Our sample varied greatly in age with a much larger percentage of respondents scoring "older than 29 year" in the US group (cf. Appendix 5.3). It is interesting that the effect on expected treatment is affected significantly with age, but it could likely be attributed to working experience.

The effect of Treatment or Nationality separately were not significant predictors (p = 0.219 and p = 0.944), but the interaction effect of Treatment and Nationality was highly significant: $F(1, 116) = 4,21$, p = 0.042. See figure 6.4. Full output in Appendix 6.4 a-c.

The results show that H1d, modest CSR communications will lead to better expectations for treatment when working for the company, than assertive will in the case of feminine culture, is confirmed. H2d is not confirmed as there are no significant differences in the masculine group. This indicated that CSR communication does not affect perceptions about expected treatment for respondents from a masculine culture, but does so for respondents from a feminine culture.

*Figure 6.4 Means for Expected Treatment*
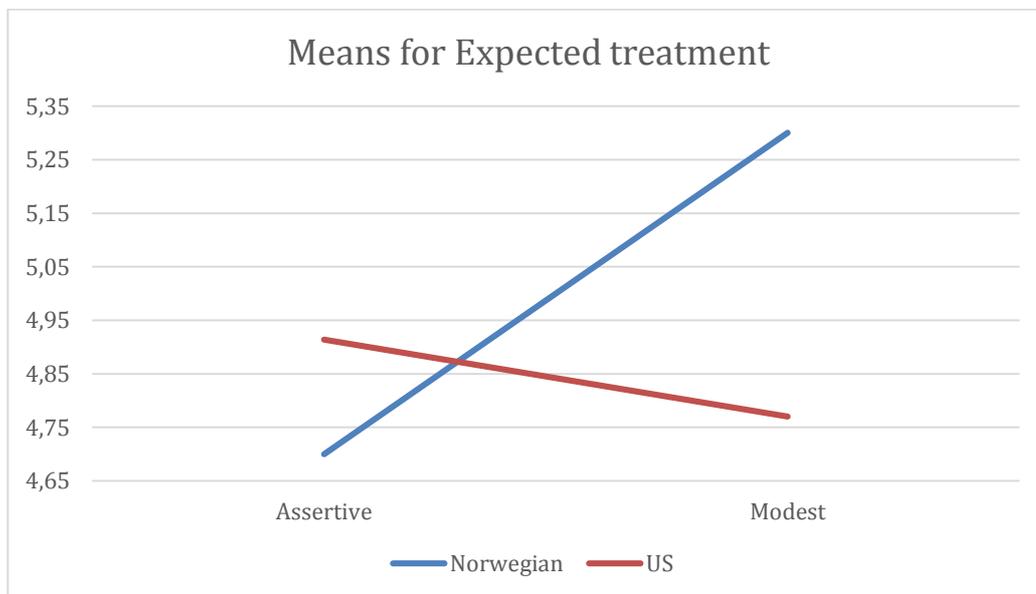
We can see that respondents from the feminine culture (Norway) are more inclined to find a company attractive if they are proposed with modest CSR communication than the assertive CSR communication, and that this is valid for all the variables.

**Hypothesis 3 a. and b.**

Hypothesis 3 concerns the differences between males and females within cultures, especially how we expect to find differences in evaluation of corporate attractiveness based on the CSR communication treatment between the genders from the masculine culture, but not the feminine culture.

This hypothesis was tested using two-way between-subjects ANOVA, within the treatment groups. The hypotheses was tested for all three mechanisms.

H3a. Amongst the respondents from the masculine culture, we did not find significant results on any of the variables indicating that there were differences between the genders, and H3a is therefore not confirmed.

H3b. Stated that there would be no difference between the genders in the respondents from the feminine culture, and is supported by the lack of significant results within the Norwegian sample. This is in line with cultural theory stating that women and men in feminine cultures are more equal in their value set. However, since H3a was not supported, the relativity is lost.

**Hypothesis 4**

Hypothesis 4 a. states that strategic intent through self-centred motive will mediate the effect of CSR communication on corporate attractiveness for both cultures.

To test this mediation relationship between culture, perceived strategic intent and corporate attractiveness we used the PROCESS macro by Preacher and Hayes (2008).

The macro is a regression-based procedure instead of factorial analysis of variance. It uses bootstrapping, a resampling method, to avoid issues with small sample sizes without normal distribution, which is a concern for our sample as we only have 116 valid cases. This method is used to catch all the relationships of the hypothesis in one analysis. For our analysis, we

used the recommended 5000 bootstrap samples, with a 95% confidence interval. PROCESS allows us to test the mediating effect through self-centred motive on the already tested effect of culture (nationality) on the different treatment groups' perception of corporate attractiveness. Degree of masculinity was included in the mediation as a controlled covariate to take way inter-cultural differences

*Figure 6.5 shows the proposed relationships:*
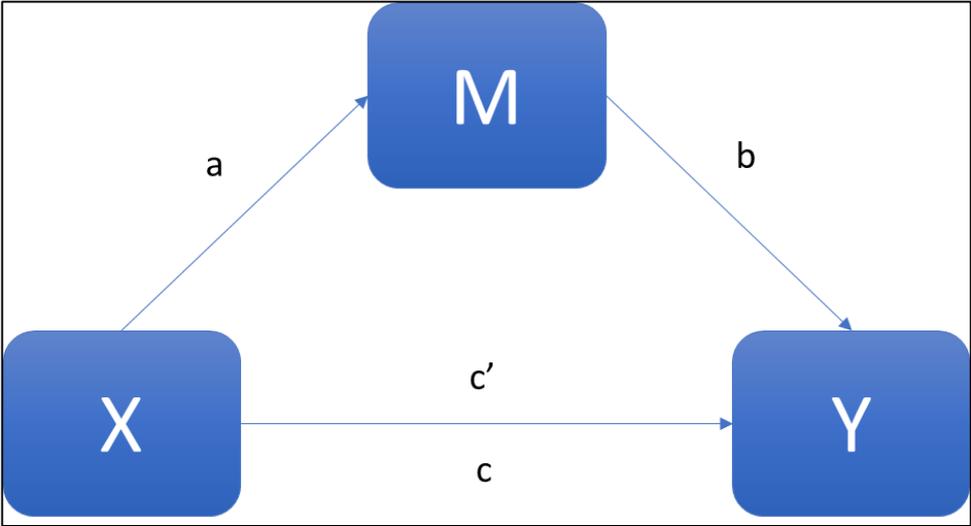


The direct effect of CSR communication (X) on general corporate attractiveness (Y) is the c path. We propose that there exist a path from CSR communication (X) through self-centred motive (M) to general corporate attractiveness (Y), which is path a and b in figure X. The proof of mediation is if this path results in lower power for the c path, visible through c', which is the direct effect from X to Y when M is accounted for. If c' is not significant, but c is, then a mediation has happened.

*Table 6.2 Mediation Analysis*

Path a: CSR communication to Self-centred motive

Model Summary

| R | R-sq | MSE | F | df1 | df2 | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ,2502 | ,0626 | ,9677 | 4,9543 | 2,0000 | 112,0000 | ,0087 |

| | | | | | BC 95% CI | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | coeff | se | t | p | Lower | Upper |
| Nationality* Treatment | ,0473 | ,0180 | 2,6332 | ,0097 | ,0117 | ,0829 |

Path b: Self-centred motive to corporate attractiveness

Model Summary

| R | R-sq | MSE | F | df1 | df2 | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ,4048 | ,1638 | 1,0067 | 7,5367 | 3,0000 | 111,0000 | ,0001 |

Model

| | | | | | BC 95% CI | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | coeff | se | t | p | Lower | Upper |
| Self-centred motive | ,4409 | ,0984 | 4,4813 | ,0000 | ,2460 | ,6359 |
| Nationality* Treatment | -,0056 | ,0193 | -,2898 | ,7725 | -,0439 | ,0327 |

The results shown in Table 6.2 for the mediation analysis show that there is a significant mediation through self-centred motive. We will discuss the results for each path in Figure 6.5.

Path *a* from CSR communications for both cultures, which in our study is a coded variable of Nationality * Treatment, to self-centred motive is significant with p= 0.0087. The effect estimate is 0.047 with CI of 0.0117;0.0829. The coding of Nationality*Treatment is done by adding the two variables, where Norwegian= 10, US = 20, Treatments are 1 and 2. This matters because the effect size in path *a* is slightly positive (0,047), meaning that going from lower to higher values on Nationality*treatment (implying going from Norwegian to US respondents) Self-centred motive goes up. In other words, Masculine respondents perceive more self-centred motive than respondents from a feminine culture does. However, the effect is very small.

Path b from self-centred motive to general corporate attractiveness is also significant with p = .000 and CI of 0.2460;0.6359. The effect estimate is 0.441, implying that higher levels of self-centred motive actually causes increase in corporate attractiveness.

Path c' is not significant, confirming that mediation is indeed happening with the difference between path c and c' significant with p = .0258.

See the full output from PROCESS in Appendix 6.5a.

The next hypothesis, H4b. stated the opposite of what the findings above indicate, that respondents from a feminine culture would perceive more self-centred motive in both assertive and modest CSR communication, than respondents from a masculine culture. To test this a two way between-subjects ANOVA was conducted with self-centred motive as the dependent variable and Nationality*Treatment as the independent variable. Degree of masculinity was included as a controlled covariate to take way inter-cultural differences.

A simple ANOVA test with self-centred motive split by nations, showed significant differences between the two nationalities with Norwegian mean $M=$ 5,59 and US mean $M=$ 5,27, p = .014. Full output in Appendix 6.5.b.

To further investigate the effect of CSR communication, we included treatment. The results show that Norwegian respondents who received assertive CSR communications ($M=$ 5.51, SD= 1.04) score significantly (10% level, p = .092) higher than US respondents who received assertive treatment ($M=$ 5.21, SD= 1,13). For modest communication the relationship is the same with Norwegians ($M=$5.66, SD= 0.78) scoring higher than US respondents ($M=$ 5.33, SD= 1.07). The difference between Norwegians who received modest treatment and US respondents who received assertive treatment was very significant with p = .019. The overall difference between the groups was significant on a 10% level with p = .091. See figure 6.6. Full output in Appendix 6.5.c.

These results are very interesting. They confirm our hypothesis that respondents from a feminine culture (Norwegians) perceive higher levels of self-centred motive for both treatments.

*Figure 6.6 Self-centred motive*



**Self-centred motive**

(Chart showing two lines from "Assertive" to "Modest". Y-axis ranges from 5,2 to 5,7. Norwegian line rises from about 5,51 to 5,66. US line rises from about 5,21 to 5,33.)

