Examining the Social Responsibility Image of Countries: Dimensions, Limits and Consequences

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the dimensions, limits and consequences of the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC). Specifically, it develops a scale for SRIC and demonstrates how this construct impacts nation brand attractiveness towards highly skilled resources. The research is rooted in place branding, corporate social responsibility, international marketing and skilled migration studies. Although much has been written about these topics, little has been said about the possibility and benefits of applying a social responsibility framework to nation brands. A pragmatic paradigm and a mixed-method research strategy were adopted in order to explore this topic in more depth. A qualitative exploratory stage comprising four focus groups and twelve interviews were conducted with highly skilled resources working in the higher education sector of two European countries (the UK and Italy). This was followed by a quantitative confirmatory stage including a self-administered questionnaire sent via email using Qualtrics. Overall, 647 responses were collected from key informants (117 in the pilot test and 557 in the main study). Respondents were asked to express their opinion on their perception of two pre-selected nation brands, US and Canada. Qualitative data were analysed in NVivo 12 using thematic analysis. Quantitative data were analysed in IBM SPSS 26 and AMOS 26 using a two-steps CB-SEM approach. Findings confirm that SRIC is a multidimensional construct comprising three main dimensions: environmental, economic and ethical. In line with previous studies, data show that country social responsibility requires the involvement of multiple stakeholders, namely government, organisations and society. SRIC exerts a significant impact on nation brand identification (NBI) and intention to apply for a job vacancy (IAJV) but results are inconsistent regarding its relationship with corporate image. Results of the study are valid across both samples (Italian and British) meaning the model is robust and findings can be generalised. No major differences can be found between US and Canada. Concerning the limitations, SRIC suffers from two main limits, both inherited from the root construct, CSR: its contextual nature and the level of scepticism it is encountered with. The study has important theoretical, managerial and policy implications. It is one of the first research studies to apply a CSR framework to a place branding context and to propose a definition and measurement for SRIC. It is also one of the first research projects to investigate this in relation to talent attraction. Based on the study, highlighting social responsibility values and activities might prove beneficial to attract highly skilled workers. Institutions and organisations should therefore work in partnership to develop adequate programmes and a consistent narrative that might lure the best candidates. Future studies should investigate this construct in more depth. More attention should be paid to the operationalisation of the social dimension and to the link between SRIC and corporate social responsibility image (CSRI). The scale should be tested in other non-European countries and involve highly skilled resources coming from a wider range of industries.

Keywords: Corporate Social Responsibility, Place Branding, Sustainability, Nation Branding

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my grandfather Pietro and my uncle Domenico (Benny)

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Acronym	Meaning
χ^2	Chi-square
AGFI	Adjusted goodness of fit
ANT	Associative network theory
ASA	Attraction-Selection-Attrition
AVE	Average variance extracted
BE	Business ethics
CC	Corporate citizenship
CFA	Confirmatory factor analysis
CFI	Comparative fit index
CI	Country image
CMB	Common method bias
CMIN/DF	Chi-square/Degree of freedom ratio
CoI	Country-of-origin image
COO	Country-of-origin
CP	Corporate philanthropy
CR	Composite reliability
CR	Corporate responsibility
CS	Corporate sustainability
CSP	Corporate social performance
CSR	Corporate social responsibility
CSR_2	Corporate social responsiveness
CSR_3	Corporate social rectitude
CSRI	Corporate social responsibility image
df	Degrees of freedom
DSR	Destination social responsibility
ECR	Environmental corporate responsibility
EFA	Exploratory factor analysis
EPC	Expected parameter change
EU	European Union
GCI	General country image
GFI	Goodness of fit
IAJV	Intention to apply for a job vacancy/study
IC	Intercorrelation estimates
ICSR	Importance of CSR
NBA	Nation brand attractiveness
NBF	Nation brand familiarity
NBI	Nation brand identification
NFI	Normed fit index
MI	Modification indices
ML	Maximum likelihood
PAF	Principal axis factoring
PCatI	Product-category country image
PCSR	Political corporate social responsibility
PI	Product-related country image
PNFI	Parsimony normed fit index
PR	Public responsibility
RG	Research gap

RMR	Root mean square residual
RMSEA	Root mean square error of approximation
SEM	Structural equation modeling
SIT	Social identity theory
SQRTAVE	Squared root of AVE
SRB	Social responsibility of business
SRC	Standardised residual covariance
SRIC	Social responsibility image of countries
SRMR	Standardized root mean square residual
TDI	Tourism destination image
TLI	Tucker Lewis index
VIF	Variance inflation factors

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

In the past sixty years, an increasing number of studies have been devoted to the analysis of corporate social responsibility (CSR) (Wang *et al.*, 2016). CSR refers to the way in which organisations integrate social, environmental and economic imperatives in their business operations while addressing stakeholders' expectations (Jones, 2019; UNIDO, 2020). As research has shown, CSR represents a business imperative for companies aiming to remain competitive in the marketplace (Saeidi *et al.*, 2015) and contribute to society (Robbins, 2020). Its role and importance is recognised by both academics and practitioners in a variety of industries (Assiouras, Ozgen and Skourtis, 2013; Pérez, Martínez and del Bosque, 2013; Gürlek and Tuna, 2019; Tang and Choi, 2019; Hammett, 2020) and is deemed increasingly critical in the face of recent environmental and social challenges (Zappulla, 2019). Currently, Fortune Global 500 firms invest 20 billion dollars a year in CSR activities (Meier and Cassar, 2018) as more than 60% of consumers expect businesses to behave sustainably (Nielsen, 2018b). CSR activities offer considerable benefits to organisations and their brands (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012) and contribute to enhancing sustainable development (Su and Swanson, 2017).

Whilst the majority of studies so far have focused on corporate brands, a few researchers have recently suggested a shift in perspective. These authors have highlighted the importance of analysing CSR and social responsibility-based initiatives from a place branding perspective (Anholt, 2010; Cozmiuc, 2012; Su and Swanson, 2017). Place branding is a relatively recent area of research rooted in marketing, branding, tourism and urban policy literature (Hankinson, 2010, 2015). The term refers to the application of branding strategies to places (cities, regions, countries) and it is aimed at managing place image and enhancing its reputation among national and international stakeholders (Papadopoulos, 2004). This study seeks to contribute to this new stream of research by investigating the link between nation branding and corporate social responsibility. It does so by defining and measuring the social responsibility image of countries, its dimensions, limits and consequences.

