



HÁSKÓLINN Í REYKJAVÍK
REYKJAVIK UNIVERSITY

Master's Thesis

Submitted to: Reykjavik University
School of Business

Master in International Business

Corporate Social Responsibility as an Indicator for Employer Attractiveness A Cross-Cultural Study

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15.05.2015

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Hannover, 15.05.2015

Declaration of Research Work Integrity

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1 Abstract

This Thesis is dedicated to research if CSR (Corporate Social Responsibility) activities that are undertaken by companies can affect the attractiveness of those companies as a potential employer. Appreciating the fact that the underlying conceptualization of CSR can differ in a cultural context, this study is carried out as a cross-cultural study, researching also the effects of different cultural backgrounds on perceiving CSR activities as an important characteristic for a potential employer. The target group of this study will be graduate business students.

The main objective of this study is therefore to research whether CSR activities of companies can function as an attractiveness factor from a graduate business student's perspective. Furthermore, the study aims to identify the underlying set of values that determine the perceived importance of CSR.

The purpose of this study is one the one hand to research the correlation of CSR activities and company attractiveness which can be beneficial for the Human Resource Management as an instrument for attracting talent and on the other hand to provide evidence on the connection between different sets of values and the perceived importance of CSR.

The study will be conducted by gathering a set of primary data through a survey. The data set will consist of responses by participants who are graduate business students from India, Iceland, Germany and USA.

Key Words: CSR, Corporate Social Responsibility, P-O fit, cross-cultural differences, individual values, cultural dimensions

2 Introduction

The idea of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) itself is barely a new conception. In fact, the underlying concept is based on an idea which is more than 2000 years old and was already formulated by Aristotle. The idea that economic activity is not directed to establish a self sustaining system but rather is a tool for a good and prosper living (Solomon, 2004).

Throughout the centuries, different philosophers have picked up this concept and developed complex frameworks for human interaction and behavior including rights and duties of the individual. In 1513 Machiavelli stated in his famous work "Il Principe" that leaders should appear virtuous, even though they might have to act against those virtues when the own safety is at stake (Solomon, 2004). The degree to which leaders can abandon their virtues is connected to the point where their legitimacy is endangered (Solomon, 2004). This idea is easily transferable to managers of companies and also bears a connection to two of the most famous modern views on CSR. On the one hand there is Freeman (1984) who proposes the idea that business should increase value for all of its stakeholders and thus enable a good and prosper living for society as large, just as Aristotle proposed. On the other hand, there is Friedman (1970) who proposes that the only responsibility of a company is to maximize shareholder value. This idea is in line with Machiavelli's theses that the leader, or in this case the manager, is legitimate as long as his or her actions are within the legal frame. Of course, those examples are very simplified but they help to understand that the underlying concept of CSR has been widely discussed throughout the history of mankind and is by far not a new issue.

However, the philosophical aspect is not going to be emphasized in this paper but serves as the basis for many of the conceptual frameworks for CSR that are going to be discussed.

However, the term CSR did not emerge in academic research until the 1950's when scholars like Bowen (1953) stated that corporations were becoming more global and therefore their societal impact was growing. Already in the 1950's the idea that not the maximization of profit but creating societal welfare should be the main aim of a business arose (Spencer, 1958). Thus, in the 1950's and 1960's, CSR was seen in the light of philanthropy, community service and employee welfare (Hack, Kenyon, & Wood, 2014).

In the 1970's Friedman brought up the idea that as long as a company is moving in a legal framework, there is no need for any additional societal actions. The 1970's

therefore were the age of the neo-classical view on CSR which was mainly shaped by Friedman.

During the 1980's and 1990's the power of businesses in deciding on which societal issues needed to be addressed was discussed critically (Hack et al., 2014). During this period different scholars and practitioners felt that there was a need for a standardized definition of CSR (Drucker, 1984). Different scholars like Carroll (1991) came up with definitions of CSR that are still influential today. During the 1980's Freeman opposed the theses of Friedman, stating that a company's obligations comprised of more than just maximizing profits.

In the beginning of the 21st century, the term "stakeholder" was gaining momentum (Hack et al., 2014). The term accounted for the fact that organization which grew more and more multinational were having a greater impact on society in total and thus the group of people affected by a firm's actions became larger (Hopkins, 2003). However, nowadays companies are facing different challenges. A more global and interconnected environment brings also a more global competition which sets firms under more pressure for gaining market shares (Hack et al., 2014). On the one hand the company has to serve the shareholders needs, who are demanding the company to make a financial profit but on the other hand the company is facing a growing group of stakeholders, demanding the company to be responsible with regard to the environment, employees and bring benefit to the society in general (Hack et al., 2014). At this point a modern definition of CSR might help to understand the scope of expectations that are directed towards a company. The definition established by Kotler & Lee (2005) is adopted for this purpose:

"Corporate social responsibility is a commitment to improve community well-being through discretionary business practices and contributions of corporate resources."

Community well-being in this definition is described as human conditions as well as environmental issues (Kotler & Lee, 2005). Discretionary is one of the key terms of this definition, as CSR is not described as actions that are prescribed by law, but rather a voluntary commitment (Kotler & Lee, 2005). Even though, this definition seems to be not too complex at first sight, the scope of what are deemed to be adequate CSR practices is broad. A rapid globalization of the world has lead to a situation where

companies are confronted with different expectations towards their behavior rooted in different cultural backgrounds. This means that companies have to bear in mind that in different cultural surroundings, a different perception of ethical decision making will prevail, which might lead to an even more complicated situation (Shafer, Fukukawa, & Lee, 2007).

The 21st century is also the time of various business scandals and failures. Be it environmental catastrophes like the oil spillage caused by the Deepwater Horizon in 2010, horrific working conditions in Bangladeshtian clothing factories or the bank crisis in 2008. All those examples have shown that in today's world, a company has to account for more than just the legal standards. For many companies involved in scandals or catastrophes, the outcome is not only a financial loss but also severe damage to its reputation. Customers have easy access to information and the internet enables this information to spread all over the world within seconds. Thus, companies should not only engage in CSR activities but have to incorporate CSR into their strategy to some degree (Kolodinsky, Madden, Zisk, & Henkel, 2010). A rising acceptance and importance for CSR is also noticeable in the company's communication with its stakeholders. According to Boli & Hartsuiker (2001), 90% of Fortune 500 companies declared CSR to be an essential organizational goal in their annual reports. Furthermore, in 2005, 64% of the largest MNCs published CSR reports (Porter & Kramer, 2006).

To account for that rising importance of CSR already in business education, more and more universities incorporating classes in the field of CSR or business ethics in their study programs. According to Christensen, Pierce, Hartmann, Hoffman, & Carrier (2007) 42% of the global MBA programs required students to take a course in CSR.

Thus it can be concluded that CSR is not only of rising importance, in many companies it has already arrived at a stage where it has become integral part of the business strategy. However, not every company has adopted CSR and not every manager sees CSR as an important part of business strategy.

Besides a potential damage to a firm's reputation this point of view bears another potential problem which is rooted in the companies "fight for talent". Recruiting talented employees is a crucial strategic instrument for the success of the company but highly skilled employees often have the freedom to choose their employer, therefore companies have to offer benefits that exceed the monetary stage (Mullen, 1993).

In addition to those benefits, the identification with the values of a company is becoming a more important argument for students in choosing their future employer. A

value system often is a very individualistic set of ideals and values and companies need to present their values system to potential employees as one group of stakeholders (Schmeltz, 2014).

CSR activities of a company reflect parts of the value system the company stands for and thus enable potential employees to evaluate whether their individual values are congruent with the value system of the company. However, the question remains whether it is really important to students whether their value system is reflected in the company's value system or if other factors like wage play a dominant role in deciding for a job (Church, Rotolo, Ginther, & Levine, 2015).

This is where the problem emerges that this thesis addresses: Is CSR a factor that can increase the attractiveness of a company as a potential employer to students and which values are influencing the perceived importance of CSR of an individual. Are individual values the more important value set influencing the perception of CSR or are cultural values the more important factor?

3 Approach

This chapter is meant to give a short overview on how the thesis will proceed to answers the main research question that was brought up in the introduction.

The first part of this thesis comprises of a literature review. Within this literature review, the existing literature will be analyzed and different research questions with associated hypotheses will be developed. This chapter starts with a general overview on CSR, where different conceptualizations and theories as well as the main drivers of CSR and its dimensions will be discussed. This part functions as a basis for the understanding of the conceptual context of the thesis.

The next part of the literature review encompasses the issues that arise when communicating CSR. As this thesis aims to identify, whether CSR can increase employer attractiveness, communicating CSR in the right way is a crucial factor. The following part discusses the impact of CSR on the workforce and also examine existing literature that draw a connection between employer attractiveness and CSR activities. Within the next part the perceived importance of CSR is under investigation. This part examines whether the fit between an individual and a company is also defined by an ethical component. Furthermore, this part explores the connection between individual values and cultural values on the perceived importance of CSR. The end of this part contains a short summary of the countries that will be under investigation of this study and draws a short picture of the state of CSR in those companies. Finally a table summarizes the research questions and hypotheses that were developed within this chapter for a better overview.

The next part contains the research methodology of the study that was carried out. The part starts with the questionnaire design where the source of the items of the questionnaire will be discussed. The following part explains the sample that was used to gather the relevant data. Further, the findings from the data analysis will be presented.

The last part discusses the findings from the methodology part critically and also mentions shortcomings and limitations of the study. The main points are then summarized and an outlook on how the findings could be used for further research is given. .

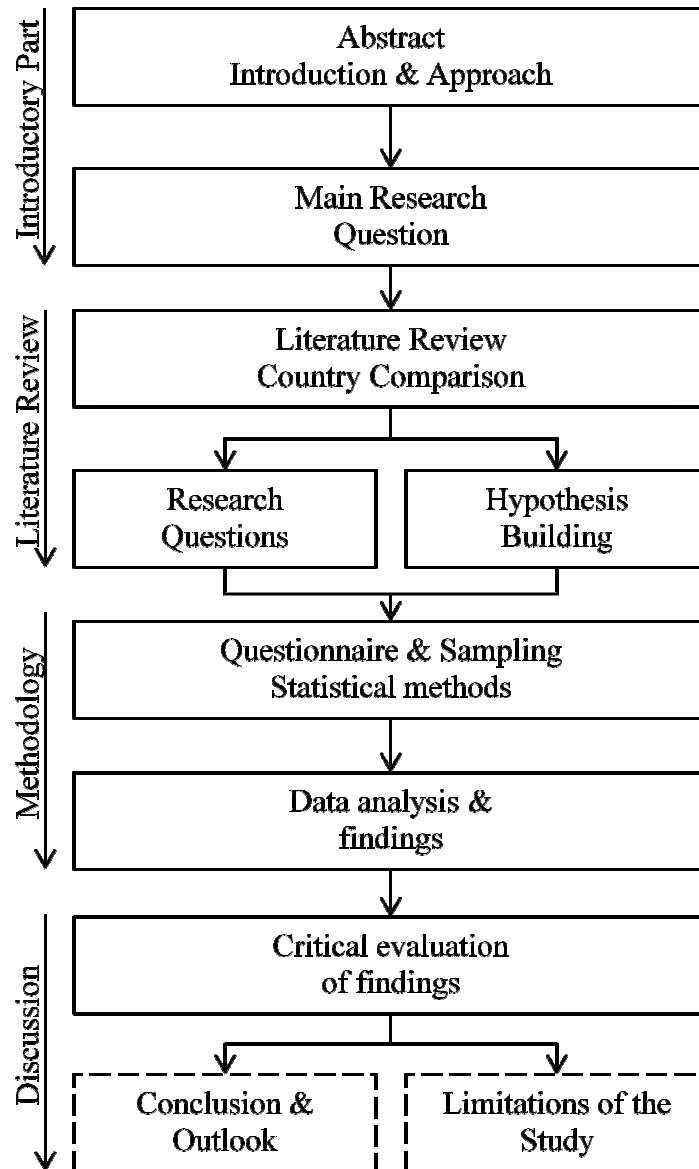


Figure 1. Approach.

4 Literature Review and Hypothesis Building

The following chapter is dedicated to reviewing the existing literature on the researched topic, draw research questions from the findings and address specific hypotheses to the research questions that are based on the findings from the literature review.

4.1 CSR - A General Overview

The following part will give a general overview on different conceptualizations and theories in the field of CSR and serves to develop an understanding of how conceptualizations of CSR can help to interpret the perceived importance of CSR.

4.1.1 Defining and Conceptualizing Corporate Social Responsibility

A definition of what can be labeled as socially responsible corporate behavior is a question that cannot be answered straightforward. Many factors, such as industry standards, culture, societal norms and personal beliefs are determinants that influence the definition of CSR. However, according to Campbell (2007) adopting some objective criteria could help to reach a first definition of what CSR really is. Taking the example of the wage paid by the company, objective criteria could be the rental prices in the area where the company is located or the average cost of living, determined by independent organizations (Campbell, 2007). Taking those criteria helps to judge whether the company acts in a socially responsible way with regard to paid wages. Taking the example of wages shows that CSR can be directed on a company internal axis, for example to the employees. Furthermore, CSR could also be directed on an external axis, for example to the people living in the community in which the company is located. Taking the example of environmental pollution here, objective criteria to evaluate the corporate behavior could be measured emission caused by the company. Trying to cut down emission to not destroy the environment and people's health could hence be seen as acting socially responsible. From another perspective it could also be argued that acting socially responsible is maximizing financial profit of the shareholders (Friedman, 1970).

Those three examples show that there is no simple definition of what CSR is - and more important that the definition of CSR is heavily dependent on the perspective that is taken, be it shareholders, customers or employees. All those groups have different expectations towards a company and also different ideas of what they deem to be socially responsible. Furthermore, the expectations within the group of same stakeholders might also be heterogeneous. An employee in a subsidiary in India would probably

have different expectations towards a company than an employee from an American subsidiary. But not enough that a cultural dimension is added, also a historical dimension is of importance (Campbell, 2007). An employee in America in the 1950's had severely different expectations towards his employer than an American employee in the 2000's. Campbell (2007) summarizes those complications, stating that CSR has a different meaning to different people in different cultural environments at different times. All those three components have to be kept in mind: people, culture and time.

Those different dimensions and difficulties that already emerge when trying to find a definition for what CSR really is have led to a vast amount of models and definitions amongst scholars.

This being said, it also has to be noted that so far conceptualizing CSR is a relatively new idea and therefore there is no generally internationally accepted definition of CSR existing (Campbell, 2007). However, there are some influential models that have shaped the perception of what CSR really is among researchers as well as practitioners. Those models ought to explain what CSR is and how a company can act socially responsible.

Corporate Social Responsibility is a concept that has been well researched and many models try explain the scope of the CSR. However, the perceptions of CSR are varying amongst the scholars and so are the models. However, a broad overview on the conceptualization of CSR is of necessity, as it helps to identify which levels of CSR are existent and will ultimately form the basis for understanding drivers of CSR and different economic and social and political theories that ought to explain why companies behave in the way they do.

One of the most known models is the pyramid of CSR (Carroll, 1991) that describes CSR as a pyramid. The lowest level is the economic responsibility of a company. This is determined as a prerequisite for conducting business. The second stage is the legal responsibility which is also a prerequisite for all businesses. Those levels are therefore required (Carroll, 1991). The third level is the ethical responsibility that demands a company to do no harm and do what is right (Carroll, 1991). This level is expected of a company. The last dimensions is the philanthropic responsibility, that demands companies to contribute to the community. The last level defines what is desirable (Carroll, 1991). The pyramid only has descriptive character of what requirements and expectations the society has towards companies and shows what are the prerequi-

sites for CSR. A broader scope of activities or views is not incorporated. This model also solely takes the view of society into consideration.

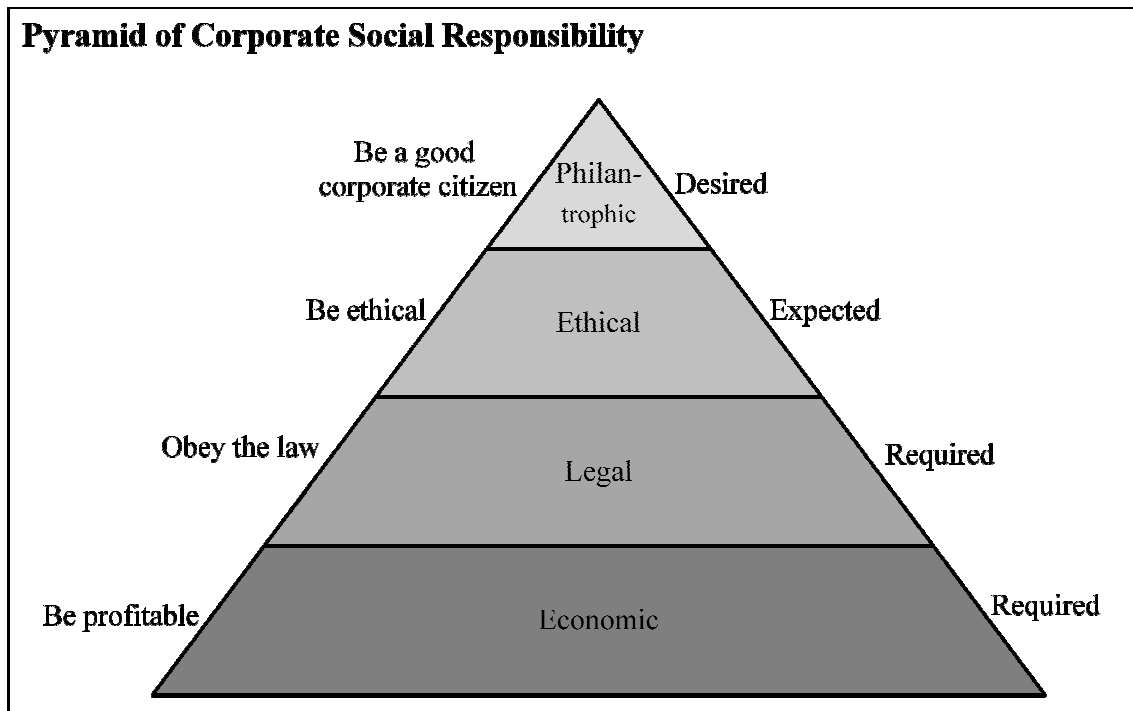


Figure 2. Pyramid of Corporate Social Responsibility (Caroll, 1991).

Another model was proposed by Quazi & O'Brien (2000). The two dimensional model also incorporates the perception of the company, which is displayed on the vertical axis that is labeled with "costs of CSR actions" and "benefits of CSR actions". The horizontal axis describes the scope of responsibility from "wide responsibility" on the left hand side to "narrow responsibility" on the right side. The model explains four different views on CSR.

On the left half, there is the modern view, which encompasses a wide responsibility of CSR, as perceived benefits are high (Quazi & O'Brien 2000). This view also includes the stakeholder view, as a relationship with a broader segment of society is established, as profits are gained in the long run as well as in the short run through CSR activities (Filgueiras, de Oliveira, de Castro Neto, & da Silva Filho, 2012).

The philanthropic view describes engagement in CSR activities even though perceived costs are high. Businesses conduct those activities despite higher cost for charitable reasons which might be a result of altruistic or ethical feelings (Filgueiras et al., 2012).

The right half encompasses the socioeconomic view, that allows CSR activities to a degree that balances costs and benefits. CSR activities are accepted, as long as they create benefit, for example in terms of customer relationship (Filgueiras et al., 2012).

The classical view argues that due to high cost of CSR activities, those are carried out only to a degree required by law (Quazi & O'Brien 2000). In this view, only monetary profit is seen as benefit and benefits that are not directly profit creating are regarded as cost, therefore CSR activities are always seen as cost and are not carried out (Filgueiras et al., 2012). The classical view has its roots also in shareholder value theory.

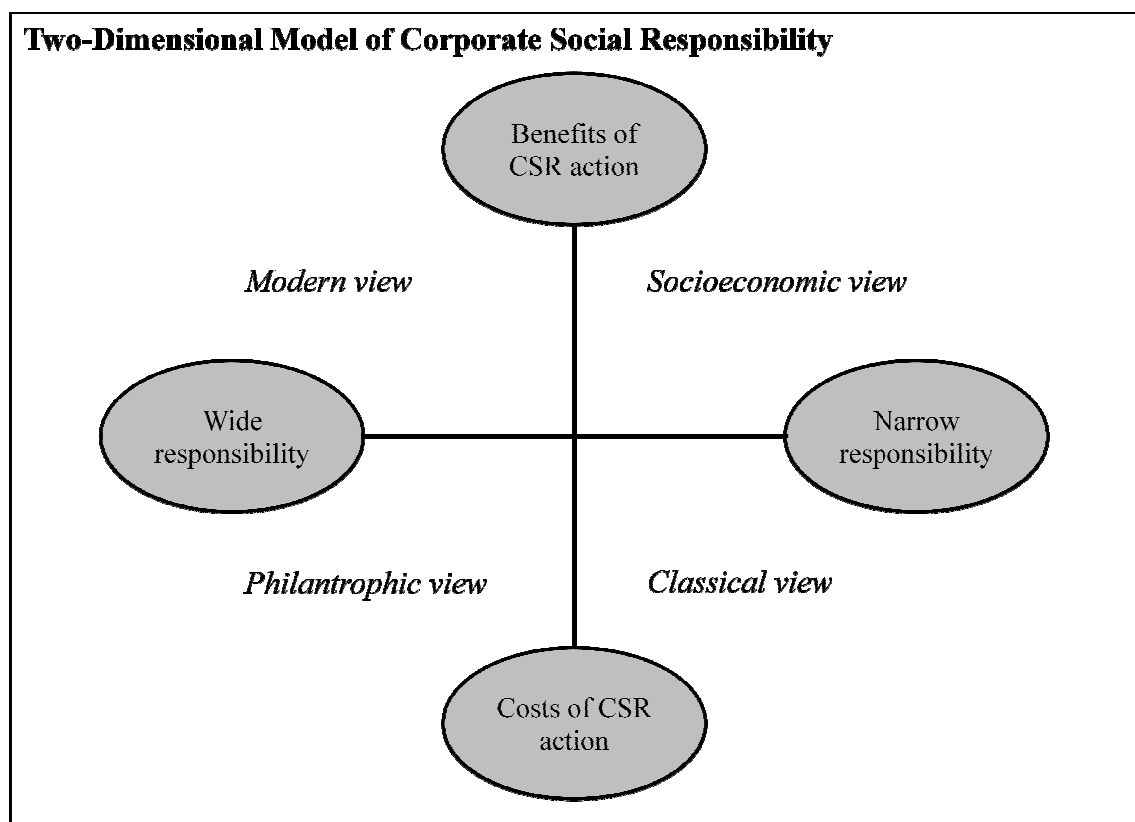


Figure 3. Two-Dimensional Model of Corporate Social Responsibility (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003).

Depicting the pyramid approach of Carroll (1991), Schwartz & Carroll (2003) criticize that this approach might lead to confusion, as the pyramid set-up could lead to the conclusion that there is a hierarchy within the dimension of CSR or that some of them that are on a higher stage of the pyramid are more valuable than others. Further they criticize that the pyramid approach does not allow to account for overlapping in dimensions.

Therefore, a third model that was introduced by Schwartz & Carroll (2003). It combines the societal and the companies' view to a certain degree. The model is constructed on a three-domain base that allows to account for overlapping of the dimensions of the pyramid. The three main dimensions are the ethical dimension, the legal dimension and the economic dimensions.

The legal domain depicts Carroll's (1991) legal responsibility stage that is defined as compliance with the law. Legal responsibilities are regarded as "codified ethics" that were established by lawmaking entities of a country (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Further, Schwartz & Carroll (2003) suggest to split this dimension up into three sub-dimensions that are labeled: compliance, avoidance of civil litigation and anticipation of the law. Compliance, in addition, is further subdivided into three types: passive, restrictive and opportunistic (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). According to Schwartz & Carroll's (2003) definition, passive compliance embraces activities that are not specifically carried out with the intention to comply with any law, but do so anyways. Restrictive compliance describes all activities that a company carries out to comply with a law but would not carry them out if it would not be compulsory, furthermore, it describes all activities, the company was prevented from carrying out by a law (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Opportunistic compliance summarizes activities that a company carries out to take advantage of legal loopholes, or the choice for a specific legal system that allows specific activities to be undertaken (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Avoidance of civil litigation means that the company carries out specific activities, as they fear to get sued otherwise (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Activities that are undertaken in anticipation of a change in the law are defined in the last category (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003).

The economic domain is defined as all activities that are directed to maximize earnings of the company and act as a profitable and efficient firm (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Profitability in this model is defined as either maximization of profit or share value (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003).

The ethical domain includes all activities of a company that are based on their specific set of values, ethical standards or company policies (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). In addition, the ethical domain also is defined as activities that are not defined by law but carried out anyways, as they include expectations or moral concerns of stakeholder or the company itself (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). The ethical domains contains three main ethical standards: conventional standards; consequentialists standards; and deontological standards (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003; Crane & Matten, 2010). Conventional

standards are described as those standards that have been mutually accepted by the industry, the organization and its stakeholders and society in general to be necessary to run a functioning business (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). For the consequentialists standard, only utilitarianism is of importance, thus an action is considered as ethically justifiable, if it provides the greatest benefit to society compared to other alternatives (Crane & Matten, 2010). Schwartz & Carroll (2003) define deontological standards as those that have the philosophies of moral rights and justice as a basis. Those actions are regarded as a consideration of what is one's duty or obligation.

According to Schwartz & Carroll (2003), companies can either act exclusively in one of those dimensions or in a combination of them. This leads to a model that allows seven different stages to be possible, where a combination of all three dimensions would be the most desirable stage. However, tensions arise between the dimensions and not every company is able to cover all three domains equally (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003).

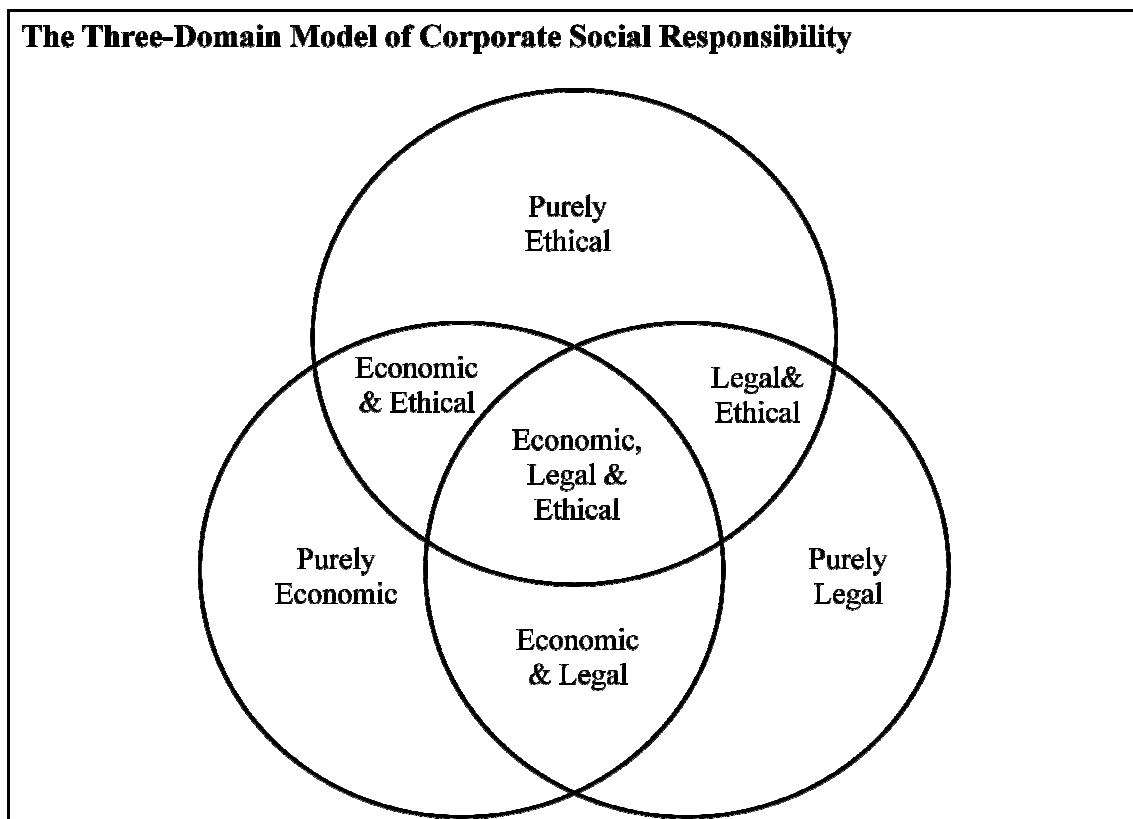


Figure 4. The Three-Domain Model of Corporate Social Responsibility (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003).

- The seven categories are defined as follows according to Schwartz & Carroll (2003):
- *Purely economic* activities are designed to create an economic benefit. They can be illegal or passively comply with the law and are perceived as unethical.
- *Purely Legal* activities are not considered as ethical and do not have any economic value creation attached to it.
- *Purely Ethical* activities do not have legal or economic dimensions and fall into one of the three ethical standards, defined earlier.
- *Economic/Ethical* activities are not carried out due to legal concerns, but are economic and ethical at the same time.
- *Economic/Legal* activities are all actions that are legal as well as economical but are considered as unethical.
- *Legal/Ethical* activities are not value creating, but are legally required and ethical at the same time.
- *Economic/Legal/Ethical* activities fulfill all requirements of the respective dimensions at the same time.