Legend: Norwegian — US
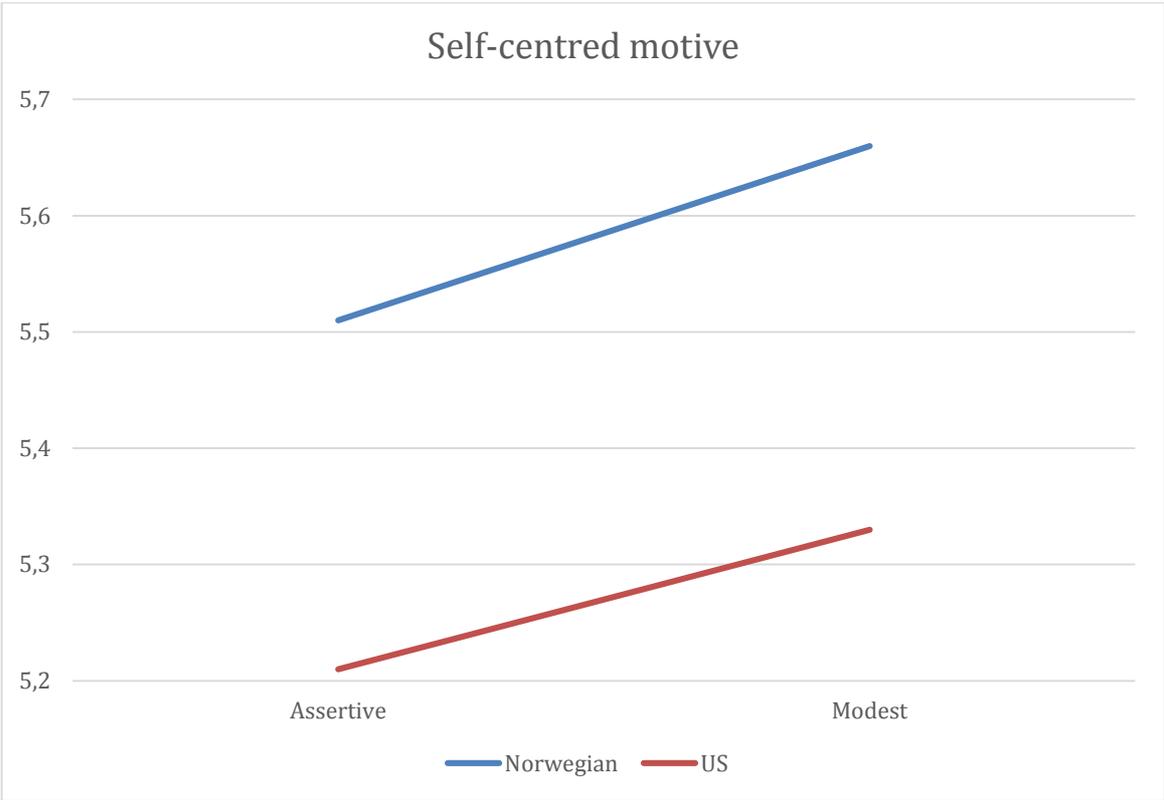
# 7. Discussion of Results

Countless studies have concluded that CSR communication, either directly or indirectly, is an important driver for corporate attractiveness. What we found missing from this research was how characteristics within the communicated CSR message affects this relationship. However, within the research field of communications there is an established consensus that cultural differences affect how people perceive communication messages. We wanted to test in our study if this truth also affects CSR communications by companies, more specifically, how it affects the perception of corporate attractiveness in the increasingly competitive employment market.

In our study, we tested how two separate CSR communication methods, varying on the assertiveness and modesty of the message characteristics, affected the perceived corporate attractiveness of a potential employer under the condition of culture. To understand if culture does in fact play a part in how CSR communication messages are perceived, we tested both American and Norwegian business students who are believed to belong to respectively masculine-vertical and feminine-horizontal cultures.

We found significant results for our cultural control variable degree of Masculinity, indicating that our sample indeed could be divided based on their cultural background. Meaning that degree of masculinity is an explanatory variable for our results. This is in line with Hofstede's (1984 and 2001) and Trinadis' (1996) very comprehensive studies into cultural differences. Still, many unexplored cultural dimensions and non-cultural factors could further explain our result, which were not within the scope of our study. With this in mind, we will continue our discussion of the results.

## 7.1 General Discussion

In our first set of hypotheses (1a-d and 2a-d), we tested if culture affected general corporate attractiveness and three mechanisms of corporate attractiveness identified by Jones et al. (2014). The anticipated pride an employee expects to feel in the potential job and working for the company, value-fit with the company culture and image, and the expected treatment as a potential employee of the company. The results show that all three mechanisms and the measure of general attractiveness were affected by the interaction between nationality of the

respondent and CSR treatment received. This interaction is what we have defined as the "effect of culture" in our study, as it shows that the different nationalities respond differently to the treatments of assertive and modest CSR communication. These findings are interesting as they indicate that cultural affiliation influences how we perceive CSR message characteristics. Since culture influences how people think, feel and act, as a collective group, our results prove that they therefore are affected by CSR message characteristics differently. This translates into differences in perception of corporate attractiveness based on the CSR message.

We found that for both sets of treatments, assertive and modest, there were significant differences between the cultures in the effect that the treatment had on evaluation of corporate attractiveness, both directly and through the three mechanisms. In terms of CSR communication, our results show that cultural orientation does in fact influence how CSR message characteristics affect the perceived corporate attractiveness of the communicating company. We will discuss these findings for each variable:

## *General Corporate Attractiveness*

On the variable General attractiveness, which measured the general perception of attractiveness as an employer, including intentions to pursue a job offer, we found results supporting the hypothesized relationship. Culture did moderate the relationship between CSR communication and perceived corporate attractiveness. The masculine respondents (US) deemed a higher degree of attractiveness to the company if proposed with the assertive CSR communication, whilst feminine respondents deemed higher attractiveness when proposed with the modest CSR communication. These findings are very relevant in an employer branding setting as they give directions as to how to communicate CSR initiatives to reap the highest return in terms of corporate attractiveness as an employer. As this variable is theoretically overarching the three mechanisms, the commentary below for each of the separate mechanisms further explains why we believe culture affects CSR communication characteristics effect on general attractiveness of a company.

## *Anticipated Pride*

Jones et al. (2014) showed conclusive evidence that CSR communication in general had a positive effect on corporate attractiveness, in line with other research on CSR effect on reputation, as CSR signals organisational prestige. In our study, anticipated pride as a mechanism of corporate attractiveness was strongly affected by the combination of treatment received and nationality of the respondent. US respondents felt they would have significantly more pride in working for a company with assertive CSR communications, whilst the Norwegian respondents felt they would have significantly more pride in their job if they worked for a company with modest CSR communication. These results support cultural theory stating that assertiveness is seen as a positive attribute in masculine cultures like the US, whilst modesty is highly appreciated in feminine cultures such as Norway. The fact that these "values" also translate clearly into perceptions of company attractiveness through anticipated pride, based CSR communication is an interesting, but not surprising finding. Pride in one's job is often based on the construed image (Brown et al., 2006)  you perceive others to have of the company, and CSR in general is proven to increase reputation and image of a company (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2001).

## *Value Fit*

Value-fit is a mechanism of corporate attractiveness that is increasing in importance as companies on a larger scale are communicating values and making their corporate culture a source of competitive advantage. Our results clearly show that value-fit is affected by the combination of treatment received and nationality of our respondents. Much the same as for anticipated pride, it is not surprising that culture affects the degree of value-fit a potential employee feels with a company based on different communication treatments, because values are strong separators between cultures.  The American respondents felt a better value-fit with the company is they received the assertive CSR communication treatment, and felt significantly less fit when they received the modest communication. The Norwegian respondents on the other hand show the exact same preferences only opposite directional. They felt significantly more value-fit with the company if they received the modest communication treatment, and less fit with under the assertive communication treatment.

This is in line with Hofstedes (1985) cultural dimensions, where masculine cultures are defined by their affinity to assertiveness and ego-orientation, whilst feminine cultures nurture modesty and relationships. The Value-fit results are the most significant of all the mechanisms in our study, which is not surprising as the CSR profile of a company is often associated with organizational values and therefore affect how potential employees perceive value-fit.

This implies that companies communicating to masculine respondents need to consider the cultural values of assertiveness and be confident in their communications, while companies communicating to feminine respondents need to emphasize their modesty.


## *Expected Treatment*

Expected treatment relates to how a job seeker makes inferences about how they think the company in question would treat them as an employee. Culture affects general expected treatment on market level, because it affects the norms in society (Hofstede, 2001). For this mechanism, the results showed significant differences for the assertive and modest CSR communication treatment amongst the feminine respondents, with modest communication leading to significantly higher expectations to treatment as an employee, than assertive CSR communication. The respondents from the masculine culture showed the exact opposite relationship (though not significant), implying they expect to be treated better by a company communicating CSR assertively rather than modestly.

Expected treatment is an important factor in corporate attractiveness for job seekers, because most potential employees in the category of our research (business students) are well aware that they will be spending most of their waking hours at work, and consequently should be concerned with expected treatment as an employee. It is an interesting finding that respondents from masculine cultures expect to be treated better by a company with assertive CSR communication, however it is in line with the cultural value set as discussed under value-fit.

For this variable, the age of the respondents and the educational level showed to be significant covariates. This is intuitive to attribute to the fact that the US sample had a much larger degree of respondents over the age of 29 years. They presumably have more working

experience than younger respondents do, which clearly is an influential factor in how CSR communications affected expected treatment. They might draw inferences to other companies they have worked for previously and their communications or CSR profiles, and translated this onto the CSR communications and expected treatment in the study.

Overall, for hypothesis 1 and 2, the findings across general corporate attractiveness and all the mechanisms of corporate attractiveness indicate the people from a feminine culture are more positive towards all aspects of working for a company if the CSR communication by the company is of modest character. People from a masculine culture feel more positive towards companies providing assertive CSR communication. This is particularly relevant in terms of globalisation and multi-national companies, that are operating across cultural boundaries.

However, many other factors could explain the results that were not covered in this study. Masculinity is only one on seven cultural dimensions, and it is possible that these could contribute to even clearer results and better understanding as to why culture affects perception of CSR communication. Further, we have not considered the aspect of economic and financial performance, which could also indirectly affect corporate attractiveness. The two countries in our study vary greatly on workers' rights and job security, so inferences about the financial standing of a company could contribute to different interpretations of CSR communication. Assertive communication might have a greater effect on corporate attractiveness in the US because it is perceived as a sign of good financial performance that allows for investments in CSR. This could be a weighting factor related to our study.

## *Differences between Genders*

Hypothesis 3 and b postulated that there would be greater differences between male and female respondents within the masculine culture sample, as opposed to in the feminine culture sample. We did not find results indicating that there were significant differences within the masculine group on how males and females perceived the CSR communication treatments. This was surprising as we expected there to be differences between the genders in the masculine culture based on theory stating that one trait of masculine culture is difference in values for the sexes. However, several factors could contribute to these results. For once, our sample is presumably rather homogeneous with only business students. This could matter

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because of the type of people who decide to study business might have other characteristics than the general public, and the education itself teaches a very rational value set and way of thinking that could be a factor in diminishing value differences between the genders even in masculine cultures. The sample size in the masculine group could also affect the results by not being adequately large, only 55 respondents. Out of these only 21 were female.

## *Effect of Perceived Strategic Intent on CSR Communication*

Hypothesis 4 concerned how perceived strategic intent in the motive behind CSR communication would mediate the effect of culture on the relationship between CSR communication and corporate attractiveness.

We found a very significant mediation effect through self-centred motive on corporate attractiveness. Interestingly this effect was not negative, meaning that perceived self-centred motive behind the CSR communication did not affect corporate attractiveness negatively. This is in line with the findings from Ellen et al. (2006) who did not find negative effects of strategically motivated CSR. One reason we infer for this finding is that our sample are business students, who can appreciate strategically savvy communications and therefore not necessarily let this perception decrease the degree of corporate attractiveness.