This chapter presents the background and rationale of the study. It outlines the main research objective and the research questions that guide this project. After that, it introduces the methodology adopted in order to address the questions. The chapter ends with the dissertation outline.

1.2 Research Background

The way we conduct business and the way we consume places have become increasingly unsustainable (Higgins, 2013; Seraphin, Sheeran and Pilato, 2018; Toyota, 2018; Weston, 2019). The consequences of this unrestrained economic growth are widely recognised by policy makers and researchers (Lim, 2017; Mazzucato, 2018; Anstey, 2019; Fona, 2020). Climate change, environmental degradation, mass migrations, overtourism, human right issues and the depletion of natural resources are becoming a source of growing concern (Zaman *et al.*, 2016; Weston, 2019; United Nations, 2020a). Some of these issues have recently caught the attention of a demanding public opinion. In the past few years global environmental movements such as Extinction Rebellion and Friday for Future- School strike for climate have fuelled the debate around the social and financial costs of climate change (Carlisle, 2019; Myers, 2020). Acts of protests by local residents fighting against overtourism in major European cities have hit the headlines of newspapers (Tait, 2020). Consumers and tourists are more conscious than ever before of the damage businesses are inflicting on our natural resources and demand that brands are more socially responsible (Kim, 2019). Data from a recent Yougov report show that 46% of UK consumers feel guilty about the amount of plastic they consume and 50% would be willing to pay more to reduce plastic consumption (Watts, 2019). This trend is reflected in the public pressure over plastic blacklash that has recently seen organisations increasing their efforts to reduce the amount of plastic they use (Abboud, 2019). While consumers fight against plastic misuse, tourists are found to be more aware than ever before about the impact of their travel choices - says a 2019 report of the Centre for Responsible Travel (CREST, 2019). As a result, the offer of sustainable tourism is growing as well as the academic literature devoted to sustainable consumption and ethical behavior (Papaoikonomou, Cascon-Pereira and Ryan, 2016; Lee *et al.*, 2017; Lim, 2017; He, He and Xu, 2018).

If these news and figures offer a positive sign, studies by academics and policy makers advise caution. Although individuals state they would be willing to reward ethical companies, research has found an important gap between consumers' attitudes and their purchase behaviour (Govind *et al.*, 2019). Similarly brands often lie about their ethical commitment (e.g Volkswagen emissions scandal, Starbucks-Nespresso child labour case) (Jolly, 2019; Dowards, 2020) or act irresponsibly (e.g. Facebook and Cambridge Analytica case) (Wong, 2019). These actions contribute to the growing level of scepticism towards CSR practices, alienating consumers (Skarmeas and Leonidou, 2013; Lenz, Wetzel and Hammerschmidt, 2017; Dunn and Harness, 2019). As it stands, however, it is almost impossible for businesses to completely disregard the role CSR plays due to the growing expectations of stakeholders on the one hand and the impact it exerts on its tangible and intangible assets on the other. Bringing ethics to the core of their activities can help brands to shape consumers' perceptions and attitudes (Magnusson, Westjohn and Zdravkovic, 2015; Park, Kim and Kwon, 2017). CSR enhances brand reputation (Malik, 2015), improves consumers' loyalty (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012) satisfaction (Martínez and del Bosque, 2013; Park, Kim and Kwon, 2017) and company-consumer identification (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Einwiller *et al.*, 2019). It legitimises companies' social license to operate (Cui, Jo and Velasquez, 2016) and improves firm value by reducing risk taking (Harjoto and Laksmana, 2018) and promoting employees' identification with the organisation, as well as their engagement, commitment, satisfaction and retention (Coldwell *et al.*, 2008; Kim *et al.*, 2010; Lee, Park and Lee, 2013; Rupp *et al.*, 2018). Moreover, companies embracing CSR have a better chance to attract highly skilled resources (Du, Bhattacharya and Sen, 2010; Magnusson, Westjohn and Zdravkovic, 2015; Jones, Willness and Heller, 2016; Donia *et al.*, 2019).This is particularly significant given the attention that millennials, the future workforce, pay to environmental and social commitments (Vaiman, Scullion and Collings, 2012; Deloitte, 2016; Turner *et al.,* 2019). Lastly, adopting social responsibility has a positive impact on sustainable development (Kahraman Akdoğu, 2017; Su and Swanson, 2017).

To summarise, CSR has proven to offer several advantages to corporate brands by helping them respond to mounting stakeholders' expectations. Its increase in importance is accompanied by a slow shift towards more sustainable solutions. Despite the controversies, it is clear that a slow change is in place and it is driven by the emerging fallacies of the current economic system. It is in this context that this study takes place.

1.3 Research Rationale

The research background, here above, sheds some light on the growing importance of CSR and its advantages. Examining the extant literature in more depth, however, a first interesting gap seems to emerge. While the majority of studies conducted on CSR focus on corporate brands, little has been said about the possibility of applying this ethical framework to place brands (RG1- See Table 1.1 here below). This seems particularly interesting given the benefits CSR offers to brands especially in terms of image and reputation (Anholt, 2010).

So far only a few articles have been written on corporate social responsibility and place branding. The idea of a governmental social responsibility was first mentioned by Anholt and Cozmiuc. Both authors emphasized the role social responsibility could play as a key differentiator in a nation branding strategy and underlined its positive impact on place image and reputation (Anholt, 2010; Szondi, 2010; Cozmiuc, 2012). This was also confirmed by prior research on environmental sustainability and nation brands (Pant, 2005; Dinnie, 2008, 2016). As Anholt pointed out, by examining the results of the Nation Brand Index, more and more stakeholders no longer respected and admired places that were not acting responsibly on issues such as climate change, pollution, corruption, migration and human rights. That is to say, the same audience that was judging the irresponsible actions of companies was starting to apply the same standard to places (Anholt, 2010; Szondi, 2010). This is also supported by Dinnie and Morgan (Dinnie, 2011b; Morgan, 2012). Using social responsibility as a new frame of reference would therefore help countries to "give something back" and gain the respect of national and international communities. According to White and Kolesnicov (2015) this could be done by governments alone or in collaboration with organisations. As a matter of fact, corporate brands have an interest in branding a nation and in contributing to promoting a country's reputation. "Engaging in activities that support a cause valued by the audience, which includes CSR activities (…) can increase business returns as well as enhance reputations for both the company and the country with which it is associated" (White and Kolesnicov, 2015, p.336).