4.1.2 Conceptualization of CSR in Economic and Sociopolitical Theories

The last chapter presented the most important conceptualization of CSR. However, the displayed models are mainly of descriptive nature and do not propose what is the "right" thing to do for a company. Even though, this question might be more of philosophical nature, there is a variety of theories that are based on the models by Schwartz, Carroll, Quazi & O'Brien trying to describe how CSR can work as a strategic tool for profit maximization or an ethical component integrated into the company's values.

The following section will discuss those different theories that are important to understand the scope of CSR and the different positions and attitudes towards CSR. Understanding the motivation of companies to engage or not to engage in CSR activities ultimately helps to understand the mindset that is necessary for engaging in CSR activities from a managerial perspective but also helps to identify the necessary mindset an employee needs to have, to perceive CSR as important. This chapter therefore builds upon the findings from the previous ones and simultaneously is the basis for defining the first research question.

The literature proposes a vast variety of models and definitions when explaining CSR. This chapter will provide a framework for this study and therefore select different theories that are important for the purpose of this study.

The theories that are provided by the literature can be classified into two major groups, economic theories and social and political theories (Fernando & Lawrence, 2014). Economic theories, such as agency theory and decision usefulness theory ought to explain the economic dimension of CSR, whereas the social and political theories, such as stakeholder theory and legitimacy theory include a broader societal perspective on CSR (Fernando & Lawrence, 2014). As for this study, a broader perspective on CSR besides the pure economic aspects is necessary, the framework will be based on the legitimacy theory, stakeholder theory, institutional theory and creating shared value theory. In addition to those four social and political theories, the shareholder value theory will be also included. Those five theories will outline the theoretical framework for this study.

Shareholder Value

This theory does not fall into the category of social and political theories, as it does not recognize any obligation of a company to engage in any form of CSR activities. It is important to gain insight to this way of thinking, as it opposing nearly all other theories and models that have emerged and that are trying to explain the role and importance of CSR. Nearly all models and theories acknowledge that only thinking in terms of monetary profitability is not enough to be successful in business. Models and theories that are ought to create long-term success seem to come to the conclusion that companies must to some degree recognize the environment they are operating in and interact with this in environment in a way that allows the business model to persist.

However, this simplistic way of portraying the idea of shareholder value does not live up to the theses Friedman, it displays a way of thinking that still seems to be widespread. In this way of thinking, companies are completely independent entities that do not interact with their environment and only have to maximize profit of their shareholders. Basically, Friedman stated that it is the only social responsibility of a company to maximize shareholder (stockholder) value (1970). This means that in the pyramid of Carroll, Friedman proposes that only acting in the first two stages is sufficient. However this position is still of relevance when describing the situation of CSR in reality, it seems that more and more scholars and practitioners realize that CSR is becoming more

relevant. Therefore, lots of models have been developed that try to explain how maximizing shareholder value goes together with CSR activities.

The probably most famous debate in this sector, is the Freeman-Friedman debate that sums up the conflicting views on CSR.

Legitimacy theory

Legitimacy theory describes the idea that organizations ensure that they are perceived as entities that are operating within the legal boundaries and norms of the society in which they located (Fernando & Lawrence, 2014). The theory is based on the foundation that a "contract" between companies and society exists (Deegan, Rankin, & Voght, 2002). The contract is partly based on explicit terms, such as laws and legal requirements but also on implicit terms, such as society's expectations towards the company (Deegan et al., 2002). In order to maintain its legitimacy towards society, a company must ensure not to breach the terms of this contract (Fernando & Lawrence, 2014).

In legitimacy theory, individuals are not considered, but society at large scale (Belal, 2008). The theory states that corporations do not exist in isolation but need to maintain their relationship to the society (Matthews, 1993). In order to maintain existence of a corporation, the benefits the society expects from respective company must outweigh the negative effects (Fernando & Lawrence, 2014). This means that organizations have to meet the expectations of different stakeholders and not only those of shareholders as in classical agency theory (Fernando & Lawrence, 2014). Only meeting those expectations will allow the company to survive in its respective environment (An, Davey, & Eggleton, 2011).

However, in an environment of ever changing norms and expectations, companies are always threatened to lose their legitimacy (Fernando & Lawrence, 2014). Financial scandals, ecologic catastrophes and many other incidents can harm the organization's reputation (Fernando & Lawrence, 2014). To mitigate those "legitimacy gaps" a company can implement legitimization strategies. According to Lindblom (1994) four such strategies can be differentiated. The strategies are to educate stakeholders about the company; influence the perception of stakeholders about the underlying issue while not changing the organization's behavior; trying to direct attention to favorable issues and away from unfavorable ones; and changing the expectations of the stakeholders (Fernando & Lawrence, 2014).

According to the models, this theory can be located at stage two of Carroll's pyramid (1991) and in the overlapping sector of legal and economic domain in the model of Schwartz & Carroll (2003). The company seeks economic success and therefore acts according to the expectation of the society. Any CSR related activities are not philanthropic but have an economic rational in this theory, as they can be used as public relation tools, to direct attention. This theory is connected to the main idea that Porter & Kramer (2011) labeled with "Creating Shared Value". The main idea of CSV is that corporations and society can both benefit from CSR activities and thus same should not be regarded as philanthropic but as business enhancing.

Stakeholder Theory

Even though the term "stakeholder theory" was first used by Ansoff in 1965 it was Freeman (1984) who developed this further from the mid-1980s onwards (Fernando & Lawrence, 2014). Moving away from seeing shareholders as the group of main importance to a company, Freeman (1984) defined stakeholders of a company as a group that is affected by the company. Different scholars defined the group of stakeholders even further, e.g. into external and internal stakeholders (Pearce, 1982) or different groups of stakeholders, such as employees, shareholders and customers (Preston & Sapienza, 1990) to name only a few. However, there is a variety of definitions of aspects of a stakeholder, they all have the fact in common that they express the existence of different stakeholder groups that have different and also sometimes conflicting expectations towards the company (Fernando & Lawrence, 2014).

According to the stakeholder theory, a company should not only aim to fulfill the expectations of their shareholders but rather meet the expectations of the stakeholders (Fernando & Lawrence, 2014). Stakeholder theory is above the economic benefits of meeting stakeholder's expectations also concerned about the ethical point of view. The ethical perspective of stakeholder theory suggests that all stakeholders of a company have the right to be treated fairly and equally (Stoney & Winstanley, 2001) instead of only meeting the expectations of the most powerful stakeholders (Deegan & Unerman, 2006). However, in reality the ethical perspective of stakeholder theory seems to be more of an ideal situation than a realistically achievable situation. Most companies are not able to meet the conflicting expectations of all stakeholders and have to select their most important stakeholders. Acknowledging this situation, Hasnas (1998) suggests that companies should find a fair balance in meeting the expectations of their stakeholders.

However, apart from the ethical point of view, the economic or managerial point of view of stakeholder theory suggests that companies should mainly focus on their major stakeholders that provide critical resources to the company (O’Riordan & Faribass, 2008).

Institutional Theory

Institutional theory includes ideas from legitimacy theory and the management perspective on stakeholder theory. The core of the institutional theory is that corporations are operating in a frame of socially acceptable norms, values and assumptions about what is an appropriate economic behavior in their environment (Carpenter & Feroz, 2001). Further, institutional theory assumes that companies that share a homogenous set of characteristics, such as resources, products, consumers and suppliers constitute an organizational field (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). According to institutional theory, companies conform with rules and norms within their institutional field as they expect economic benefits from complying (Scott, 1995). In conclusion this means that the organizational field a company is operating in can exercise force upon the company, expecting them to change parts of their economic behavior in order to stay competitive (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). This force can be exercised by different stakeholders within the organizational field, such as competitors, regulatory bodies, suppliers or ultimately customers.

Isomorphism and decoupling are the two dimensions of institutional theory (Fernando & Lawrence, 2014). Isomorphism describes the process that forces units in the organizational field to adapt and resemble the behavior of other units in the organizational field (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Force in this context can be exercised by competitive forces or institutional forces (Dillard, Rigsby, & Goodman, 2004). The dimension of decoupling relates to the separation of the image and how the company is perceived from external entities and the internal structures of that company (Fernando & Lawrence, 2014).

Linking the dimension of isomorphism to CSR, institutional theory means that companies might take CSR measures not because of philanthropic or economic reasons, but because they are forced to do so by their organizational field. Further, linking decoupling to CSR means that companies might create an environmentally responsible image through reports or other sources, while their actual processes are only focused on

profit maximization (Fernando & Lawrence, 2014). In such a case, the image of the company would be separated from its actual behavior.

Creating Shared Value

Porter & Kramer (2011) took the general idea of CSR and added further ideas from other concepts and theories to it and arrived at the conclusion that CSR must develop and transform to a new way of thinking which they described as "Creating Shared Value" (CSV). According to them, companies are still trapped in the thinking that value creation only is linked to short term financial performance (Porter & Kramer, 2011). In their opinion this ignores the broader view that includes well-being of the customers, depletion of natural resources and the economic distress of communities. All of those factors are crucial for a company's long term success and thus should be an integral part of the companies' strategy.

Coming from this point of view, shared value is a concept that embarks enhancing the competitiveness and profitability of a company whilst simultaneously also enhancing the societal and economic conditions in the environment it is operating in. This means that the value creation for society goes hand in hand with value creation for the company. CSR should not only be perceived as a burden or a marketing tool but become an integral part of business (Porter & Kramer 2011). In this model, CSR activities would not cause costs but rather create value for the company and therefore not carried out because of ethical or philanthropic reasons, but also for profit making (Porter & Kramer 2011). Even though the relabeling of CSR to CSV, claiming that it has nothing to do with social responsibility or philanthropy (Porter & Kramer, 2011), the conceptual idea still remains the same, CSV only describes a specific approach of CSR leading to a situation that could be located in the quadrant of the "modern view" of the two-dimensional approach, proposed by Quazi & O'Brien (2000). Although, the idea proposed by Porter & Kramer is not entirely new, the level of interconnectedness they attribute to economical and societal progress adds an important dimension to CSR that brings up the question if CSR is really only about philanthropy and ethics or rather about increasing company value.

Even though CSV is not a model ought to explain specific parts of corporate behavior but rather a holistic way of thinking of CSR, it adds an important facet to it, namely the idea to separate CSR completely from the ethical component and make it instead a necessity in terms of economic profitability.

According to a case study of Ghasemi, Nazemi, & Hajirahimian (2014), establishing structure to create shared value is a transformational process, that directs the company's CSR activities in a slightly different direction. Ghasemi et al. (2014) provide a pattern for a structured process that allows an international company transforming CSR activities into CSV activities. The framework includes following steps:

1. Goal Setting
2. Prepare and disclose annual CSR reports
3. Identify frameworks for enhancing the brand through CSR activities
4. Promote the use of CSR indicators in national evaluation of companies and competitiveness analysis
5. Align the goals of all corporate units to achieve synergies, enhance efficiency and reduce costs
6. Benchmark achievements of leading organizations in the area of CSR
7. Conduct research and seek experts opinions on the impacts of the company's decision on society
8. Disclose CSR activities to create awareness among stakeholders
9. Improve in areas identified by local and international assessors

However not all of those steps might be applicable for every company, it gives a good idea on how a transformational process from CSR to CSV could be structured.

After the main theories have been examined, it should have become clear that an individual can take a vast variety of views with regard to CSR and the respective responsibilities of a company. Thus, each individual can have a different perception of how a company should behave and furthermore also have different expectations towards a company. The first research question is emerging from this variety of possible expectation towards a company.

RQ1: Is there a correlation between an individual's perception of what goals and responsibilities a corporate has to fulfill and the individual's perceived importance of CSR?

To answer this research question and or this study in general, the stakeholder versus shareholder approach is of specific interest. Different researchers suggest that tendency of an individual to agree to one of those theories more than to the other, has predictability for the individual's perceived importance of CSR. Mudrack (2007) correlates high social traditionalism to the Friedman view on CSR, Kim & Kim (2010) take this as the underlying foundation to test whether high social traditionalism affects the perceived importance of CSR. Kim & Kim (2010) find that individuals who score high in social traditionalism are inclined to have a less positive perception of CSR than those who tend to reject Friedman's theses.

A slightly different approach is chosen by another study that finds that when students are asked to choose what the primary goal of a business is, regardless of the cultural background, most students agree on providing profit for the owner or meeting customer needs (Wong, Long, & Elankumaran, 2010). Providing employment and creating tax revenue are answers that seem to be of minor importance (Wong et al., 2010). However, meeting social, cultural and economic needs of communities seems also to be of relevance to students, as 14% of Chinese students, 21% of the American students and 23% of the Indian students select this option as the main goal of a business (Wong et al., 2010).

The study establishes that even though there are differences with regard to the elements of CSR the students perceived to be most important, CSR in total seems to be an issue of no major importance to them (Wong et al., 2010). Meeting the owners' and the customers' interest was of most importance to the students, regardless of their cultural background (Wong et al., 2010). This being said a considerable amount of students perceived meeting cultural, societal and economic needs of communities as an important goal of companies. This shows that even though the majority of students still follows the arguments of Friedman (1970), there is a growing awareness that also considers the theses of (Freeman, 1984). However, the surveyed group consists of undergraduate students who never took a class in ethics or CSR before, therefore the results of this study only have limited ability to predict outcomes for this paper. In concluding the findings from this chapter, following hypotheses are proposed:

H1a: There is a negative relationship between social traditionalism and an individual's perceived importance of CSR. Individuals with high social traditionalism will therefore perceive CSR as less important.

H1b: There is a positive relationship between Freeman's theses and an individual's perceived importance of CSR. Individuals who tend to agree with Freeman's theses will therefore perceive CSR as more important.

4.1.3 Drivers of Corporate Social Responsibility

When trying to understand the perceived importance of CSR, it is necessary to figure out the different drivers for socially responsible behavior. Ultimately, the drivers are important when researching CSR in different cultural areas, as different circumstance may trigger different corporate behavior. The drivers add to the understanding to the before explained theories of CSR, as they help to explain the circumstances that can lead a company to behave according to one of those theories.

According to Campbell (2007) economic conditions are the main driver of the degree to which a corporation acts socially responsible, however, this relationship is also influenced through institutional factors. From this relationship, eight propositions are derived that describe the relationship between economic success of a company and institutional drivers.

According to proposition one, during periods of weak financial performance, companies are less inclined to behave socially responsible, as their outlook for short-term financial profitability is unhealthy (Campbell, 2007). Taking this view follows in some way Friedman's (1970) arguments, as it states that financial success is the most important driver of a company and thus, if the company is less profitable, CSR activities will not be carried out. In conclusion this means that a financial stable company is most likely to act socially responsible. This argument also implies that managers do not view CSR as an instrument to increase the financial performance of the firm.

The second proposition states that companies are less likely to behave socially responsible if there is either too much or not enough competition (Campbell, 2007). According to this proposition, in a stable environment with a healthy level of competition that allows for profit margins, companies are less inclined to behave socially irre-

sponsible, as this would put their reputation at stake and thus might lead to competitive disadvantage (MacCauly, 1963). In situations with too much competition, companies cut costs wherever it is possible to ensure survival of the firm and are thus more inclined to engage in socially irresponsible behavior (Campbell, 2007). Again, in monopoly-like situations, companies do not need to behave socially responsible, as there is no alternative for consumers or suppliers (Campbell, 2007; MacCauly, 1963).

The third proposition adds the institutional drivers to the economic dimension. According to Campbell (2007) firms are more inclined to act socially responsible, if strong and state enforced regulations are in existing. Further, companies are more likely to comply with those regulations, if a strong enforcement system is existent and if the regulation is the result of a negotiations process that took place between corporations, the government and relevant stakeholders (Grant, 1997).

In addition to the state enforced regulations, Campbell (2007) proposes that corporations are also more likely to act in a socially responsible way, if self-organized industry regulation is in place. If those industry organized regulations are directed to prevent state intervention or economical crises, they are deemed to be most efficient (Djelic, 1998).

In addition to state regulations and self-organized regulation, stakeholder organized monitoring processes are also of importance. Following the arguments of Schneiberg & Soule (2005), Campbell (2007) concludes that companies are more likely to act socially responsible, if bodies like private organizations, NGOs, the press or other institutions monitor their behavior. Those institutions have various instruments to exercise force on companies, as they can influence the public opinion, organize media campaigns and influence politics.

Further to the existence of institutional monitoring, normative calls for socially responsible behavior from business publications, business school curricula and other institutionalized bodies can enforce a more socially responsible behavior of corporations (Westney, 2001). The underlying concept of this behavior is that managers tend to behave according to what other managers perceive as to be appropriate behavior and therefore are inclined to act according to the standards set by those bodies (Campbell, 2007).

If companies are organized in trade-organizations that are directed to establish long-term relationship with their peers, companies are also more inclined to develop a socially responsible behavior (Campbell, 2007). However, this effect is only visible if

the associations promote such behavior and educate their members about the importance of certain behavioral patterns (Schneiberg, 1999).

Communication is another very important factor for corporate socially behavior. Once corporations are engaged in institutionalized dialogue with their stakeholders, for example in labor unions, they are more likely to act in a socially responsible way (Campbell, 2007). This effect can be traced back to the improved communication that educates companies about the needs of their stakeholders and also helps them to transfer the expectations of their stakeholders into financial success by behaving in a way that is deemed to be socially responsible by their stakeholders (Campbell, 2007).

4.1.4 Dimensions of Corporate Social Responsibility

However, all explained models are discussing the foundation and categorization of CSR but do not include actual elements of CSR. After explaining economic and social and political theories that try to explain why companies act in the way they do, it is important to gain a brief understanding of the different dimensions CSR can have. Ultimately, this also helps to take the idea of CSR from a conceptualized level to a practical level.

To bring CSR to a measurable level, individual elements must be distinguished. The abstract models by Carroll, Schwartz, Quazi and O'Brien discuss different philosophies and attitudes towards CSR but lack tangible aspects that can help identifying the actual CSR activities of a company.

According to Welford (2005), CSR can be grouped into four aspects. Internal aspects that deal with topics like wages and non-discrimination; external aspects that emphasize for example on labor standards and human rights; accountability that is concerned about reporting standards; and citizenship which embarks third party social and sustainable activities.

Those aspects are derived from different conventions, laws, initiatives or declarations. The mentioned elements cover a broad range of CSR activities, however as they are derived from laws, conventions and other guidelines, most of them are rather technical. Despite having a technical source, the twenty elements of CSR provide a guideline that can identify and measure CSR activities of a company.

	<i>Element of CSR</i>	<i>Source of guidance</i>	<i>Code</i>
Internal aspects			
1	Written policies on non-discrimination in the workplace	UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948	Non-discrimination
2	Equal opportunities statements and implementation plans	ILO Conventions 100, 110 and 111	Equal opportunities
3	Statement on normal working hours, maximum overtime and fair wage structures	ILO Conventions 1, 30 and 47	Fair wages
4	Staff development, in-house education and vocational training	UNESCO Project on Technical and Vocational Education (UNEVOC)	Vocational education
5	The right of freedom of association, collective bargaining and complaints procedures	ILO Convention 98	Association
6	The protection of human rights within the company's own operations	UN Global Compact	Human rights 1
External aspects			
7	Policy on labour standards adopted by suppliers in developing countries	ILO International Labour Standards Convention, 144	Labour standards
8	Policy on restrictions on the use of child labour by suppliers	International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC)	Child labour
9	Commitment to the protection of human rights in the company's sphere of influence	UN Global Compact	Human rights 2
10	Inspection of suppliers' facilities for health, safety and environmental aspects	ILO Working Environment Convention, 148	Suppliers
11	Commitment to local community protection and engagement	UNESCO World Heritage Initiative	Local protection
12	Policy on responding to stakeholders including procedures for the resolution of complaints	Industry best practice	Stakeholder 1
13	Policies on fair trade, equitable trade and end-price auditing	Ethical Trading Initiative	Fair trade
14	Policies on the protection of indigenous populations and their rights	ILO Indigenous and Tribal Populations Convention, 169	Indigenous people
15	Code of ethics (including bribery and corruption)	Transparency International	Ethics
Accountability			
16	Commitment to reporting on corporate social responsibility and/or sustainable development	Global Reporting Initiative	Reporting
17	Policies and procedures for engaging a wide range of stakeholders in two-way dialogue	Industry best practice, AA1000 standard	Stakeholder 2
Citizenship			
18	Direct support for third-party social and sustainable development-related initiatives	Industry best practice	Third parties
19	Educational programmes for the promotion of corporate citizenship	Industry best practice	Education
20	External campaign programmes for raising social and sustainable development issues	Activities of 'leading-edge' companies	Campaigns

Table 1. Elements of CSR (Welford, 2005).

Beside the model provided by Welford (2005) which is of rather technical nature, a similar model was introduced by Capriotti & Moreno (2007) that is also classifying CSR activities. Although, the model by Capriotti & Moreno (2007) is supposed to be used in order to evaluate a company's CSR policies based on information available on their website, it provides a helpful framework on different aspects of CSR.

CSR themes	Definition
Corporate Profile	Explanation of its view, values and corporate strategy. Presentation of the company's property, structure and legal form; divisions, subsidiaries and countries with which it operates. Explanation of results.
Products and services	Products and Explanation of its products, services and brands from a corporate perspective and not from a commercial one (type of products, raw materials, manufacture systems, etc.)
Employment and human resources	Declarations and explanations of its systems of contract, promotion, evaluation and dismissal. Declarations and explanations about human rights in the company (children labour, discrimination. . .)
Economic action	Declarations and actions related to the economic impact of the company in its local, regional, national and supranational environment
Social action	Declarations and actions related to the company involvement in social issues.
Environmental action	Declarations and actions related to the company involvement in environmental issues
Corporate governance	Declarations and explanations of its transparency compromises in the governance of the company. Explanation of the structure of power, remunerations, responsibilities, government departments, etc.
Corporate ethics	Declarations and explanations about its ethical compromises in relation with the business and its groups of public.
Relationship with publics	Declarations and explanations about the interests, importance and linking of the stakeholders with the company
External criteria	Declarations, explanations and linking with the national and international criteria on aspects of the CSR and governance

Table 2. Corporate Sustainability Themes and Definition (Capriotti and Moreno, 2007).

A combination of both models can provide a comprehensive framework that helps categorizing CSR activities and thus also helps identifying which of those criteria are most important to graduate students.

Wong, Long, & Elankumaran (2010) tried to establish a connection between the perception of CSR of business students in China, India and the US. The study tests for the students' perception of different elements of CSR. Some aspects of CSR seem to be equally important to students from all cultural backgrounds that were under investigation. Gaining competitive advantage by increasing pollution is not acceptable to most of the students, regardless of their cultural background (Wong et al., 2010). Further, immediate recall of defective products is also a necessity for most of the students. However, the importance of different elements of CSR is not a concept that will be under investigation in this thesis.

4.2 Communicating CSR

This study's main focus is to research whether communication of CSR activities can work as a factor which is increasing attractiveness as an employer. However, it is necessary to know whether business students are actually interested in CSR or if they might even see CSR activities in a negative context, like Friedman did. According to the results of the conference of the Association of Graduate Recruiters which was held in 2006, graduates are not convinced by CSR messages conveyed by companies (Philips, 2006). The paper brings up important arguments why graduates are not convinced by CSR activities of companies. The reaction of the surveyed graduates range from skeptical over suspicious to hostile.

It seems that graduates are worried when companies overemphasize CSR activities, they just do so to improve their image and do not really live up to those messages (Philips, 2006). Furthermore, some students are not attracted by CSR activities, as they do not want to work for charity and don't see why companies should promote CSR (Philips, 2006). Another group of graduates views CSR activities and economic growth as mutually exclusive (Philips, 2006).

Although those conference findings are not based on reliable scientific evidence, they give an important impulse how negative reactions to CSR activities can be directed.

When researching whether CSR activities affect graduates choice for an employer, communications seems to be a crucial factor. The way companies communicate their CSR activities can have influence on the graduate's perception of the company. Therefore it is important to examine whether a possible hostile attitude towards the company or CSR in general is a result of inadequate communication.

To detect what can be defined as "good communication" the CSR communication framework introduced by Amaldoss & Manohar (2013). The framework consist of five dimensions which are communication frequency, bidirectional communication, communication quality, communication diversity and communication openness (Amaldoss & Manohar, 2013).

- *Communication frequency* is derived from supply chain management and is concerned with the amount of times an information is transmitted (Mohr & Nevin, 1990). Generally, it can be stated that collaboration grows with frequency of communication (Rama, Massey, Thyne, Deans, & Gnoth, 2007). However, frequency does not necessarily equal quality and is therefore not sufficient for a good relationship (Fisher, Maltz, & Jaworski, 1997).
- *Bidirectional communication* defines communication as sharing of information in a two-directional process that also includes feedback (Mohr & Nevin, 1990).
- *Communication quality* describes the credibility, relevance, usefulness and understandability of the information provided (Fisher et al., 1997; Rama et al., 2007).
- *Communication diversity* is concerned with the amount of different information exchanged between the parties (Mohr & Spekran, 1994).
- *Communication openness* describes the informal process of sharing information between partners (Smith & Barclay, 1998).

The above presented criteria form an easy and comprehensive guideline on which necessary requirements effective communication should fulfill and can help to provide a diagnostic tool to answer the question why communicated CSR activities are not appealing to graduate students. Based on these criteria, Amaldoss & Manohar (2013) develop a model for effective CSR communication.

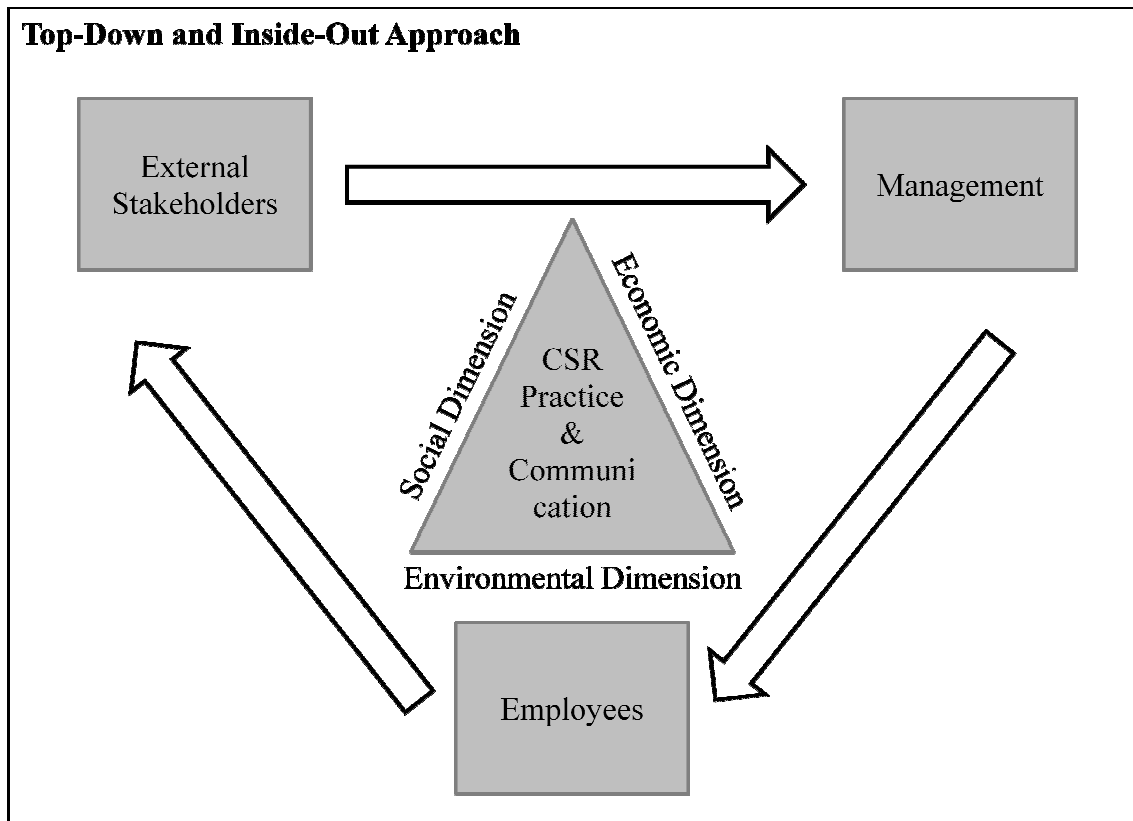


Figure 5. Top-Down and Inside-Out Approach (Amaldoss & Manohar, 2013).

The model depicts the idea to view CSR from two perspectives, the managerial perspective and the stakeholder perspective (Bowd, Bowd, & Harris, 2006). According to the model a clear definition of communication objectives to both, external as well as internal stakeholders is the basis for functioning communication (Birth, Illia, Lurati, & Zamparini, 2008). The second step is to develop a communication model that is based on a top-down and an inside-out approach (Amaldoss & Manohar, 2013). The top-down approach is designed to involve all employees from CEO to employee, as well as shareholders and more distant stakeholders (Amaldoss & Manohar, 2013). In order to be coherent, strategic CSR communication decisions are designed in top-level management to convey a cohesive and convincing message. The inside-out approach is directed to ensure employee commitment before communicating to stakeholders outside the company (Amaldoss & Manohar, 2013). The model is meant to be participative and engage employees as well as external stakeholders on various levels (Rama et al., 2007).

However, communication is a crucial factor that can help influencing whether CSR as seen as an attractiveness factor or not, it will not be researched in this study, as it does not fall into the scope of the original research questions. Although, it might be

important to understand whether communication problems could be the reason for hostility towards CSR.

4.3 Importance of CSR in Employees' Perception

Apart from the studies that define the scope of CSR activities, models or philosophies, the average person is probably not too concerned about those theoretical foundations. Thus, a person might perceive CSR activities carried out by the employer as positive and hence provides positive feedback, like higher motivation, to the employer, but does not think of CSR in terms of measurement, models or philosophies. Therefore, it is important to identify how CSR is perceived in reality. As this study is concerned about the importance of CSR from a potential employee's perspective, it seems to be reasonable to try to identify whether a company should be concerned about how employees perceive their CSR activities and which effect good CSR records can have on existing employees as well as on prospective employees.