Closer examination into the differences between the two cultures and treatments received, revealed that Norwegians as feminine respondents do indeed perceive more self-centred motive in both assertive and modest CSR communication, than the US respondents. This is contradictory to the results from the mediation analysis that suggested that the masculine US respondents felt more strategic intent. This effect was however very small.

According to our ANOVA, both groups felt most strategic intent when proposed with the modest CSR communication. This is the opposite of what we expected. One reason for this finding could be that modest CSR communication is not as convincing in terms of dedication. Modest CSR communication could be perceived more along the lines of something the company does because their competitors are doing it, instead of showing true commitment and dedication to a cause.

The mediation analysis also revealed that self-centred motive had a positive rather than negative effect on corporate attractiveness, which does make sense in the light of modest CSR

communication causing higher perceived self-centred motive. Since the feminine Norwegians scored significantly higher on corporate attractiveness when proposed with the modest CSR communication they were evidently not negatively affected by self-centred motive, as we believed. The reason for why feminine cultures such as Scandinavians are sceptical towards CSR communication is apparently not the perception of strategic intent.

## 7.2 Practical Implications

Our study has some important practical implications for companies in western societies, specifically for Scandinavian companies. Our study focused on the effect of culture on CSR communication, distinguishing between assertive and modest communication and their effect on masculine and feminine respondents, and our findings strongly indicate that this has a significant effect on perceived corporate attractiveness. From an employer branding perspective this distinction is important as its been proven that CSR communication not only affects the degree of corporate attractiveness potential employees attribute a company, but also that CSR is firstly an important job-choice factor for job seekers with high job choice options, meaning the best candidates.

In our study, we found results indicating that Scandinavian companies need to communicate their CSR initiatives in a modest manner to reap the largest effect in terms of corporate attractiveness. This implies that Scandinavian companies should not be very assertive, and definitely not be boasting in their communication. The opposite is true for US companies, which are communication to a masculine audience. They need to be very assertive in their communication as it results in higher corporate attractiveness.

# 8. Limitations and Future Research

As the study faced a number of limitations, we will evaluate the data quality based on reliability and validity (Ch. 8.1). Finally, we suggest some directions in terms of future research (Ch. 8.2).

## 8.1 Limitations

In order to determine the credibility of our research findings we need to figure out the accuracy of our measurements. The reliability and validity are widely used concepts to assess the measurement accuracy of a study (Saunders et al., 2009). We will focus on internal reliability, external reliability, construct validity, internal validity, systematic errors, external validity, and conclusion validity.

### 8.1.1 Reliability

Reliability refers to the extent to which your data collection techniques or analysis procedures will yield consistent findings (Trochim, 2000). According to Trochim (2000) there are four different classes of reliability estimates, and we choose to focus on the internal reliability and external reliability in this study.

### *Internal Reliability*

Internal reliability judges how well the items that reflect the same yield similar results (Trochim, 2000). By looking at the internal reliability, we can evaluate how consistent the results are for the different items for the same construct within the measure. By using confirmatory factor analysis and testing Cronbach's Alpha for the constructs, we determine the internal reliability of the measurements. The results from the confirmatory factor analysis (cf. Ch. 5) were not optimally satisfying the internal validity requirements. However, values are slightly under and over the requirements, so we classify the factor analysis as satisfactory. All of the Cronbach's Alphas are above the requirement level (elaborated in Ch. 5) and thus shows satisfactory yields on all of the constructs. Hence, we consider the internal reliability of our constructs as satisfactory.

*External Reliability*

External reliability describes the consistency to which a measure varies from one occasion to another (Trochim, 2000). In other words, in what extent independent researchers can reproduce our study and obtain results similar to those obtained in this study. In order to evaluate the external reliability a test-retest method can be used, which involves testing the same participant twice over a period of time on the same test (Trochim, 2000). Because of time constraints, this was unfortunately not possible. However, we have tried to describe in detail our methodology and analysis to provide information to a potential researcher. Hopefully this can make it possible to repeat our study, which can produce results that are consistent with what we found.

There are threats to the external reliability that should be taken into account (Saunders et al., 2009). If the survey is done during an inconvenient time could this create a threat against external reliability in terms of *response error*. In order to decrease this threat we did the data collection in September and thus avoiding the students busy exam period. It may be likely that *response bias* occurs because the respondents answer what they believe we want them to say. We informed the respondents and ensured full anonymity of their answers to minimize this threat as much as possible. Further, we did not mention the objective of our study, so hopefully the response bias is confined. Another threat against external reliability in our study is the *observer error*, which involves how questions are stated in the survey and the possibility that respondents misunderstand these questions. Since we have used questions from previous research created by renowned researchers, we are confident that our questions will not create any observer error. Lastly, *observer bias* is a threat to external reliability and happens because of the unconscious assumptions harboured by the researcher. Because we have done a quantitative research and our results are based on statistics, this threat to external reliability is most likely small.

## 8.1.2 Validity

In order to determine whether the relationship between our variables have a causal relationship, we need to identify the validity of our research. Validity concerns if our findings can describe what they really appear to be about (Saunders et al., 2009). Even though we

cannot prove validity because of the unobserved nature of concepts, we can develop support for validity.

## *Internal Validity*

Since our research design is an explanatory design, we need to find out if our findings can be concluded to have a cause-effect relationship. The internal validity addresses whether the findings can be attributed to our manipulation instead of other possible causes (Trochim, 2000). Meaning that if we can argue for a high internal validity, then we can claim that changes in the independent variable (Corporate attractiveness) is caused by the observed changes in the dependent variable (CSR communication). Even though we can show a relationship in our results this does not mean it is a causal one. It is possible that there are different variables or factors that causes the outcome (Trochim, 2000). This refers to the "third variable" or "missing variable" problem and is a major issue of internal validity. When assessing the internal validity, we need to check extraneous explanations, known as "threats to internal validity" (Robson, 2002, as cited in Saunders et al., 2009). Threats to internal validity are confounds that serve as plausible alternative explanations for our possible research finding. In order to claim a causal inference, we need to rule out these alternative explanations. Saunders et al. (2009) emphasize on six different threats to internal validity: history, testing, instrumentation, mortality, maturation and ambiguity about causal direction. There are several threats to internal validity that we need to consider in our research design to make the claim that CSR communication will cause the expected outcomes in our study.

As we do not propose a pre – post-test method in our design, there is no direct threat in terms of *testing effects* (Trochim, 2000). This threat will only occur if the subjects are exposed to the treatment respond to the test more than once, and therefore change their responses because they know what they are being tested on and can prepare for the post-test. In the same way as the testing threat, *instrumentation threat* will only occur in a pre-test - post-test situation (Trochim, 2000). We therefore focus on the four other threats, as these are the main threats to internal validity in our research.

For instance, there could be *history threats*. Even though we chose to use the hypothetical bank, BLUE, as the company in our survey, the respondents could still be influenced by previous advertisements or other events affecting the valuation of working in BLUE from

other real banks. If for example there is a major breach in digital bank security, or a major scandal concerning the bank industry in the media, during our data gathering this could affect all over attitude to working in a bank, which further leads to generally low scores on corporate attractiveness and may threaten our validity. However, no such events happened during our data collection period as far as we know. Further, we only conducted this research within a relatively short period of time, three weeks for data collection. Hence, we do not anticipate that there will occur any history threats that will immediately affect our results. The same reasoning will be valid for *maturation threats*. Since our time period for collecting data is so short there is little likelihood of the test subject evolving significantly in their preferences. However, it is a likelihood that it occurs maturation during the experiment because the respondents feel the survey is time-consuming; this may further give careless respondents.

There is a possibility that the respondents' drops out during our research, so there exist a *mortality threat* (Saunders et al, 2009). As mentioned in chapter six, we deleted 76 out of 194 responses because the survey was incomplete, which is loss of information in our research. A problem that may arise because of non-responsiveness is that the research may be selective (Bethlehem, 2009). It would be interesting to see if there are any consistencies in the descriptors of the subjects that failed to complete the test. For example, it could be the case that these are people who generally do not care about CSR. If this is the case then the remaining respondents will have a generally stronger opinion on the CSR communication message and therefore lower the internal validity of our research. According to Cooper & Hedger (1993), *the ambiguity about the direction* of causality can provide major threats in primary research and thus be a case for our study. Since our correlational studies are cross-sectional, it could be a problem for ambiguity about the direction of causal influence (Seale, 2003). However, in our study the direction of causal influence is relatively implausible, hence we do not consider ambiguity about the direction as a big threat for our study.

## *Construct Validity*

In order to find out if our measurement questions actually measure the constructs we intended to measure, we need to evaluate the construct validity of our research (Saunders et al., 2009). We will focus on face validity, convergent validity and discriminant validity to evaluate the construct validity.

*Face validity* (also known as content validity) is a qualitative judgment of the validity of the constructs (Breivik, 2014). As elaborated in Ch. 4.3.3 we used existing measuring scales applied in previous research to measure the variables in order to maintain satisfactory face validity. We did not do any adjustments of the original questions, as we wanted to provide consistency with previous research. In order trying to minimize the dropout rate, we decreased the number of questions significantly from the original studies in our study and we chose only the question with highest validity. For instance, this meant decreasing the number of questions from original Hofstede and Vunderink (1994) studies from twenty-two to only four questions in our research. This could decrease construct validity, as it is possible that our constructs are not measuring what we accurately wanted them to describe.

*Convergent validity* measures a convergence between similar construct, while by using *discriminant validity* we should discriminate between dissimilar construct. By demonstrating evidence for both convergent and discriminant validity, we can show evidence for construct validity (Trochim, 2000). To assess convergent and discriminant validity it is normal to use factor analysis (Johannessen et al., 2011). By looking at our results from the CFA shown in Appendix 5.5 a-d. it can be seen that the item inter-correlations are very high for most of our item pairings and this proves that our model is a good fit. There were a few items that we deleted out from the study because of low convergence or discriminant validity, which increased model-fit.


## *External Validity*

External validity concerns whether the research results can be generalized (Saunders et al., 2009). There are three threats to generalization: people, places, and time (Trochim, 2000).

An important criteria concerning the external validity of our research is whether our sample results are transferrable to the rest of the population, in our case the business school students from NHH and GU. Our research is specified to concern only potential employees and our sample is business students. The *people* chosen to participate in the research could propose a threat to external validity. Because of our clearly defined population, there are concerns to notice in sampling. As the potential employees focused on in this study are business students, the sample is very homogenous in terms of demographic characteristics. In this case, our results may not be generalizable to other potential employees. However, if we had a very

diverse group of respondents, it is also more likely that they vary more widely on our measures. This could cause erroneous results because the measures are based on individual differences that are irrelevant to the relationship observed. Another threat to external validity in terms of people is that the American respondents received financial incentive to participate in the study. This could of course affect the results, by making some respondents feel that they have to respond positively in order to receive the financial compensation, lowering the external validity of our research. However, it was clearly stated in the invitation to participate that this should not be taken to account.

Another threat to the external validity is the threat of *place*. Since our survey was purposely distributed amongst business school students at their respective schools, we are not considering threat of place a lack in external validity in our study. The last threat to external validity is *time* and happens if the results cannot be generalized to other times because of a specific event. As mentioned earlier our data collection happened during a short period of time where no events happened. Thus, we may assume that our results are generalizable to other times.