Whilst these studies should be praised for paving the way for this debate and highlighting the potential benefits of CSR in a nation branding context, significant limitations can be found. The studies are conceptual in nature and, thus, fail to test the impact of CSR in a nation branding context. The concept of governmental/country social responsibility is also not properly defined, and no specific measurement or framework are suggested. A first step forward, in this sense, was taken by Su and colleagues with their studies on destination social responsibility (DSR) (Su and Swanson, 2017). In their research, the authors investigate the impact DSR has on tourists' and residents' environmental behaviour and tourist satisfaction using a CB-SEM approach (Su and Swanson, 2017; Su, Huang and Pearce, 2018; Tran *et al.*, 2018). Their research is relevant because it recognises the importance of analysing CSR from a destination perspective, it offers a first conceptualisation for DSR and proposes a unidimensional (Su and Swanson, 2017) and multidimensional measurement of the concept (Su, Swanson and He, 2020). Their work also emphasises that CSR activities can have a positive effect on the destination's sustainability and competitiveness (Su, Huang and Huang, 2018). The contribution of this research is certainly significant; however, it is limited to tourism and destination management. It does not apply this knowledge to the other aspects of place branding, nor does it take into consideration other types of stakeholders (investors, potential residents…).

This study intends to fill this gap by applying a CSR framework to nation branding (See RG1 – Table 1.1). Specifically, the dissertation aims to investigate the perception of country social responsibility, its dimensions, limites and consequences. By investigating SRIC, this research aims to advance extant literature and demonstrate the importance a CSR framework can play in a nation branding context. With an increasing number of countries focusing on CSR and sustainability in the way they narrate themselves and promote their resources (Slovenia.si, 2015; Sweden.se, 2015; Frig and Sorsa, 2018), this work will offer a fresh contribution to one of the topics at the top of the agenda of place marketing researchers, DMOs and policy makers (Govers, Kaefer and Ferrer-Roca, 2017; The Place Brand Observer, 2019). It will do so by focusing on skilled migrants and talent attraction, another critical and under-researched area of studies.

Nowadays it is increasingly critical for both companies and nations to understand how to source and retain talent (Keller and Meaney, 2017). Highly skilled individuals help to fill skills shortages, foster innovation and technological progress and create new job opportunities, improving standards of living (Tuccio, 2019). In other words, talent attraction and retention incentivise the economic development of a nation and offer companies a significant competitive advantage. Only a few articles so far have looked at the impact of place branding on talent attraction (Papadopoulos, 2018) despite Papadopoulos' and practitioners' call for more attention to this area of research (Papadopoulos, 2004; Papadopoulos *et al.*, 2018) (RG3 – See Table 1.1 here below): "Research attention to date has focused on endconsumers and tourists in product and tourism studies, while others, such as industrial buyers, retailers, or investors have been studied only rarely […] or have been essentially ignored in PI [place image] research (e.g. students, foreign workers)" (Papadopoulos *et al*., 2018, p. 746) The few articles that have investigated talent attraction in a place branding context have relied mainly on secondary data or case studies (Silvanto and Ryan, 2014, 2018; Silvanto, Ryan and McNulty, 2015; Lubanski, Andersson and King-Grubert, 2016) or focused on cities rather than nations (e.g. Zenker and Beckmann, 2013; De Noni, Orsi and Zanderighi, 2014). Only one article has tested the impact of country image on migration intentions quantitatively (Nadeau and Olafsen, 2015). The research focuses on overall beliefs about the country and its people, it analyses only two countries (a stimulus and a source country) and relies mainly on a student sample. The present study contributes to this stream of literature by investigating nation brand attractiveness towards highly skilled resources. As we mentioned above, previous literature on corporate brands has shown that CSR exerts a certain attractiveness towards talented individuals and can be used by organisations to lure potential candidates. Following this line of thought, this study will explore SRIC and the effect it exerts on nation brand attractiveness.

Compared to Nadeau's and Olafsen's study, in this research, two countries, the UK and Italy, will be used as sources and two, Canada and the US, as stimuli. The selection of Italy and the UK as our setting is due to their differences: i.e., their diverse cultural backgrounds, their distinct position in European and international markets and the different level of talent attraction (See section 4.6.1 for more details). The choice of Canada and the US is supported by the evidence collected during the qualitative stage as well as relevant secondary data: the two are both English-speaking countries, their institutions rank at the top of league tables measuring talent attraction, they are both equi-distant to Italy and the UK and respondents are relatively familiar with them, but the two nation brands differ in terms of their social responsibility image (See sections 4.9. and 5.4 for more details). Another difference compared to Nadeau's and Olafsen's work consists in the choice of the sample that here will include both students and skilled workers in the higher education sector as representing the highly skilled resources of the two nation brands chosen as source, the UK and Italy (See section 4.7 for more details). Moreover, instead of focusing on the general beliefs about the countries and their people, as mentioned above, this research will focus on the social responsibility image (SRIC) of the two nation brands. Last, to complement our understanding, the research will control for the effects of three important variables known to have an impact on destination/place brand attractiveness/intention to travel – i.e. nation brand familiarity (NBF) – (e.g., Tan and Wu, 2016; Fullerton, Kendrick and Broyles, 2019; Stylidis *et al.,* 2020) and employer brand attractiveness/intention to apply for a job vacancy – i.e. nation brand familiarity (NBF) importance of CSR (ICSR) and corporate image (CI) (e.g. Lievens, Hoye and Schreurs, 2005; Van Hoye *et al.,* 2013). Although these constructs have been studied in related fields such as tourism, international marketing, CSR and human resource management, their role on talent attraction in place branding has not been assessed yet (RG5 – See Table 1.1. here below). Furthermore, since, as explained above, the collaboration between corporate and nation brands is key to support place branding activities, this study will also attempt to examine the relationship between corporate image (CI) and SRIC image. Although previous scholars have claimed that a reciprocal relationship between corporate and country image exists (e.g., Lopez et al., 2011; White and Alkandari, 2015), this hypothesis has not been tested quantitatively. Moreover, previous analyses have focused on overall perceptions of the country and not on specific dimensions or aspects such as SRIC (RG4 – See Table 1.1).