When examining whether CSR can function as a tool to attract talent, it is of importance to evaluate whether CSR also is a motivator that retains and motivates employees. Additionally, it is also of interest if CSR can increase job performance of employees. It seems to be a proof of the theses of Porter & Kramer (2011) when managers find that CSR can be used as a tool to increase job performance (Kotler & Lee, 2005). In doing so, managers demonstrate that CSR is not done only for philanthropic reasons nor as an end in itself but is used integrated to increase profitability of the company. However, this approach is also criticized. Dewhurst, Guthridge, & Mohr (2009) question whether CSR can really be a tool that produces measurable changes in terms of employee output and not only a positive atmosphere for employees.

Out of the various stakeholders of a company, the employee is one of the most important ones (Reddington, 2005). But the employee is not only stakeholder but also a resource of the company. Thus companies are required to account for this twofold importance of the employee for the company. Employee attraction, retention and motivation are all core fields of human resource management (HRM) and they all have a link to CSR. As this study aims to figure out if there is a correlation between employee attraction and CSR activities, the fields of retention and motivation are also of importance here, as they are closely linked together. Thus, those three fields of HRM in connection with CSR will be examined further. However, it is not the aim of this study to go deep

into fields like motivation theory but rather identify where the points of contact to CSR are.

To understand what motivates people, it is necessary to understand that needs of people are diverse (Deci, 1975) and different environments and situation affect those needs (Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989). Thus, the various theories that exist might be applicable in one setting but are not applicable for another environment or situation, as there is not a single source of motivation (Gunkel, 2006). Different institutional drivers, such as culture or political economy do affect the motivation of people (Kim & Scullion, 2013). CSR is one factor that is located within different institutional forms and settings and therefore contributes to different motivational factors of employees (Kim & Scullion, 2013). It seems that lately employers recognize that CSR can be used as an instrument to motivate employees (Basil & Weber, 2006). It seems that employees can be motivated by CSR above material benefits and several scholars argue that CSR can be a quite powerful instrument for employee motivation (Kim & Scullion, 2013).

Kim & Scullion (2013) link CSR to three main areas of employee needs, achievement, affiliation and power. Kim & Scullion (2013) find that the need for achievement correlates to CSR especially in terms of pride. Employees feel proud when they are able to engage in CSR activities or work for companies that are outstanding in CSR activities (Kim & Scullion, 2013). The study suggest that CSR connected to achievement can create a high job satisfaction, as employees feel a sense of purpose in their job (Kim & Scullion, 2013). A positive effect that draws the correlation between job commitment, pride and CSR was also discovered by Maignan, Ferrel, & Hult (1999). Closely related to pride is also loyalty. Being proud of the company or the job does not only lead to high job satisfaction but also loyalty towards the company (Kim & Scullion, 2013). Further, the study finds that CSR activities performed by employees themselves on behalf of the company can contribute to a certain "fun factor" that increases happiness and thus also job satisfaction (Kim & Scullion, 2013). However, this factor is mostly observable in visionary companies that are willing to experiment with different strategies (Kim & Scullion, 2013).

CSR also affects the employees' needs for affiliation (Kim & Scullion, 2013). By giving employees the chance to participate in CSR activities, they can show and live their affiliation for others which can contribute to their happiness and lead to positive feedback in terms of work motivation (Kim & Scullion, 2013).

Further, as Carmeli, Gilat, & Waldman (2007) suggest, there seems to be a connection between job commitment, CSR and prestige. CSR activities can improve the public image of the company and hence employees working for that company gain in prestige which in return leads to a higher motivation of those employees (Carmeli et al., 2007).

There seems to be little evidence that CSR has a connection the dimension power. This suggests that CSR is not seen as an instrument to exercise control or create a relationship of dependence (Kim & Scullion, 2013). The study rather suggests that employees appreciate the humanitarian aspect that is not present in other organizational fields (Kim & Scullion, 2013).

Glavas & Kelley (2014) examine the mechanisms behind CSR driving employee's job satisfaction and find that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are the most reliable predictors for employee behavior and establish the following model on how CSR can influence those two variables.

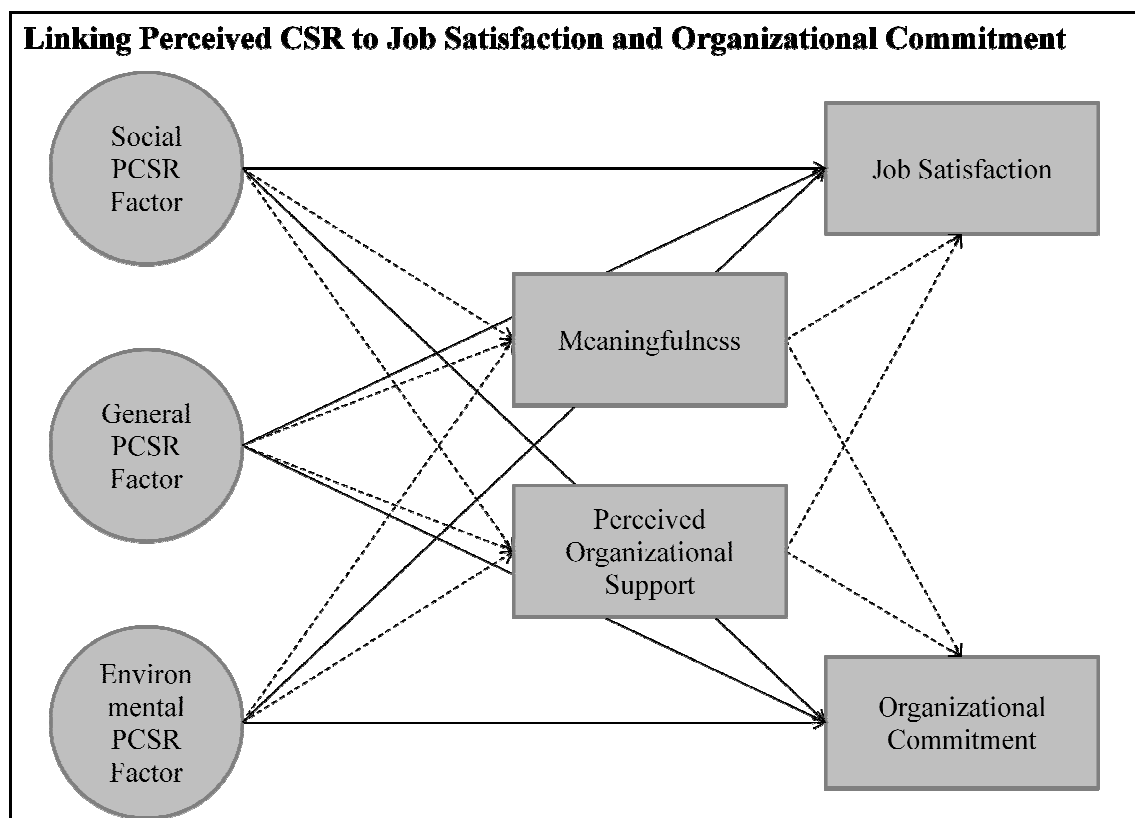


Figure 6. Top-Down and Inside-Out Approach (Glavas & Kelley, 2014).

In the model, they propose the idea that "meaningfulness" and "perceived organizational support" function as mediating mechanisms for CSR having an effect on employee's organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Glavas & Kelley, 2014). The idea builds up on the hypotheses of Wrzesniewski (2003), claiming that employees have three main drivers to work: job orientation, where material benefits provide motivation; career orientation, where achievements like pay or prestige are the main drivers; and calling orientation, where making the world a better place is the main driver for motivation.

Relating the dimension of calling orientation to job satisfaction and organizational commitment could mean that perceived CSR is a strong motivator for employees who are calling orientated (Glavas & Kelley, 2014).

Glavas & Kelley (2014) find their model approved in their study which supports the hypothesis that perceived CSR has a positive effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment and that meaningfulness and perceived organizational support function as mediators for those attributes. However, the environmental factor did not seem to have great influence on organizational commitment or job satisfaction (Glavas & Kelley, 2014). The result of this study allows companies to test whether new CSR measures or campaigns have influence on the proposed dimensions and mediators and hence measure the effect on employee attitude.

Korschun, Bhattacharya, & Swain (2014) argue that managerial support for CSR is very important to create a stronger corporate identity. The behavior of the management shapes the employees perception for the underlying values of the company (Korschun et al., 2014). They propose that if managers are considered as role models and if they take actions that reflects the company's CSR values, employees are encouraged to follow those values and identify with them (Hekman, Steensma, Bigley, & Herford, 2009). They find that employees approve this thesis and that the importance of CSR as an criterion for identification with the company is rising (Korschun et al., 2014). Touching the field of corporate identity here, the idea that focusing on CSR will increase employees' identification with the company is based on the suggestion of Hekman, et al. (2009), proposing that identification with the company will lead employees to adopt workplace behavior and thus also benefit employee performance.

Korschun et al. (2014) find that there is a positive and significant correlation between corporate identity and a strong managerial support for CSR. Further, they find

the thesis that there seems to be a correlation between job performance and CSR partially supported (Korschun et al., 2014).

An example from business practice where CSR is used as a tool for employee attraction, motivation and retention is IBM's "1-1-1 model" (Mirvis, 2012). The model states that 1% of the founding stock is going to corporate foundations, actively helping communities; 1% of employees working time is dedicated to philanthropic activities fitting into IBM's philosophy; and 1% of customer subscriptions are donated to non-profit organizations (Mirvis, 2012).

Those findings show that job performance and motivation are linked to CSR, however there has been no extensive research on whether CSR has an effect already in an applicants' process of selecting potential employers.

4.4 CSR and Company Attractiveness - Individual and Cultural Dimensions

This chapter is dedicated to explore whether the Person-Organization fit has an ethical component that influences individuals in evaluating attractiveness of a company or a job. Further, it should be evaluated whether cultural dimensions or individual values or both influence and individual's perception of the importance of CSR.

4.4.1 CSR in Person-Organization Fit - The Ethical Fit

As CSR is becoming more popular, there is growing evidence, that CSR can influence the existing and prospective workforce of a company, as also discussed in previous chapters. A study of Environics International (2002) which surveyed around 25,000 people from 25 countries, revealed that 80% of the respondents who were employed at large international companies perceived an increase in motivation and loyalty, once their companies engaged stronger in socially responsible behavior.

Besides researching the influence of CSR on the existing workforce, there are only few studies existing that are directed to establish a correlation between CSR and an individual's intention to apply at a certain company. However, establishing such a correlation seems to be crucial in order to identify whether CSR is correlated to a company's attractiveness.

Different researchers propose that different organizational dimension, like policies and practices, image and performance are not only influencing existing employees but are also considered by applicants when deciding for a job (Turban & Greening, 1996; Albinger & Freeman, 2000; Backhaus, Stone, & Heiner, 2002; Ramasamy,

Yeung, & Yuan, 2008). According to Rynes & Cable (2003), a company that is able to provide a good image, desirable job attributes and development possibilities, will be able to attract high qualified employees. The effect that “good” companies are able to attract “good” employees can be explained with the concept of Person-Organization fit (P-O fit) (Kim & Park, 2011). The research questions are proposed as follows:

R2a: Is there an interaction effect between perceived importance of CSR and evaluating the importance of CSR as an attractiveness factor of a company?

R2b: Is there a correlation between perceived importance of CSR and P-O fit (ethical fit)?

Literature on the correlation between company's attractiveness for job seekers and the company's CSR activities is based on two main theories.

First, the signaling theory proposes that firms provide explicit and implicit information which is gathered and utilized by job seekers to draw conclusions on the behavior of that firm (Backhaus et al., 2002; Albinger & Freeman, 2000). The signals that the firm provides to job seekers tells them what it is like to work for that company and allows them to draw their conclusions (Turban & Greening, 1996). From the conclusion they evaluate, whether working conditions in the company are acceptable for themselves (Ramasamy et al., 2008). Conclusions drawn specifically from socially responsible behavior of the corporation, influence whether job seekers find their norms and values reflected in the companies' behavior (Turban & Greening, 1996).

The second important theory is the social identity theory which adds to the signaling theory by stating that an individual classifies her- or himself into social categories based on different factors, like the corporate they work for (Turban & Greening, 1996). The membership in those categories influences an individual's self concept and values (Turban & Greening, 1996). Therefore, job seekers are mostly attracted to corporations that fits the values of that category. According to Ramasamy et al., (2008) those theories suggest that CSR activities are influencing job seekers tremendously and thus will affect which company will get the best employees. Although different researchers seem to agree that CSR can have heavy influence on job decisions, they also state that this effect most probably will be observable in demographic and geographical layers of

population that have the luxury of being able to choose amongst different job opportunities (Albinger & Freeman, 2000; Turban & Greening, 1996). In regions where people are not well educated, jobs are scarce or other reasons that are limiting an individual's job choice are prevalent, CSR will most probably have no significant influence on job seekers (Backhaus et al., 2002).

One very important concept for this study is the mentioned P-O fit (Kim & Park, 2011). P-O fit, as defined by Kristof (1996) can be described as the compatibility between a person and an organization. According to Kristof (1996) this compatibility is given when at least one party provides what the other needs or they share fundamentally important characteristics. According to Rynes, Bretz, & Gerhart (1991) the assessment of the perceived fit is influenced by different dimensions, such as the company's reputation, the individual's attitude towards the product or the specific industry, particular functional areas in the organization, advancement opportunities and the location of the firm.

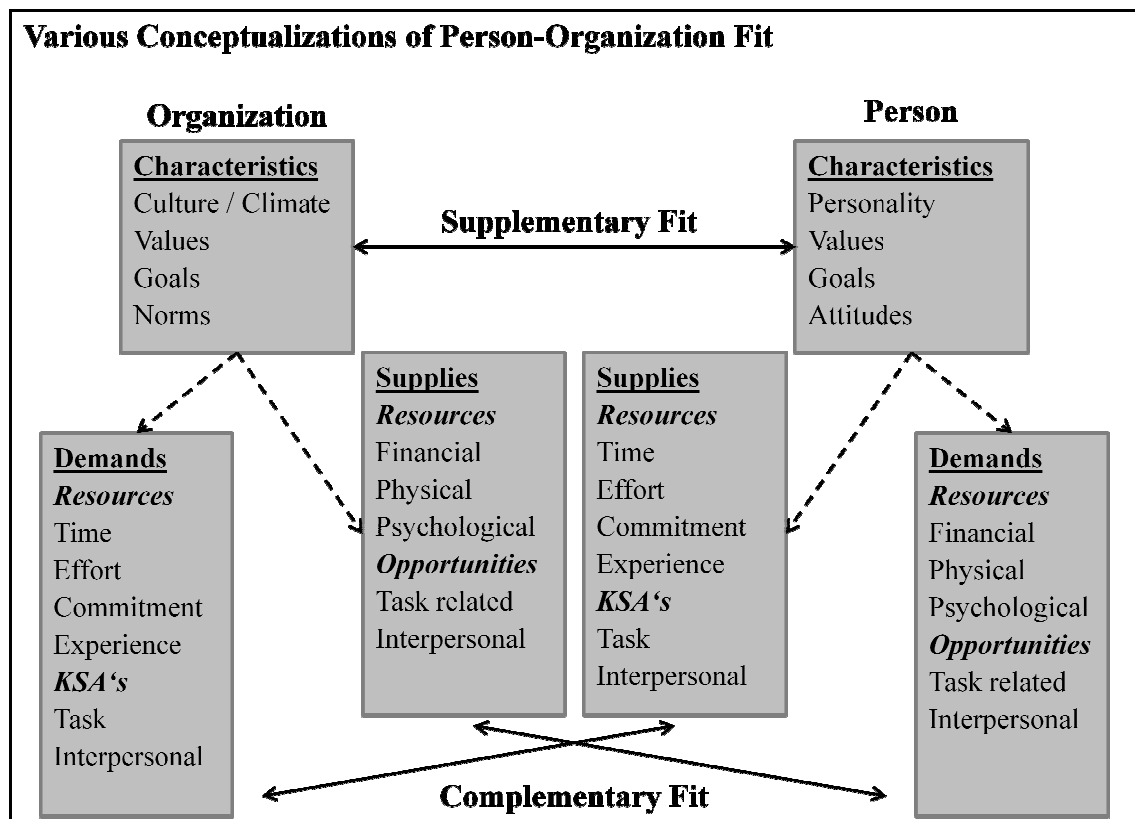


Figure 7. Various Conceptualizations of Person-Organization Fit (Kristof, 1996).

The model above illustrates the relationship between an individual and an organization according to Kristof (1996). The relation is characterized as supplementary fit, which includes fundamental characteristics of the organization and the individual such as culture, values, goals and attitudes (Kristof, 1996). When there are similarities or overlaps in those characteristics, a supplementary fit is given (Kristof, 1996). While the supplementary fit describes the characteristics to be initially given for a P-O fit, the complementary fit describes the dimensions of demands and supplies of both sides (Kristof, 1996). A needs-supplies fit is achieved, when the supplies of the organization cover the demands of the individual (Kristof, 1996). In return, a demands-abilities fit is evident, once the individual's abilities cover the companies' demands (Kristof, 1996).

P-O fit is of importance on two main dimensions: job seekers and current employees (Kim & Park, 2011). On the dimension, of job seekers, assessment of P-O fit can influence the job search and job choice on the individual's side and the recruitment and selection on the organizational side (Kristof, 1996). On the side of current employees, P-O fit can define job satisfaction, work attitude, stress level, performance, social behavior job commitment, intention to leave and turnover rate (Kim & Park, 2011; Kristof, 1996). For this study, the side of job seekers is of main importance and hence will be investigated further.

However, measuring the P-O fit can be difficult. In general, direct and indirect measuring must be distinguished (Kristof, 1996). Direct measurement is also described as perceived P-O fit (Kristof, 1996). Direct measurement includes the judgment of the person and how an individual perceives the complementarity of his or her own values with the company's values (Kristof, 1996). Cable & Judge (1994) propose that perceived P-O fit influences an applicant in the intention to apply for a job. Perceived fit can be seen as independent from actual fit, as from the individual's perspective, as long as the fit is perceived, it is existent, regardless whether there is a real compatibility (Kristof, 1996). For those who perceive a fit with an organization, Kristof (1996) establishes a positive correlation with higher loyalty and job satisfaction. Indirect measures in contrast hereto ought to identify the actual fit on an objective basis (Kristof, 1996). Measuring the P-O fit on an indirect basis includes different methods that compare the values of a company to those of an individual, without asking one or the other side of judgment (Kristof, 1996). However, indirect measurement can help identifying the actual fit, it does not necessarily help in predicting whether an individual intends to apply at the researched organization, as the perceived fit might differ from the actual fit. There-

fore, the measurements of the actual fit will not be conducted in this study, as the perceived fit is of interest. Hence, the evaluation in this study will be based on the judgment of the respondents and how this perception influences the importance of CSR as a job or company attractiveness factor.

P-O fit consists of many different dimension of which one is the ethical fit (Kim & Park, 2011). As for this study, the company attractiveness according to the ethical fit is under investigation, this dimension of P-O fit, is of most importance for this study.

Ethical values are an important part of one's personal values and beliefs. Recognizing an ethical fit can take place in different ways. According to Finegan & Theriault (1997) a corporations code of ethics can be an indicator whether the personal ethical values are compatible with the corporation's ethical values. The greater the fit of those values, the greater is the chance that the person evaluates the corporation in a positive way (Kim & Park, 2011), which might influence the decision to apply for this specific company. Another way to evaluate ethical compatibility is through perceived CSR (Valentine & Fleischmann, 2008). Perceived CSR is related to image an individual has of a certain company. This image can be influenced via campaigns, media or other channels. Perceived CSR is an important component of ethical fit, as it defines how the individual evaluates the ethical behavior of a company and hence it might influence the intent to apply at that company. This link of ethical fit to intent to apply is coherent with Branco & Rodrigues' (2006) thesis that proposes that a good social reputation of a company attracts high skilled employees, boosts motivation of employees and increases loyalty and thus leads to an increase in financial performance of that company.

Turban & Greening (1996) stated that the social behavior of a firm can be an important factor for company attractiveness as a potential employer. Different researcher suggest that CSR will to some degree explain perceived P-O fit, intent to apply and organizational attractiveness (Kim & Park, 2011). Cable & Judge (1994) proposed that especially ethically orientated employees evaluate CSR as an important trait of a company. Further, Trevino & Nelson (2006) suggest that most employees prefer being associated with a company that has a good reputation with regard to its social behavior. Crocker & Luhtanen (1990) trace this idea back to the effect that employees can maintain and enhance their self-esteem and self-worth by identifying themselves with a positive image of a company. In addition, Finegan & Theriault (1997) find that the more an employee can identify with the CSR policy of a company, the more will the employee value CSR. Following those findings, it seems that ethical fit is an important measure

for an employee to identify with the company. Concluding from this, CSR as an important part of a person's evaluation of ethical fit can be function as an indicator how attractive an organization is as an employer (Kim & Park, 2011).

Kim & Park (2011) research whether CSR can be an important factor for a relation building process with potential employees in the decision phase of an individual whether to apply for that company or not. The study ought to identify the effect of CSR on the perceived ethical fit, organization attraction and the intention to apply under four different conditions (Kim & Park, 2011). Kim & Park (2011) researched this effect only on undergraduate students in the field of studies associated with public relations. They find that CSR record of a company has a significant influence on the student's evaluation of whether the company's ethical standards fits their own ethical standards and that students prefer working with companies that have good CSR policies (Kim & Park, 2011). Furthermore, they find that students evaluate potential employers as more attractive and have a stronger intention to apply once a corporation is engaging in CSR activities or policies (Kim & Park, 2011). In conclusion, the study shows that CSR can be a factor which is significantly influencing the intention to apply of potential employees, even for companies that have been in recent trouble, students showed interest if the company had a good reputation with regard to CSR (Kim & Park, 2011). However, the study suggest that CSR can be an important factor, influencing potential employees, the results of the study cannot be generalized or transferred to this study, as no cross-national items were included and the study was only limited students from the field of public relations.

The findings of Kim & Park (2011) are coherent with the findings from Turban & Greening (1996). Turban & Greening (1996) find that firms with a good corporate social performance (CSP) have a better reputation than those with a low score in CSP, thus companies with good CSR records are more attractive as an employer. Further, Turban & Greening (1996) suggest that applicants are aware of those CSR activities and therefore are influenced in their job decision by the CSR record of a company. Concluding on these findings, Turban & Greening (1996) state that CSR can give a company a competitive advantage, as it attracts good employees. According to Turban & Greening (1996), the social identity theory can partly explain, why an individual is more inclined to work for a company that acts socially responsible more than for a company that does not. A positive reputation of a company connected to good CSR policies and activities is seen as more attractive, as job seekers expect to have a positive self-concept while

working for such a company (Turban & Greening 1996). Those findings are backed by Albinger & Freeman (2000), who find that CSR seems to be an important factor when companies are searching for highly educated employees with a high level of job choice. Albinger & Freeman (2000) therefore conclude, that CSR can grant companies a competitive advantage, as it will attract highly skilled employees. Furthermore, Albinger & Freeman (2000) confirm the findings suggested by different scholars (Turban & Greening, 1996; Backhaus et al., 2002; Ramasamy et al., 2008), stating that CSR will be mainly influencing highly skilled individuals with a high degree in job choice. According to Albinger & Freeman (2000), job searchers with low degree in job choice who have to find a job urgently to fulfill basic needs, will not have the luxury to evaluate a P-O fit on any other base than payment.

McGinty & Reitsch (1992) even go one step further, as they find in a study amongst American graduate students that location of the job, advancement possibilities, social responsibility of the corporate, tasks within the described job that touched areas outside the student's main field of interest and salary all have significant influence on the respondents choice to apply for a job. However, McGinty & Reitsch (1992) find that salary seems to be the least important, whereas the location seems to be the most important factor, followed by advancement possibilities and social responsibility of the corporate. However, the ranking seems to be conflicting of the results with other studies, where salary reached a higher perceived importance, the sample size of 480 students and the homogeneity of the reviewed group might be the underlying cause for this effect. Although, the result might not be transferrable to other sample groups, the study has shown that CSR can be an important attribute for students when applying for a job.

H2a: An individual's perceived importance of CSR is positively correlated with perceived importance of CSR as an attractiveness factor of a company. A company that is perceived as socially responsible will be therefore more attractive.

H2b: An individual's perceived P-O fit (ethical fit) is positively correlated to perceived importance of CSR. Therefore, an individual with high perceived importance of CSR will perceive a better P-O fit (ethical fit) with a company that engages in CSR.

4.4.2 Individual Values and Perceived Importance of CSR

The just explored concept of P-O fit is a construct that is highly dependent on different variables. Obviously, cultural dimensions play a role in the individuals' process of evaluating the P-O fit of a specific company but also personality measures that are attributed to a single individual seem to be of high importance in addition to those cultural measures (Tsai & Chen, 2012). Therefore, it should be investigated which individual values are reasonable determinants for defining how important an individual perceives CSR and is ultimately influenced by this perceived importance in his or her decision for applying for a job.

RQ3: Is there an interaction effect between individual values and perceived importance of CSR?

This brings up the question to which degree individual values or personality are measurable constructs. According to Cattell (1943) personality is measurable by observing traits, thus personality is defined as the construct that drives an individual to a specific action in a specific situation. A common method to evaluate an individual's personality is using the Big Five (Goldberg, 1990) or Five Factor Model of personality traits (Costa & McCrae, 1992). The traits that are used in this measurement procedure are conscientiousness, extraversion, emotional stability, agreeableness and openness (Tsai & Chen, 2012). This model is widely accepted in personality research, however some researchers use more or less than five factors (Judge & Cable, 1997). By applying those five traits to predict the corporate citizenship behavior of an individual and to assess the P-O fit of an individual, Tsai & Chen (2012) find that those five traits have a good predictability when assessing the P-O fit of an individual. However, in the study of Tsai & Chen (2012), the ethical fit was not explicitly under investigation, but as ethical fit is an integral part of P-O fit, it can be assumed that the traits also have predictability for the ethical fit.

However, according to Judge & Cable (1997) predicting job choices on the basis of personality might be not the most favorable method, as they are so generalized and enduring. Therefore, Judge & Cable (1997) propose that individual values might have a better predictability in terms of job choice. Values have been defined by different researches, a common definition by Rokeach (1973) describes values as intrinsic perspectives on what is right or wrong. Therefore, the concept of values differs from the conceptualization of personality in the way that personality is to some degree stable and enduring, whereas values are described as less static subjective judgments (Judge & Cable, 1997). However, in terms of job choice, according to Judge & Cable (1997), values and preference for a specific working environment are a function of the underlying personality and thus both conceptualizations are interwoven.

This discussion leads to the question which values will have a good predictability to assess the perceived importance of CSR also with regard to the P-O fit and perceived importance of CSR. Therefore, it seems to be most important to measure the moral values of an individual. Different scholars have used the four dimensions idealism, ethical relativism, spirituality and materialism, as those are supposed to establish a reasonable conceptualization of an individual's moral values.

A variety of factors play a crucial role when assessing the attitude of an individual towards CSR. Forsyth, Nye, & Kelley (1987) suggest that derived from Forsyth's (1980) two-dimensional model of personal moral philosophies there are two main underlying dimensions for individual moral perception. Those dimensions are idealism and ethical relativism (Forsyth et al., 1987). Idealism is connected to the thinking that one must act in a way that is not harming others, whereas non-idealists argue that sometimes harm is acceptable if the action produces an outcome that is beneficial for a larger group than the group that is harmed by that action (Forsyth et al., 1987). Relativists deny the existence of universal ethical or moral laws. In ethical relativism there is no universal right or wrong, ethical behavior strongly depends on the context (Crane & Matten, 2010). Culture is an important situational aspect and it is argued that one cannot judge the behavior in other cultures from outside, as ethical behavior is a factor that is determined by the prevailing culture (Crane & Matten, 2010). Non-relativists, or absolutists, propose that there are universal laws or guidelines with regard to ethical behavior by which everyone should abide (Forsyth et al., 1987). Kant's categorical imperative is an example for this ethical absolutism (Crane & Matten, 2010). The categorical imperative consist of three maxims that state that one should only act according to the

thinking that his actions should become a universal law (Crane & Matten, 2010). Further, humans should always be treated as rational actors and deserve respect and dignity (Crane & Matten, 2010). Finally, one should check if the underlying principles of the action is acceptable for every human being (Crane & Matten, 2010).

Building on the two dimensional model, Kolodinsky, Madden, Zisk, & Henkel, (2010) research business student's attitude towards CSR. Kolodinsky et al., (2010) use the four already mentioned dimensions to assess business students' attitudes towards CSR: idealism, relativism, spiritualism and materialism.

Kolodinsky et al. (2010) find that ethical idealism influences the student's attitude towards CSR positively. Students who are ethical idealistic have a more positive attitude towards CSR than those that are not idealistic (Kolodinsky et al., 2010). On the other side, materialism and ethical relativism showed to have a negative correlation with attitude towards CSR (Kolodinsky et al., 2010). This implies that business students that tend to believe that there are no universally applicable ethical laws, are closer to the classical theory where already Friedman (1970) proposed that the main responsibility of a company is to generate monetary profit (Kolodinsky et al., 2010). It is concluded that those students have a less positive attitude towards CSR. Another factor that influences students' attitude towards is materialism. Kolodinsky et al. (2010) find that students that have a high materialistic interest are inclined to have a rather negative attitude towards CSR. Another factor examined in the study is spiritualism. Spiritualism does not show any significant correlation with attitude towards CSR (Kolodinsky et al., 2010). The study suggests that personal traits can influence the attitude towards CSR. However, the cultural background was not under investigation in this study.