## *Conclusion Validity*

The conclusion validity evaluate in what extent our conclusion we reach about relationships among the variables are reasonable (Trochim, 2000). At any time we detect a relationship, it is two possible conclusions: either there is a relationship in our data or there is not. However, in both cases, we could be wrong in our conclusion. There are two errors that can lead to incorrect conclusion about a relationship in our observations:

1.      Concluding that there is no relationship when in fact there is a relationship.

2.      Concluding that there is a relationship when in fact there is not.

Since we have concluded that there is a relationship, we will focus on point two. We need to look at different reasons we might be wrong concluding a relationship, known as the major threats to conclusion validity (Trochim, 2000).

One of threats to the conclusion errors is *violating the assumptions of the statistical tests*. The assumptions of the ANOVAs and linear regressions are found satisfactory based on our

results found in Ch. 6. Thus, the conclusion validity may not face a big threat of violating the assumptions of the statistical tests. A second threat is low *statistical power*. Our sample size (N) in our experiment is only 117 respondents, which could give lower statistical power, and less significant results. Further, the Norwegian sample (62 responses) was larger than the American sample (55 responses), and therefore the ability to infer significant relationships is lower for the US. The difference between the two countries, however, is minimal (15% more Norwegians) and the conclusion validity should not be affected considerably.

Even though we consider some threats to conclusion validity, our conclusions are reasonable and drawn from existing theory. Generally, the conclusion validity of our research can be considered satisfactory.

## *Systematic Errors*

Systematic errors, also known as biases, can often occur because of a flaw in the experiment or in the design of the experiment (Keller, 2014). Bias and equivalence are key concepts in the methodology of cross-cultural studies. Bias is a generic term for any challenge of the comparability of cross-cultural data; bias leads to invalid conclusions (He and van de Vijer, 2012). It is important to address potential systematic errors because they reduce the validity of our study (Schoenbach et al., 2004). He and van de Vijer (2012) state that there are especially three different biases that are relevant in cross-cultural studies: construct bias, method bias and item bias.

When there is a partial overlap in definition of the construct across cultures this may cause *construct bias*, meaning that the construct measured is not identical across cultures and not all relevant behaviours are associated with the construct are present and properly sampled in each culture (van de Vijver and Poortinga, 1997). For instance the item: "I think BLUE is successful in what they do" can be perceived differently based on cultural background. According to Smith (2014) are Americans defining success as "the fact of getting or achieving wealth, respect, or fame". The definition of success in Norway may be not so dinstinct and clear as the American as it focus more on "how to reach the success rather than the goal of the success itself" (Granlund, 2014; Raaholt, 2009). In cases like this, assessing the meaning of success requires multiple aspects of success to be taken into consideration.

*Method bias* is a generic term for problematic factors that derive from the sampling, structural features of the instrument, or administration processes. It could for instance appear sample bias results because of differences of samples due to cross-cultural variation in sample characteristics. This could for instance be education level or in affiliation to religious groups (He and van de Vijer, 2012). Even though we isolated our cross-cultural study to business students and therefore assuming that this represents two identical samples we noticed some age differences across the nationalities. In the US where the age of the respondents much higher compared to Norwegians, this is due to the fact that master students in the US are enrolled in their master studies later than Norwegians: the average age of a graduate student in the US is 33 years while 28 years in Norway (Grad School Hub, 2015; Klevstrand, 2011). This introduces a method biases in the sampling process. We tried to diminish this method bias by controlling for age as a covariate in analyses where we found that this was a predictor variable. Another method bias in our study we are aware of is that the American students had the opportunity to win a gift card for participating in the study, whereas the Norwegians did not receive any kind of incentives. This created a bias in our study because the students did not have the same starting situation when they are answering the survey.

We also are aware of another method bias that could have arisen: *an acquiescence response bias* can occur when simple agree/ disagree construct are used, (Schriesheim & Hill, 1981). People that answer surveys like to be seen as agreeable, and they often tend to agree when given the choice, regardless of the actual content of the question. This may influence our results and create over claiming and thus more positive scores than actually the respondent have and the cultural background can affect how agreeable respondents are (He & van de Vijer, 2012). This is something to be aware of when reading our results.

Lastly, *item bias* may provide potential systematic error to our conclusion. An item is biased when it has a different psychological meaning across cultures. Since our survey is given in English for both Norwegians and Americans the likelihood of item bias should be very low.

## 8.2 Future Research

Previous research into CSR communication has mainly focused on the positive effects on corporate attractiveness in a consumer and employer-branding context. Research has not been focused on the culture of the respondents and how this aspect influences the positive effect CSR communication has on corporate attractiveness. Thus, there is a major unexplored aspect that should be studied to be able to fully understand the effect of CSR communication on corporate attractiveness.

In our study, we investigated this through having two treatment groups exposed to CSR communication messages differing in their degree of assertiveness, a treatment related to the cultural dimension of masculinity, and testing both American and Norwegian samples. We found very interesting results with significant differences in perception of corporate attractiveness within our treatment and nationality groups. Our claim is therefore that future research should focus on the effects found in our study and investigate fully the extent of cultural moderation on the effect of CSR communication on corporate attractiveness.

Further, all dimensions of culture should be considered as a topic of study within this scope, not just masculinity. We have only examined one potential cultural dimension that may explain why there are differences in the perception of CSR messages across cultures. Future studies should consider if there are other relevant dimensions that may explain the perception differences between Norway and the US better.

As for the message characteristics, our results clearly indicate that how assertive or modest the communicated CSR message is affects the perceived corporate attractiveness, but is dependent on culture. It would be interesting if future research looked more thorough on the effect of this and other possible message characteristics and the effect in various cultures. In addition, the results of our study show significant, but rather small differences between the two nationalities, so stronger manipulation treatments could be warranted. We are therefore suggesting that future studies should make the assertive communication even more forceful, while the modest communication message should be even more neutral. In our study, we were only able to manipulate using text, but it would be interesting to see if the results were clarified with more realistic CSR communication messages such as commercials or visual advertisements.

A final aspect not investigated in this study is how CSR communications can cause inferences about financial performance. We believe that financial performance could be a contributing factor to our results, and this should be investigated in future research.

Lastly, our study has some clear limitations in terms of generalizability. Our samples were quite small and very homogeneous, being only business students. To truly conclude that culture moderates the effect of CSR communication on corporate attractiveness, not just for potential employees in business, but also for a broader audience, a larger scale study preferably with a more representative sample from different cultures is called for.

# 9. Conclusion

Our study is an attempt to further previous research into the effect of CSR communication by companies on corporate attractiveness, by investigating the how western cultures perceive CSR communication differently. By having both Norwegian and US respondents in our study, we were able to test this yet unexplored dimension. The results from our study indicate that the masculinity dimension of culture significantly affects perceptions of CSR communication and the indirect effect on corporate attractiveness. Norwegians who are traditionally of feminine cultural orientation felt more they would have more pride, greater value-fit and expected to be treated better by the company when proposed with modest formulations in a company's CSR communication. This also resulted in generally higher corporate attractiveness. Americans who are masculine of orientation showed the exact opposite preference, thinking they would have more pride, greater value-fit, be treated better, and perceived higher general corporate attractiveness when proposed with assertive CSR communication.

Our study further investigated how perceived strategic intent could mediate the effect of CSR communication on corporate attractiveness. This was proposed as an explanatory factor as to why Scandinavians of feminine orientation are generally more sceptical to CSR communication than masculine people from the US. Our results show that this proposition was partly correct in that Norwegian respondents did sense more self-centred motive for both assertive and modest CSR communication, however this did not affect corporate attractiveness negatively.

Overall, the findings of our study contribute to better understanding of how culture influences effects of CSR communication on corporate attractiveness. They indicate that companies need to consider the cultural affiliation of their target audience in designing CSR communication.

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# Appendix

## Appendix 2.1 CSR research overview on CSR Communication

| Research Theme | Brief Description | Literature |
|---|---|---|
| CSR and financial performance | How CSR affects financial performance of a firm positively | Preston and O'Bannon, (1997); McGuire et al., (1988); Ruf et al., (2001); Sen & Bhattachrya, (2002) |
| CSR and stakeholders evaluations | How CSR affect the attitudes and evaluations of several stakeholder groups incl. future/current employees, and consumers. | Lawrence, (2002); Windsor, (2002); Lingaard (2006); Sen & Bhattacharya, (2000) |
| CSR communication in crisis | How CSR communication positively affect consumers reaction to company crisis | Joëlle & Grobben, (2009) |
| CSR communication on attitudes | How CSR communication in form of CRM can affect consumer attitudes positively | Nan & Heo (2007); Groza et al. (2001); Walker, (2011); Xiaoli & Kwangjuns, (2007) |
| CSR communication and perceived ethicality | There is a connection between perceived ethicality and company affect, loyalty, credibility, equity and reputation | Singh et al., (2012); Lii and Lee, (2012) |
| CSR ratings and employee attractiveness | There is a link between published CSR ratings and job seekers ratings of company attractiveness | Turban & Greening, (1997); Backhaus et al., (2002) |
| CSR communication reluctance | Why companies are reluctant to communicate CSR due to increased scrutiny and negative consumer attitudes. | Brown & Dacin, (1997); Morsing et al., (2008); Pomering & Dolnica, (2009); Morsing and Schultz, (2006) |
| Motives behind CSR communication | How consumers perceive motives behind CSR communication, effect on trustworthiness and attitude | Ellen et al., (2006); Bert van de Ven, 2008; Morsing et al., (2008) |
| Cultural differences in CSR communication | Differences between companies communication of CSR and motives based on different culture | Hartman et al., (2007); Maigang & Ralston, (2002); Morsing and Shultz, (2006) |
| Culture and ethical decision making | How cultural differences create different perceptions about ethical decisions and expectations | Rawwas,( 2001); Rawwas et al., (2005); Babakus et al., (1994) |

# Appendix 4.1a Introduction Letter

*A hypothetical company, a bank called BLUE, is looking to open in Norway/USA and want to know how you evaluate their profile. The bank has employment opportunities in every field from finance to operations, sales and marketing/pr.*

*Please read the enclosed information thoroughly and answer all the questions.*

*The company:*

*BLUE bank is a large and financially stable international bank, headquartered in London- UK. BLUE is expanding worldwide and is looking toward the Norwegian/US market for new opportunities. As of today, BLUE employs 20000 people worldwide across dispersed subsidiaries.*

# Appendix 4.1b Assertive Communication

**This is the information BLUE presents on their own website concerning their sustainability approach:**

Our sustainability program is without a doubt the best in the banking industry. As part of our environmental profile we will soon only use solar or renewable energy as a power source for our main operations as the first bank worldwide.
BLUE is also the main sponsor of local sporting teams in all our markets and we make more donations per employee to cancer research than any other bank in the world!

Join BLUE, we are the best in class on social responsibility!

# Appendix 4.1c Modest Communication

**This is the information BLUE presents on their own website concerning their sustainability approach:**

We have created a sustainability program that has great potential and that we are proud of. We try to make our impact on the planet minimal through a working goal of using solar power for our main operations.
To contribute where we can, BLUE is a sponsor of several local sporting teams in our markets, and a part of our proceeds every year go towards aiding the fight against cancer.

Join BLUE, we focus on social responsibility!

# Appendix 4.2 Full Survey

**Introduction Page**

General information about the survey:

This survey was created at the Norwegian School of Economics. Focus of the research is characteristics that make a company attractive as an employer.