In order to analyse SRIC and its consequences, this study will leverage well-established theories (associative network theory, attraction-selection-attrition, social identity theory) and theoretical frameworks published in 3*/4* ABS articles and it will rely on an exploratory sequential mixed-method strategy (qual→QUANT). This contributes to address an additional gap: the lack of quantitative and mixed method research in place branding literature and the lack of solid theoretical foundations (RG 2 – See Table 1.1 here below). This gap is supported by Gertner (2011) and Sun and colleagues (2016) according to whom "most of the extant research on place and country branding is qualitative [and there is therefore] a need for empirical studies to provide more normative guidelines for country branding" (Sun, Paswan and Tieslau, 2016, p. 234). Furthermore, as Hao points out, although a few theories can be found in the literature, "the large portion of extant nation branding research has been fragmented and lack of theoretical bases" (Hao, 2019, p. 155).

To summarise, the current research focuses on five main gaps: (RG1) limited application of CSR research to place branding and specifically lack of a clear definition and measurement of the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC); (RG2) limited number of empirically and theoretically sound research in place branding; (RG3) scant research in the area of nation branding and talent attraction; (RG4) lack of empirical research on the relationship between country image and corporate image; (RG5) limited empirical research on the role of nation brand familiarity (NBF) and the importance of social responsibility (ICSR) in talent attraction. A list of these five main gaps is provided in Table 1.1 here below.

Research gaps	**Limitations of previous studies**	**How this study addresses the gap**
RG1 - Limited application of CSR to place branding research: lack of a clear definition and measurement for the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC)	- Initial studies on governmental social responsibility are only conceptual and fail to define and measure the concept (See Anholt, 2010; Szondi, 2010; Cozmiuc, 2012). - More recent studies on destination social responsibility overcome this initial limitation but focus only on tourism and tourism destinations (i.e. regions, cities, attraction sites) (e.g. See Su and Swanson, 2017; Su, Huang and Pearce, 2018; Tran et al., 2018).	This study aims to examine the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC) in more detail. Specifically, it contributes to previous studies by working on SRIC conceptualisation and operationalisation and by exploring its limitations (RQ1 - See section 1.4). The study also aims to investigate social responsibility in the context of nation brands and talent attraction (See RQ2 and RG3 here below).
RG2 - Limited number of empirical and theoretically sound research studies in place branding (RG2)	- Research in place branding is mostly conceptual or qualitative. Therefore, authors have called for more empirical research with a particular attention paid to quantitative and mixed-method studies (Gertner, 2011; Sun, Paswan and Tieslau, 2016; Hao et al., 2019). - Place branding literature has also been often accused of lacking a solid theoretical background (Gertner, 2011; Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim, 2011; Buhmann, 2016; Sun, Paswan and Tieslau, 2016; Hao, 2019).	This study aims to answer the call for more testable frameworks and hypotheses in place branding by adopting a mixed method (qual→QUAN) strategy. The conceptual model presented in chapter 3 is supported by three main theories: associative network theory, the social identity theory and the attraction-selection-attrition theory. The model is similar to previously tested models published in Journal of Business Ethics and Journal of Marketing. Therefore, it is strongly grounded in theory. This contributes to answer the call for more theoretically sound research in place branding.

RG3 - Scant research in the area of place marketing/branding and talent attraction	- Most place branding studies focus on tourists and consumers thus disregarding other important stakeholders such as residents, international students and highly skilled workers. Scholars have therefore highlighted the need for a more comprehensive analysis (Papadopoulos, 2004; Papadopoulos et al., 2018)	This study aims to investigate the impact of social responsibility image on nation brand attractiveness towards highly skilled resources therefore contributing to the area of place branding and talent attraction (RQ2a – See section 1.4).
	- Amongst the articles that investigate talent attraction from a place branding viewpoint, most rely on secondary data or case studies (e.g. Silvanto and Ryan, 2014, 2018; Silvanto, Ryan and McNulty, 2015; Lubanski, Andersson and King-Grubert, 2016) or focus on cities rather than nations (e.g. Zenker and Beckmann, 2013; De Noni, Orsi and Zanderighi, 2014).	This work aims to collect primary data and focus on nation brands. To do so, it will rely on both qualitative and quantitative data. Constructs will be adopted from marketing, management, HRM, branding and tourism literature (e.g. nation brand identification (NBI); nation brand familiarity (NBF); importance of CSR (ICSR); corporate image (CI)) or they will be adapted to fit in a nation branding context (e.g. nation brand attractiveness (NBA); intention to apply for a job vacancy/study (IAJV)).
	- Only one article has tested the impact of country image on migration intentions quantitatively: Nadeau's and Olafsen's (2015). However, their research focuses on the overall beliefs about the country; it analyses only two countries (a stimulus and a source country) and relies on a student sample as a proxy for talented workers.	Compared to Nadeau's and Olafsen's work, this study analyses the perceptions of both academic staff and students working/studying in higher education institutions (RQ3 – See section 1.4). It also focuses on SRIC instead of on the overall beliefs about the country. Last, it analyses two source countries and two stimuli countries (RQ 7 – See section 1.4).

RG4 - Lack of empirical research on the relationship between country image and corporate image (RG4)	- Past research studies suggest that country image and corporate image influence each other, and that the relationship is reciprocal (e.g., Lopez, Gotsi and Andriopolous, 2011; White and Alkandari, 2019). These studies, however, relied on case studies or qualitative research.	This research aims to test the relationship between the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC) – considered here as part of the overall country image - and corporate image (CI) quantitatively (RQ2b and RQ4 – See section 1.4).
RG5 - Limited empirical research on the role of nation brand familiarity (NBF) and the importance of social responsibility (ICSR) in talent attraction (RG5)	- Previous studies have investigated destination brand familiarity impact on intention to travel. Familiarity plays an important role in attracting tourists to a destination (e.g. Fullerton, Kendrick and Broyles, 2019) and is often used as a moderator. Employer familiarity is also mentioned as a key construct in HRM studies investigating talent attraction (e.g. Lievens, Hoye and Schreurs, 2005). However, limited research is devoted to nation brand familiarity and to the role it plays in talent attraction. - Past research has demonstrated that CSR plays an important role in attracting and retaining highly skilled (e.g., Du, Bhattacharya and Sen, 2010; Magnusson, Westjohn and Zdravkovic, Donia *et al.*, 2019). Importance of CSR (ICSR) derives from the perceived role of ethics and social responsibility (PRESOR) scale and has been used as moderator to investigate employees' and managers' perceptions and behaviour towards a company (e.g., Turker, 2009). To the researcher's knowledge, there is a limited amount of studies investigating the role that the perceived importance of social responsibility plays on talent attraction in a nation branding context.	This study aims to test the role of nation brand familiarity (NBF) and importance of CSR (ICSR) as key moderators in the conceptual framework influencing nation brand identification (NBI) and nation brand attractiveness (NBA) (RQ5 and RQ6 – See section 1.4).