The following part will derive definitions of the four dimensions and propose hypotheses with regard to the influence of those respective dimensions on perceived importance CSR.

Idealism, as already mentioned, describes the ability of an individual to develop a genuine concern for the well-being of another individual and only undertake those actions that do not involve others to be harmed by the outcome (Forsyth et al., 1987). Individuals who score high in idealism tend to believe that the "right" behavior will lead to a good outcome (Forsyth, 1980). Therefore, it is assumed that the more idealistic an individual is, the more this individual is concerned about CSR (Vitell, Paolillo, & Thomas, 2003). Hence, following hypothesis is suggested:

H3a: There is a positive relationship idealism and an individual's perceived importance of CSR. Individuals with high idealism will therefore perceive CSR as more important.

Ethical relativism in return, as defined by Crane & Matten (2010) is referred to an individual's skepticism regarding to universally applicable ethical and moral values. According to Forsyth (1987), relativists are inclined to base their judgment on the context of an individual situation rather than on fixed values. However, ethical relativism does not necessarily mean that an individual is less concerned about ethics or CSR than an idealistic individual (Vitell et al., 2003). Still, it is assumed that relativism will have negative effect on the perceived importance of CSR, therefore following hypothesis is proposed:

H3b: There is a negative relationship between ethical relativism and an individual's perceived importance of CSR. Individuals that tend to be relativistic will therefore perceive CSR as less important.

Spirituality as defined by Kolodinsky et al., (2010), describes an individual's relationship or belief in a supreme power or "transcendent force" that provides a spiritual connection with others. Kolodinsky et al., (2010) find that spirituality is connected to a feeling of connectedness with other beings, hence people with high level of spirituality are more inclined to perceive CSR as important. These findings are backed by a study by Giacalone & Jurkiewicz (2003) who find that spirituality can be a predictor whether an individual perceives certain business practices as unethical. Therefore, the following hypothesis is concluded from above findings:

H3c: There is a positive relationship between spirituality and an individual's perceived importance of CSR. Individuals that tend to be more spiritual will therefore perceive CSR as more important.

Materialism, the last indicator, is defined by Tatzel (2002) as a form of devotion to acquire and possess material goods and finding satisfaction in the possession of tangible goods. A high degree of materialism can indicate that an individual is more self-centered and less sensitive to the needs of other individuals (Ahuvia & Kasser, 2002). Therefore it could be assumed that a high degree in materialism is connected to less sensitivity for social issues and hence a less positive perception of importance of CSR (Kolodinsky et al., 2010). Following proposition is made:

H3d: There is a negative relationship between materialism and an individual's perceived importance of CSR. Individuals that tend to be more materialistic will therefore perceive CSR as less important.

4.4.3 Cultural Dimension and CSR

After in the previous parts, a correlation between the perception of importance of CSR and individual values was examined, another important step is to identify, whether cultural dimensions also influence the perception of importance of CSR. Establishing such a correlation helps to answer the second main part of this study, whether the influence of individual values or cultural dimensions is more important to evaluate whether perceived importance of CSR can influence an individual in evaluating a company's attractiveness. The research question therefore is as follows:

RQ4: Is there a correlation between different cultural dimensions and perceived importance of CSR?

As this paper is aiming to investigate also cultural differences with respect to CSR, a definition of culture is necessary. In order to assess differences on a measurable level, the cultural dimensions of Hofstede will be used. According to (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010) four manifestations of culture are to be distinguished: symbols, rituals, heroes and values.

- *Symbols* are described as particular gestures, words or objects that have a particular meaning, which is recognized mainly by those who share a specific culture. Clothes, language, slang, flags or music belong to this category (Hofstede, 2001; de Mooij, 2014).
- *Heroes* are persons that carry specific characteristics that are highly valued in a specific society and thus a hero serves as a role model. A hero can be any person, be it dead, alive, real or imaginary (Hofstede, 2001; de Mooij, 2014).
- *Rituals*, as described by de Mooij (2014) are activities that are seen as essential for a specific culture. Rituals can be specific greeting gestures, ceremonies or religious activities.
- *Values* are referred to as the core of culture, as they express the underlying values and norms of a society on which all the other dimensions are built on. Symbols, heroes and rituals are therefore expressions of those values (Hofstede, 2001).

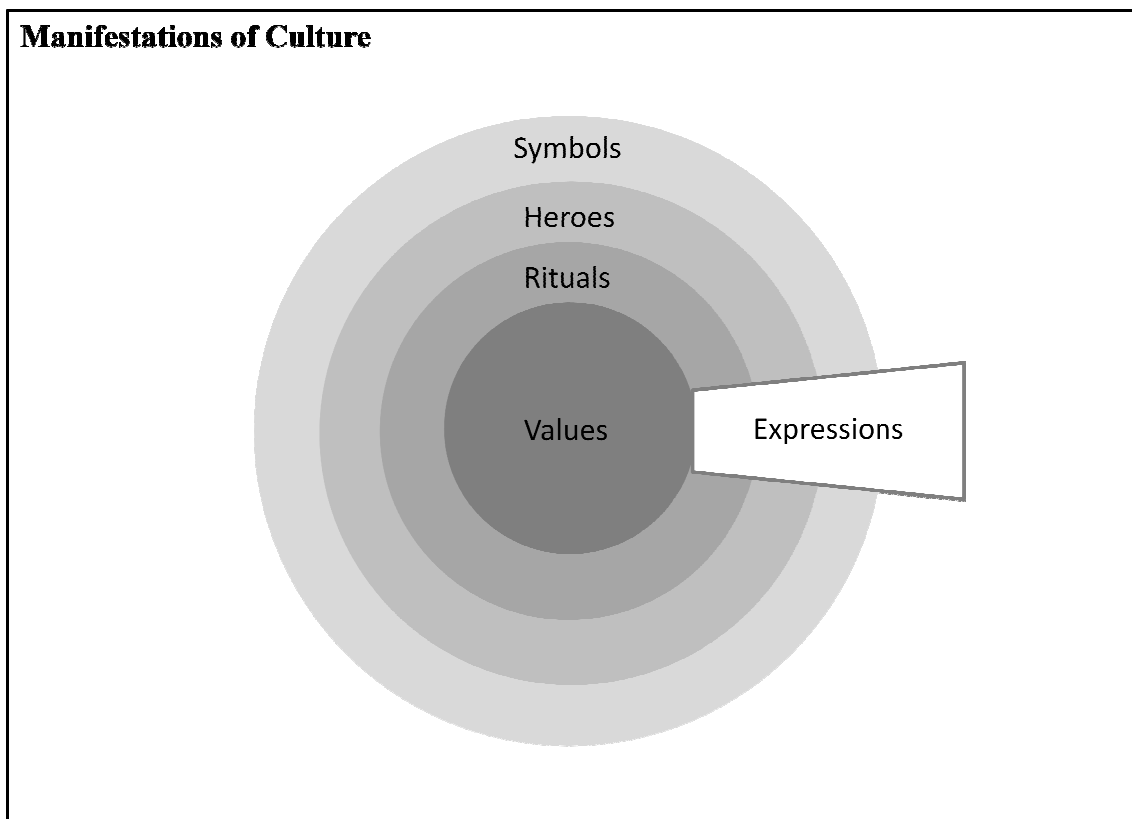


Figure 8. Manifestations of Culture (Hofstede et al., 2010).

The figure above shows the correlation between values of a culture and the different forms of its expressions, as described by Hofstede (2001). Culture is described as the link that binds members of one specific society together and functions as an underlying pattern to enable human beings to live together as a part of a society (de Mooij, 2014). Geertz (1973) describes culture as a set of control mechanisms for an individual's behavior. Hofstede (2001) in return defines culture as a form of mental programming of a specific group of people in a specific socio-cultural environment. Hence, culture is not a trait of an individual but includes the experiences of a specific group of people (Hofstede, 2001). An important aspect of culture is how people see the world, including philosophy, the universe and nature (Samovar, Porter, & McDaniel, 2012).

Although, cultural and individual values are regarded as distinguishable concepts, an individual is to some degree a product of his or her culture (de Mooij, 2014). Culture is not an abstract system that is independent from each individual but interwoven with each belonging individual of a society (de Mooij, 2014). De Mooij (2014) describes culture as an analogy to an individual's memory, as culture includes actions or elements that turned out to function for a specific society in the past and therefore have been carried to the present times.

The below figure illustrates the correlation between cultural values and individual values (Hofstede, 2001). The diagram shows the different layers of culture and goes from general to specific. The first layer includes the whole world, with which we share the fact, that we are all human beings (de Mooij, 2014). Continents are the second layer, and also include a wide range of people, who share some general characteristics like language (Hofstede, 2001). The next more specific level is nation, different nations can be located on one continent and share a political system, language, educational system, and many more (de Mooij, 2014). The next layer is the region, different regions, also within the same nation can have different cultural characteristics (Hofstede, 2001). Tribe is according to de Mooij (2014) the next layer. Tribes or clans can occur in some regions and within the same nation but still differ in their cultural behavior from other tribes. Family is the sixth layer and includes very specific cultural values that are carried within one family (Hofstede, 2001). The last layer is the individual. The values of an individual are influenced by all the below layers to which the individual is belonging, therefore several layers can influence the values and beliefs of an individual (Hofstede et al., 2010).

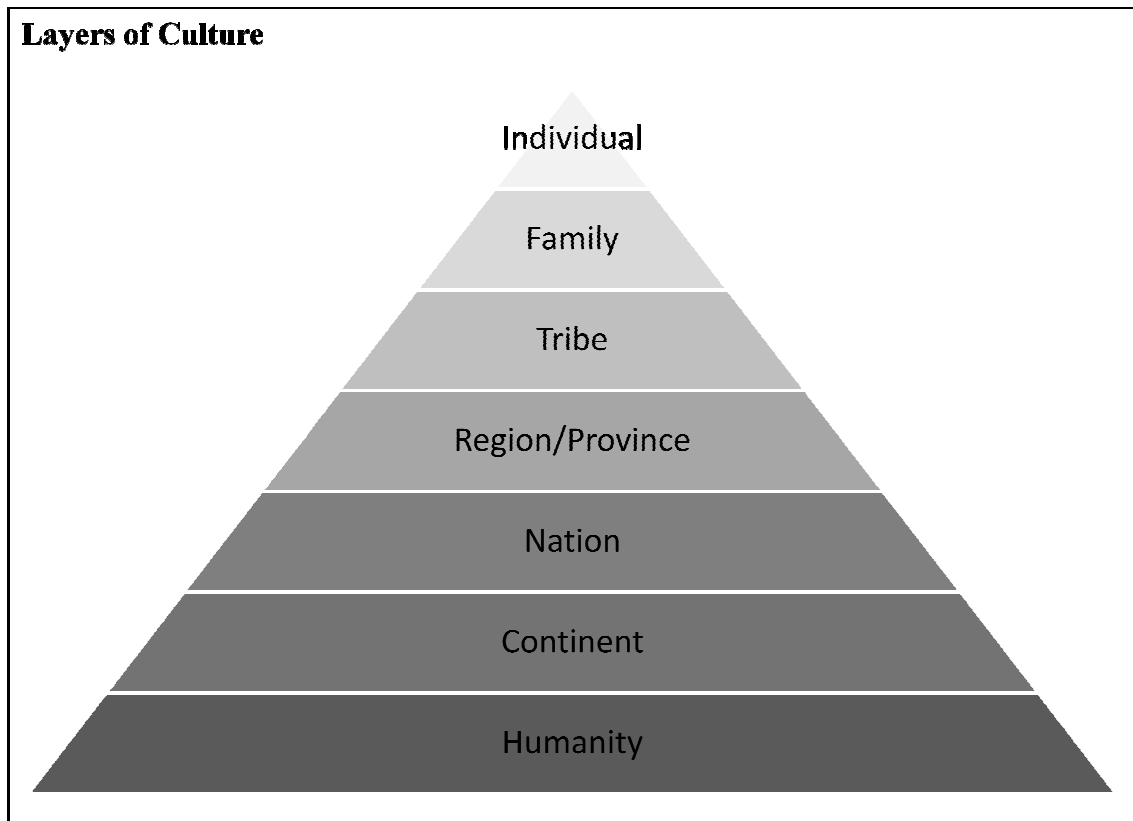


Figure 9. Layers of Culture (Hofstede, 2001).

Values are a construct that has been described and analyzed by different researchers (Rokeach, 1973; Hofstede, 2002; de Mooij, 2014). Values are distinguished between different dimensions. For this study, the dimension of individual values and the dimension of cultural values are of importance (de Mooij, 2014). Values are referred to as guiding principles in life and preferences for one specific behavior over another (de Mooij, 2014). However, the individual dimension of values was discussed earlier in this paper and therefore will not be of main importance within the following part.

As Hofstede (2002) describes culture as mental constructs, it can be seen that culture is a very intangible construct, which is difficult to measure. Therefore, measuring culture and breaking it down into scales and limited dimensions has been criticized (de Mooij, 2014). However, Hofstede (2002), in acknowledgement of the fact that mental programs or dimensions of culture are no objects that exist in absolute sense, states that in order to predict behavior in a cultural context, those constructs can be useful.

Different scholars have developed models trying to measure culture in different dimensions. Those models include simplistic ones, like the model of Inglehart, Basanez, & Moreno (1998) that divides the world's values in the two broad categories traditional and secular-rational and then evaluates the quality of life of an individual in a specific

cultural context. Furthermore, also more complex models have been developed, for example by Inkeles & Levinson (1969), who suggest to use relationship to authorities, self-conception and dealing with primary dilemmas of conflict as areas for measuring culture. One of the most known scholars who developed a model with dimensions that can be used to measure culture is Geert Hofstede (2001, 2002, 2010). Hofstede (2001) divides culture into the dimensions individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, long-/short-term orientation and indulgence/restraint. Even though, there are also other models, like the model of Schwartz (1994, 2004), the dimensions provided by Hofstede have been empirically gathered, tested and are used in a wide range of scientific studies (de Mooij, 2014). Therefore, for this study, the six dimensions Hofstede developed will be used to measure the impact of culture on perception of CSR and therefore deserve a closer look.

Individualism / Collectivism

Hofstede (2001) describes that in individualistic cultures, every individuals' interest is mainly directed to the well being of him- or herself and their closest family, whereas in collectivistic cultures, people see themselves as members of a larger society and ought to increase well-being of that society. Individualistic cultures promote the individual identity of each person that wants to be differentiated from others, whereas in collectivistic societies, identity is based on the social group an individual is belonging to (Hofstede, 2001). Members of individualistic are "I" conscious and people pursue their ideas, ways of life and opinion independently, whereas in collectivistic cultures, people are "we" conscious and base their identity on the harmony within their social group (de Mooij, 2014). Perceived importance of CSR is influenced by the degree of individualism/collectivism of an individual (Vitell et al., 2003). According to Akaah (1992) individualistic persons are less concerned about ethics and CSR than collectivistic individuals. This might be based on the fact that a high degree of individualism can lead to a more egoistic attitude, while a high degree of collectivism can lead to be focused on the welfare of the community (Vitell et al., 2003). Therefore, following hypothesis is suggested

H4a: There is a negative relationship between individualism and an individual's perceived importance of CSR. Individuals with high individualism will therefore perceive CSR as less important.

Power Distance

This construct describes the degree to which less powerful members of a society accept an unequal distribution of power among the members of that society (de Mooij, 2014) and influences how easily people respect and accept and give authority. In cultures with a high score in power distance, every member has a specific place in a hierarchy and accepts this place and the authority from members with a higher rank in that hierarchy (de Mooij, 2014). In cultures with a low score on power distance, individuals are rather concerned about equality, opportunities and independency (de Mooij, 2014). Relating the dimension of power distance to the attitude towards CSR, Vitell, Nwachukwu, & Barnes (1993), state that a low power distance inclines people to rather follow their own values than any formal code of ethics. However, a high degree of power distance might lead to a situation where an individual engages in ethically questionable behavior, as it is deemed to be favorable for the company, whereas an individual in a low power distance culture might rather choose to follow his or her own values (Vitell et al., 2003). Therefore, following hypothesis is proposed:

H4b: There is a negative relationship between power distance and an individual's perceived importance of CSR. Individuals with high power distance will therefore perceive CSR as less important.

Masculinity / Femininity

This dimensions measures different constructs, including assertiveness, performance orientation and relationship between genders (Hofstede, 2001). In feminine cultures, there is a low degree in role differentiation, therefore people have the ability of to take a job that is more associated with the opposite gender without being mocked (de Mooij, 2014). In masculine societies, often traditional roles are assigned to the gender, whereas in feminine societies, the traditional gender roles are softened (de Mooij, 2014). Further, in masculine societies both genders can be tough, whereas in feminine societies, both

genders can be tender (de Mooij, 2014). Vitell et al. (1993) suggest that individuals who score high in masculinity are less inclined to be influenced by formal codes of ethics, as high competition and pressure for success inclines them to be less sensitive for the interest of other stakeholders and hence place their own interest above those of stakeholders (Vitell et al., 2003). For this reason, following hypothesis is made:

H4c: There is a positive relationship between femininity and an individual's perceived importance of CSR. Individuals with high femininity will therefore perceive CSR as more important.

Uncertainty Avoidance

According to Hofstede et al. (2010) this dimension describes to which degree people try to avoid uncertainty, as they feel threatened by an uncertain situation. Members of society with a high uncertainty avoidance have a strong need for rules and structures and belief in the opinions of experts (de Mooij, 2014). High uncertainty avoidance can lead to more aggressiveness, intolerance, low trust and dogmatism (Hofstede, 2001; de Mooij, 2014). In cultures with a low score in uncertainty avoidance, people feel less need for rules and structures and are more process oriented (de Mooij, 2014). Competition and conflict is viewed as not as threatening as in cultures with a high uncertainty avoidance (de Mooij, 2014). Uncertainty avoidance can explain differences in the adoption of innovation, the readiness to learn new languages, have contact with foreigners and the willingness to travel (de Mooij, 2014). According to Vitell et al. (2003) individuals with high uncertainty avoidance are inclined to put the company's interest over their own, which could lead to engagement in unethical behavior. However, also the other way round is possible, as individuals with low uncertainty avoidance might be less sensitive to the needs of different stakeholders and thus more inclined to support unethical behavior (Vitell et al., 2003). Especially when there are formal codes of ethics, individuals with a high uncertainty avoidance appreciate this and act according to those codes (Vitell et al., 2003). Therefore, following proposition is made here:

H4d: There is a positive relationship between uncertainty avoidance and an individual's perceived importance of CSR. Individuals with high uncertainty avoidance will therefore perceive CSR as more important.

Long-/Short-term orientation

In short-term oriented cultures people tend to be more religious and belief in a god that will solve their problems and therefore do not believe that their deeds will have much influence on their destiny (Hofstede et al., 2010). In contrast hereto, in long-term oriented cultures, people tend to be more self-reliant and see their actions as the source for a specific outcome (Hofstede et al., 2010). However, this dimension is not as well researched as the others and is also not part of studies that have a similar direction. Therefore, this dimension will not be included in the study.

Indulgence / Restraint

This dimension was originally developed by Minkov (2007) and later added to Hofstede's dimensions. Indulgence describes the degree of happiness people perceive and the perceived control over their own life (de Mooij, 2014). However, as this dimension does not belong to the original dimensions and research did not focus a lot on the correlation between indulgence and CSR, this dimension will not be examined in the study.

Different scholars tried to identify, whether there is a correlation between the cultural dimensions established by Hofstede and ethical or socially responsible behavior in business, respectively the attitude of managers towards CSR and business ethics.

Christie, Kwon, Stoeberl, & Baumhart (2003) find in a study amongst managers from India, Korea and USA that a high score in individualism and a low score in power distance is positively correlated with a high sensitivity to unethical behavior. According to Blodgett, Lu, Rose, & Vitell (2001), who research the correlation between cultural dimensions and perception of CSR with marketing professionals in Taiwan and the USA, uncertainty avoidance will affect the attitude towards CSR positively while power distance, masculinity and individualism will have negative effect on the perception of CSR. Vitell et al. (2003) find that low power distance and high uncertainty avoidance are positively correlated with the perceived importance of CSR. Further, Vitell et al.

(2003) find that individualism and masculinity have no significant effect on the perceived importance of CSR. Vitell et al. (2003) also include the dimension of ethical idealism/ethical relativism and find that idealism is positively correlated to perceived importance of CSR whereas relativism is negatively correlated to perceived importance of CSR. Thanetsunthorn (2014) establishes a correlation between the four cultural dimensions of Hofstede and different dimensions of CSR. Further to those dimensions of Hofstede, Thanetsunthorn (2014) adds four other dimensions that are country specific and have influence on the CSR performance. The first of those dimensions is life expectancy at birth, which is an indicator related to health standards and social development (Thanetsunthorn, 2014). The second dimensions is economic risk rating, assessing a country's economic stability and development (Thanetsunthorn, 2014). The third factor added by Thanetsunthorn (2014) is the strength and stability of the legal system of respective country. A last factor which is added is the Human Development Index rating, which states the country's potential to develop human well-being and high living standards (Thanetsunthorn, 2014). The study suggests that cultures with high level of uncertainty avoidance score higher in CSR on an employee, community and environment level (Thanetsunthorn, 2014). Higher individualism and masculinity of a culture has a negative impact on CSR on the dimensions of employees and community (Thanetsunthorn, 2014). Further, a low level of CSR has a significant correlation to a high level of individualism. Finally, power distance seems to have no significant impact on CSR (Thanetsunthorn, 2014).

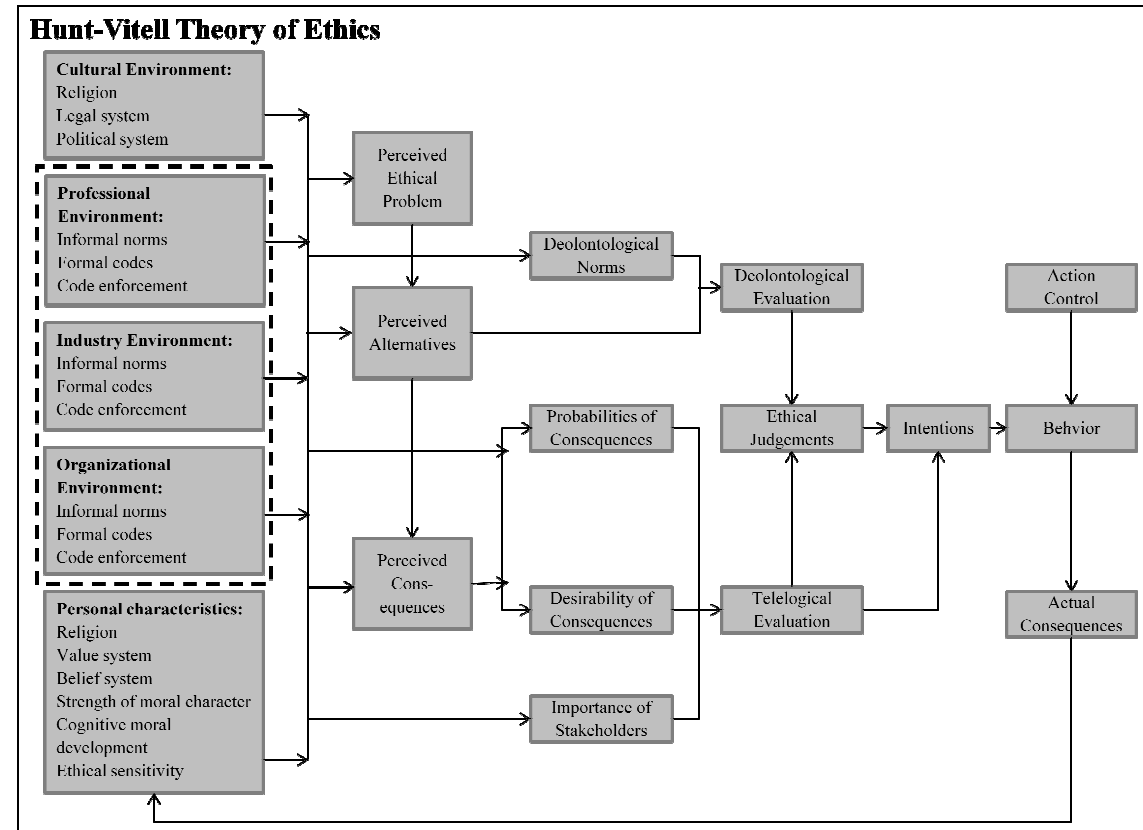
The results from this study seem to help to predict and analyze parts of the potential outcomes of this study. Results of the study suggest that there is a strong correlation between culture, regional differences and the performance on different elements of CSR. However, in this study, only differences within different regions of Asia were under observation. Therefore, it can be expected to observe even more severe differences when including also completely different cultures in a more heterogeneous sample.

Other researchers examined the influence of culture on perception of CSR from the consumers' perspective. According to Maignan (2001) French and German consumers are more supporting towards socially responsible corporations than American customers. Kim & Kim (2010) try to establish a correlation between cultural dimensions and perception of CSR and also included the dimension of social traditionalism. According to the study of Kim & Kim (2010), social traditionalism is defined as the degree

to which respondents tend to agree with Friedman's thesis, that a company's only social responsibility is to maximize shareholder value. Kim & Kim (2010) find that social traditionalism is significantly influencing the perception of CSR, as respondents who agree with Friedman's thesis tend to have a less positive perception of CSR. Further, Kim & Kim (2010) find that collectivism and high uncertainty avoidance have a positive correlation with perception of CSR, while individualism and power distance seem to have no significant effect on the perception of CSR. Peng, Dashdeleg, & Chih (2013) however find that power distance and masculinity both have a significantly negative correlation to CSR, whereas individualism and uncertainty avoidance have a significant positive correlation with perception of CSR. In addition, also Ho, Wang, & Vitell (2012) find a correlation between national culture and CSR. According to Ho et al. (2012), high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance and high masculinity cultures are less likely to accept socially irresponsible behavior.

However, there seems to be some inconsistency with regard to the direction on which different cultural dimension can influence the perception CSR. This inconsistency might be explainable with the fact that besides cultural dimensions also other traits and characteristics influence the perceived importance of CSR, thus only cultural dimension might not be able to explain differences in perceived importance of CSR to a satisfying degree. Some researchers included additional elements like ethical relativism and ethical idealism (Vitell et al., 2003), or social traditionalism (Kim & Kim, 2010), or added cultural factors like average income (Thanetsunthorn, 2014) and were able to prove that those factors also have significant influence on the perceived importance of CSR.

On the basis of cultural dimensions and their influence on an individuals' perception of ethical conflicts, Vitell, et al. (1993) developed a model for explaining ethical decision making in cultural context. However, ethical decision making and CSR is not exactly the same, ethics and CSR are interwoven and thus the model might to some extent be applicable to explore the correlation between CSR and cultural dimensions. Therefore, some elements of the model might be also applicable when testing an individual's perception of importance of CSR.



4.5 Country Comparison and CSR Profiles

The following part will develop country profiles for the countries that will be under investigation for the study. The profiles will be created for India, Germany, Iceland and USA. The profiles will include information on CSR practices in the respective country as well as information from official sources on different indicators for assessing living standards, level of corruption and other socio-cultural factors. Those factors should help to give an overview on the living conditions in those countries and ultimately also help in interpreting differences in between cultures within the study.

The indicators that will be used are displayed in the table below. Data was gathered from Trading Economics (2014), the United Nations Development Programme (2014), Transparency International (2014) and the Institute for Economics and Peace (2015).

Indicator	Year	Iceland	Germany	India	USA
Population	2014/15	0.33m	82.73m	1,252.14m	320.05m
Human Development Index	2014/15	Rank 13	Rank 6	Rank 135	Rank 5
Global Peace Index	2015	1/162	17/163	143/162	101/162
Life expectancy at birth	2014/15	82.09 years	80.74 years	66.41 years	78.94 years
Mean years of schooling	2014/15	10.41 years	12.95 years	4.43 years	12.94 years
Gender Inequality Index	2014/15	0.088	0.046	0.563	0.262
Corruption Perception Index	2014	Rank 12	Rank 12	Rank 85	Rank 17
GNI per capita	2014/15	35,116.46\$	43,048.68\$	5,149.81\$	52,308.38\$
Unemployment rate	2014/15	4.4%	4.7%	4.9%	5.5%
Youth unemployment rate	2014/15	9.1%	7.1%	10.7%	11.9%
Corporate tax rate	2014/15	20%	29.6%	33.99%	40%
Income tax rate	2014/15	46.22%	47.5%	33.99%	35%
CO² emissions per capita	2014/15	6.17t	9.11t	1.67t	17.56t

Table 3. Country Data in Comparison.

Within the study, respondents will be asked to answer question with regard to the cultural dimensions of Hofstede. However, the below diagram gives a first indication on how the four countries in comparison score on the four relevant dimensions, which will be under investigation in the study. The data for the chart was taken from The Hofstede Centre (2015).