The survey should take approximately 5-6 minutes. Thank you!

To get course credit and/ or enter a drawing for a $25 gift card, please enter your name below. The survey is still anonymous as only your name will be sent to your professor, not the answers.

## Survey Items

*Asked on a Likert Scale from 1 (Strongly Agree) to 7 (Strongly Disagree)*

General Attractiveness – Adapted from Highouse et al., (2003); Vroom, (1966)

1. For me, this company would be a good place to work
2. I would not be interested in this company except as a last resort
3. This company is attractive to me as a place for employment
4. I am interested in learning more about this company
5. A job at this company is very appealing to me
6. If this company invited me for a job interview, I would go

Anticipated Pride – Adapted from Turban & Greening, (1997); Cable and Turban, (2003); Jones et al., (2014)

7. I would be proud to work for BLUE
8. I would be proud to tell others that I work for BLUE
9. I would be proud to personally identify with BLUE

Value Fit – Adapted from Jones et al., (2014); Cable and DeRue, (2002)

10. BLUE´s values and culture is a good fit with the things that I value in life
11. My personal values match BLUE´s values and culture
12. The things that I value in life are very similar to the things BLUE values

Expected Treatment – Adapted from Ambrose & Schminke, (2009) and Aguilera et al., (2007) via Jones et al, (2014)

13. BLUE probably treats their employees well
14. I think BLUE probably treats their employees well

15. I think BLUE probably treats their employees fairly
16. BLUE probably treats their employees with respect


Strategic motive – Adapted from Ellen et al., (2006)

17. BLUE cares about the causes and want to help
18. BLUE has a long-term interest in the community
19. BLUE´s employee´s cares about theses causes
20. BLUE is trying to affect what people think of them
21. BLUE will get more customers/ sales from CSR
22. BLUE feels their customers expect them to do CSR


Horizontal/ Vertical – Adapted from Triandis, (1995); Triandis & Gelfand, (1998)

23. I´d rather depend on myself than others
24. I rely on myself most of the time; I rarely rely on others
25. Winning is everything
26. It is important that I do my job better than others


*Asked on a Likert Scale from 1 (Utmost Important) to 5 (Not Important)*


Masculinity/ Femininity – Adapted from Hofstede, (1984); Hofstede et al., (1998)

27. Have considerable freedom to adopt your own approach to the job
28. Have an opportunity for advancement to higher level jobs
29. Have training opportunities (to improve your skills or learn new skills)
30. Have good fringe benefits (material advantages other than cash salary)


**Demographics:**

31. What is your age?
32. What is your current degree?
33. Gender
34. What is your nationality?

# Appendix 5.1 Descriptive Statistics: Gender Distribution

*Percentage is given on the basis of the total sample*

| | Norwegian (n = 62) | | American (n = 55) | | Overall (n = 117) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Male | 30 | 25.6% | 34 | 29.1% | 64 | 54.7% |
| Female | 32 | 27.4% | 21 | 17.9% | 53 | 45.3% |
| | | | | | | |
| Male Representation | 30/62 | 48.4% | 34/55 | 61.8% | 64/117 | 54.7% |
| Female Representation | 32/62 | 51.6% | 21/55 | 38.2% | 53/117 | 45.3% |

# Appendix 5.2 Descriptive Statistics: Treatment Distribution

*Percentage is given on the basis of the total sample.*

| | Norwegian (n = 62) | | American (n = 55) | | Overall (n = 117) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Assertive Treatment | 30 | 25.6% | 29 | 24.8% | 59 | 50.4% |
| Modest Treatment | 32 | 27.4% | 26 | 22.2% | 58 | 49.6% |

# Appendix 5.3 Descriptive Statistics: Age Distribution

*Percentage is given on the basis of the total sample*

| | Norwegian (n = 62) | | American (n = 55) | | Overall (N = 117) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Age (Mean) | 24.73 | | 26.34 | | 25.48 | |
| | | | | | | |
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Age: 18 - 21 | 5 | 4.3% | 6 | 5.1% | 11 | 9.4% |
| Age: 22 - 25 | 34 | 29.1% | 23 | 19.7% | 57 | 48.8% |
| Age: 26 – 29 | 22 | 18.8% | 7 | 6% | 29 | 24.8% |
| Age: 29 < | 1 | 0.9% | 19 | 16.2% | 20 | 17.1% |

## Appendix 5.4 Descriptive Statistics: Education Distribution

*Percentage is given on the basis of the total sample*

| | Norwegian (n = 62) | | American (n = 55) | | Overall (n = 117) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Bachelor Degree | 20 | 17.1% | 20 | 17.1% | 40 | 34.2% |
| Master Degree | 41 | 35.0% | 35 | 29.9% | 76 | 64.9% |
| Other | 1 | 0.9% | 0 | 0% | 1 | 0.9% |

# Appendix 5.5 Results from the CFA

*Appendix 5.5a Confirmatory factor analysis*
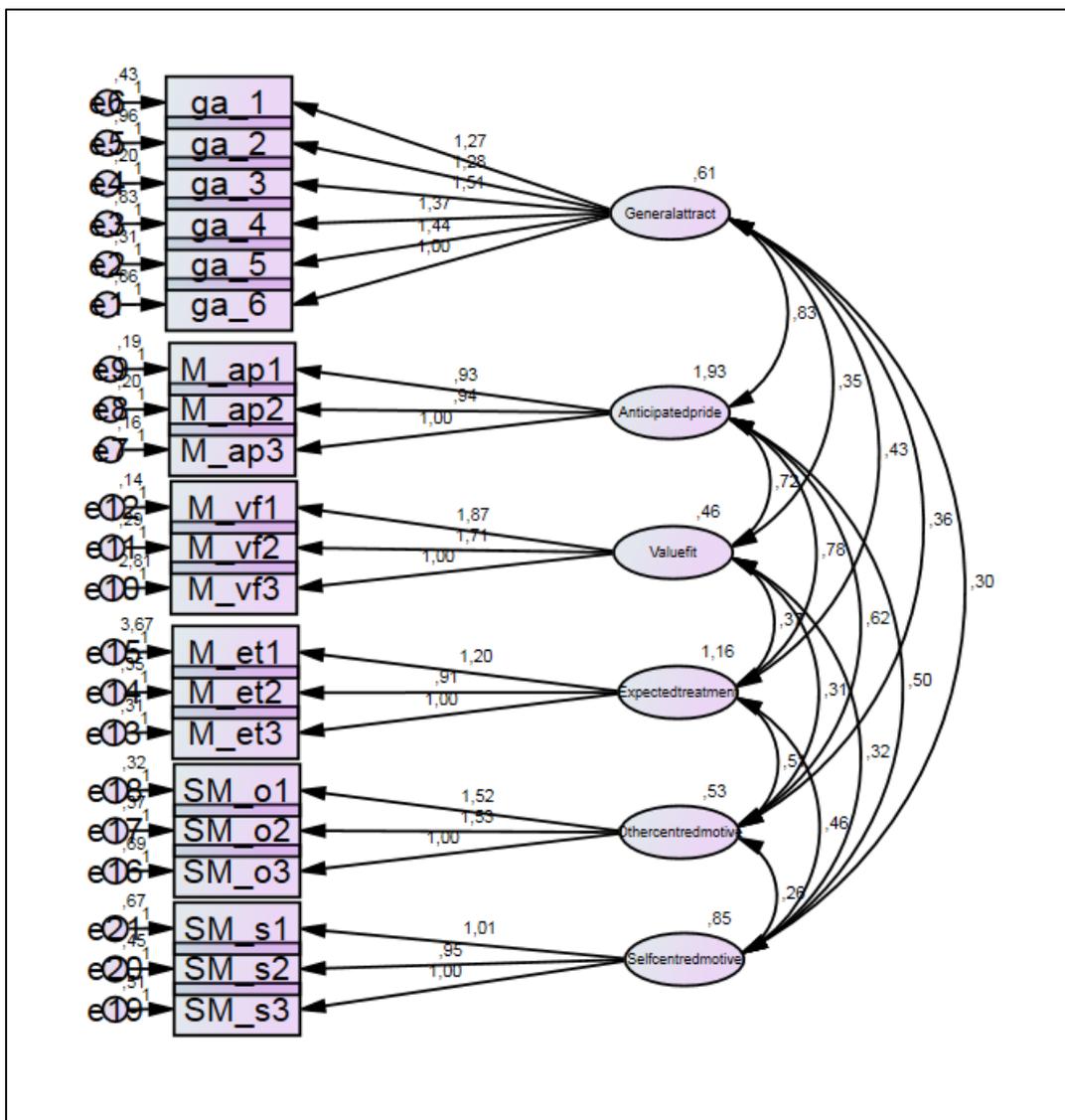
*Appendix 5.5b Standarized Regression Weights*

**Standardized Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)**

|  |  |  | Estimate |
|---|---|---|---|
| ga_6 | <--- | Generalattract | ,644 |
| ga_5 | <--- | Generalattract | ,896 |
| ga_4 | <--- | Generalattract | ,763 |
| ga_3 | <--- | Generalattract | ,935 |
| ga_2 | <--- | Generalattract | ,714 |
| ga_1 | <--- | Generalattract | ,835 |
| M_ap3 | <--- | Anticipatedpride | ,960 |
| M_ap2 | <--- | Anticipatedpride | ,947 |
| M_ap1 | <--- | Anticipatedpride | ,948 |
| M_vf3 | <--- | Valuefit | ,375 |
| M_vf2 | <--- | Valuefit | ,907 |
| M_vf1 | <--- | Valuefit | ,960 |
| M_et3 | <--- | Expectedtreatment | ,887 |
| M_et2 | <--- | Expectedtreatment | ,855 |
| M_et1 | <--- | Expectedtreatment | ,558 |
| SM_o3 | <--- | Othercentredmotive | ,659 |
| SM_o2 | <--- | Othercentredmotive | ,878 |
| SM_o1 | <--- | Othercentredmotive | ,891 |
| SM_s3 | <--- | Selfcentredmotive | ,791 |
| SM_s2 | <--- | Selfcentredmotive | ,791 |
| SM_s1 | <--- | Selfcentredmotive | ,753 |

*Appendix 5.5c Values of RMSEA*

**RMSEA**

| Model | RMSEA | LO 90 | HI 90 | PCLOSE |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Default model | ,080 | ,065 | ,095 | ,001 |
| Independence model | ,282 | ,272 | ,293 | ,000 |

*Appendix 5.5d Model Fit Summary*

**Model Fit Summary**

**CMIN**

| Model | NPAR | CMIN | DF | P | CMIN/DF |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Default model | 57 | 304,278 | 174 | ,000 | 1,749 |
| Saturated model | 231 | ,000 | 0 | | |
| Independence model | 21 | 2153,431 | 210 | ,000 | 10,254 |

**RMR, GFI**

| Model | RMR | GFI | AGFI | PGFI |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Default model | ,135 | ,813 | ,751 | ,612 |
| Saturated model | ,000 | 1,000 | | |
| Independence model | ,763 | ,193 | ,112 | ,175 |

**Baseline Comparisons**

| Model | NFI Delta1 | RFI rho1 | IFI Delta2 | TLI rho2 | CFI |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Default model | ,859 | ,829 | ,934 | ,919 | ,933 |
| Saturated model | 1,000 | | 1,000 | | 1,000 |
| Independence model | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 |

**Parsimony-Adjusted Measures**

| Model | PRATIO | PNFI | PCFI |
|---|---|---|---|
| Default model | ,829 | ,711 | ,773 |
| Saturated model | ,000 | ,000 | ,000 |
| Independence model | 1,000 | ,000 | ,000 |

# Notification:

When reading results in the following appendixes, keep in mind that 1 = strongly agree and 7 = strongly disagree, therefore lower scores show high agreement, whilst high scores show low agreement. The orientation of the scale was converted in the text for reader friendliness, however these are the outputs from SPSS, and will therefore show opposite scoring.