1.1 Research Gaps

1.4 Research Objective and Questions

In the light of the research background and rationale presented here above (See Sections 1.2 and 1.3), the main objective of this study is to examine the dimensions, limits and consequences of the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC). Concerning the consequences, this research focuses on how the perception of social responsibility might impact the attractiveness of the country towards highly skilled resources.

Based on this overall objective, the research questions this study aims to address are outlined here below:

RQ1 - What are the dimensions and limits of the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC)?

RQ2 - What are its consequences in a nation branding context?

a. *How does the social responsibility image (SRIC) influence nation brand attractiveness (NBA) towards highly skilled resources?*

b. *How does corporate image (CI) affect the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC)?*

RQ3 – How does employment status affect the relationship between nation brand attractiveness (NBA) and intention to apply for a job vacancy (IAJV)?

RQ4- How does corporate image (CI) impact the relationship between nation brand attractiveness (NBA) and intention to apply for a job vacancy (IAJV)?

RQ5 – How does the importance of CSR (ICSR) moderate the relationship between social responsibility image of countries (SRIC) and nation brand identification (NBI)?

RQ6 – How does nation brand familiarity (NBF) moderate the relationship between the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC) and nation brand identification (NBI)?

RQ7 - How do nation brands such as Canada and US differ in terms of SRIC?

Chapter 3 presents a conceptual framework that exemplifies these research questions and related hypotheses.

1.5 Research Methodology

In order to answer the research questions presented above, this study adopted a pragmatic approach and a mixed method research strategy. This strategy involved the use of an exploratory sequential design (qual→ QUAN) which encompasses an exploratory stage (qualitative) and a confirmatory stage (quantitative). This was chosen as a suitable design because of it fitting the purpose of the study, that is, understanding the nature of SRIC and developing a scale to measure it. Churchill’s and Zaikowsky’s guidelines on scale development were adopted (Churchill, 1979; Zaichkowsky, 1985). In the first stage the researcher conducted four focus groups and twelve interviews with highly skilled resources in the higher education sector of two countries (Italy and the United Kingdom). The purpose of this first step was threefold: (1) to gain an understanding of the subject; (2) verify that constructs were sufficiently relevant and (3) generate uncovered hypotheses. Data were analysed in NVivo 12 software using thematic analysis and findings were used to develop the questionnaire. After the research instrument was examined for content and face validity by seven experts, the questionnaire was distributed to key informants. Responses from 117 academics and students working/studying at Italian and British universities were collected and analysed during the pilot test. Reliability tests and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) were conducted on the data for scale purification. SPSS 26 software was used for this analysis. After adjustments, the study proceeded with data collection for the main study. 557 questionnaires were analysed in this stage using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), structural equation modelling (SEM) and multigroup analysis. IBM SPSS 26 and AMOS 26 were used for this second part of the analysis.

1.6 Dissertation Outline

This work comprises eight chapters including the introduction. The remaining chapters are structured as follows. Chapter 2 offers an overview of previous studies on country image, corporate social responsibility and nation branding. The three streams of literature are combined and theories pertaining to each are discussed in detail. Chapter 3 deals with the conceptual framework of the study. In this chapter, dependent and independent variables, moderators and research hypotheses are discussed in the light of previous studies. The following chapter, chapter 4, outlines the methodological choices undertaken in this research project. It presents the research paradigm, research strategy and design. It also examines the unit of analysis, sample and sampling technique for each stage of data collection. Finally, it explains the research process, data analysis techniques and ethical constraints. Chapter 5 and 6 are devoted to the analysis of the data. The former presents the results of the thematic analysis conducted on qualitative data following interviews and focus groups. The latter illustrates the analysis of quantitative data obtained after the pilot and main study. Results are summarised in chapter 7 and discussed in more detailed in the light of the research questions and previous literature. Finally, chapter 8 offers an overview of the contributions of the study, identifies limitations of the research and provides suggestions to future researchers interested in advancing studies on nation branding and corporate social responsibility.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present an exhaustive review of the literature and provide a solid foundation for the development of the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC), a new and original construct in academic literature. The chapter is divided into three main sections. The first offers an analysis of previous research on country image with a focus on international marketing, tourism and place branding studies. The second section presents an overview of CSR literature. It focuses specifically on CSR image and related theories. The final section introduces SRIC and analyses its position in the nation branding literature.

2.2 Country Image Studies

The notion of country image has been at the centre of attention of various fields, namely international marketing, tourism, place branding, social psychology, politics and communication science, for over 60 years (Alvarez and Campo, 2014; Lu *et al.*, 2016; Ingenhoff *et al.*, 2018; Zhang, Wu and Buhalis, 2018). Its importance is confirmed by a number of studies discussing country images' role in promoting exports and tourism, supporting diplomatic relations and contributing to attracting foreign direct investments, skilled labour and international students (Kotler and Gertner, 2002; Papadopoulos, 2004; Stylidis, Sit and Biran 2015; Buhmann, 2016; Stylidis and Cherifi, 2018).

Its origin can be traced back to the 1930s and the first studies conducted by social psychologists on national stereotypes (e.g. Katz and Braly, 1933; Child and Doob, 1943; Vinacke, 1949) (Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009). The concept entered international marketing and media communication research in 1960. Marketing scholars started to realise the impact country-of-origin (COO) exerted on product evaluation thanks to Ditcher's and Schooler's seminal works (Dichter, 1962; Schooler, 1965; Magnusson, Westjohn and Sirianni, 2019). Communication studies, instead, focused on the analysis of mass-mediated images and image-building and the effect these exercise on the formation of public opinion (Merrill, 1962; Oliphant, 1964; Wolfe, 1964). In 1970, Mayo, Hunt and Crompton paved the way for the analysis of image in tourism focusing on destination image (TDI) and its impact on the travel decision-making process (Mayo, 1973; Hunt, 1975; Crompton, 1979). The following decades saw an exponential increase of articles on country image in all fields. Aside from marketing and tourism, more studies on country image appeared in public relations, political science and in a new emerging field, place branding. Table 2.1 offers an overview of representative studies in each of these areas of research (See Buhmann (2016) and Ingenhoff et al. (2019) for a broader analysis).