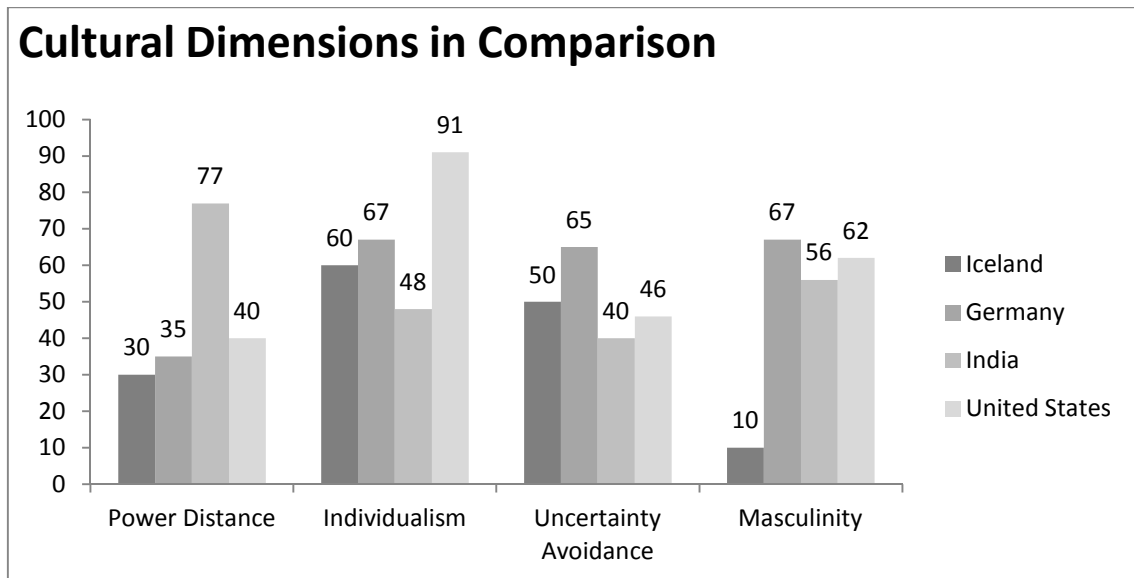


Figure 11. Cultural Dimensions in Comparison (The Hofstede Centre, 2015).

The following parts will introduce a short analysis of CSR issues in the four relevant countries. This part is not meant to give a complete overview on the history of CSR in the four countries but rather provide an impression of the situation of CSR in those countries as of today and also include the development over the last few years.

4.5.1 Country Profile - India

Although not being labeled as CSR, the concept itself is rooted on the cultural traditions of philanthropy and community embeddedness which are also based on religious beliefs in India (Visser, 2008). CSR in India transformed from a charity based approach towards a more stakeholder oriented approach during the last years (Amaldoss & Manohar, 2013). However, so far, governmental CSR activities in India seem to be not very well developed, the central government and related ministries, as well as The National Foundation for Corporate Governance are the main public actors, which are trying to encourage and endorse CSR-related programs, however, so far a coherent strategy is lacking (Bertelsmann Stiftung, 2007). Besides the governmental initiatives, also different company initiatives are in place. Companies like Bharat Petroleum Limited, Maruti Suzuki India Limited or Hindustan Unilever Limited focus on building for example schools, improving sanitary facilities and improve living conditions in general, in the areas where they are located (Gupta, 2014).

Furthermore, CSR reporting is not widespread in India and thus communication between companies and stakeholders is not very common (Singhania, Sharma, & Rohit,

2013). In addition, initiatives to inform stakeholders about CSR activities of companies have not been very successful, thus there is little awareness for existing CSR activities of companies which is creating a lack of trust among the stakeholders (Singhania et al., 2013). In addition to those problems, there is also a lack of consensus among local organizations regarding priorities of the direction of CSR activities, which is also rooted in a lack of transparency, as NGOs or other local organizations fail to disclose information on the direction of CSR programs initiated by them (Gupta, 2014).

In India CSR is more driven by philanthropy than by an actual integration into business processes (Gautam & Singh, 2010). However, CSR seems to be only at an infantile stage in India which is backed by the fact that in 2007 only 46% of the largest Indian companies were reporting on CSR on their homepages (Gautam & Singh, 2010). Furthermore, in the Karmayog CSR Rating which evaluates the 500 largest Indian companies with regard to their CSR activities, 46% were awarded with zero out of five points; 18% were given one out of five points; 28% earned two out of five points; 7% got three from five points; 1% got four from five points and none was awarded with the maximum of five points (Gautam & Singh, 2010). CSR in India is viewed as mere giving by Indian companies and not as a social investment in the future that could also become a strategic business tool (Shah & Ramamoorthy, 2014).

However, different initiatives have been started to improve CSR in India, e.g. the Industry Association Initiative which works closely together with the government, the UNPD and different stakeholders to promote CSR (Gautam & Singh, 2010). However, there are no clear guidelines towards CSR in India which poses a major problem (Singhania et al., 2013).

It seems that lack of communication and unstructured processes are the major problems of CSR in India. In a survey among Indian companies, only 17% of the companies had written CSR policies, while 80% of the companies engaged in CSR activities (Amaldoss & Manohar, 2013). Further, in a survey among Indian companies, 77% reported to engage in employee volunteering, however, none of them had formal structures in place (Amaldoss & Manohar, 2013), which again shows the lack of structures of CSR activities in Indian companies.

4.5.2 Country Profile - Germany

According to a report from Bertelsmann Stiftung (2007), CSR is only recently becoming more important in Germany. Only after the millennium CSR is becoming a more important topic. A number of reasons might be causal for this. First, after the costly reunification, the welfare state begun to decline and increasing global competition in connection with an increase in social security expenditures stemming from a demographic shift towards an older society were observable (Fifka & Reiser, 2015). As a reaction to this situation, the question how the private sector could fill the gap in the welfare system arose and CSR as a form of company self regulation was one potential answer (Fifka & Reiser, 2015).

When German companies started to become a more international focus, CSR was also getting more attention (Bertelsmann Stiftung, 2007). However, even though the term CSR was not well-known, there were plenty of initiatives and alliances around that are labeled as CSR today, simply because of the prevailing social market economy in Germany (Bertelsmann Stiftung, 2007). The formal responsibility for CSR issues is in hands of the Federal Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs. However, other governmental institutions, like the Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development or the Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth are also concerned with topics around CSR (Bertelsmann Stiftung, 2007). However, governmental CSR activities are mainly focused on partnerships and alliances with businesses and promoting CSR via maintaining the OECD Guidelines as well as Global Compact (Bertelsmann Stiftung, 2007).

CSR in Germany lacks a coherent strategy in some fields. There are no efforts to involve stakeholders in an institutionalized way in CSR activities, or increase awareness for CSR through a more coherent communication strategy (Bertelsmann Stiftung, 2007). Furthermore, modern forms of CSR, like corporate volunteering or cause related marketing are rather rare in Germany, as companies mainly focus on traditional activities like sponsoring or donating (Fifka & Reiser, 2015). According to a study by Fifka (2011), 60% out of the largest 100 German companies make donations while only 27% engage in corporate volunteering and only 7% in cause related marketing.

European countries in general seem to lack an in-depth discussion of CSR policies and activities on their homepages, however, if CSR is discussed, it seems that the main motivator of European companies to engage in CSR is rather pressure from shareholders than real company values (Maignan & Ralston, 2002). Maintaining legitimacy

therefore seems to be one major motive for implementing CSR, as companies use CSR to fulfill social expectations (Windolph, Harms, & Schaltegger, 2013). When presenting their CSR activities, European companies mainly highlight their environmental commitment and closely link CSR to the improvement of production processes (Maignan & Ralston, 2002). However, CSR is mainly viewed as a public relations tool by many German companies (Windolph et al., 2013) rather than a management tool that can help improving different functional areas such as finance, logistics and production within the company (Fifka & Reiser, 2015). Thus many German companies do not see a necessity for implementing CSR as a strategic instrument (Fifka & Reiser, 2015). Thus, Fifka & Reiser (2015) describe CSR as a defensive tool in Germany that is lacking the strategic focus. However, Fifka & Reiser (2015) also conclude that awareness for CSR in Germany is growing and markets are experiencing a "moralization".

In conclusion, CSR in Germany has undergone a major change within the last years, yet there is still space for improvement, as CSR is not yet seen as a strategic tool. However, different challenges and growing public awareness for social, environmental and sustainability issues might have the power to change the perception of CSR in Germany (Fifka & Reiser, 2015).

4.5.3 Country Profile - Iceland

However being hit hard by the financial crisis in 2008, the Icelandic economy developed rapidly over the last years (Thorsteindottir, 2010). Market liberalization and diversification caused a shift from a an economy mainly dependent on fishery to a multi-sector economy including energy industry, financial services and tourism (Thorsteindottir, 2010). Thus, the business environment in Iceland is much younger than that of most other European countries as it just recently developed from a rather poor farming society into an advanced economy (Vaiman, Sigurjonsson, & Davidsson, 2011).

The basis for CSR in Iceland was formed by a corporate form called "cooperatives" which supported education and culture in the communities in which they operated (Guðmundsson, 2002). Contrary to other northern European countries, such as Norway or Sweden, CSR did not get much attention in Iceland, as generally it was perceived as sufficient for a company to provide jobs, pay taxes and wages (Thorsteindottir, 2010). Although not being too active in CSR with regard to business processes, Icelandic companies were ranked the third place for philanthropic activities by a study of the Europe-

an Commission in 2002. Only Finish and Danish companies engaged in more philanthropic activities (European Commission, 2002). However, the absence of classical CSR activities might be partly explainable with the special situation of Iceland. Being a country with only few inhabitants and a limited number of companies, generally high standards for environmental protection and human rights and no corporate scandals till the collapse of the financial sector might have led to a situation where even stakeholders did not feel the need for more CSR activities (Thorsteindottir, 2010).

Furthermore, there seems to be a gap between the perception of CSR of stakeholders and the perception of CSR of companies. Hafsteindottir & Hall (2008) find that only 38% of Icelandic companies have written code of ethics, whereas 71% perceived their ethical standards as relatively high. On the other side, Thorsteindottir (2010) finds that more than 50% of the Icelandic public considered ethical standards as too low. However, the financial crisis shed light on ethically questionable practices of Icelandic banks and investigations were launched, which might also led to a higher sensitivity for ethics and CSR related issues (Sigurthorsson, 2012).

This being said, Vaiman et al. (2011) contend that the crisis in Iceland was not based on "traditional" corruption but weak business culture in general. The Icelandic business culture was build up on tight personal networks within management level and an environment where politics had huge influence on business opportunities (Jonsson, 2009). This situation facilitated the environment that lead to the collapse in 2008 (Vaiman et al., 2011).

There are different signs that CSR is becoming an issue of more relevance in Iceland, e.g. the first Icelandic CSR focused institute "Ethikos" was established and helped creating awareness for CSR in Iceland (Thorsteindottir, 2010). Furthermore, the FESTA institute was founded in 2011 with the aim to become a center of CSR knowledge in Iceland and support companies in CSR related issues as well as providing a network to help companies implementing CSR (FESTA, 2015). Icelandic subsidiaries of large international companies laid noticeably more emphasis on CSR activities than purely Icelandic companies (Thorsteindottir, 2010).

4.5.4 Country Profile - United States

The US economy is based on a market-oriented approach with rather low interventions from the federal government (Bertelsmann Stiftung, 2007). The relationship between the public sector and civil society is defined by a rotation between conflicts and cooperation, however, they often share mutual interests (Bertelsmann Stiftung, 2007). The United States are often described as the cradle of CSR, however the driving force behind CSR initiatives was not the public sector but transnational corporations which based those actions on the philosophy of corporate philanthropy (Bertelsmann Stiftung, 2007).

The CSR landscape in the US is segmented and there is high variation in the degree of CSR activities in between the states (Bertelsmann Stiftung, 2007). Although no explicit laws on CSR are in force, some standards on e.g. reporting are in place and support the development of CSR, furthermore, incentive systems, like tax incentives and award programs are in place to support CSR (Bertelsmann Stiftung, 2007). However, socially responsible investments have become a growing segment in the United States (Tschopp, 2005).

When it comes to self presentation, it seems that US companies have well developed communication strategies and discuss dimensions of their CSR policies openly on their homepages (Maignan & Ralston, 2002). Furthermore, companies from the United States present their CSR activities as an extension of the company's core values or for reasons of better performance (Maignan & Ralston, 2002).

US based companies do not focus on production processes but rather on philanthropic activities, such as volunteerism, when promoting their commitment to CSR (Maignan & Ralston, 2002). Explicit CSR activities are important in America, for example, after natural disasters like the hurricane "Katrina", American companies donated money to the victims (Danko, Goldberg, Goldberg, & Grant, 2008). In addition to those activities, American companies often direct CSR activities towards developing health care and insurance systems for their employees (Danko et al., 2008).

As American companies' major source of capital is the stock market and investors are increasingly demanding reporting on CSR activities, American companies are required to carefully prepare reporting data, especially with regards to transparency and accountability (Danko et al., 2008).

4.6 Overview on Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following chart will give an overview on the research questions and correlating hypotheses that were developed in the previous parts.

Topic	Research Questions	Hypotheses
Social Traditionalism	RQ1: Is there a correlation between an individual's perception of what goals and responsibilities a corporate has to fulfill and the individual's perceived importance of CSR?	<p>H1a: There is a negative relationship between social traditionalism and an individual's perceived importance of CSR. Individuals with high social traditionalism will therefore perceive CSR as less important.</p> <p>H1b: There is a positive relationship between Freeman's theses and an individual's perceived importance of CSR. Individuals who tend to agree with Freeman's theses will therefore perceive CSR as more important.</p>
P-O fit and company attractiveness	<p>R2a: Is there an interaction effect between perceived importance of CSR and evaluating the importance of CSR as an attractiveness factor of a company?</p> <p>R2b: Is there a correlation between perceived importance of CSR and P-O fit (ethical fit)?</p>	<p>H2a: An individual's perceived importance of CSR is positively correlated with perceived importance of CSR as an attractiveness factor of a company. A company that is perceived as socially responsible will be therefore more attractive.</p> <p>H2b: An individual's perceived P-O fit (ethical fit) is positively correlated to perceived importance of CSR. Therefore, an individual with high perceived importance of CSR will perceive a better P-O fit (ethical fit) with a company that engages in CSR.</p>
Individual Values	RQ3: Is there an interaction effect between individual values and perceived importance of CSR?	<p>H3a: There is a positive relationship idealism and an individual's perceived importance of CSR. Individuals with high idealism will therefore perceive CSR as more important.</p> <p>H3b: There is a negative relationship between ethical relativism and an individual's perceived importance of CSR. Individuals that tend to be relativistic will therefore perceive CSR as less important.</p>

Cultural Dimensions	RQ4: Is there a correlation between different cultural dimensions and perceived importance of CSR?	H3c: There is a positive relationship between spirituality and an individual's perceived importance of CSR. Individuals that tend to be more spiritual will therefore perceive CSR as more important.
		H3d: There is a negative relationship between materialism and an individual's perceived importance of CSR. Individuals that tend to be more materialistic will therefore perceive CSR as less important.
		H4a: There is a negative relationship between individualism and an individual's perceived importance of CSR. Individuals with high individualism will therefore perceive CSR as less important
		H4b: There is a negative relationship between power distance and an individual's perceived importance of CSR. Individuals with high power distance will therefore perceive CSR as less important.
		H4c: There is a positive relationship between femininity and an individual's perceived importance of CSR. Individuals with high femininity will therefore perceive CSR as more important.
		H4d: There is a positive relationship between uncertainty avoidance and an individual's perceived importance of CSR. Individuals with high uncertainty avoidance will therefore perceive CSR as more important

Table 4. Overview on Research Questions and Hypotheses.

5 Research Methodology

Research methodology and chosen approaches for statistical analysis are based on different studies, researching intercultural differences in attitudes and perceptions towards business ethics and CSR in general (Christie et al., 2003).

5.1 Research Design

The cross-cultural survey research method (Christie et al., 2003) is applied to conduct the study. The method is used to study the relationship between individual values and cultural values and the perceived importance of CSR in a business environment. In a second step, it was researched, whether the perceived importance of CSR has influence on the perceived attractiveness of potential employers amongst graduate business students. Primary data were collected from graduate business students who are currently enrolled in a master degree program in India, Iceland, Germany and the United States, using a questionnaire built from other studies which were addressing cross-cultural research (Christie et al., 2003; Rokeach, 1973; G. J. Hofstede, 1984; de Mooij, 2014), P-O fit research (Turban & Greening, 1996; Kristof, 1996; Kim & Park, 2011), research of ethical attitudes (Thanetsunthorn, 2014; Maignan & Ralston, 2002; Kim & Kim, 2010; Ho et al., 2012) and personality measurement research (Forsyth, 1980; Kolodinsky et al., 2010; Judge & Cable, 1997).

5.2 Unit of Analysis

As this study is determined to research intercultural differences, a definition of the construct which will be used as a unit of analysis is necessary (Christie et al., 2003). In cross-cultural research, a distinction is made between "culture" and "nation". A nation is described as a created construct with geographical and political boundaries (Christie et al., 2003), whereas culture is a set of values and beliefs that might be found in different nations (Christie et al., 2003). However, also different cultures can be present in one nation (Hofstede, 2001).

In cross-cultural research, the construct "nation" is often chosen, as it enables a clear framework for the study (Christie et al., 2003). However, the most frequent approach is to use "nation" interchangeably with "culture" (Tayeb, 1994).

For this study, the samples are drawn from different nations. The term "culture" is therefore used interchangeably with nation and describes the national culture.

5.3 Choice of Nations

Four different nations (Iceland, Germany, USA and India) were chosen for the cross-cultural research. Iceland was chosen as a starting point for this thesis. As Iceland's geographical location puts it in between the European and the American continent, and furthermore cultural influences from both continents are observable, America and Germany (as a representative of European countries) were chosen to research for intercultural differences.

However, with India a fourth country was added to the cross-cultural comparison. India was added by using systematic sampling procedure. According to Vijver & Leung (1997), in systematic sampling for cross-cultural research, nations are chosen in a "systematic and theory guided fashion". As this method is used to have a meaningful comparison in cross-cultural research, cultural variation is necessary (Christie et al., 2003). Nations should be selected so that they represent different values. As for this study, Hofstede's cultural dimensions are used for comparing cultural values, with India a fourth country was chosen that displays significant differences in the cultural dimensions. Furthermore, the United States and India have been under investigation in different other cross-cultural studies that evaluated cultural values on Hofstede's dimensions and showed significant differences (Hofstede, 2001). Furthermore, as shown in table three, India is also on an economic level significantly different than the other three chosen nations also the human development of India is fundamentally different from those of the other three nations.

5.4 Sampling Procedure

Samples are drawn from Iceland, Germany, USA and India by using the matched samples technique. The aim of this technique is to make the sample of the compared cultural groups as similar as possible with regard to the demographic characteristics (Vijver & Leung, 1997). This technique has been widely used in cross-cultural research and also Hofstede underlined the importance of this technique, which he also used to make his studies replicable, as otherwise difficulties would arise in identifying whether a specific result is really a cause of cultural differences or rather to demographic differences (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Business students have been found to be a popular sampling group in different intercultural studies (Grunbaum, 1997; Lysonski & Gaidis, 1991), as they meet the requirements for matched samples (Christie et al., 2003). However, in business ethics

research, managers are often preferred over students, as students are inclined to evaluate ethical question on ad hoc basis (Fritzsche & Becker, 1983).

As the aim of this study is to compare the effect of cultural differences on the perceived importance of CSR amongst business students, the sample for all countries will comprise only of graduate business students. However, also students who are currently enrolled in a business program but have a different background (e.g. engineering) are counted.

However, the aim was to reach a sample with as many as possible factors being matched.

5.5 Questionnaire Design - Study Instruments

The instrument chosen for this study is a questionnaire which includes twenty-two parts with different items. All scales were developed and tested in prior research. Most of the questions were directly taken from those studies, therefore most of the scales have already been tested for validity and reliability. Only a few and minor changes were made to the questions, e.g. exchanging words that might have an ambivalent meaning to non-native speakers. The following chapter will first list a table that provides an overview on all scales that were used as instruments for this study. Afterwards, a detailed description of each scale and its origin and set up follows. All scales that have been used to construct the questionnaire can be found in Appendix 10.2.1. The questionnaire that was constructed for this thesis can be found in Appendix 10.2.2.

Scale Name	Source	Measured Construct	Origin
Social Responsible Attribute	Singhapakdi et al. (1996)	Attitude towards CSR	Hunt, Kieker, Chonko (1990)
PRESOR	Singhapakdi et al. (1996)	Stockholder View	Kraft & Jauch (1992)
PRESOR	Singhapakdi et al. (1996)	Stakeholder View	Kraft & Jauch (1992)
Ethics Position Questionnaire	Vitell et al. (2003)	Ethical Idealism	Forsyth (1980)
Ethics Position Questionnaire	Vitell et al. (2003)	Ethical Relativism	Forsyth (1980)
Intrinsic Spirituality Scale	Hodge (2003)	Spirituality	Hodge (2003)
Materialism Scale	Richins & Dawson (1992)	Materialism	Richins & Dawson (1992)
Power Distance Scale	Vitell et al. (2003)	Power Distance	Hofstede(1984) Gordon (1976)
Individualism Scale	Vitell et al. (2003) Li et al. (2004)	Individualism	Hofstede (1984) Triandis et al. (1988) Voich (1995) Yamaguchi (1994)
Masculinity Scale	Vitell et al. (2003)	Masculinity/Femininity	Hofstede (1984) Voich (1995)
Uncertainty Avoidance Scale	Vitell et al. (2003)	Uncertainty Avoidance	Hofstede (1984) Norton (1975) Voich (1995) Budner (1962)
Job Attributes	Taylor & Bergmann (1987) Wong et al. (2010)	Job Attributes	Taylor & Bergmann (1987), Wong et al. (2010)
ESCSP	Paul et al., 2011	P-O Fit	Meijer & Schuit (2005) Paul et al. (1997) Zalka et al. (1997)

Table 5. Overview on Sources of Scales.

Demographic Items

Within this category, respondents indicate general demographic attributes, such as age, gender and age group. Furthermore, respondents have to indicate whether they have ever been in a student, which field of studies they pursue and if they have ever taken a course in Corporate Social Responsibility or Business Ethics. However, this category is not asking too detailed questions, like religion or income situation, as those are not of any further interest for this study and might prevent participants from answering the questionnaire.

Socially Responsible Attitude Scale

This scale contains questions which measure the attitude towards CSR in a business related context. The four items are directly taken from the Socially Responsible Attitude Scale, developed by Hunt, Kiecker, & Chonko (1990) who used the scale as a predictive validity assessment. In the original questionnaire, a 9-point Likert-scale with agree/disagree type answers was used (Hunt et al., 1990). However, for this study, a 7-point Likert-scale with agree/disagree type answers was used. The socially responsible attitude for each respondent was calculated by totaling the score of each of the four items (Hunt et al., 1990). Hence, an individual with a higher score has a more positive attitude towards social responsibility, whereas an individual with a lower score has a less positive attitude towards social responsibility (Singhapakdi, Vitell, Rallapalli, & Kraft, 1996).

This scale was also used in a study by Singhapakdi et al. (1996) where the validity of the scale was found to be .62. Singhapakdi et al. (1996) use the socially responsible attitude scale to identify a possible correlation with the three dimensions of the PRESOR scale (socially responsibility and profitability, long-term-gains and short-term-gains). By running a multiple regression analysis with the socially responsible attitude as the independent variable, they find a positive and significant correlation with all three dimensions of the PRESOR scale (Singhapakdi et al., 1996). Furthermore, individuals who score high in socially responsible attitude tend to be less relativistic (beta value: - 0.028) which Singhapakdi et al. (1996) discovers in the multiple regression analysis.

Perceived Role of Ethics and Social Responsibility Scale

The items from this scale were developed in correspondence with the Perceived Role of Ethics and Social Responsibility (PRESOR) which was developed by Singhapakdi et al. (1996). This scale is based on the Organization Effectiveness Menu by Kraft & Jauch (1992).

The original scale was a 9-point Likert-scale where the internal validity of items ranges between .6 and .7 (Singhapakdi et al., 1996). Furthermore, the original scale is divided into three subcategories. The category "social responsibility and profitability" contains four items, "long-term gains" includes six items and "short-term gains" with three items (Singhapakdi et al., 1996). Reliability analysis shows that the coefficient alpha for all the individual items is between .57 to .71 (Singhapakdi et al., 1996).

Axinn, Blair, Heorhiadi, & Thach (2004) divided the items from the original scale into the categories stakeholder view and stockholder view. The categories are influenced by the two opposing views prominently defined by Freeman (1984) and Friedman (1970). The stakeholder view comprises of the items that describe a rather narrow view on CSR while the shareholder view contains those items that emphasize the importance of CSR (Shafer et al., 2007). The shareholder or stockholder view includes five items, whereas the stakeholder view includes seven items (Shafer et al., 2007).

Shafer et al. (2007) find when testing the PRESOR scale in a factor analysis with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalization the reliability of the factor loadings to be between .59 and .75 based on the Cronbach alpha. The factors explain about 50% of the variance (Shafer et al., 2007).

Few studies used the PRESOR scale to test for intercultural differences on the Hofstede (2001) dimensions which produced inconsistent results (Shafer et al., 2007).

For this study, eight of the thirteen items were chosen, where four belong to the shareholder view and the other four to the stakeholder view. Respondents were asked to indicate their agreement on a 7-point Likert-scale.

Ethics Position Questionnaire

Originally developed by Forsyth (1980) and named Ethics Position Questionnaire (EPQ), this scale consists of two dimensions, the idealism dimension and the relativism dimension. This idealism scale measures an individual's acceptance of the existence of universal moral standards while the relativism scale measures an individual's rejection of those universal moral principles (Vitell et al., 2003). The original scale includes twenty items, ten in the relativism dimension and ten in the idealism dimension (Forsyth, 1980). The scale is designed as a 9-point Likert-scale (Forsyth, 1980).

Vitell et al. (2003) used for their study eight items from the idealism scale and nine items from the relativism scale. They also test reliability for those scales and find an alpha of .865 for the idealism scale and an alpha of .818 for the relativism scale. Vitell et al. (2003) use a 7-point Likert-scale to measure the results.

For this study, four items from the idealism scale and four items from the relativism scale were taken. Respondents were asked to evaluate the statements on a 7-point Likert-scale.

Spirituality Scale

This scale is measuring the construct of spirituality as a part of the individual values. The scale which is used here is the Intrinsic Spirituality Scale which was developed by Hodge (2003) and is based on the scale to measure intrinsic religion (Allport & Ross, 1967). The scale was designed to measure intrinsic spirituality of an individual as part of intrinsic motivation (Hodge, 2003). The conceptualization of this scale is moving away from a purely religious based definition of spirituality to the term transcendence, which includes theistic as well as non-theistic spiritual beliefs (Hodge, 2003).

The original scale is a 6-item scale, designed according to the phrase completion method, where respondents have to complete the beginning of a phrase on a scale from one to ten, where one leads to a sentence indicating absence of the tested attribute and the corresponding sentence and ten states the maximum amount of the tested attribute (Hodge, 2003). Scores are then added up. A high score represents a high intrinsic spirituality and vice versa.

The scale consisted originally of seventeen items. Through a factor analysis the items with the lowest reliability were identified and eliminated until the six items with the highest reliability coefficient, represented by the R-square were left (Hodge, 2003). The reliability coefficients of the items range between .73 and .84 (Hodge, 2003).

For this study, four of the six items from this scale were taken. However, it was decided to not use the 10-point phrase completion method but a 7-point Likert-scale where scores are added up. A higher score will indicate a higher intrinsic spirituality and vice versa.

Materialism Scale

Within this scale, the construct of materialism as a part of an individual's set of values is measured. The scale consists of the three dimensions success, centrality and happiness, where success includes six items, centrality seven items and happiness five items, which adds up to a total of 18 items (Richins & Dawson, 1992).

Items of the scale are based on existing attitude descriptions, characterization of materialistic people in research and some items from previous scales that assessed materialism (Belk, 1983; Richins, 1987; Yamauchi & Templer, 1982).

All items are measured on a 5-point Likert-scale. Items are added up with a high score indicating a high degree of materialism and vice versa (Richins & Dawson, 1992).

To test the reliability of the scale, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted and it was found that centrality items had alpha coefficients between .71 and .75, success items' alpha ranged between .74 and .78 and happiness items varied between .73 and .88 (Richins & Dawson, 1992). When combined, the alpha for the items ranges between .80 and .88 (Richins & Dawson, 1992). The reliability correlations for the centrality dimension is .82, .86 for the happiness dimensions, .82 for the success dimension and .87 for the combined scale (Richins & Dawson, 1992).

For this study four of the items were chosen and respondents were asked to evaluate the statements on a 7-point Likert-scale. Points were added up, where a high score indicates a high degree of materialism and vice versa.

Power Distance Scale

The scale that is used to measure power distance was developed by Vitell et al. (2003). It is based on items that were taken from Hofstede's (1984) Power Distance Scale and Gordon's (1976) Greater Conformity Scale. It comprises of five items and has a reliability of .607 (Vitell et al., 2003). Originally, this scale was designed as a 5-point Likert-scale.

For this study four of the five items were directly taken from this scale. Respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement on a 7-point Likert-scale. A high score indicates that the individual has a high power-distance, meaning that this individual is willing to accept an unequal distribution of power within an organization and is hesitant to enter conflict with superiors (Vitell et al., 2003).

Individualism Scale

The scale that is used to measure power distance was developed by Vitell et al. (2003). It is based on items that were taken from Hofstede (1984), Triandis, Bontempo, Villareal, Asai, & Lucca (1988), Voich (1995), and Yamaguchi (1994). The scale consists of three items and has a reliability of .665 combined with the masculinity scale (Vitell et al., 2003). Originally, this scale is designed as a 5-point Likert-scale.

One additional item was taken from the scale by Li, Zinn, Chick, Graefe, & Absher (2004) which is also based on items from Hofstede (1984). A 7-point Likert-scale was used by Li et al. (2004).

Therefore, this scale consists of four items in total. Respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement on a 7-point Likert-scale. A high score demonstrates

that the individual has is self oriented and independent and furthermore prefers loose ties with other people, except for the close family (Vitell et al., 2003).