# Appendix 5.6 Output of the Regression

*Appendix 5.6a Descriptive Statistics of the Model*

| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | Skewness | | Kurtosis | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic | Std. Error |
| Tot_ga | 117 | 1.00 | 7.00 | 2.9316 | 1.07971 | .876 | .224 | 1.629 | .444 |
| Tot_Map | 117 | 1.00 | 7.00 | 2.9145 | 1.35765 | .916 | .224 | .699 | .444 |
| Tot_Mvf | 117 | 1.00 | 7.00 | 3.1368 | 1.19878 | .196 | .224 | -.008 | .444 |
| Tot_Met | 116 | 1.00 | 5.33 | 3.5776 | 1.31976 | -.468 | .225 | -1.201 | .446 |
| Tot_SMo | 118 | 1.00 | 7.00 | 2.9294 | 1.05306 | .729 | .223 | 1.022 | .442 |
| Tot_SMs | 117 | 1.00 | 5.67 | 2.5613 | 1.00635 | .596 | .224 | -.198 | .444 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 114 | | | | | | | | |

Descriptive Statistics

*Appendix 5.6b Histogram*



87
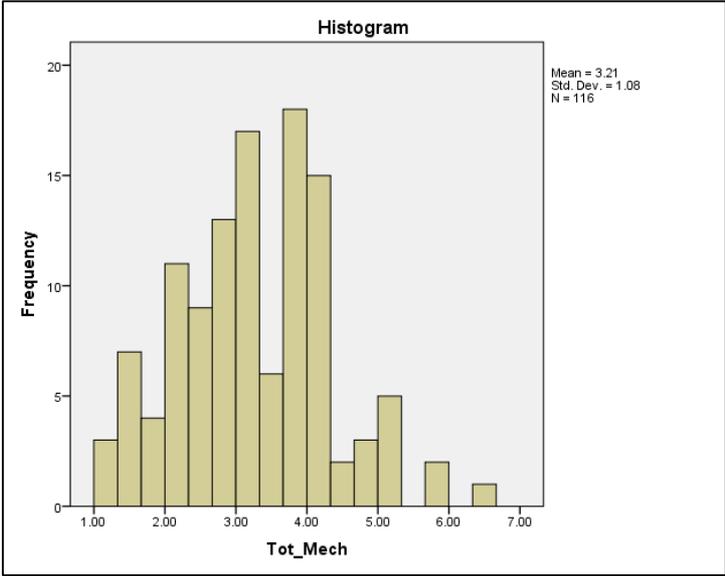
*Appendix 5.6c Statistics of the Model*

| Statistics | | |
|---|---|---|
| Tot_Mech | | |
| N | Valid | 116 |
| | Missing | 2 |
| Mean | | 3.2069 |
| Median | | 3.1111 |
| Std. Deviation | | 1.08034 |
| Skewness | | .198 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | | .225 |
| Kurtosis | | -.030 |
| Std. Error of Kurtosis | | .446 |
| Minimum | | 1.00 |
| Maximum | | 6.33 |

**Regression to check normal distribution, heteroscedasticity and multicolliniarity:**

*Appendix 5.6d Model Summary*

| Model Summary[b] | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Nationality | Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate | Durbin-Watson |
| Norwegian | 1 | .876[a] | .767 | .745 | .61297 | 2.101 |
| American | 1 | .618[c] | .382 | .317 | .74542 | 2.007 |
| a. Predictors: (Constant), Tot_SMs, Tot_SMo, Tot_Met, Tot_Mvf, Tot_Map | | | | | | |
| b. Dependent Variable: Tot_ga | | | | | | |
| c. Predictors: (Constant), Tot_SMs, Tot_Mvf, Tot_Met, Tot_Map, Tot_SMo | | | | | | |

*Appendix 5.6e One-way ANOVA*

| ANOVA[a] | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Nationality | Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
| Norwegian | 1 | Regression | 67.858 | 5 | 13.572 | 36.120 | .000[b] |
| | | Residual | 20.665 | 55 | .376 | | |
| | | Total | 88.524 | 60 | | | |
| American | 1 | Regression | 16.174 | 5 | 3.235 | 5.822 | .000[c] |
| | | Residual | 26.115 | 47 | .556 | | |
| | | Total | 42.290 | 52 | | | |
| a. Dependent Variable: Tot_ga | | | | | | | |
| b. Predictors: (Constant), Tot_SMs, Tot_SMo, Tot_Met, Tot_Mvf, Tot_Map | | | | | | | |
| c. Predictors: (Constant), Tot_SMs, Tot_Mvf, Tot_Met, Tot_Map, Tot_SMo | | | | | | | |

*Appendix 5.6f Coefficients*

| Coefficients[a] | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Nationality | Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. |
| | | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | |
| Norwegian | 1 | (Constant) | .053 | .307 | | .174 | .863 |
| | | Tot_Map | .442 | .097 | .531 | 4.564 | .000 |
| | | Tot_Mvf | .156 | .094 | .164 | 1.647 | .105 |
| | | Tot_Met | -.137 | .092 | -.145 | -1.501 | .139 |
| | | Tot_SMo | .374 | .101 | .340 | 3.698 | .001 |
| | | Tot_SMs | .175 | .098 | .131 | 1.787 | .079 |
| American | 1 | (Constant) | 1.399 | .400 | | 3.500 | .001 |
| | | Tot_Map | .292 | .103 | .403 | 2.835 | .007 |
| | | Tot_Mvf | .070 | .121 | .085 | .576 | .568 |
| | | Tot_Met | -.103 | .089 | -.155 | -1.158 | .253 |
| | | Tot_SMo | .155 | .133 | .173 | 1.165 | .250 |
| | | Tot_SMs | .171 | .114 | .206 | 1.501 | .140 |
| a. Dependent Variable: Tot_ga | | | | | | | |

*Appendix 5.6g Residual Statistics*

| Residuals Statistics[a] | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Nationality | | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
| Norwegian | Predicted Value | 1.0878 | 5.5756 | 2.8689 | 1.07393 | 61 |
| | Residual | -.87396 | 1.80899 | .01908 | .58883 | 61 |
| | Std. Predicted Value | -1.669 | 2.551 | .006 | 1.010 | 61 |
| | Std. Residual | -1.426 | 2.951 | .031 | .961 | 61 |
| American | Predicted Value | 1.9523 | 4.5531 | 3.0010 | .55740 | 54 |
| | Residual | -1.59357 | 2.32402 | -.00482 | .71585 | 53 |
| | Std. Predicted Value | -1.901 | 2.763 | -.020 | .999 | 54 |
| | Std. Residual | -2.138 | 3.118 | -.006 | .960 | 53 |
| a. Dependent Variable: Tot_ga | | | | | | |

*5.6 h) Plots General Attractiveness - Norwegian*
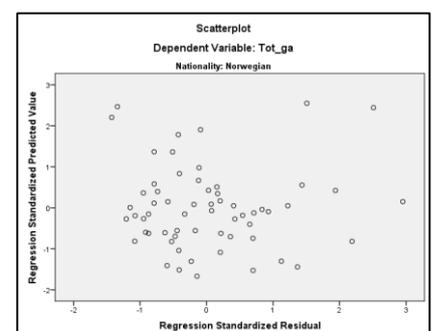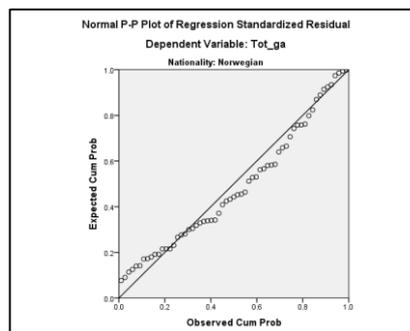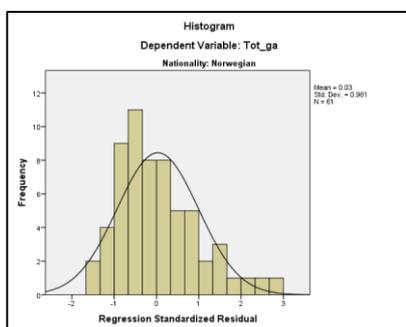
*5.6 i) Plots General Attractiveness - American*
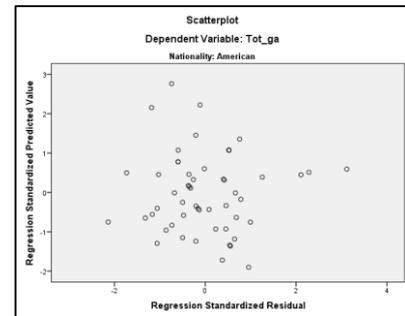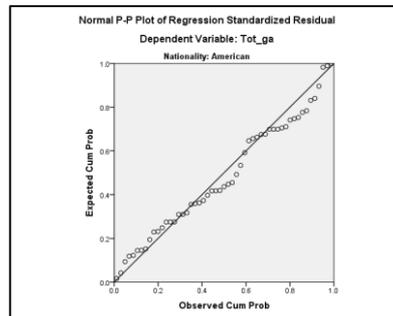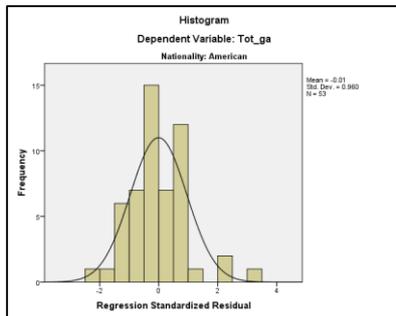


# Appendix 5.7 Masculinity with covariates age + education

*Appendix 5.7a Between-Subjects Factors - Masculinity*

**Between-Subjects Factors**

| | | Value Label | N |
|---|---|---|---|
| Nationality | 10 | Norwegian | 62 |
| | 20 | American | 55 |

*Appendix 5.7b Descriptive Statistics - Masculinity*

**Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable: Tot_MFM

| Nationality | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|
| Norwegian | 2.2903 | .65002 | 62 |
| American | 1.8182 | .53023 | 55 |
| Total | 2.0684 | .63959 | 117 |

*Appendix 5.7c Tests of Between-Subjects Effects - Masculinity*

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable:   Tot_MFM

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corrected Model | 6.626a | 3 | 2.209 | 6.113 | .001 | .140 |
| Intercept | 33.203 | 1 | 33.203 | 91.897 | .000 | .449 |
| Age | .035 | 1 | .035 | .097 | .756 | .001 |
| Edu | .125 | 1 | .125 | .347 | .557 | .003 |
| Nation | 6.355 | 1 | 6.355 | 17.590 | .000 | .135 |
| Error | 40.827 | 113 | .361 | | | |
| Total | 548.000 | 117 | | | | |
| Corrected Total | 47.453 | 116 | | | | |

a. R Squared = .140 (Adjusted R Squared = .117)

*Appendix 5.7d Nationality - Masculinity*

**Nationality**

Dependent Variable:   Tot_MFM

| Nationality | Mean | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| Norwegian | 2.296a | .078 | 2.142 | 2.450 |
| American | 1.811a | .083 | 1.648 | 1.975 |

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values:

Age = 2.50, Education = 1.67.