Fields and Sub-fields	Focal construct	Representative studies
Social Psychology	National stereotypes	Katz and Braly (1933); Child and Doob (1943); Kerr (1943); Vinacke (1949); Jahoda (1959); Diab (1963); Wish *et al.* (1970); Peabody (1985); Jonas and Hewston (1986); Eagly and Kite (1987); Linseen and Hagendoorn (1994); Mlicki and Ellemers (1996); Hopkins *et al.* (1997); Phalet and Poppe (1997); Poppe (2001); Rutland and Brown (2001); Terracciano and McCrae (2007); Cuddy *et al.* (2009), Terracciano and Chan (2013); Hrebickova *et al.* (2017); Hrebickova and Graf (2019)
International Marketing	Country of origin image (CoI) or COO effect: Product-country image (PCI) General country image (GCI) Country-related product image (PI) Product Category country image (PCatI)	Ditcher (1962); Schooler (1965); Nagashima (1970); Bannister and Saunders (1978); Bilkey and Nes (1982); Erickson *et al.* (1984); Johansson *et al.* (1985); Parameswaran and Yaprak (1987); Han (1989); Desborde (1990); Roth and Romeo (1992); Martin and Eroglu (1993); Papadopoulos and Heslop (1994); Samiee (1994); Haubl (1996); Askegaard and Ger (1998); Veerlegh and Steenkamp (2001); Parameswaran and Pisharodi (2002); Usunier (2006); Pappu *et al.* (2007); Heslop *et al.* (2008); Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009); Samiee (2010); Brjis *et al.* (2011); Maher and Carter (2011); Magnusson *et al.* (2011); Hynes *et al.* (2013); Josiassen *et al.* (2015); Roth *et al.* (2015); Carneiro and Faria (2016); Costa *et al.* (2016); Elliot and Papadopoulos (2016); Lu *et al.* (2016); Herz and Diamantopoulos (2017); Ko (2017); Lopez and Balabanis (2020)
Communication Science *Public relations* *Media comm.*	National/country image	Wolfe (1964); Oliphant (1964); Browne (1968); Lent (1977); Albritton and Manheim (1985); Perry (1987); Salwen and Matera (1992); Kunczik (1997); Giffard and Rivenburgh (2000); Wu (2000); Kunczik (2002); Zhang and Cameron (2003); Wanta *et al.* (2004); Avraham and Ketter (2008); Kiousis and Wu (2008); Wang (2008); Peijuan et al. (2009); Szondi (2010); Qu *et al.* (2011); Chua and Pang (2012); Jain and Winner (2013); Jones et al. (2013); Chang and Lin (2014); Buhmann and Ingenhoff (2015); Dolea (2016); Choi (2018); White and Alkandari (2019); Ingenhoff et al. (2020)
Tourism	Destination image (TDI)	Hunt (1975); Crompton (1979); Pearce (1982); Chon (1990); Selby and Morgan (1996); Baloglu and McCleary (1999); MacCay and Fesenmaier (2000); Gallarza *et al.* (2002); Pike (2002); Echtner and Ritchie (2003); Beerli and Martin (2004); Ryan and Cave (2005); Hosany *et al.* (2006); Chen and Tsai (2007); Nadeau *et al.* (2008); Stepchenkova and Mills (2010); De Nisco *et al.* (2013); Alvarez and Campo (2014); Stylidis *et al.* (2014); Zhang *et al.* (2014); Avraham (2015); Kock *et al.* (2016); Palau-Saumell et al. (2016); Martin-Santana *et al.* (2017); Nadeau and Lord (2017); Stylidis et al. (2017); Zhang *et al.* (2018); Stylidis (2020); Woosnam, Stylidis and Ivkov (2020)
Political Science *International relations*	National image International image	Boulding (1959); Holsti (1962); Jervis (1970); Jervis (1976); Manheim and Albritton (1983); Cottam (1986); Herrmann (1986); Herrmann (1988); Rusi (1988); Hurwitz and Peffley (1990); Kaplowitz (1990); Cottam (1994); Herrmann *et al.* (1997); Rusciano *et al.* (1998); Van Ham (2001); Rusciano (2003); Melissen (2005); Wang (2006); Sun (2008); Villanueva Rivas (2011); Castano *et al.* (2015); Clerc (2016);

Public diplomacy *Political psychology*		Hartig (2016); Ulldemolis and Zamorano (2016); Wood (2017); Pamment and Wilkins (2018); Wang (2018)
Place Branding	Place image (referred to a country) National/ nation brand image	Gilmore (2001); Kotler and Gertner (2002); Papadopoulos and Heslop (2002); Gertner and Kotler (2004); Papadopoulos (2004); Anholt (2006); Fan (2006); Anholt (2007); Aronczyk (2008); Hanna and Rowley (2008); Kemming and Sandikci (2008); Anholt (2009); Avaraham (2009); Anholt (2010); Fan (2010); Elliot *et al.* (2011); Gertner (2011); Kaneva (2011); Stokburger-Sauer (2011); Kleiner (2012); Hakala *et al.* (2013); Song and Sung (2013); Dinnie (2014); Nadeau and Olafsen (2015); Clouse and Dixit (2016); Mariutti and Tench (2016); Foroudi *et al.* (2016); Yousaf (2017); Papadopoulos et al. (2018);

Table 2.1 Country image: A multidisciplinary area of study (Author's elaboration, 2020).

The next section will discuss, in more detail, how country image theory has developed and evolved in these various fields. It will first identify similarities and differences in the conceptualisation and measurement of the construct, contributing to the advancement of transdisciplinary research. It will then identify the main areas this study aims to advance and the level of conceptualisation that best fits the purpose of this research.

2.2.1 Country Image Studies: A Multidisciplinary Overview

Table 2.2 offers a summary of the constructs, measurements and theories used to study the phenomenon of country image. As the table shows, the field of social psychology has investigated national stereotypes in the context of inter-group relations with a particular focus on prejudice and discrimination (Katz and Braly, 1933; Cuddy *et al.*, 2009; Hřebíčková *et al.*, 2017). National stereotypes are defined here as "perception of veridical differences in culture between national groups" (Linssen and Hagendoorn, 1994, p. 166). The area has mainly relied on experiments measuring stereotypes as unidimensional or multidimensional constructs. Both affective (e.g. warmth, emotionality, empathy) and cognitive (e.g. competence, efficiency) aspects are considered in the operationalisation of the construct (Cuddy *et al.*, 2009). Stereotyped content model (SCM) and self-categorization theories have dominated the field.