Masculinity Scale

The scale measuring the construct of masculinity was originally developed by Vitell et al. (2003) by using items from Hofstede (1984) and Voich (1995). The scale consists of five items and is designed as a 5-point Likert-scale (Vitell et al., 2003). The scale exhibits a reliability of .665 together with the individualism scale (Vitell et al., 2003).

For this study, four of the five items were chosen and respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement to each of the statements on a 7-point Likert-scale. A high score in masculinity indicates that the individual is more competitive, assertive and has a higher need for achievement (Vitell et al., 2003). A lower score indicates a higher level in femininity, describing a more modest and benevolent individual (Vitell et al., 2003).

Uncertainty Avoidance Scale

The items were taken from the scale developed by Vitell et al. (2003). This scale is based on items from Hofstede (1984), Norton (1975), Voich (1995) and Budner (1962). The scale consists of five items and is designed as a 5-point Likert-scale. Vitell et al. (2003) find the scale to have a reliability of .771.

For this study four of the five items were taken and respondents were asked to evaluate the statements on a 7-point Likert-scale. A high score indicates that the individual is risk averse and prefers an environment where formal rules and regulations ensure stability (Vitell et al., 2003).

Company/Job Attractiveness Scale

This scale consists of seven items that indicate specific company or job related (e.g. salary, location of job) attributes. Those attributes were taken from studies from Taylor & Bergmann (1987), Wong et al. (2010) and McGinty & Reitsch (1992). From those sources, job or company characteristics were chosen that seemed to be most important to students when evaluating potential jobs.

Respondents were asked to evaluate the perceived importance of each of the attributes on a 5-point Likert-scale.

Employee Sensitivity to Corporate Social Performance

This scale was used in this study to measure the construct of ethical fit which is a sub-dimension of the P-O fit. The scale that was used to measure this construct is the Employee Sensitivity to Corporate Social Performance scale (ESCSP) which was developed by Paul, Meyskens, & Robbins (2011). The scale is based on items from different researchers that were developed to measure consumer sensitivity towards CSR (Meijer & Schuit, 2005; Paul, Zalka, Downes, Perry, & Friday, 1997; Zalka, Downes, & Paul, 1997) Those items were modified to research interests of employees (Paul et al., 2011).

The original scale consists of fourteen items. Respondents indicate their agreement to the statements on a 5-point Likert-scale (Paul et al., 2011). The scale is further subdivided into three dimension. The first dimension "socially responsible company" includes six items, the dimension "job preferences" includes five items and the dimension "discrimination" includes three items (Paul et al., 2011). A factor analysis was run for the three sub-dimensions as factors. For the factor "social responsible company" a Cronbach's alpha of .82 was found, the Cronbach's alpha for the factor "job preferences" was .73 and for "discrimination" a Cronbach's alpha of .78 was discovered (Paul et al., 2011).

For this study, in total five items from the three sub-dimensions were chosen and adopted. Respondents were asked to indicate their agreement on a 7-point Likert-scale. Scores were added up. A high score indicates that the individual lays high importance on ethical fit when evaluating a potential job opportunity.

5.6 Administration of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was handed out to students known by the author of this thesis. Those students were in return asked to share the questionnaire at their universities. By distributing the questionnaire in this way, students from three universities in the US, four universities in Germany, one university in Iceland and three universities from India belong to the respondents of this questionnaire. However, those universities were not chosen due to any specific attributes.

The questionnaire was only available in English language. The questionnaire was the same for all respondents, regardless of their nation. Hence no country-specific changes were incorporated in the wording of the items.

By distributing the questionnaire in this way, the author only had limited influence on who participated in the study. However, respondents with demographic attrib-

utes that were too far away from the desired sample were excluded from the study. However, this methodic problem will receive further attention in the discussion of the results.

5.7 Variables

Different dependent and independent variables were used throughout the research. Following independent variables were used:

Demographic Characteristics

For this study, the demographic characteristic that is of major importance is nationality (Fritzsche, 1995; Park, 1998; Christie et al., 2003). Gender will to some degree play a role (Arlow, 1991; Ford & Richardson, 1994 ; Whipple & Swords, 1992; Christie et al., 2003) but is no major focus of this study, as the homogeneity of the group will not allow for in-depth analyses. Due to the homogeneity with regard to the age group of respondents, age will not be used as an independent variable in this study. Furthermore, religion does not play a role in this study, as the construct of spirituality is measured.

Hofstede's cultural Dimensions

Instead of using the index values ranging from 0 to 100 for the individual dimensions (individualism, power distance, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance), respondents have to answer questions to obtain an individual score for each of the dimensions. By using the index, nationality cannot be used simultaneously in multiple regression analysis, because of the correlation to the index (Christie et al., 2003). However, in previous research the index values (Christie et al., 2003) as well as individually computed values (Vitell et al., 2003) have been used.

In this study, for each of the dimensions, respondents were asked to evaluate four statements on a 7-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (Fully agree) to 7 (Fully disagree) or vice versa for reverse worded questions. Then, scores for each question were added up to gain a total score for that dimension.

Individual Values

For this variable different scales are used to measure the constructs of spirituality, ethical idealism, ethical relativism and materialism (Vitell et al., 2003; Hodge, 2003; Richins, 1987).

For each of the attributes respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement to four statements on a 7-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (Fully agree) to 7 (Fully disagree) or vice versa for reverse worded questions. Afterwards, scores for each question were added up to gain a total score for respective construct.

Socially Responsible Attitude

In addition to the PRESOR scale, this scale measures the attitude towards CSR in a business context. In accordance with Singhapakdi et al., (1996) this variable will be used to test whether the results for the PRESOR scale are in congruence with the socially responsible attitude..

To measure this construct, again respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement to four statements on a 7-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (Fully agree) to 7 (Fully disagree) or vice versa for reverse worded questions. Afterwards, scores were summed up to reach an individual score for each respondent.

The following variable will take, depending on the tested construct, the role of the independent or the dependent variable.

PRESOR

Consisting of two the two dimensions that measure social traditionalism with regard to the views of Freeman and Friedman, respondents again were asked to indicate their degree of agreement to eight statements on a 7-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (Fully agree) to 7 (Fully disagree) or vice versa for reverse worded questions. Afterwards, scores were summed up to reach an individual score for each respondent.

However for some analyses, the scores for the Friedman scale will be rewarded with 1 point for full agreement to 7 point for full disagreement and scores from the Freeman scale will be rewarded with 1 point for full disagreement and 7 points for full agreement. This leads to a scale with a minimum of 8 points, indicating low perceived importance of CSR (full agreement to Friedman and full disagreement to Freeman) and a maximum number of 56 point, indicating a high perceived importance of CSR (full disagreement to Friedman and full agreement to Freeman).

The following scales were used to obtain values for variable that will function as dependent variables only:

Attractiveness Factors

This scale measures the importance of different attractiveness factors of a potential job based on seven attributes. Each respondent indicates the importance of each of the attributes when looking for a job on a 5-point Likert-scale from very important (5) to absolutely unimportant (1).

P-O fit

This scale measures the ethical fit, a sub-dimension of the P-O fit. Respondents indicate their degree of agreement to five statements on a 7-point Likert-scale. Points are added up. A high score indicates a higher perceived importance of ethical fit when looking for a job.

5.8 Statistical Analysis

On the one hand, purely descriptive statistics will be used to display a general picture of the group of respondents and their characteristics.

In a second step, reliability analyses will be conducted to obtain Cronbach's Alpha for the used scales, to identify, whether scales are reliable or not.

Starting with the analyses, multiple regression models will be used to determine the important factors driving the differences in perceived importance of CSR. Further analysis of variance (ANOVA) will be carried out to identify statistical significance of the model. In addition Pearson correlation analyses will be performed to evaluate the strengths and direction of the correlation between different factors and perceived importance of CSR. Additionally, also multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) will be used.

6 Data Analysis and Results

6.1 Descriptive Statistics

A total of 198 people returned answered questionnaires. However, it is not possible to compute a rate on the return of surveys, as there was not a fixed number of surveys handed out. However, only 187 were usable returns, as for some of the others answers were missing, the respondent were not graduate students or had a nationality which was not under investigation for this study.

There was a pretty even distribution between male (48,7%) and female (51,3%) respondents. A large majority of respondents (78,6%) was in the age group between 25 and 34 years, whereas 19,8% were in the age group between 16 and 24 years and only 1,6% of respondents were between 35 and 46 years old. None of the respondents was older than 46 years.

The largest group of respondents was from Germany (35,3%) followed by Iceland with 25,7% then the United States with 20,3% of the respondents and last India accounting for 18,7% of the responses.

A majority of the respondents had pre-knowledge (75,5%) in the field of CSR, whereas only 58,8% visited a course in CSR or business ethics during their university education.

Comparing mean scores for perceived importance of CSR shows that there is only a minor difference between male and female respondents. While male respondents on average reveal a score of 43,40 out of 56 points, female respondents showed a slightly lower mean score with 42,38 out of 56 points.

The tables supporting and providing above data for the descriptive statistics can be found in Appendix 10.3.1.

6.2 Reliability of the Scales

Even though all scales that were used throughout this study have already been used and tested with regard to their validity and reliability, a reliability test for each of the scales was conducted. This was done, as items from the original scales were deleted and some scales were composed from items of different scales measuring the same construct. Supporting tables for the reliability analyses can be found in Appendix 10.3.2.

Socially Responsible Attitude Scale

This scale has a Cronbach's Alpha of .469 which is considered as not a very high consistency reliability, as according to Pallant (2013), a value of .7 is considered acceptable and values above .8 are preferable. The mean inter-item correlation is ranging between .047 and .45 with a mean of .223. This shows a not very strong inter-item correlation

PRESOR Scale - Friedman Part

With a Cronbach's Alpha of .81 this scale has a very good internal consistency and thus can be considered as reliable. Inter-item correlation ranges between .358 and .656 with a mean of .518, indicating a strong relationship among the items.

PRESOR Scale - Freeman Part

The Freeman part of the PRESOR scale has a Cronbach's Alpha of .635 and thus stays slightly below what is deemed to be acceptable. However, it should be noted that according to Pallant (2013), for scales with less than ten items, obtaining an acceptable Cronbach's Alpha can be tricky. However, inter-item correlation for this scale ranges between .13 and .455 with a mean of .303 which can be still considered as acceptable.

PRESOR Scale - Combined

For the combined PRESOR scale, a Cronbach's Alpha of .834 is obtained which can be considered as quite strong. Also inter-item correlation shows a strong correlation between the items. Thus, the PRESOR scale can be considered as quite reliable with a high internal consistency.

Idealism Scale

The idealism scale can be labeled as quite reliable, as it obtains a Cronbach's Alpha of .8 and an average inter-item correlation of .515 with scores between .182 and .751. Thus this scale shows a strong inter-item correlation and a high internal consistency.

Relativism Scale

Obtaining a Cronbach's Alpha of .864 makes this scale quite reliable. Internal consistency seems to be relatively high, as inter-item correlation has a mean of .614 and ranges between .586 and .676.

Spirituality Scale

The intrinsic spirituality scale obtains a high Cronbach's Alpha of .96 and thus has a high internal consistency and validity. Inter-item correlations also support the suggestion of a high reliability as they have a mean of .869 and range between .809 and .919.

Materialism Scale

This scale obtains a Cronbach's Alpha of .659 and thus stays somewhat below the .7 which would mark an acceptable validity. Inter-item correlation is ranging between .089 and .6 with a mean of .325. However, it seems that internal consistency is not too weak for this scale.

Power Distance Scale

By obtaining a Cronbach's Alpha of .715, the power distance scale can be described as having an acceptable internal consistency. Inter-item correlation ranges between .206 and .676 with a mean of .379.

Individualism Scale

With a Cronbach's Alpha of .539, this scale seems to have some weaknesses in internal consistency. This is also reflected in the inter-item correlation, where the scale has a mean of .252 with a range between .156 and .698.

Masculinity Scale

The masculinity scale obtains a Cronbach's Alpha of .788 and thus has a good internal consistency which is also supported by the mean inter-item correlation of .485. Inter-item correlations range between .367 and .701.

Uncertainty Avoidance Scale

This scale has a high internal reliability and consistency with a Cronbach's Alpha of .829. The mean inter-item correlation is .557 with values ranging between .465 and .667.

P-O fit

The scale obtains a Cronbach's Alpha of .856 and thus it can be considered that there is a reliability in measuring the underlying construct. The inter-item correlation values range between .219 and .759 with a mean of .547.

6.3 Business Practices and PICSR

In a first attempt to identify, whether the evaluation of business practices and CSR is dependent on the individual's score on the scales that indicate agreement to the theses of Freeman and Friedman, a Pearson correlation analysis is carried out. The aim is to identify, whether the variables (labeled Friedman and Freeman) that will be later on combined and serve as the perceived importance of CSR (PICSR) in a business context, are correlated with the individual's view on business practices with regard to a company's CSR activities.

By running a Pearson correlation analysis, the direction and strengths of this potential correlation should be identified.

Table 6
Correlations between PICSR and Freeman/Friedman Theses

		Importance of CSR in Business		
		Friedman	Freeman	
Importance of CSR in Business	Pearson Correlation	1	,496**	,505**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,000
	N	187	187	187
Friedman	Pearson Correlation	,496**	1	,634**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		,000
	N	187	187	187
Freeman	Pearson Correlation	,505**	,634**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	
	N	187	187	187

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

Table 6. Correlations between PICSR and Freeman/Friedman Theses.

The Friedman variable reveals a Pearson correlation coefficient of .496 which is according to Cohen (1988) a medium to strong relationship. This variable reaches a statistical significant correlation with the importance of CSR in business variable with a Sig value of .000. The relationship between the two is positive, however, it must be not-

ed that the Friedman variable was reverse scored, in order to combine it later with the Freeman variable. This means that a higher score on the Friedman variable really means a low agreement with Friedman's theses. In return this means that the positive correlation is actually a negative correlation which indicates, that a low agreement to Friedman's theses also leads to a higher score in the importance of CSR in business variable.

The Freeman variable is strongly correlated with importance of CSR in business with a coefficient of .505. Statistical significance is reached with a Sig. value of .000. The relation between the two is positive, which suggests that if an individual reveals a high degree of agreement to Freeman's theses, this individual will score higher on the attitude towards importance of CSR in business.

Thus, hypothesis 1a could be confirmed. Individuals with a high score on social traditionalism (Friedman's theses) have a less positive attitude towards CSR in business. Hence, a negative correlation between those two variables was established. Furthermore, hypothesis 1b was found to be true, as individual's with a high agreement to Freeman's thesis revealed a more positive attitude towards CSR in business, thus a positive correlation was established.

6.4 PICSR and Job Attributes and Ethical Fit

In order to test the hypothesis that there is a positive relationship between the attractiveness as a company and the perceived importance of CSR a Pearson correlation analysis is run.

Table 7
Correlations between PICSR and Importance of Job Attributes

		PICSR	Social and ethical behavior of the company	Reputation of the company
PICSR	Pearson Correlation	1	,604**	-,036
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,620
	N	187	187	187
Social and ethical behavior of the company	Pearson Correlation	,604**	1	,160*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		,029
	N	187	187	187
Reputation of the company	Pearson Correlation	-,036	,160*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,620	,029	
	N	187	187	187

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

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

Table 7. Correlations between PICSR and Importance of Job Attributes.

The social and ethical behavior is the variable of major importance in this analysis, however, the reputation of the company is also taken into consideration, as there might be also a correlation between perceived importance of CSR and the reputation of a company as an employer attractiveness factor.

The attribute of social and ethical behavior of a company as an attractiveness factor reveals a Pearson correlation coefficient of .604 which is according to Cohen (1988) a strong relationship. This variable reaches a statistically significant relation with the PICSR by reaching a Sig value of .000. The relationship between the two is positive. This means that a higher score on the PICSR variable also means that the individual will put more emphasis on CSR of a company when evaluating the attractiveness of a job opportunity. However, company reputation does not show any correlation with the PICSR variable. Reaching a Pearson correlation coefficient of only -.036 and a Sig. value of .620, no correlation between the two could be established.

Thus, hypothesis 2a was confirmed. A higher degree in PICSR is positively correlated with the importance an individual lays on CSR activities of a company when evaluating this company as a potential employer.

In the next step, it is the aim, to identify a possible correlation between the perceived importance of CSR and the importance of the ethical fit to an individual.

Table 8
Correlations between PICSR and P-O Fit

		PICSR	P-O Fit
PICSR	Pearson Correlation	1	,540**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000
	N	187	187
P-O Fit	Pearson Correlation	,540**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
	N	187	187

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

Table 8. Correlations between PICSR and P-O Fit.

The attribute of ethical fit as a component of the P-O fit indicates the degree of importance an individual lays on a congruent set of values between herself/himself and the company when looking for a job. The P-O fit variable reveals a Pearson correlation coefficient of .54 with the PICSR variable, which is according to Cohen (1988) a rather strong relationship. This variable reaches a statistical significant relation with the PICSR by reaching a Sig value of .000. The relationship between the two is positive. This means that a higher score on the PICSR variable also means that the individual will put more emphasize on a company having a set of values that is similar to the individual's set of values when evaluating a potential employer.

Thus, hypothesis 2b was confirmed. A higher degree in PICSR is positively correlated with the importance an individual lays on a mutual set of core values that she/he shares with a company, when evaluating that company as a potential employer.

6.5 Individual Values and Perceived Importance of CSR

To identify how much of the variance in perceived importance of CSR (PICSR) can be explained by individual values, a multiple regression is run. Furthermore it should be identified, which of the individual values is the best predictor for PICSR. In addition to this, the direction and strengths of the correlation between the variables is of interest and will be examined by using a Pearson correlation analysis.

PICSR is the dependent variable here and the four individual values (idealism, relativism, spirituality and materialism) are set as independent variables.

Table 9
Individual Values and PICSR - Coefficients

Model	Unstand. Coeffi.		Stand .Coeff		95,0% Conf. Interv.							
					for B		Corr.		Coll. Stat.			
											Tol-	
	Std.				Lower		Upper		Zero-		Par-	
	B	Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Bound	Bound	order	tial	Part	ce	VIF
(Constant)	50,083	3,343		14,982	,000	43,487	56,679					
Idealism	,264	,114	,163	2,308	,022	,038	,490	,231	,169	,152	,873	1,145
Relativism	-,224	,098	-,162	-2,280	,024	-,417	-,030	-,289	-,167	-,151	,865	1,156
Spirituality	-,130	,095	-,095	-1,360	,176	-,318	,058	-,044	-,100	-,090	,892	1,121
Materialism	-,522	,123	-,304	-4,230	,000	-,765	-,278	-,386	-,299	-,279	,846	1,182

a. Dependent Variable: PICSR

Table 9. Individual Values and PICSR - Coefficients.

The model yields a R Square of .206 which means that 20,6% of the variance in PICSR is explained by individual values of each respondent. Testing the statistical significance of the model by running an ANOVA displays a Sig. of .000, thus the null hypothesis can be rejected and the model reaches statistical significance.

In the next step, the individual contribution of each of the four variables to the model should be identified. Materialism exhibits with a standardized coefficient Beta of -.304 the strongest unique contribution to the model. With a Sig. of .000 the contribution made by materialism reaches statistic significance. The second largest unique contribution with a Beta of .163 is made by Idealism. This variable also reaches statistical significance with a Sig. value of .022. Relativism has the third strongest unique contribution to the model with a Beta of -.162. The Sig. value of relativism is .024 and thus less than .05 which means that it also reaches statistical significance. Spirituality exhib-

its the smallest unique contribution with a Beta of .095 and as the Sig. value of .176 is above .05, it does not reach statistical significance.

Table 10
Correlations between PICSR and Individual Values

		PICSR	Idealism	Relativism	Spirituality	Materialism
PICSR	Pearson Correlation	1	,231**	-,289**	-,044	-,386**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,001	,000	,552	,000
	N	187	187	187	187	187
Idealism	Pearson Correlation	,231**	1	-,108	,266**	-,249**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,001		,140	,000	,001
	N	187	187	187	187	187
Relativism	Pearson Correlation	-,289**	-,108	1	,140	,315**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,140		,057	,000
	N	187	187	187	187	187
Spirituality	Pearson Correlation	-,044	,266**	,140	1	-,100
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,552	,000	,057		,172
	N	187	187	187	187	187
Materialism	Pearson Correlation	-,386**	-,249**	,315**	-,100	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,001	,000	,172	
	N	187	187	187	187	187

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

Table 10. Correlations between PICSR and Individual Values.

To determine the strength and direction of the correlation between the four individual values and PICSR, a Pearson correlation analysis is performed. Idealism exhibits Pearson correlation coefficient of .231 which is according to Cohen (1988) a small relationship. Idealism reaches a statistical significant relation with PICSR with a Sig value of .001. The relationship between the two is positive, which indicates that a higher score in idealism also leads to a higher score in perceived importance of CSR.

Relativism also has a small strength in correlation with PICSR with a coefficient of -.289. Statistical significance is reached with a Sig. value of .000. The relation between the two is negative, which suggests that if an individual scores lower in relativism, this individual will have a higher PICSR score.

Spirituality exposes a coefficient of only -.044 which suggest that there is no substantial correlation to PICSR. Furthermore, statistical significance for spirituality is not reached (Sig. value .552).

Materialism, however, displays a correlation of medium strengths with a coefficient of $-.386$. With a Sig. value of $.000$ materialism also reaches statistical significance. There is a negative correlation between materialism and PICSR, suggesting that an individual with a high materialism score will perceive CSR as less important.

In conclusion, hypothesis 3a can be confirmed, as a positive relationship between idealism and PICSR was found. Hypothesis 3b can also be confirmed, as a negative relationship between ethical relativism and PICSR was discovered. Hypothesis 3c however, was falsified, as there was no significant correlation between spirituality and PICSR found. Hypothesis 3c was found to be right again, as a negative correlation between PICSR and materialism was discovered.

All data and tables that were used to support above findings and analysis can be found in Appendix 10.3.3.

6.6 Cultural Dimensions and Perceived Importance of CSR

After examining the predictability of individual values on PICSAR, the next step will be to examine how much of the variance in perceived importance of CSR (PICSAR) can be explained by Hofstede's cultural dimensions. Again, a multiple regression is run for this purpose. In addition, it should be researched, which of the cultural dimensions is the best predictor for PICSAR. Furthermore, the strengths and direction of the correlation between the variables is of interest and will be determined via a Pearson correlation analysis.

PICSAR is the dependent variable again and the four cultural dimensions (individualism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity) are set as independent variables.

Table 11
Cultural Dimensions and PICSAR - Coefficients

Cultural Dimensions and PEER - Geometric												
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Stan	95,0% Confidence Interval				Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tol- erance	VIF
(Constant)	47,087	3,585		13,134	,000	40,013	54,160					
Power Distance	-,168	,157	-,084	-1,068	,287	-,478	,142	-,206	-,079	-,070	,684	1,461
Individualism	,461	,154	,205	2,992	,003	,157	,765	,196	,217	,196	,908	1,102
Maculinity	-,743	,130	-,424	-5,714	,000	-,999	-,486	-,399	-,390	-,374	,778	1,286
Uncertainty Avoidance	,181	,135	,108	1,343	,181	-,085	,447	-,043	,099	,088	,657	1,521

a. Dependent Variable: PICSAR

Table 11. Cultural Dimensions and PICSAR - Coefficients.

The model exposes a R Square of .222 meaning that 22,2% of the variance in PICSAR is explained by the individual's scores in cultural dimensions. Testing the statistical significance of the model by running an ANOVA yields a Sig. of .000, thus the null hypothesis is rejected and the model reaches statistical significance.

In the next step, the individual contribution of each of the four variables to the model should be examined. Masculinity reveals with a standardized coefficient Beta of -.424 the strongest unique contribution to the model. Displaying a Sig. of .000 the con-

tribution made by masculinity is statistical significant. The second largest unique contribution with a Beta of .205 is made by individualism. This dimension is also able to reach a statistical significant Sig. value of .003. Uncertainty avoidance has the third strongest unique contribution to the model with a Beta of .105. The Sig. value of uncertainty avoidance is .181 and thus above .05 which means that it does not reach statistical significance. Power distance reveals the smallest unique contribution with a Beta of -.084 and as the Sig. value of is .287, it does not reach statistical significance.

Table 12
Correlations between PICSR and Cultural Dimensions

		PICSR	Power Distance	Individualism	Masculinity	Uncertainty Avoidance
PICSR	Pearson Correlation	1	-,206**	,196**	-,399**	-,043
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,005	,007	,000	,561
	N	187	187	187	187	187
Power Distance	Pearson Correlation	-,206**	1	,017	,421**	,490**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,005		,817	,000	,000
	N	187	187	187	187	187
Individualism	Pearson Correlation	,196**	,017	1	,089	,272**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,007	,817		,228	,000
	N	187	187	187	187	187
Masculinity	Pearson Correlation	-,399**	,421**	,089	1	,391**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,228		,000
	N	187	187	187	187	187
Uncertainty Avoidance	Pearson Correlation	-,043	,490**	,272**	,391**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,561	,000	,000	,000	
	N	187	187	187	187	187

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

Table 12. Correlations between PICSR and Cultural Dimensions.

To determine the strength and direction of the correlation between the four cultural dimensions and PICSR, a Pearson correlation analysis is carried out.

The first dimension, power distance reveals a Pearson correlation coefficient of -.206 which is according to Cohen (1988) a small relationship. Power distance reaches statistical significant relation with PICSR with a Sig value of .005. The relationship between the two is negative, which suggests that a higher score in power distance leads to a lower perceived importance of CSR.

Individualism reveals a small strength in correlation with PICSR with a coefficient of .196. The individualism dimension reaches statistical significance with a Sig. value of .007. The relation between the two is positive, which indicates that a person who scores high in individualism will have a higher perceived importance of CSR.

Masculinity exposes an coefficient of -.399 which means that from the cultural dimensions it has the strongest correlation with PICSR that can be described as having medium strengths. Furthermore, statistical significance for masculinity is reached (Sig. value .000). There is a negative correlation between masculinity and PICSR, suggesting that an individual with a high degree in masculinity score will perceive CSR as less important, while an individual with a high score in femininity will perceive CSR as more important.

Uncertainty avoidance, however, displays no relevant correlation with a coefficient of -.043. With a Sig. value of .561 it also does not reach statistical significance.

In conclusion, hypothesis 4a can be rejected, as a positive relationship between individualism and PICSR was found and not as expected a negative correlation. Hypothesis 4b can be confirmed, as a negative relationship between power distance and PICSR was discovered. Hypothesis 4c again, was confirmed, as there was a positive correlation between femininity and PICSR found. Hypothesis 4d was found to be false, as no significant correlation between PICSR and uncertainty avoidance was discovered.

For further investigation of the influence of culture and nationality on perceived importance of CSR, it will be checked, if the values that were determined by Hofstede correlate with those that the respondents revealed in this study. In addition, it will be tested, if there is a significant difference in scores for perceived importance of CSR in between individuals from the different nations.

In order to investigate whether individuals from different nations exhibited significant differences in perceived importance of CSR, a analysis of variance was carried out. The mean scores reveal that respondents from Germany score with of 40,32 out of 56 possible points on average the lowest on PICSR. Respondents from India reveal the second lowest mean score of 43,14. The United states respondents score 44,53 points on PICSR on average. Icelandic respondents have the highest mean PICSR score of 44,88.

Table 13
Multiple Comparison of PICSIR between Nations

Dependent Variable: Perceived Importance of CSR

Tukey HSD

(I) Country of origin	(J) Country of origin	Mean		Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
		Difference (I-J)	Std. Error		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Germany	India	-2,825	1,534	,258	-6,80	1,15
	Iceland	-4,557 [*]	1,392	,007	-8,17	-,95
	United States	-4,208 [*]	1,494	,027	-8,08	-,33
India	Germany	2,825	1,534	,258	-1,15	6,80
	Iceland	-1,732	1,631	,713	-5,96	2,50
	United States	-1,383	1,719	,852	-5,84	3,07
Iceland	Germany	4,557 [*]	1,392	,007	,95	8,17
	India	1,732	1,631	,713	-2,50	5,96
	United States	,349	1,593	,996	-3,78	4,48
United States	Germany	4,208 [*]	1,494	,027	,33	8,08
	India	1,383	1,719	,852	-3,07	5,84
	Iceland	-,349	1,593	,996	-4,48	3,78

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 13. Multiple Comparison of PICSIR between Nations.

The results of the ANOVA reveal that with a Sig. value of .004 there is a significant difference in mean scores for PICSIR amongst the respondents from different nations. The Tukey HSD shows significant differences in between respondents from Germany and Iceland (Sig. .007) and respondents from Germany and the United States (Sig. .027). However, it should be noted that Levene's test for homogeneity of variances reveals a Sig. value of less than .05 which leads to the conclusion that the assumption of homogeneity of variance has been violated. The Robust Test for Equality of Means reveals a Sig. of .006 for Welch test and a Sig. of .003 for Brown-Forsythe test. Therefore, results of the ANOVA might be not reliable.

The next investigation is of descriptive nature. As the scores in the cultural dimensions were evaluated for each respondent individually by implementing the respective scale in the questionnaire, instead of taking the predefined values from Hofstede, differences to the Hofstede scores are expected. Although, those differences might be traceable to the size of the sample of this study, it should be identified where main differences between the study participants and the Hofstede mean scores are observable.