*Appendix 5.7e Estimated Marginal Means of Masculinity*
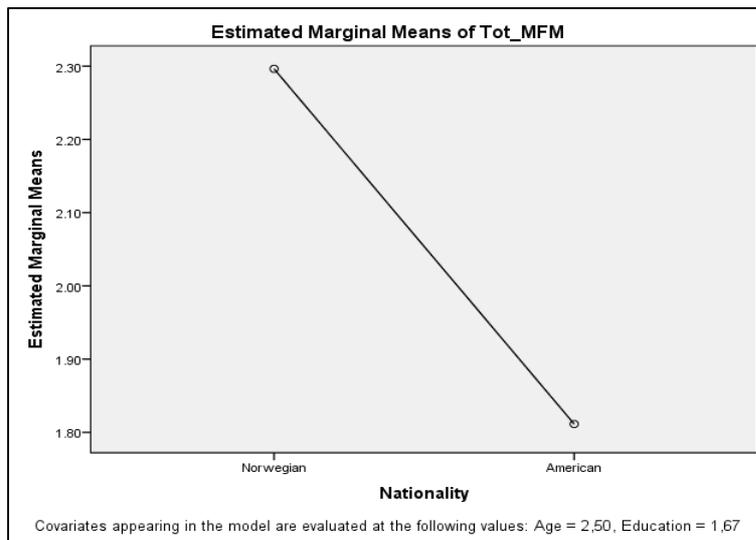
# Appendix 5.8 Femininity with covariates

*Appendix 5.8a Between-Subjects Factors - Femininity*

**Between-Subjects Factors**

|  |  | Value Label | N |
|---|---|---|---|
| Nationality | 10 | Norwegian | 62 |
|  | 20 | American | 55 |

*Appendix 5.8b Descriptive Statistics - Femininity*

**Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable: Tot_MFF

| Nationality | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|
| Norwegian | 2.0242 | .52345 | 62 |
| American | 2.0727 | .45560 | 55 |
| Total | 2.0470 | .49123 | 117 |

*Appendix 5.8c Tests of Between-Subjects Effects - Femininity*

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: Tot_MFF

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corrected Model | 2.866[a] | 7 | .409 | 1.776 | .099 |
| Intercept | 8.690 | 1 | 8.690 | 37.700 | .000 |
| Age | .975 | 1 | .975 | 4.232 | .042 |
| Edu | .100 | 1 | .100 | .433 | .512 |
| Gender | .335 | 1 | .335 | 1.451 | .231 |
| Tot_HVH | .079 | 1 | .079 | .342 | .560 |
| Tot_HVV | .189 | 1 | .189 | .821 | .367 |
| Tot_MFM | .910 | 1 | .910 | 3.948 | .049 |
| Nation | .624 | 1 | .624 | 2.705 | .103 |
| Error | 25.126 | 109 | .231 |  |  |
| Total | 518.250 | 117 |  |  |  |
| Corrected Total | 27.991 | 116 |  |  |  |

a. R Squared = .102 (Adjusted R Squared = .045)

*Appendix 5.8d Nationality - Femininity*

**Nationality**

Dependent Variable:   Tot_MFF

| Nationality | Mean | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| Norwegian | 1.969a | .065 | 1.839 | 2.098 |
| American | 2.135a | .070 | 1.997 | 2.274 |

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values:

Gender = 1.45, Age = 2.50, Tot_MFM = 2.0684, Tot_HVH = 2.8376,

Tot_HVV = 3.6496, Education = 1.67.

*Appendix 5.8e Estimated ME*



Estimated Marginal Means of Tot_MFF

Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Age = 2,50, Education = 1,67, Gender = 1,45, Tot_HVH = 2,8376, Tot_HVV = 3,6496, Tot_MFM = 2,0684
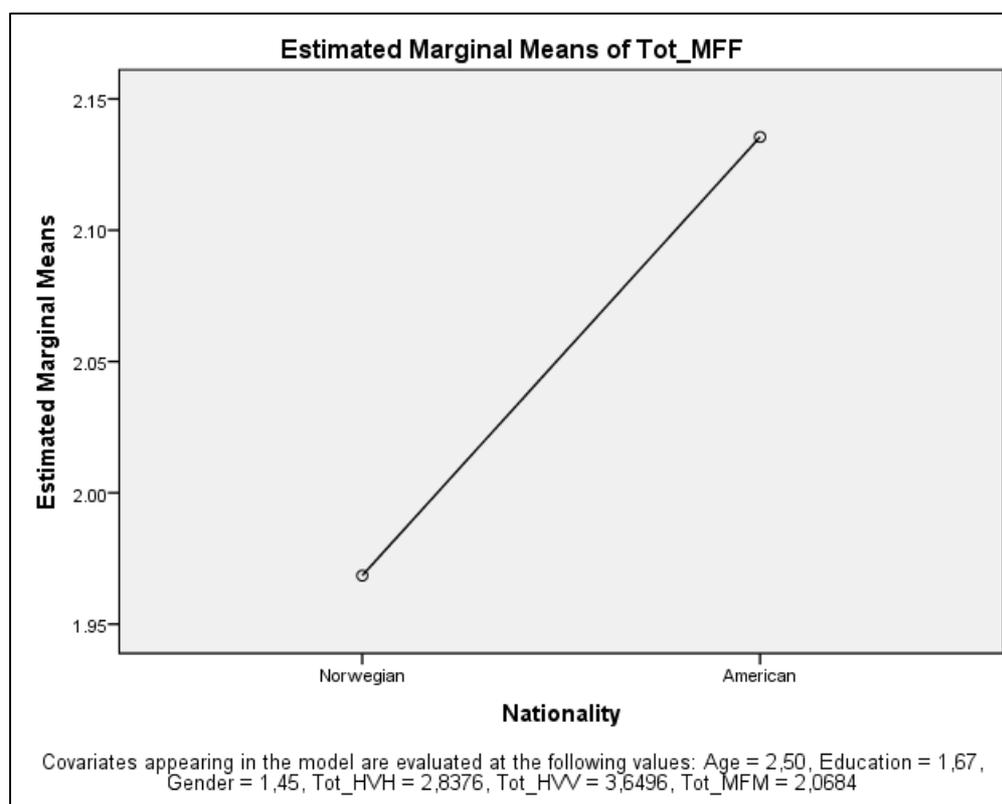
# Appendix 6.1 Output of General Attractiveness

*Appendix 6.1a Between-Subjects Factors – General Attractiveness*

**Between-Subjects Factors**

| | | Value Label | N |
|---|---|---|---|
| Nationality | 10 | Norwegian | 62 |
| | 20 | American | 54 |
| Treatment received | 1.00 | Assertive | 59 |
| | 2.00 | Modest | 57 |

*Appendix 6.1b Descriptive Statistics – General Attractiveness*

**Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable:   Total General Attractiveness

| Nationality | Treatment received | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Norwegian | Assertive | 3.2056 | 1.43751 | 30 |
| | Modest | 2.5573 | .89363 | 32 |
| | Total | 2.8710 | 1.22267 | 62 |
| American | Assertive | 2.9023 | .74338 | 29 |
| | Modest | 3.1400 | 1.05813 | 25 |
| | Total | 3.0123 | .90181 | 54 |
| Total | Assertive | 3.0565 | 1.15038 | 59 |
| | Modest | 2.8129 | 1.00350 | 57 |
| | Total | 2.9368 | 1.08295 | 116 |

*Appendix 6.1c Tests of Between-Subjects Effects – General Attractiveness*

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable:   Total General Attractiveness

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corrected Model | 10.647[a] | 5 | 2.129 | 1.886 | .103 | .079 |
| Intercept | 62.365 | 1 | 62.365 | 55.224 | .000 | .334 |
| Age | 2.287 | 1 | 2.287 | 2.025 | .158 | .018 |
| Edu | 1.487 | 1 | 1.487 | 1.317 | .254 | .012 |
| Nation | .087 | 1 | .087 | .077 | .782 | .001 |
| Treat | 1.336 | 1 | 1.336 | 1.183 | .279 | .011 |
| Nation * Treat | 6.173 | 1 | 6.173 | 5.466 | .021 | .047 |
| Error | 124.223 | 110 | 1.129 | | | |
| Total | 1135.333 | 116 | | | | |
| Corrected Total | 134.870 | 115 | | | | |

a. R Squared = .079 (Adjusted R Squared = .037)

# Appendix 6.2 Anticipated Pride

*Appendix 6.2a Between-Subjects Factors – Anticipated Pride*

**Between-Subjects Factors**

| | | Value Label | N |
|---|---|---|---|
| Nationality | 10 | Norwegian | 62 |
| | 20 | American | 55 |
| Treatment received | 1.00 | Assertive | 59 |
| | 2.00 | Modest | 58 |

*Appendix 6.2b Descriptive Statistics – Anticipated Pride*

**Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable:   Total Anticipated Pride

| Nationality | Treatment received | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Norwegian | Assertive | 3.2778 | 1.57831 | 30 |
| | Modest | 2.5833 | 1.27282 | 32 |
| | Total | 2.9194 | 1.45945 | 62 |
| American | Assertive | 2.6322 | 1.07032 | 29 |
| | Modest | 3.2179 | 1.37256 | 26 |
| | Total | 2.9091 | 1.24632 | 55 |
| Total | Assertive | 2.9605 | 1.38005 | 59 |
| | Modest | 2.8678 | 1.34489 | 58 |
| | Total | 2.9145 | 1.35765 | 117 |

*Appendix 6.2c Tests of Between-Subjects Effects – Anticipated Pride*

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable:   Total Anticipated Pride

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corrected Model | 15.016[a] | 4 | 3.754 | 2.115 | .084 | .070 |
| Intercept | 74.946 | 1 | 74.946 | 42.224 | .000 | .274 |
| Age | 2.842 | 1 | 2.842 | 1.601 | .208 | .014 |
| Nation | .174 | 1 | .174 | .098 | .755 | .001 |
| Treat | .149 | 1 | .149 | .084 | .773 | .001 |
| Nation * Treat | 11.791 | 1 | 11.791 | 6.643 | .011 | .056 |
| Error | 198.796 | 112 | 1.775 | | | |
| Total | 1207.667 | 117 | | | | |
| Corrected Total | 213.812 | 116 | | | | |

a. R Squared = .070 (Adjusted R Squared = .037)

# Appendix 6.3 Value Fit

Appendix 6.3a Between-Subjects Factors – Value Fit

**Between-Subjects Factors**

|  |  | Value Label | N |
|---|---|---|---|
| Nationality | 10 | Norwegian | 62 |
|  | 20 | American | 55 |
| Treatment received | 1.00 | Assertive | 59 |
|  | 2.00 | Modest | 58 |