Closely related to this first stream is the research conducted in political science. Whilst, for the most part, studies in political sciences have focused on national identity (Smith, 1991, 1992; Rusciano, 2003), scholars in the sub-fields of international relations and political psychology have paid special attention to images and their impact on foreign policy decision making (Herrmann, 1986; Rusi, 1988). In this stream, national images have been measured using a mixture of experimental and non-experimental designs. International image theory (IIT) has been widely adopted by international relations experts. Leveraging IIT, scholars posited that five types of image can be activated: enemy, degenerate/dependent, colony, imperialist and ally image

(Castano, Bonacossa and Gries, 2016). The activation relies on the assessment of the three dimensions of national image: goal compatibility, power and cultural status (Herrmann *et al.*, 1997; Alexander, Levin and Henry, 2005; Castano, Bonacossa and Gries, 2016). Although experts have acknowledged the importance of emotion and cognition in the formation of image, the majority of articles mainly rely on the latter.

A more qualitative and exploratory approach within the political science field is taken by researchers in public diplomacy (Zhang, 2006; Kemming and Sandikci, 2007; Yarchi, Samuel-Azran and Bar-David, 2017). This area investigates the reactive and proactive management of national images as a means to support a country's political, diplomatic and economic interests (Hartig, 2016) and advance its soft power (Nye, 2008). Case studies designs and comparative analyses (Vickers, 2004; Sun, 2008) have been preferred by academics in this stream of research that is still characterised by a lack of a solid theoretical and methodological grounding (Gilboa, 2008; Buhmann, 2016). A noteworthy feature of this area is its interdisciplinarity. As a consequence, several studies have integrated public relations and place branding approaches in their analyses (Wang, 2006, 2018; Servaes, 2012; Wood, 2017). The image that emerges here is a gestalt type including politics, economics, tourism and culture/people dimensions (Kemming and Sandikci, 2007; Rivas, 2011; Kleiner, 2012).

In the communication field, image is seen as a composite of impressions, opinions, and attitudes that form an overall representation of a country in the mind of a foreign audience (Merrill, 1962; Wang, 2008). From the viewpoint of media studies, images are treated as discoursive phenomena as the analysis centres around media-communicated images (Buhmann, 2016; Dolea, 2016). The promotion and management of national images – also called image cultivation - is, instead, at the heart of public relations research (Kunczik, 2016). Methods used to analyse image vary from content and framing analysis of mediatic material chosen as the preferred method in media studies (Merrill, 1962; Albritton and Manheim, 1983; Wu, 2000; Choi, 2018) to qualitative techniques generally adopted by public relations scholars. The first are mostly informed by agenda-setting and framing theories, the latter by the image restoration theory (Dolea, 2016). The level of analysis remains for both mainly unidimensional with focus on cognitive aspects, despite calls for more attention to the affective dimension (Wang, 2008).

In business studies the topic of image has been highly researched across marketing, tourism and place branding. In marketing, country image has been instrumental to the study of consumers' behaviour towards foreign products (Nes and Bilkey, 1982; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999; Lu *et al.*, 2016; Dobrucalı, 2019). The literature, in fact, is one of the most prolific and, despite recurrent criticisms (e.g. Liefeld, 2004; Usunier, 2006; Samiee, 2010; Carneiro and Faria, 2016) it leverages a solid theoretical background. The construct is operationalised at different levels, from the more holistic approach (GCI), already seen in political and communication studies, to the summary approach (PI, PCatI) (Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009; Carneiro and Faria, 2016). The field mostly relies on non-experimental designs, but experimental and qualitative studies are also present. Country image is analysed as unidimensional, purely cognitive, or as multidimensional, a combination of cognitive, affective and conative dimensions. In terms of theoretical frameworks, scholars in international marketing have taken advantage of psychology (social and cognitive) and communication theories. Attitude, schema and associative network theories are the most cited and dominate the field (Lee, Lockshin and Greenacre, 2016; Lu *et al.*, 2016; Lopez and Balabanis, 2019), but stereotyped concept model and social network theories have recently gained more attention (Diamantopoulos *et al.*, 2017; Barbarossa, De Pelsmacker and Moons, 2018; Lopez and Balabanis, 2019).

While marketers have focused on images of products and services, academics in tourism have examined images of destinations and specifically their formation (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Stylidis, Shani and Belhassen, 2017; Iornadova, Stylidis, 2019; Kislali, Kavaratzis and Saren, 2019; Stylidis, 2020) and their impact on travel intentions (Gallarza, Saura and García, 2002; Tasci, Gartner and Cavusgil, 2007; Martín-Santana, Beerli-Palacio and Nazzareno, 2017) and loyalty (Woosnam, Stylidis and Ivkov, 2020). The two approaches, though, show several similarities: "complexity, multidimensionality, relativity, dynamic nature" (Martínez and Alvarez, 2010, p. 750) and measurement. Like marketing scholars, tourism researchers have analysed destination image using largely non-experimental research. TDI is operationalised as a multidimensional construct comprising affective and cognitive dimensions (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Stylidis, Shani and Belhassen, 2017; Kim, Stylidis and Ho, 2018), or cognitive-affective-conative (Gallarza, Saura and García, 2002; Stylidis and Cherifi, 2018; Zhang *et al.*, 2018). Aside from schema, framing and attitude theory, already discussed above as adopted in many fields, stakeholder and stimulus-organism-response theories have also been used here. As a new and emerging area of studies, instead, place branding lacks the same solid theoretical background of tourism and marketing and empirical research is relatively scant (Gertner, 2011; Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim, 2011; Sun, Paswan and Tieslau, 2016). Studies on nation brand image are for the most part conceptual or qualitative and the field is strongly influenced by practitioners (Buhmann, 2016) (RG2 – See Table 1.1). The construct is largely treated as gestalt and unidimensional (Foroudi *et al.*, 2016; Papadopoulos *et al.*, 2018) and the emphasis is placed on cognitive aspects (Nadeau and Olafsen, 2015; Yousaf, 2017). Its focus being on activities aimed at enhancing the image and reputation of the nation brand makes the field one of the most comprehensive. Articles pertaining to place branding are in fact published in a variety of areas: public diplomacy, public relations, tourism, geography, environmental psychology and marketing. Despite the broader focus, though, the majority of studies are limited to the analysis of consumers and tourists (Stylidis et al., 2014; Stylidis, Sit and Biran, 2015; Stylidis and Terzidou, 2017). Recently more research has been conducted on residents (albeit more at a regional/city level), industrial buyers and investors but other important stakeholders such as students and highly skilled migrants have received less attention (Papadopoulos *et al.*, 2018) (RG3- See Table 1.1).