As each scale for the respective cultural dimension consisted of four question, answerable on a 7-point Likert scale, the maximum value for each dimension was 28 which would equal a score of 100 on the Hofstede scale. Mean scores for the individuals from each nation were computed and transferred to the scale with a maximum of 100 points. Afterwards, the discovered values were compared with the mean scores found by Hofstede. Following diagrams result from this comparison:

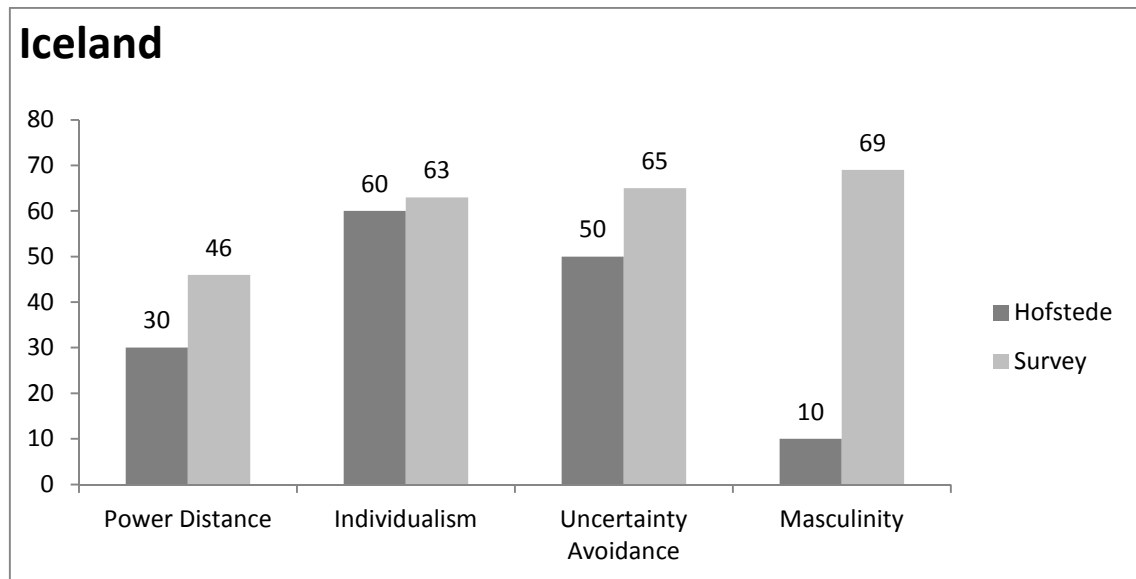


Figure 12. Cultural Dimensions: Iceland.

The diagram shows that on average respondents scored higher on power distance than the country average found by Hofstede. Scores in individualism were not fundamentally different from those discovered by Hofstede. Uncertainty avoidance was found to be larger among the survey respondents compared to Hofstede's country average. The biggest difference was found in masculinity, respondents scored 59 points higher here than expected when looking at the mean score found by Hofstede.

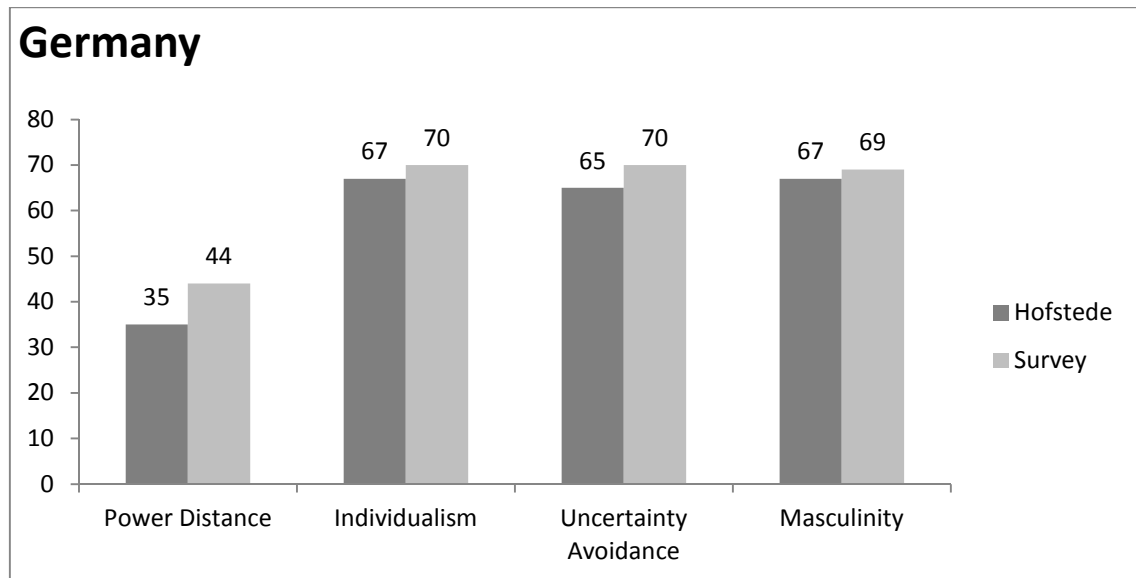


Figure 13. Cultural Dimensions: Germany.

Respondents from Germany were found to be pretty close to the scores identified by Hofstede. The only deviation that seems to be interesting is that respondents in the survey were found to have a 9 points higher power distance. The other dimensions are not strongly deviating from Hofstede's mean scores.

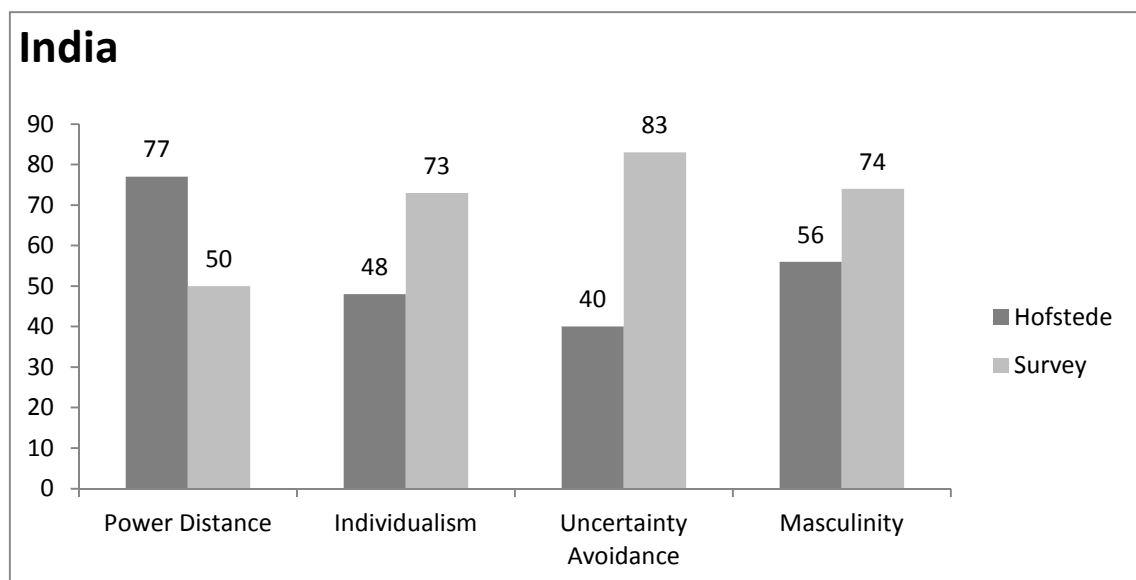


Figure 14. Cultural Dimensions: India.

In case of India, most of the scores from the survey are strongly deviating from those found by Hofstede. For power distance, Indian respondents were found to have a 27 points lower score in the survey, while for all other dimensions, the Indian respondents scored way higher than identified by Hofstede.

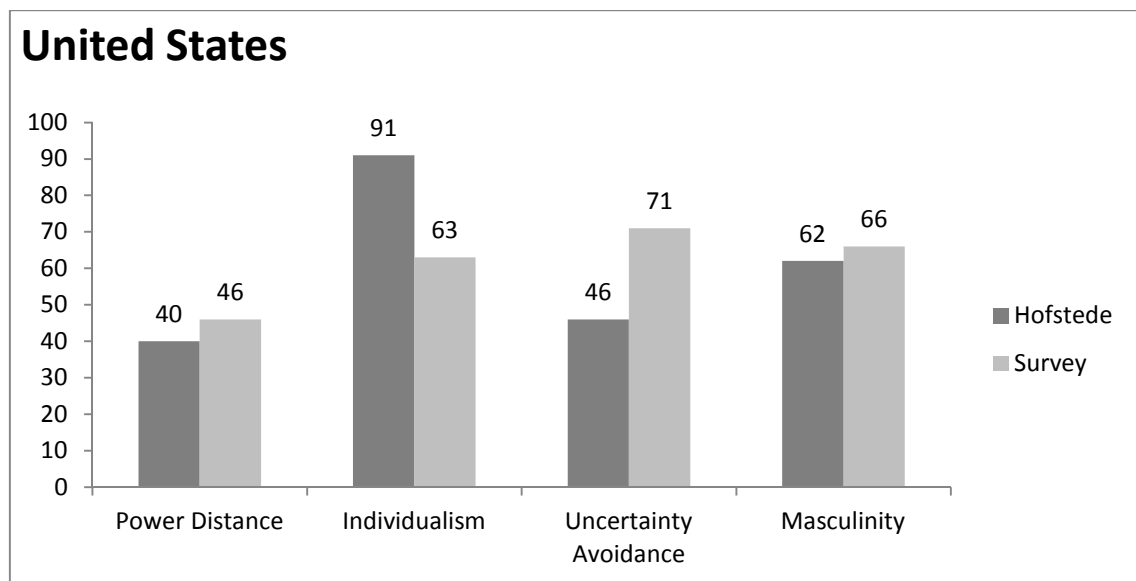


Figure 15. Cultural Dimensions: United States.

For the United States, individual scores on power distance and masculinity were found to be close to that scores identified by Hofstede. However, on the individualism dimension, the US respondents scored with 28 points lower than the Hofstede score surprisingly low, while the uncertainty avoidance score was 25 points higher than the value found by Hofstede.

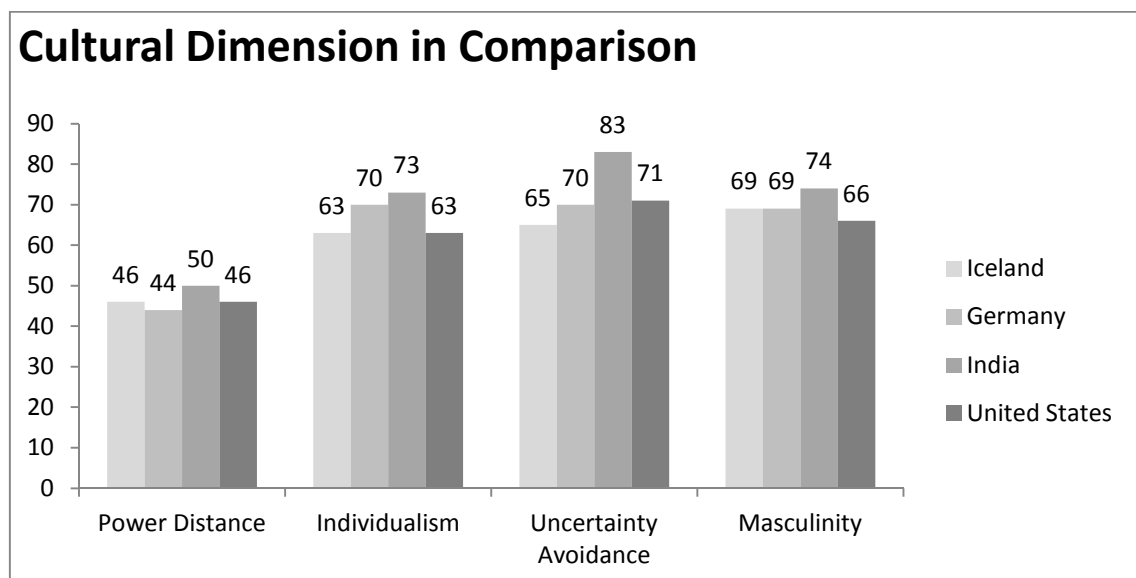


Figure 16. Cultural Dimensions in Comparison.

When comparing scores from the study for all countries in one diagram, it becomes obvious that the deviation in each dimension in between countries are way smaller than the differences on the official dimension by Hofstede.

In a last descriptive observation for intercultural differences, mean scores for job/company attractiveness factors will be compared between the four nations. When comparing the attractiveness factors for a company or a job on the intercultural level, it can be seen that on a scale from 1 (absolutely unimportant) to 5 (very important) CSR awards mean scores of 4,0 in Germany, a 4,29 in India, 3,88 in Iceland and 4,18 in the USA. With a mean of 4,06 CSR is ranked before payment (4,03), reputation of the company (3,75) and a specific product or industry as an attractiveness factors (3,18). The location of the job is the most important factor (4,46) followed by advancement possibilities (4,31) and job security (4,20). Thus CSR is ranked the fourth most important attractiveness factor out of the seven listed factors. Those mean scores are shown in table 14.

Table 14
Importance of Job Attributes

		Pay and bonuses	Location of the job	Advancement possibilities	CSR	Reputation	Product / industry	Security
Male	Mean	3,89	4,35	4,18	4,05	3,58	3,11	3,85
	N	91	91	91	91	91	91	91
	Std. Deviation	1,159	,848	,902	,886	,817	1,178	,868
Female	Mean	4,16	4,56	4,44	4,06	3,91	3,25	4,53
	N	96	96	96	96	96	96	96
	Std. Deviation	,799	,612	,558	,708	,985	1,399	,664
Total	Mean	4,03	4,46	4,31	4,06	3,75	3,18	4,20
	N	187	187	187	187	187	187	187
	Std. Deviation	,997	,742	,755	,798	,919	1,295	,841

Table 14. Importance of job Attributes.

All data and tables that were used to conduct this analysis can be found in Appendix 10.3.4 and 10.3.5.

6.7 Overview on Findings

During the analysis, some of the hypothesis were found to be true while others were rejected. Following table gives an overview on the hypotheses that were confirmed and those that have been rejected.

Research Question	Hypothesis	Status
1	1a	Confirmed
	1b	Confirmed
2	2a	Confirmed
	2b	Confirmed
3	H3a	Confirmed
	H3b	Confirmed
	H3c	Rejected
	H3d	Confirmed
4	H4a	Rejected
	H4b	Confirmed
	H4c	Confirmed
	H4d	Rejected

Table 15. Verification and Falsification of Hypotheses.

7 Discussion

7.1 Sample

As discussed, the sample for this study was not drawn from a predefined group but rather was based on the personal network of the author. This resulted in a situation where invitations to the survey were not distributed to a fixed group of people but to some people that were asked to distribute the study at their home universities. The pursued method was matched sampling, however, the basis for the respondents is deviating from country to country, as different numbers of universities were approached.

7.2 Descriptive Statistics

Within the descriptive statistics, it became obvious that the spread of the respondents on the genders was pretty even, however, gender was not a construct with major relevance for this study. Even though, having an even distribution on the genders has the advantage that the results gain in validity, as observed effects are not influenced by one gender being predominantly represented among the respondents.

There is a large homogeneity when it comes to the age groups of the respondents. As nearly 80% of the respondents were in the age group between 25 and 34, no analyzes with regard to respondents' age were conducted, as any possible results are probably not very meaningful, due to small sample size of the other age groups.

On average, respondents show that CSR is relevant to them, as the average male respondent scores about 43 points on the 56-points scale, while the average female respondent scores about 42 points. A score of 42 or 43 on the 56-point scale can be seen as quite positive. In accordance with other studies that found that CSR is not a major concern to business students, the results from this study in this regard were a bit unexpected, as on average, CSR seems to be a concern to business students. This might be a result of different incidents that have directed the public interest towards the social behavior of companies within the last years. Different incidents, like the oil leakage of the Deepwater Horizon, the revelation of horrific working conditions in Bangladesian clothing factories and other factors might have influenced the public opinion on CSR. Especially business students might have grown to be more sensitive for those issues, which might be also traced back to the educational component. Nearly 60% of respondents indicated that they visited a course in business ethics or CSR during their studies. There might be other different reasons for the fact that CSR seems to be increasing in

importance to business students, however, this could be a first approach for further studies in this area, as this study does not aim to identify the underlying reason for a potential increase in sensitivity towards CSR.

7.3 Reliabilities of the Scales

When testing the reliabilities of the scales, it turned out that overall, the scales have pretty good internal consistency and inter-item correlation and are therefore relatively reliable. However, some problems occurred here. First, the Social Responsible Attitude scale turned out to have a low validity. As stated by Pallant (2013), for scales with less than ten items, a low Cronbach's Alpha is quite common. The low Cronbach's Alpha of the Socially Responsible Attitude scale is not a major problem for this study, as the scale is only used for testing the PRESOR scale and does not have any further impact on this study. However, the item with the lowest inter-item correlation only has a value of -.047 which shows that probably some of the items of this scale should be replaced to reach a higher internal validity when using this scale for further research.

The PRESOR scale which was subdivided into two groups was found to have a good internal consistency which was important, as this is the most important scale for this study. However, the Cronbach's Alpha of the Freeman subscale is somewhat below the .7 that is deemed to be the acceptable value. This effect however, is set of when combining it with the Friedman subscale. Therefore, this does not pose a problem for this study, as the scales are mostly used in the combined form. However, also the original scale was found to have a reliability of .62 by Singhapakdi et al. (1996). This means that the obtained value is actually higher than that of Singhapakdi et al. (1996) which means that the scale is still adequate.

The materialism scale also exhibited a Cronbach's Alpha slightly below the value that is deemed to be acceptable. Again, this might be traced back to the number of items in this scale. Furthermore, the value is not low enough to suggest that the scale is inadequate for the study. However, the item with the lowest inter-item correlation only scores .089 which suggests that this item probably should be replaced in further studies, as also the reliability in previous studies was found to be higher for this scale. Also the individualism scale showed some problems in reaching a high Cronbach's Alpha. Again, the low number of items might be the reason but it should be kept in mind for both of the scales that the original scale by Vitell et al. (2003) which combined masculinity and

individualism was found to have a reliability of .665. Bearing this in mind, the obtained Cronbach's Alpha for both scales seem to be acceptable.

7.4 CSR, Attractiveness Factors and Ethical Fit

The first finding of this study suggested that there is a correlation between the perceived importance of CSR and the attitude towards socially responsible behavior of a company. For both subgroups of the PRESOR scale, a significant and rather strong correlation was found. The findings suggest that still today the views of Friedman and Freeman are influencing the perception of business students on how a company should act and which responsibilities it has to fulfill. Individuals who lay a high importance on CSR think that the responsibilities of a company go beyond making profit and increasing shareholder value, while people who tend to place less importance on CSR tend to agree with Friedman's theses that a company should basically maximize profit, as long as it is acting within a legal frame. Those findings are congruent to the hypotheses that were proven by those results. However, bearing in mind the mean score on the PRESOR scale, it can be concluded that the majority of respondents is tending toward a view on business that is more influenced by the theses of Freeman than those of Friedman. Potential reasons for this were already discussed in the beginning of this chapter.

A Pearson correlation analysis was run to test, whether there is a correlation between the perceived importance of CSR and the importance of CSR as a company/job attribute when evaluating the attractiveness of a company. In addition to ethical and social behavior of the company, it was also tested for the correlation between perceived importance of CSR and reputation of a company as an attractiveness factor. As expected, there is a strong correlation between perceived importance of CSR and social and ethical behavior of a company as an attractiveness factor in evaluating potential employers. This means that people who perceive CSR as important will also evaluate companies with regard to their socially responsible behavior. From a company's perspective, this means that CSR can actually be used as a tool to attract talent. Thus, an effective communication strategy might serve as a recruitment tool. However, in order to utilize this effect, further studies would be necessary, to investigate which dimensions of CSR are really important to graduate students to increase attractiveness factors and if there is a difference between cultures for the importance of different dimensions. However, a connection between the reputation of the company and the perceived importance of CSR could not be established. This suggest that respondent might not link

reputation of a company to the social and ethical behavior of the firm but rather to other factors, like for example prestige of that company. This however is subject to speculation and might be further investigated in another study.

Nevertheless, one of the main objectives of this study was to investigate whether CSR plays a role as an attractiveness factor for a company. It can be concluded that the results of the study were able to prove that CSR is an important attractiveness factor for a company. The perceived importance of CSR influences the importance an individual lays on CSR to evaluate the attractiveness of a company. Overall, CSR reaches a mean score of around 4 out of 5 points when being evaluated with regard to its importance in perceived attractiveness of a potential employer. This means that on average business students perceive CSR as an important attractiveness factor. The findings of which factors are influencing the attractiveness of a company are in accordance with those of McGinty & Reitsch (1992) who found that location of the job and advancement possibilities are most important factors but CSR is ranging just behind those criteria and seems to be more important than payment. The results of this study are congruent to those findings, as advancement possibilities, job location and job security are the most important attractiveness factors but CSR scores only slightly less and ranges directly behind those factor. Furthermore, payment seems to play a not too important role for graduate business students, when evaluating attractiveness of an employer. In conclusion, it can be stated that the study was able to identify a correlation between perceived importance of CSR and CSR as an attractiveness factor and furthermore prove that CSR is an important attractiveness factor for a company. Interestingly, out of respondents from all four nations, Icelandic respondents who scored the highest on PICSR, perceived CSR as least important as a company attractiveness factor.

In a next attempt to identify an influence of perceived importance of CSR on job decisions, it was tested whether perceived importance of CSR has an influence on an individual's degree to that ethical fit is important when evaluating a job or a company. A strong connection between the two variables was identified through a Pearson correlation analysis. This means that individuals who perceive CSR as more important, also lay more emphasize on their personal values being matched with a company's value system when looking for a job. This finding is in accordance with the finding, that an increased perceived importance of CSR leads to an increased importance of CSR as a company attractiveness factor. In sum, those finding suggest that companies should effectively communicate their CSR activities and core values to the public as this can serve as an

attractiveness factor for potential employees. However, those findings are so far of only general nature, as no drivers of the perceived importance of CSR have been defined. However, it can be stated that for the first main research objective of this thesis, the results of the study were able to prove that graduate business students perceive CSR as an important attractiveness factor when evaluating potential employers and furthermore, the fit between their values and the value set of the company is also of importance to them. The perceived importance of an individual plays a crucial role here, as it determines the degree to which an individual will perceive CSR as an important attractiveness factor and also influences the importance and individual lays on the ethical fit.

7.5 Individual Values

To research which factors drive the differences in perceived importance of CSR two sets of values were under investigation: individual values and cultural values.

First, it was investigated whether individual values have significant influence on the perceived importance of CSR. A multiple regression analysis was run to test how much of the variance in PICSIR can be explained by individual values. It turned out, that individual values are able to explain around 20% of the variance in PICSIR. Results are statistically significant and the model is rather strong. It turned out that materialism, idealism and relativism all have significant influence on the PICSIR, spirituality however did not show any significant influence on PICSIR.

A Pearson correlation analysis was then run to determine the strength and direction of the relationship. Idealism showed only small influence on PICSIR. However, the relation is positive, therefore, a higher degree in ethical idealism is as expected correlated with a higher perceived importance of CSR. Also ethical relativism reveals a small influence on the perceived importance of CSR. The relationship here is negative as expected. Although, the two variables influence the PICSIR, the influence is not as strong as expected. However, it can be concluded that students who are more idealistic tend to perceive CSR as more important than those who are more relativistic. Although the findings reach statistical significance those findings should not be generalized, as the influence is only small. The reasoning behind the hypothesis was that individuals who are more idealistic will tend to think that good behavior will lead to a good outcome (Forsyth, 1980). This hypothesis was found to be true, however as the influence is rather small, it should not be automatically concluded that someone who scores low on idealism does not care about social behavior of companies. In return, relativism also only

showed small influence on the PICS. This result was expected, as a negative correlation was assumed. However, it is again not possible to generalize this finding, as it cannot be assumed that someone who sees ethical behavior in a rather contextual concept will automatically perceive CSR as less important (Vitell et al., 2003).

Materialism exhibited the strongest influence on PICS of all individual values. With a medium strong negative correlation, the thesis that people who score higher in masculinity are more self-centered and less sensitive for social issues (Ahuvia & Kasser, 2002) seems to be true.

Spirituality does not show any significant influence on PICS. The idea that individuals who are more spiritual are also more caring and sensitive for the needs of others and thus also social issues (Kolodinsky et al., 2010) can therefore be rejected.

Overall, the model is pretty strong, however it should be kept in mind that it explains only 20% of the variance in PICS. The effect of the tested individual values should therefore not be overestimated. Further, it should be noted that masculinity had a somewhat lower reliability than the other scales for the individual dimensions.

7.6 Cultural Values

The second set of values that were tested for their influence on perceived importance of CSR were the cultural values. Again, in order to examine the variance in PICS that can be explained by the cultural values, a multiple regression was run. The result was that around 22% of the variance in the model are explained by cultural values. The model reaches statistical significance. Materialism shows the strongest influence on the PICS, also individualism and uncertainty avoidance have significant influence on PICS, while power distance reveals to have no statistically significant effect on PICS. In a next step, a Pearson correlation analysis was run to determine strength and direction of the found correlations.

Power distance revealed a small correlation with PICS. However, the relationship reaches statistical significance and is negatively directed. This direction was expected, as it was reasoned that people with a high power distance are rather inclined to follow instructions of their superiors without questioning them. The other way round, people with a low power distance are supposed to rather follow their own values (Vitell et al., 2003).

Individualism had a small positive correlation with PICS. However, this direction is not as expected, in fact, the relation goes in the opposite direction as expected. A

negative relation was expected, as individuals with high individualism are supposed to be more self-centered and thus less focused on social issues. On the other hand collectivist individuals were supposed to be more focused on the group to which they belong and thus more sensitive for social issues (Akaah, 1992). A possible explanation that this direction was found to be wrong might be that individualistic people will rather follow their own code of ethics, however there is so far no convincing explanation why collectivist people should perceive CSR as less important. Nevertheless, the correlation between individualism and the attitude towards CSR or ethics is also under debate in academic literature, as different studies have found evidence for a relationship in both directions (Korschun et al., 2014).

Masculinity exhibits a medium strong correlation and thus has of all the cultural dimensions the strongest correlation with PICSR. The direction of this correlation is as expected negative. The reasoning for this might be that a high masculinity inclines an individual to ignore formal codes of ethics, as the striving for success in a competitive environment is more important to this individual than interest of stakeholders (Vitell et al., 2003). In return, people with a higher degree in femininity are likely to perceive CSR as important, as they are less driven by competitive and success oriented motives.

Uncertainty avoidance as the last dimension did not show any statistically significant correlation with PICSR. It was expected that a positive correlation would be observable. However, it seems that both constructs are not related. Also previous findings do not give a clear picture of the correlation between uncertainty avoidance and the attitude towards CSR, as evidence for a correlation in both direction was found (de Mooij, 2014; Vitell et al., 2003).

Other dimensions like long-term orientation, indulgence or Confucian dynamism which have been used in some other studies were excluded from the observation.

It was decided to not utilize the official scores on the Hofstede dimensions, as a special sample group of respondents was chosen which might differ in some of the dimensions from the average population. In order to determine how strong this deviation is, scores on each dimension from the survey were compared with official scores found by Hofstede for each of the investigated nation. Interestingly, the results were quite different. While for Germany only small deviations were observable, all the other countries showed heavy deviations compared to the values found by Hofstede. When comparing values for all dimensions in between the countries it becomes obvious that the values are closer together than that on the Hofstede diagram. This result however was to

some degree expected, as the sample group is relatively homogenous in demographic characteristics. However, it might be a subject of further investigation to obtain findings on the reasons why the demographic group of graduate business students between 25 and 34 years deviates from the country average in demographic characteristics and if this group really tends to have similar cultural characteristics between different cultures and nations.

Furthermore, an ANOVA was run to determine, if there is an inter-country effect on the mean scores of perceived importance of CSR. It was found that significant differences were only observable between Germany and Iceland and Germany and the United States. Iceland turns out to have the highest mean score in PICSR (44,88), the United States follow with 44,53, India scores rank three with 43,14 and Germany scores the least with 40,32. Although significant differences between Germany and the two countries with the highest scores were found, it should be noted that all scores could be described as rather on the high side, as already a score of 25 indicates that the individual tends to agree more to Freeman's thesis than to Friedman's theses. Therefore, it seems that even though significant differences are observable, CSR generally takes an important role for graduate business students.

In conclusion, individual values and cultural values that were under investigation are able to explain around 50% of the variance in PICSR. This suggests that individual and cultural factors do influence the perceived importance of CSR nearly to the same degree. However, also other factors are existing that influence the PICSR. Those factors have not been under investigation in this study. Further studies might investigate which other factors are influencing the perceived importance of CSR.

8 Conclusion and Outlook

This aim of this study was to identify whether perceived importance of CSR influences graduate business students from four different countries in the evaluation of attractiveness of potential employers. Further, it was the aim to investigate the drivers of the perceived importance of CSR, where individual and cultural drivers were differentiated.

To answer this research question, four sub question were generated and belonging hypotheses identified. Throughout the analysis, the study was able to show that there is a correlation between perceived importance of CSR and the evaluation of the attractiveness of potential employers. Furthermore, the study was able to prove that individual values as well as cultural dimensions are important drivers of the perceived importance of CSR. However, not all of the tested values were found to have influence on the perceived importance of CSR. In addition, the study also was able to proof that there are significant differences in the perceived importance of CSR across participants from the different nations. Although significant differences were found, it was also revealed that graduate business student in general perceive CSR as important and rather tend to agree with the theses of Freeman.

Those findings suggest that there is a general sensitivity for socially responsible behavior among business students which stands in contrast to findings of some other studies which revealed that business students are rather inclined to follow the ideas of Friedman (Thanetsunthorn, 2014).

The study contributes to research in the area of CSR, as it was able to identify a correlation between perceived importance of CSR and the attractiveness of companies as potential employers. In addition, the study was also able to prove a correlation between PICSR and the ethical fit. Furthermore, the study was able to identify important drivers of CSR.