*Appendix 6.3b Descriptive Statistics – Value-fit*

**Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable:   Tot_Mvf2

| Nationality | Treatment received | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Norwegian | Assertive | 3.2833 | 1.56295 | 30 |
|  | Modest | 2.3594 | .98566 | 32 |
|  | Total | 2.8065 | 1.36812 | 62 |
| American | Assertive | 2.7759 | 1.13850 | 29 |
|  | Modest | 3.1538 | 1.12933 | 26 |
|  | Total | 2.9545 | 1.13966 | 55 |
| Total | Assertive | 3.0339 | 1.38298 | 59 |
|  | Modest | 2.7155 | 1.11651 | 58 |
|  | Total | 2.8761 | 1.26270 | 117 |

*Appendix 6.3c Tests of Between-Subjects Effects - Value-fit*

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable:   Tot_Mvf2

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corrected Model | 17.617[a] | 4 | 4.404 | 2.948 | .023 | .095 |
| Intercept | 78.518 | 1 | 78.518 | 52.553 | .000 | .319 |
| Age | 1.801 | 1 | 1.801 | 1.205 | .275 | .011 |
| Nation | .198 | 1 | .198 | .132 | .717 | .001 |
| Treat | 2.385 | 1 | 2.385 | 1.596 | .209 | .014 |
| Nation * Treat | 12.223 | 1 | 12.223 | 8.181 | .005 | .068 |
| Error | 167.336 | 112 | 1.494 | | | |
| Total | 1152.750 | 117 | | | | |
| Corrected Total | 184.953 | 116 | | | | |

a. R Squared = .095 (Adjusted R Squared = .063)

# Appendix 6.4 Expected Treatment

*Appendix 6.4a Between-Subjects Factors – Expected Treatment*

**Between-Subjects Factors**

| | | Value Label | N |
|---|---|---|---|
| Nationality | 10 | Norwegian | 62 |
| | 20 | American | 55 |
| Treatment received | 1.00 | Assertive | 59 |
| | 2.00 | Modest | 58 |

*Appendix 6.4b Descriptive Statistics – Expected Treatment*

**Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable:   Tot_Met2

| Nationality | Treatment received | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Norwegian | Assertive | 3.3000 | 1.09545 | 30 |
| | Modest | 2.7031 | .86937 | 32 |
| | Total | 2.9919 | 1.02226 | 62 |
| American | Assertive | 3.0862 | 1.31658 | 29 |
| | Modest | 3.2308 | 1.08840 | 26 |
| | Total | 3.1545 | 1.20521 | 55 |
| Total | Assertive | 3.1949 | 1.20350 | 59 |
| | Modest | 2.9397 | 1.00034 | 58 |
| | Total | 3.0684 | 1.11011 | 117 |

*Appendix 6.4 c Tests of Between-Subjects Effects – Expected Treatment*

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable:   Tot_Met2

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corrected Model | 15.149[a] | 5 | 3.030 | 2.632 | .027 | .106 |
| Intercept | 74.488 | 1 | 74.488 | 64.694 | .000 | .368 |
| Age | 5.973 | 1 | 5.973 | 5.188 | .025 | .045 |
| Edu | 5.750 | 1 | 5.750 | 4.994 | .027 | .043 |
| Nation | .006 | 1 | .006 | .005 | .944 | .000 |
| Treat | 1.756 | 1 | 1.756 | 1.525 | .219 | .014 |
| Nation * Treat | 4.852 | 1 | 4.852 | 4.214 | .042 | .037 |
| Error | 127.804 | 111 | 1.151 | | | |
| Total | 1244.500 | 117 | | | | |
| Corrected Total | 142.953 | 116 | | | | |

a. R Squared = .106 (Adjusted R Squared = .066)

# Appendix 6.5 Self-centred motive

## *Appendix 6.5 a Mediation output from PROCESS*

```
Run MATRIX procedure:

**************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Release 2.13.2 **************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.        www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2013). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

*************************************************************************
Model = 4
    Y = Tot_ga
    X = Nat_Tre
    M = Tot_SMs

Statistical Controls:
CONTROL= Tot_MFM

Sample size
       115

*************************************************************************
Outcome: Tot_SMs

Model Summary
          R          R-sq         MSE           F          df1         df2
p
      ,2502         ,0626        ,9677      4,9543       2,0000    112,0000
,0087

Model
            coeff         se           t           p         LLCI        ULCI
constant    1,1583       ,4613      2,5106       ,0135       ,2442      2,0723
Nat_Tre      ,0473       ,0180      2,6332       ,0097       ,0117       ,0829
Tot_MFM      ,3156       ,1660      1,9010       ,0599      -,0134       ,6446

*************************************************************************
Outcome: Tot_ga

Model Summary
          R          R-sq         MSE           F          df1         df2
p
      ,4048         ,1638      1,0067      7,5367       3,0000    111,0000
,0001

Model
            coeff         se           t           p         LLCI        ULCI
constant    1,9547       ,5294      3,6924       ,0003       ,9057      3,0038
Tot_SMs      ,4409       ,0984      4,4813       ,0000       ,2460       ,6359
Nat_Tre     -,0056       ,0193      -,2898       ,7725      -,0439       ,0327
Tot_MFM     -,0260       ,1319      -,1973       ,8440      -,2873       ,2353

******************** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS ************************

Direct effect of X on Y
     Effect          SE           t           p         LLCI        ULCI
     -,0056         ,0193      -,2898       ,7725      -,0439       ,0327
```

```
Indirect effect of X on Y
            Effect    Boot SE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
Tot_SMs     ,0209     ,0092     ,0061      ,0424


Partially standardized indirect effect of X on Y
            Effect    Boot SE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
Tot_SMs     ,0192     ,0086     ,0046      ,0389


Completely standardized indirect effect of X on Y
            Effect    Boot SE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
Tot_SMs     ,0905     ,0402     ,0234      ,1829


Ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y
            Effect    Boot SE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
Tot_SMs    1,3675    15,3097    ,0820     310,9462


Ratio of indirect to direct effect of X on Y
            Effect    Boot SE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
Tot_SMs   -3,7211    52,7421  -478,7910   -1,2851


Normal theory tests for indirect effect
     Effect       se        Z          p
     ,0209       ,0094    2,2294      ,0258


******************** ANALYSIS NOTES AND WARNINGS ************************


Number  of  bootstrap  samples  for  bias  corrected  bootstrap  confidence
intervals:
     1000


WARNING: Bootstrap CI endpoints below not trustworthy.  Decrease confidence
or increase bootstraps
  -478,7910


Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
    95,00


NOTE: Some cases were deleted due to missing data.  The number of such
cases was:
  2


NOTE: All standard errors for continuous outcome models are based on the
HC3 estimator


------ END MATRIX -----
```

## *Appendix 6.5 b ANOVA self-centred motive 1*

ANOVA self-centered motive with treatment split by nations:

**Between-Subjects Factors**

|             |    | Value Label | N  |
|-------------|----|-------------|----|
| Nationality | 10 | Norwegian   | 61 |
|             | 20 | American    | 55 |

**Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable:   Total Self-centred motive

| Nationality | Mean   | Std. Deviation | N   |
|-------------|--------|----------------|-----|
| Norwegian   | 2.4153 | .91217         | 61  |
| American    | 2.7333 | 1.09130        | 55  |
| Total       | 2.5661 | 1.00935        | 116 |

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable:   Total Self-centred motive

| Source          | Type III Sum of Squares | df  | Mean Square | F      | Sig. |
|-----------------|-------------------------|-----|-------------|--------|------|
| Corrected Model | 8.343[a]                | 3   | 2.781       | 2.862  | .040 |
| Intercept       | 15.869                  | 1   | 15.869      | 16.333 | .000 |
| Gender          | .808                    | 1   | .808        | .832   | .364 |
| Tot_MFM         | 4.288                   | 1   | 4.288       | 4.413  | .038 |
| Nation          | 6.052                   | 1   | 6.052       | 6.229  | .014 |
| Error           | 108.817                 | 112 | .972        |        |      |
| Total           | 881.000                 | 116 |             |        |      |
| Corrected Total | 117.160                 | 115 |             |        |      |

a. R Squared = .071 (Adjusted R Squared = .046)

# *Appendix 6.5c ANOVA self-centred motive 2*

Pairwise comparison between nation and treatment with Masculinity as covariate

**Between-Subjects Factors**

|  |  | Value Label | N |
|---|---|---|---|
| Nationality*Treatment | 11.00 | Norwegian-Assertive | 30 |
|  | 12.00 | Norwegian-Modest | 31 |
|  | 21.00 | American-Assertive | 29 |
|  | 22.00 | American-Modest | 26 |

**Descriptive Statistics**

Dependent Variable:   Total Self-centred motive

| Nationality*Treatment | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|---|---|---|---|
| Norwegian-Assertive | 2.4889 | 1.03847 | 30 |
| Norwegian-Modest | 2.3441 | .78166 | 31 |
| American-Assertive | 2.7931 | 1.12833 | 29 |
| American-Modest | 2.6667 | 1.06667 | 26 |
| Total | 2.5661 | 1.00935 | 116 |

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable:   Total Self-centred motive

| Source | Type III Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. | Partial Eta Squared |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corrected Model | 8.384[a] | 4 | 2.096 | 2.139 | .081 | .072 |
| Intercept | 30.706 | 1 | 30.706 | 31.334 | .000 | .220 |
| Tot_MFM | 4.919 | 1 | 4.919 | 5.020 | .027 | .043 |
| Nat_Tre | 6.506 | 3 | 2.169 | 2.213 | .091 | .056 |
| Error | 108.776 | 111 | .980 |  |  |  |
| Total | 881.000 | 116 |  |  |  |  |
| Corrected Total | 117.160 | 115 |  |  |  |  |

a. R Squared = .072 (Adjusted R Squared = .038)

**Estimates**

Dependent Variable: Total Self-centred motive

| Nationality*Treatment | Mean | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| Norwegian-Assertive | 2.436[a] | .182 | 2.075 | 2.797 |
| Norwegian-Modest | 2.243[a] | .183 | 1.880 | 2.607 |
| American-Assertive | 2.888[a] | .189 | 2.514 | 3.261 |
| American-Modest | 2.743[a] | .197 | 2.352 | 3.133 |

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Tot_MFM = 2.0647.

**Pairwise Comparisons**

Dependent Variable: Total Self-centred motive

| (I) Nationality*Treatment | (J) Nationality*Treatment | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig.[b] | 95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b] | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| Norwegian-Assertive | Norwegian-Modest | .193 | .254 | .450 | -.311 | .697 |
| | American-Assertive | -.452 | .266 | .092 | -.979 | .076 |
| | American-Modest | -.307 | .271 | .261 | -.845 | .231 |
| Norwegian-Modest | Norwegian-Assertive | -.193 | .254 | .450 | -.697 | .311 |
| | American-Assertive | -.645[*] | .270 | .019 | -1.180 | -.109 |
| | American-Modest | -.500 | .275 | .072 | -1.044 | .045 |
| American-Assertive | Norwegian-Assertive | .452 | .266 | .092 | -.076 | .979 |
| | Norwegian-Modest | .645[*] | .270 | .019 | .109 | 1.180 |
| | American-Modest | .145 | .267 | .589 | -.385 | .675 |
| American-Modest | Norwegian-Assertive | .307 | .271 | .261 | -.231 | .845 |
| | Norwegian-Modest | .500 | .275 | .072 | -.045 | 1.044 |
| | American-Assertive | -.145 | .267 | .589 | -.675 | .385 |

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

**Estimated Marginal Means of Total Self-centred motive**

Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Tot_MFM = 2,0647