The study also identified CSR in general as an important attractiveness factor for a company or a job. However, further research in this area, especially on which dimensions of CSR make a company more attractive could build upon the findings of this study.

9 Limitations of the Study

The study also has some limitations. First, the sample size of 187 respondents was spread on four countries, which means that samples for each country were rather small. Even though statistically significant results were obtained, a larger sample would have been contributed to more meaningful results.

Furthermore, for some scales reliability issues were identified. For further studies in this area, it might be advisable to generate some new items for the existing scales and replace items with a low inter-item correlation, as the problems that occurred in this study have also been existing in previous use of those scales.

Another limitation of this study is, that results are not transferable to other demographic groups. Only a relatively homogeneous group of graduate business students was interviewed. Especially results with regard to the evaluation of importance of job characteristics might differ heavily when conducting the same survey in a group consisting of respondents with a rather low educational level (Albinger & Freeman, 2000).

A further limitation which is stemming from the sample, is the sampling procedure itself. Matched sampling does not allow for in depth analysis of effects that may be caused by gender or age (Christie et al., 2003).

The sampling procedure itself poses another limitation of this study. As the author used the personal network to distribute the questionnaire, the sampling procedure is lacking an objective frame.

Furthermore, besides the four individual values and the four cultural dimensions, no other factors were researched for the effect on perceived importance of CSR. Thus, living conditions, socio-cultural background and other factors were not under investigation. For further research, it might be interesting to also include some of these factors.

Another limitation of this study is that the sample group consisted only of active students. A different group with respondents having finished their studies and are already employed could have added additional meaningfulness to the study, as it might show if there is a difference in perception of CSR and employer attractiveness before looking for a job and while being already employed.

Another limitation is the way employer attractiveness was evaluated. Respondents were asked to evaluate the importance of a set of job and company attributes on a scale. However, if presented with different job offers that present different characteristics (pay, location, CSR activities, etc.) would have given a more realistic idea on how respondents would react to real job offers.

Limitations in transferring the results are also rooted in the number of cultures surveyed. As only four nations were under investigation, results with regard to a correlation between Hofstede's dimensions and perceived importance of CSR cannot be generalized.

10 Appendix

10.1 Literature

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10.2 Questionnaires

10.2.1 Questionnaires Used

Below are all original questionnaires that were used to construct the questionnaire for this thesis.

Socially Responsible Attitude	
1.	The socially responsible manager must occasionally place the interest of society over the interest of the company
2.	Management's only responsibility is to maximize the return on shareholders on their investment
3.	The fact that corporations have great economic power in your society means that they have a social responsibility beyond the interest of their shareholders
4.	As long as corporations generate acceptable shareholder returns, managers have a social responsibility beyond the interest of shareholders

Table 16. Socially Responsible Attitude Scale (Singhapakdi et al., 1996)

PRESOR Scale

Stockholder view (all items reverse scored):

1. The most important concern for a firm is making a profit, even if it means bending or breaking the rules.
 2. To remain competitive in a global environment, business firms will have to disregard ethics and social responsibility.
 3. If survival of a business enterprise is at stake, then you must forget about ethics and social responsibility.
 4. Efficiency is much more important to a firm than whether or not the firm is seen as ethical or socially responsible.
 5. If the stockholders are unhappy, nothing else matters.
-

Stakeholder view:

1. Being ethical and socially responsible is the most important thing a firm can do.
2. The ethics and social responsibility of a firm is essential to its long-term profitability.
3. The overall effectiveness of a business can be determined to a great extent by the degree to which it is ethical and socially responsible.
4. Business ethics and social responsibility are critical to the survival of a business enterprise.
5. A firm's first priority should be employee morale.
6. Business has a social responsibility beyond making a profit.
7. Social responsibility and profitability can be compatible.
8. Good ethics is often good business.

Table 17. PRESOR Scale (Singhapakdi et al., 1996)

Ethics Position Questionnaire	
Idealism	
1.	A person should make certain that their actions never intentionally harm another even to a small degree.
2.	Risks to another should never be tolerated, irrespective of
3.	The existence of potential harm to others is always wrong, irrespective of the benefits to be gained.
4.	One should never psychologically or physically harm another person.
5.	One should not perform an action which might In any way threaten the dignity and welfare of another individual.
6.	If an action could harm an innocent person, then it should not be done.
7.	The dignity and welfare of people should be the most important concern in any society.
8.	It is never necessary to sacrifice the welfare of others.
Relativism	
1.	What is ethical varies from One situation and society to another.
2.	Moral standards should be seen as being individualistic; what one person considers to be moral may be judged to be immoral by another person.
3.	Different types of moralities cannot be compared to "rightness."
4.	Questions of What is ethical for everyone can never be resolved since what is moral or immoral is up to the individual
5.	Moral standards are simply personal rules that indicate how a person should behave, and are not to be applied in making judgments of others.
6.	Ethical consideration In interpersonal relations are so complex that individuals should be allowed to formulate their own personal codes.
7.	Rigidly codifying an ethical position that prevents certain types of actions could stand in the way of better human relations and adjustment.
8.	No rule concerning lying can be formulated; whether a lie is permissible or not permissible totally depends upon the situation
9.	Whether a lie is judged to be Moral or immoral depends upon the circumstances surrounding the action.

Table 18. Ethics Position Questionnaire (Vitell et al., 2003)

Intrinsic Spirituality Scale

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1. In terms of the questions I have about life, my spirituality answers... | 1. ...no questions | 1. ...absolutely all my questions |
| 2. Growing spiritually is... | 2. ...more important than anything else in my life | 2. ...of no importance to me |
| 3. When I am faced with an important decision, my spirituality... | 3. ...plays absolutely no role | 3. ...is always the overriding consideration |
| 4. Spirituality is... | 4. ...the master motive of my life, directing every other aspect of my life | 4. ...no part of my life |
| 5. When I think of the things that help me to grow and mature as a person, my spirituality... | 5. ...has no effect on my personal growth | 5. ...is absolutely the most important factor in my personal growth |
| 6. My spiritual beliefs affect... | 6. ...absolute every aspect of my life | 6. ...no aspect of my life |

Table 19. Intrinsic Spirituality Scale (Hodge, 2003).

Materialism Scale	
Success	
7.	I admire people who own expensive homes, cars, and clothes.
8.	Some of the most important achievements in life include acquiring material possessions.
9.	I don't place much emphasis on the amount of material objects people own as a sign of success.
10.	The things I own say a lot about how well I'm doing in life.
11.	I like to own things that impress people.
12.	I don't pay much attention to the material objects other people own.
Centrality	
1.	I usually buy only the things I need.
2.	I try to keep my life simple, as far as possessions are concerned.
3.	The things I own aren't all that important to me.
4.	I enjoy spending money on things that aren't practical.
5.	Buying things gives me a lot of pleasure.
6.	I like a lot of luxury in my life.
7.	I put less emphasis on material things than most people I know.
Happiness	
1.	I have all the things I really need to enjoy life.
2.	My life would be better if I owned certain things I don't have.
3.	I wouldn't be any happier if I owned nicer things.
4.	I'd be happier if I could afford to buy more things.
5.	It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I can't afford to buy all the things I'd like.

Table 20. Materialism Scale (Richins & Dawson, 1992).

Cultural Dimensions	
Power Distance	
1.	My superiors should make most decisions without consulting me.
2.	I always conform to my superiors' wishes.
3.	I believe that those superiors who ask opinions too often of subordinates are weak or incompetent.
4.	I tend to avoid any potential arguments with my superior.
5.	I am always afraid to disagree with my superior.
Uncertainty Avoidance	
1.	I like to work in a well-defined job where the requirements are clear.
2.	It is important for me to work for a company that provides high employment stability.
3.	Clear and detailed rules/regulations are needed so workers know what is expected of them.
4.	If I am uncertain about the responsibilities of a job, I get very anxious.
5.	In a situation in which other people evaluate me, I feel that clear and explicit guidelines should be used.
Individualism	
1.	It is better to work in a group than alone.
2.	Groups make better decisions than individuals.
3.	Contributing to the group is the most important aspect.
Masculinity items	
1.	It is important for me to have a job that provides an opportunity for advancement.
2.	It is important for me to work in a prestigious and successful company or organization.
3.	It is important for me to have a job which has an opportunity for high earnings.
4.	It is important that I outperform others in my company.
Confucian Dynamism	
1.	I am always careful to avoid doing what is improper.
2.	I avoid offending others.
3.	I feel guilty if I behave improperly.
4.	I honor and respect the elderly.

Table 21. Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions (Vitell et al., 2003).

Cultural Values and Dimensions	
Power Distance dimension	
1.	Inequalities among people are both expected and desired.
2.	Less powerful people should be dependent on the more powerful.
3.	Inequalities among people should be minimized.
4.	There should be, and there is to some extent, interdependencies between less and more powerful people.
Individualism dimension	
1.	Everyone grows up to look after him/herself and his/her immediate family only
2.	People are identified independently of the groups they belong to.
3.	An extended family member should be protected by other member in exchange for loyalty.
4.	People are identified by their position in the social networks to which they belong.
Masculinity dimension	
1.	Money and material things are important.
2.	Men are supposed to be assertive, ambitious, and tough.
3.	Dominant values in society are the caring for others and preservation.
4.	Both men and woman are allowed to be tender and to be concerned with relationships
Uncertainty Avoidance dimension	
1.	High stress and subjective feeling of anxiety are frequent among people.
2.	Fear of ambiguous situations and of unfamiliar risks is normal.
3.	Uncertainty is a normal feature of life and each day is accepted as it comes.
4.	Emotions should not be shown.

Table 22. Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions (Li et al., 2004).

ESCSP Scale

1. I like to hear about companies that are socially responsible
2. I am favorably impressed by companies that win awards for their corporate social performance.
3. I would like the company I work for to be socially responsible.
4. I would like to work for a company that provides leadership for organizations in the community
5. I would like to work for a company that encourages employees to volunteer in the community.
6. I respect companies that support charities in their communities.
7. I would accept a job at a company with a poor reputation for social responsibility if it paid well.
8. I would take a job for a company that had poor environmental practices if it paid well.
9. I would take a job for a company that had a poor record in hiring and promoting ethnic minorities if it paid well.
10. Social responsibility is not a big concern when I look for a job.
11. The primary objective of a business should be to maximize return to shareholders.
12. I would reject a job with a company that discriminated against minorities.
13. I would reject a job with a company that discriminated against the disabled.
14. I would reject a job with a company that discriminated against women.

Table 23. ESCSP Scale (Paul et al., 2011).

10.2.2 Own Questionnaire

Below is the original questionnaire which was created for this thesis and used to conduct the survey that served as a basis for this thesis.

Demographic Items

1. Gender
2. Age Group
3. Country of origin
4. Other (Please specify):
5. Are you an university student?
6. Have you ever been an university student?
7. What is your highest academic degree?
8. Field of studies of your highest degree
9. Have you ever taken a course in Corporate Social Responsibility / ethics/ similar subject?
10. Are you familiar with the concept of Corporate Social Responsibility?

Socially Responsible Attitude Items

1. The socially responsible manager must occasionally place the interest of society over the interest of the company
2. Management's only responsibility is to maximize the return on shareholders on their investment
3. The fact that corporations have great economic power in your society means that they have a social responsibility beyond the interest of their shareholders
4. As long as corporations generate acceptable shareholder returns, managers have a social responsibility beyond the interest of shareholders

PRESOR - Friedman Items

1. The most important concern for a firm is making a profit, even if it means bending or breaking the rules
2. To remain competitive in a global environment, business firms will have to disregard ethics and social responsibility
3. If survival of a business enterprise is at stake, then you should not be concerned about ethics and social responsibility.
4. Efficiency is much more important to a firm than whether or not the firm is seen as ethical or socially responsible

PRESOR - Freeman Items

1. Being ethical and socially responsible is the most important thing a firm can do
2. The ethics and social responsibility of a firm is essential to its long-term profitability
3. Business has a social responsibility beyond making a profit
4. Social responsibility and profitability can be compatible

Idealism Items

1. A person should make certain that their actions never intentionally harm others even to a small degree
2. Risk to others should never be tolerated, irrespective of how small the risk might be
3. The existence of potential harm to others is always wrong, irrespective of the benefits gained
4. Deciding whether or not to perform an act by balancing the positive consequences of the act against the negative consequences of the act is immoral

Relativism Items

1. Questions of what is ethical for everyone can never be resolved since what is moral or immoral is up to the individual
2. What is ethical varies from one situation to another
3. Moral standards should be seen as being individualistic, what one person considers to be moral maybe judged to be immoral by another person
4. There is no absolute “right” or “wrong” as different types of moralities may vary in their perception of what is “right” or what is “wrong”

Spirituality Items

1. In terms of the questions I have about life, my spirituality answers absolutely all my questions
2. When I am faced with an important decision, my spirituality is always the overriding consideration
3. Spirituality is the master motive of my life, directing every other aspect of my life
4. When I think of the things that help me to grow and mature as a person, my spirituality is absolutely the most important factor in my personal growth

Materialism Items

1. Some of the most important achievements in life include acquiring material possessions
2. I like to own things that impress people
3. Buying things gives me a lot of pleasure
4. I usually buy only the things I need

Power Distance Items

1. My superiors should make most decisions without consulting me
2. I conform to my superiors' wishes
3. I tend to avoid any potential arguments with my superior
4. I am afraid to disagree with my superior

Individualism Items

1. Everyone grows up to look after him/herself and his/her immediate family only
2. It is better to work in a group than alone
3. Groups make better decisions than individuals
4. Contributing to the group is the most important aspect

Masculinity Items

1. It is important for me to have a job that provides an opportunity for advancement
2. It is important for me to work in a prestigious and successful company or organization
3. It is important for me to have a job which has an opportunity for high earnings

4. It is important that I outperform others in my company

Uncertainty Avoidance Items

1. I like to work in a well-defined job where the requirements are clear
 2. It is important for me to work for a company that provides high employment stability
 3. Clear and detailed rules/regulations are needed so workers know what is expected of them
 4. If I am uncertain about the responsibilities of a job, I get very anxious
-

Attractiveness Factors Items

1. Payment and bonuses
 2. Location of the job
 3. Advancement possibilities
 4. Social and ethical behaviour of the company
 5. Reputation of the company
 6. A specific product / specific industry
 7. Job security
-

P-O Fit Items

1. I would accept a job at a company with a poor reputation for social responsibility if it paid well
2. I would take a job for a company that had poor environmental practices if it paid well
3. I would take a job for a company that had a poor record in hiring and promoting ethnic minorities if it paid well
4. Social responsibility is not a big concern when I look for a job
5. I would reject a job with a company that discriminated against minorities, women or disabled

Table 24. Questionnaire Created for this Thesis.

10.3 Statistics

10.3.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 25

Gender

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Label	Gender		
Valid Values	1	Male	91	48,7%
	2	Female	96	51,3%

Table 25. Descriptive Statistics - Gender.

Table 26

Age Group

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Label	Age Group		
Valid Values	1	16 - 24	37	19,8%
	2	25 - 34	147	78,6%
	3	35 - 46	3	1,6%
	4	> 46	0	0,0%

Table 26. Descriptive Statistics - Age Group.

Table 27

Country of origin

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Label	Country of origin		
Valid Values	1	Germany	66	35,3%
	2	India	35	18,7%
	3	Iceland	48	25,7%
	4	United States	38	20,3%

Table 27. Descriptive Statistics - Country of Origin.

Table 28

Course in CSR taken?

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Label	Course in CSR taken?		
Valid Values	1	Yes	110	58,8%
	2	No	77	41,2%

Table 28. Descriptive Statistics - Courses in CSR.

Table 29

Familiarity with the Concept of CSR

		Value	Count	Percent
Standard Attributes	Label	Familiar?		
Valid Values	1	Yes	145	77,5%
	2	No	42	22,5%

Table 29. Descriptive Statistics - Familiarity with CSR.

Table 30
Descriptives

	Gender	Statistic	Std. Error
PICSR	Male	Mean	43,40
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
		Lower Bound	41,66
		Upper Bound	45,13
		5% Trimmed Mean	43,91
		Median	45,00
		Variance	69,064
		Std. Deviation	8,310
		Minimum	22
		Maximum	56
		Range	34
		Interquartile Range	8
		Skewness	-1,121
		Kurtosis	,710
	Female	Mean	42,38
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
		Lower Bound	41,01
		Upper Bound	43,74
		5% Trimmed Mean	42,60
		Median	43,50
		Variance	45,458
		Std. Deviation	6,742
		Minimum	28
		Maximum	52
		Range	24
		Interquartile Range	10
		Skewness	-,584
		Kurtosis	-,688

Table 30. Descriptive Statistics - Mean Scores in PICSR.

10.3.2 Reliability Analysis

Table 31

SRA Scale - Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items		
Cronbach's Alpha	Items	N of Items
,469	,535	4

Table 31. Reliability Analysis - SRA Scale.

Table 32

SRA Scale - Inter-Item Correlation

					Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
	Mean	Min.	Max.	Range			
Inter-Item Correlations	,223	-,047	,450	,496	-,9652	,031	4

Table 32. Reliability Analysis - SRA Scale.

Table 33

PRESOR Scale (Friedman) - Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items		
Cronbach's Alpha	Items	N of Items
,810	,811	4

Table 33. Reliability Analysis - PRESOR Scale (Friedman).

Table 34

PRESOR Scale (Friedman) - Inter-Item Correlation

					Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
	Mean	Min.	Max.	Range			
Inter-Item Correlations	,518	,358	,656	,298	1,834	,012	4

Table 34. Reliability Analysis - PRESOR Scale (Friedman).

Table 35
PRESOR Scale (Freeman) - Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Standardized Items	N of Items
,635	,635	4

Table 35. Reliability Analysis - PRESOR Scale (Freeman).

Table 36
PRESOR Scale (Freeman) - Inter-Item Correlation

	Mean	Min.	Max.	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Inter-Item Correlations	,303	,130	,455	,326	3,513	,019	4

Table 36. Reliability Analysis - PRESOR Scale (Freeman).

Table 37
PRESOR Scale (Combined) - Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Standardized Items	N of Items
,834	,834	8

Table 37. Reliability Analysis - PRESOR Scale (Combined).

Table 38
PRESOR Scale (Combined) - Inter-Item Correlation

	Mean	Min.	Max.	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Inter-Item Correlations	,387	,130	,656	,527	5,065	,017	8

Table 38. Reliability Analysis - PRESOR Scale (Combined).

Table 39

Idealism Scale - Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,800	,809	4

Table 39. Reliability Analysis - Idealism Scale.

Table 40

Idealism Scale - Inter-Item Correlation

	Mean	Min.	Max.	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Inter-Item Correlations	,515	,182	,751	,569	4,134	,045	4

Table 40. Reliability Analysis - Idealism Scale.

Table 41

Relativism Scale - Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,864	,864	4

Table 41. Reliability Analysis - Relativism Scale.

Table 42

Relativism Scale - Inter-Item Correlation

	Mean	Min.	Max.	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Inter-Item Correlations	,614	,586	,676	,091	1,155	,001	4

Table 42. Reliability Analysis - Relativism Scale.

Table 43

Spirituality Scale - Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized		
Cronbach's Alpha	Items	N of Items
,960	,964	4

Table 43. Reliability Analysis - Spirituality Scale.

Table 44

Spirituality Scale - Inter-Item Correlation

	Mean	Min.	Max.	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Inter-Item Correlations	,869	,809	,919	,110	1,136	,002	4

Table 44. Reliability Analysis - Spirituality Scale.

Table 45

Materialism Scale - Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized		
Cronbach's Alpha	Items	N of Items
,659	,658	4

Table 45. Reliability Analysis - Materialism Scale.

Table 46

Materialism Scale - Inter-Item Correlation

	Mean	Min.	Max.	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Inter-Item Correlations	,325	,089	,600	,510	6,704	,035	4

Table 46. Reliability Analysis - Materialism Scale.

Table 47

Power Distance Scale - Reliability Statistics

	Cronbach's Alpha	Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
Cronbach's Alpha	,715	,709	4

Table 47. Reliability Analysis - Power Distance Scale.

Table 48

Power Distance Scale - Inter-Item Correlation

	Mean	Min.	Max.	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Inter-Item Correlations	,379	,206	,676	,470	3,285	,031	4

Table 48. Reliability Analysis - Power Distance Scale.

Table 49

Individualism Scale - Reliability Statistics

	Cronbach's Alpha	Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
Cronbach's Alpha	,539	,574	4

Table 49. Reliability Analysis - Individualism Scale.

Table 50

Individualism Scale - Inter-Item Correlation

	Mean	Min.	Max.	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Inter-Item Correlations	,252	-,156	,698	,854	-4,471	,133	4

Table 50. Reliability Analysis - Individualism Scale.

Table 51

Masculinity Scale - Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items		
pha	Items	N of Items
,788	,790	4

Table 51. Reliability Analysis - Masculinity Scale.

Table 52

Masculinity Scale - Inter-Item Correlation

	Maximum / Minimum					Variance	N of Items
	Mean	Min.	Max.	Range	mum		
Inter-Item Correlations	,485	,367	,701	,334	1,909	,012	4

Table 52. Reliability Analysis - Masculinity Scale.

Table 53

Uncertainty Avoidance Scale - Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items		
pha	Items	N of Items
,829	,834	4

Table 53. Reliability Analysis - Uncertainty Avoidance Scale.

Table 54

Uncertainty Avoidance Scale - Inter-Item Correlation

	Maximum / Minimum					Variance	N of Items
	Mean	Min.	Max.	Range	mum		
Inter-Item Correlations	,557	,465	,667	,202	1,435	,006	4

Table 54. Reliability Analysis - Uncertainty Avoidance Scale.

Table 55		
P-O Fit Scale - Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,856	,858	5

Table 55. Reliability Analysis - P-O Fit Scale.

Table 56							
P-O Fit Scale - Inter-Item Correlation							
	Mean	Min.	Max.	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Inter-Item Correlations	,547	,219	,759	,541	3,474	,051	5

Table 56. Reliability Analysis - P-O Fit Scale.

10.3.3 Analysis of Individual Values

Table 57

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
PICSR	42,87	7,543	187
Idealism	19,78	4,659	187
Relativism	18,24	5,461	187
Spirituality	8,45	5,537	187
Materialism	13,91	4,389	187

Table 57. Individual Values - Descriptives.

Table 58

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,454 ^a	,206	,188	6,796

a. Predictors: (Constant), Materialism, Spirituality, Idealism, Relativism

b. Dependent Variable: PICSR

Table 58. Individual Values - Model.

Table 59

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2177,848	4	544,462	11,790	,000 ^b
	Residual	8405,071	182	46,182		
	Total	10582,920	186			

a. Dependent Variable: PICSR

b. Predictors: (Constant), Materialism, Spirituality, Idealism, Relativism

Table 59. Individual Values - ANOVA.

Table 60
Collinearity Diagnostics^a

Dimension	Ei- genvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions				
			(Constant)	Idealism	Relativism	Spirituality	Materialism
1	4,588	1,000	,00	,00	,00	,01	,00
2	,255	4,238	,00	,00	,01	,81	,04
3	,086	7,303	,02	,29	,10	,13	,20
4	,055	9,097	,00	,00	,77	,05	,53
5	,016	17,179	,98	,70	,11	,01	,23

a. Dependent Variable: PICSIR

Table 60. Individual Values - Colinearity Diagnostics.

Table 61
Casewise Diagnostics^a

Case Number	Std. Residual	PICSIR	Predicted Value	Residual
39	-3,015	28	48,49	-20,488
41	-3,015	28	48,49	-20,488
43	-3,015	28	48,49	-20,488
56	-3,160	27	48,48	-21,475
60	-3,160	27	48,48	-21,475
64	-3,160	27	48,48	-21,475

a. Dependent Variable: Social Traditionalism

Table 61. Individual Values - Casewise Diagnostics.

Table 62
Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	34,63	52,39	42,87	3,422	187
Std. Predicted Value	-2,410	2,783	,000	1,000	187
Standard Error of Predicted Value	,592	1,934	1,072	,294	187
Adjusted Predicted Value	35,73	52,18	42,89	3,395	187
Residual	-21,475	7,950	,000	6,722	187
Std. Residual	-3,160	1,170	,000	,989	187
Stud. Residual	-3,198	1,188	-,001	1,003	187
Deleted Residual	-21,988	8,204	-,013	6,912	187
Stud. Deleted Residual	-3,282	1,190	-,005	1,013	187
Mahal. Distance	,418	14,074	3,979	2,871	187
Cook's Distance	,000	,066	,006	,012	187
Centered Leverage Value	,002	,076	,021	,015	187

a. Dependent Variable: PICSR

Table 62. Individual Values - Residual Statistics.

10.3.4 Analysis of Cultural Dimensions

Table 63

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
PICSR	42,87	7,543	187
Power Distance	12,91	3,793	187
Individualsim	18,90	3,362	187
Maculinity	19,36	4,304	187
Uncertainty Avoidance	20,01	4,511	187

Table 63. Cultural Dimensions - Descriptives.

Table 64

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,471 ^a	,222	,205	6,727

a. Predictors: (Constant), Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualsim, Maculinity, Power Distance

b. Dependent Variable: PICSR

Table 64. Cultural Dimensions - Model.

Table 65

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2348,180	4	587,045	12,975	,000 ^b
	Residual	8234,740	182	45,246		
	Total	10582,920	186			

a. Dependent Variable: PICSR

b. Predictors: (Constant), Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualsim, Maculinity, Power Distance

Table 65. Cultural Dimensions - ANOVA.

Table 66
Collinearity Diagnostics^a

Dim.	Eigen-value	Condition Index	Variance Proportions				Uncertainty
			(Constant)	Distance	Individualsim	Maculinity	Avoidance
1	4,871	1,000	,00	,00	,00	,00	,00
2	,060	9,034	,03	,53	,15	,00	,00
3	,031	12,449	,00	,12	,08	,86	,10
4	,025	14,021	,07	,31	,08	,02	,88
5	,013	19,449	,90	,04	,70	,12	,02

a. Dependent Variable: PICS

Table 66. Cultural Dimensions - Colinearity Diagnostics.

Table 67
Residuals Statistics^a

	Min.	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	36,78	56,18	42,87	3,553	187
Std. Predicted Value	-1,716	3,746	,000	1,000	187
Standard Error of Predicted Value	,545	2,280	1,059	,298	187
Adjusted Predicted Value	36,74	56,21	42,86	3,568	187
Residual	-17,302	12,684	,000	6,654	187
Std. Residual	-2,572	1,886	,000	,989	187
Stud. Residual	-2,621	1,934	,001	1,001	187
Deleted Residual	-17,958	13,349	,016	6,821	187
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2,664	1,949	-,001	1,008	187
Mahal. Distance	,228	20,384	3,979	2,967	187
Cook's Distance	,000	,052	,005	,010	187
Centered Leverage Value	,001	,110	,021	,016	187

a. Dependent Variable: PICSR

Table 67. Cultural Dimensions - Residual Statistics.

10.3.5 Analysis of Differences in PICSr in Between Cultures

Table 68

Descriptives

Perceived Importance of CSR

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Min.	Max.
Germany	66	40,32	9,081	1,118	38,09	42,55	22	54
India	35	43,14	8,668	1,465	40,17	46,12	24	53
Iceland	48	44,88	4,389	,633	43,60	46,15	38	52
United States	38	44,53	5,285	,857	42,79	46,26	32	56
Total	187	42,87	7,543	,552	41,78	43,96	22	56

Table 68. Means in PICSr.

Table 69

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Perceived Importance of CSR

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
14,044	3	183	,000

Table 69. Means in PICSr - Levene Statistics.

Table 70

ANOVA

Perceived Importance of CSR

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	729,592	3	243,197	4,517	,004
Within Groups	9853,328	183	53,843		
Total	10582,920	186			

Table 70. Means in PICSr - ANOVA.

Table 71

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

Perceived Importance of CSR

	Statistic ^a	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	4,414	3	90,214	,006
Brown-Forsythe	4,832	3	133,158	,003

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Table 71. Means in PICSr - Robustness Test.

Table 72
Perceived Importance of CSR

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

Country of origin	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Germany	66	40,32	
India	35	43,14	43,14
United States	38		44,53
Iceland	48		44,88
Sig.		,274	,685

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 44,018.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Table 72. Means in PICSR - Tukey HSD.

Table 73
Descriptive Statistics

	Country of origin	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Payment and bonuses	Germany	3,91	,854	66
	India	4,03	,453	35
	Iceland	4,25	1,313	48
	United States	3,95	1,114	38
	Total	4,03	,997	187
Location of the job	Germany	4,64	,485	66
	India	4,69	,676	35
	Iceland	4,00	,715	48
	United States	4,53	,951	38
	Total	4,46	,742	187
Advancement possibilities	Germany	4,23	,740	66
	India	4,46	,505	35
	Iceland	4,62	,703	48
	United States	3,92	,850	38
	Total	4,31	,755	187
Social and ethical behavior of the company	Germany	4,00	,859	66
	India	4,29	,622	35
	Iceland	3,88	,937	48
	United States	4,18	,563	38
	Total	4,06	,798	187
Reputation of the company	Germany	3,59	,944	66
	India	3,66	,998	35
	Iceland	3,87	,789	48
	United States	3,95	,928	38
	Total	3,75	,919	187
A specific product / specific industry	Germany	2,82	1,446	66
	India	2,69	1,231	35
	Iceland	3,75	,838	48
	United States	3,55	1,201	38
	Total	3,18	1,295	187
Job security	Germany	4,14	1,021	66
	India	4,20	,833	35
	Iceland	4,25	,438	48
	United States	4,24	,913	38
	Total	4,20	,841	187

Table 73. Attractiveness Factors - Descriptive Statistics.