To conclude, as the overview above and Table 2.2 demonstrate, despite the evident differences in the conceptualisation and operationalisation of country image, interesting similarities and crossovers can be found amongst definitions, measurements and theories adopted by scholars in different fields (Zeugner-Roth and Žabkar, 2015). Following the call for broader overviews of image theories more recently we have also seen an increase in the number of transdisciplinary projects (Herz and Diamantopoulos, 2013; Elliot and Papadopoulos, 2016; Barbarossa, De Pelsmacker and Moons, 2018; Hrebickova and Graf, 2019; Ingenhoff *et al.*, 2019) and integrated models aimed at advancing image theory and increasing the generalisability of findings in country image research (Nadeau *et al.*, 2008; Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim, 2011; Zeugner-Roth and Žabkar, 2015; Elliot and Papadopoulos, 2016).

This project aims to contribute to extant literature as it looks at country image from a new perspective. By merging studies from different areas of business (marketing, tourism, management and place branding), this study seeks to explore the notion of social responsibility image of countries (RG1 – See table 1.1). In order to do so it adopts a gestalt approach focusing on the general country image (GCI). GCI refers to generalised associations linked to a certain country and, in international marketing, is considered the higher level of abstraction compared to other variables such as product-country image (PCI) and product category country image (PCatI). It includes different facets ranging from degree of economic and political maturity to culture, traditions and the degree of industrialisation. Given its holistic focus and higher level of flexibility as will be discussed here below GCI is the best suited level for this study. The next section will offer a detailed overview of the concept and related variables as discussed in relevant streams of business literature and thus will pave the way for the analysis of SRIC.

Field and focus	Concept	Selected definitions	Dimensions	Measurement	Theories
Social psychology In-groups vs out-groups; prejudice	National stereotypes	Perception of veridical differences in culture between national groups (Linssen and Hagendoorn, 1994**)** Shared beliefs about the personality traits of members of a culture (Terracciano and McCrae, 2007)	Unidimensional/ Multidimensional: Warmth and competence Efficiency, emotionality, empathy and dominance Warmth, competence, status, competition Competence and morality	Quantitative (experimental and non-experimental)	• Stereotyped content model (SMC) • Self-categorization theory • Five-Factor model • Social identity theory • Realistic conflict theory • Social structural theory • Mirroring effect
Int. Marketing Products/services /brands Evaluation and purchase intention	Product-country image (PCI) General country image (GCI) Country-related product image (PI)	PCI - Consumer's perceptions about the quality of products made in a particular country and the nature of people from that country (Knight and Calantone, 2000; Zolfagharian et al., 2017) GCI - Country image is a schema, or a knowledge structure, that synthesizes what we know about a country and it has been defined as ‘‘the total of all descriptive, inferential and informational beliefs one has about a particular country” (Martin and Eroglu, 1993, p. 193) (Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009; Carneiro and Faria, 2016; Stepchenkova and Shichkova, 2017; Magnusson, 2019) PI - Country image is the overall perception consumers form of products from a particular country, based on their prior perceptions of the country's production and marketing strengths and	Unidimensional/ Multidimensional: Cognitive Cognitive and affective Cognitive, affective and conative Cogntive, affective and normative	Quantitative (experimental and non-experimental) Qualitative (interviews, focus groups) Mixed method	• Attitude theory • Categorization theory • Associative network theory • Discourse theory • Affect transfer theory • Social identity theory • Image transfer theory • Prototype theory • Schema congruity theory • Social network theory • Cue Utilization theory/ Cue consistency theory • Stereotyped content model (SMC) • Self-affirmation theory

	Product Category country image (PCatI)	weaknesses (Roth and Romeo, 1992; Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009; Garrett *et al*., 2016) PCatI - the overall perception consumers form of specific product categories from a particular country (Hsieh, 2004, p.253; Carneiro and Faria, 2016)			• Cognitive dissonance theory • Entiativity theory • Positioning theory • Life course theory • Brand equity theory • Expectancy value theory
Tourism Destination evaluation and intention to visit; image formation	Tourism destination image (TDI)	An individual's mental representation of knowledge (beliefs), feelings, and global impression about an object or a destination (Fayeke and Crompton, 1991; Baloglu and McCleary 1999, p. 870; Nadeau *et al.*, 2008; Zhang et al., 2014; Hallman *et al*., 2015; Fu *et al*. 2016; Mak, 2017; Stepchenkova and Shichkova, 2017; Stylidis, 2020).	Unidimensional/ Multidimensional: Cognitive and affective Cognitive, affective and overall Cognitive affective and conative	Quantitative (non-experimental) Qualitative (interviews, focus groups) Mixed method	• Attitude theory • Stakeholder theory • Means-end chain theory • Stimulus-organism-response theory (SOR) • Framing theory • Schema theory • Categorization theory • Contact theory – exposure theory • Social exchange theory
Communication Studies Media-communicated images; image management; country promotion	National/country image	Synonymous with "stereotype," "composotype", "generalized picture," etc. It is a composite of impressions, themes, opinions, and attitudes that form an overall or dominant "representation". It is a descriptive "short cut" or a consolidated characterization of the "people" and the "government" of a country (Merrill, 1962, p.203) "Nation's perceived or actual international image in world opinion" (Rusciano, 2003, p. 361)	Unidimensional Cognitive	Quantitative (non-experimental) – in mass media studies Qualitative (rhetorical analysis, framing analysis, interviews) – in public relations studies	• Agenda-setting theory • Cultivation theory • Theory of image restoration • Critical theory • Framing theory • Global opinion theory

		"The climate of opinion formed by collective expressions of perceptions and judgments of a country by its overseas publics (Wang, 2008, p. 9)			
Political science Foreign policy decision making; image policy; international relations; soft power; conflict depiction and resolution	National image International image	The total cognitive, affective, and evaluative structure of the behavior unit, or its internal view of itself and its universe (Boulding, 1959) A representation of collective identities that refers to a set of narratives describing a nation (Evans, 1999, p.1; Villanueva Rivas, 2011). National image consists of a person's knowledge about a country, and this knowledge "is based on the learning, personal experiences, booklore and knowledge from the media, and societal relations of this person" (Hu, 2011, p. 22; Hartig, 2016) Frembild, the nation's perceived or actual international image in world opinion (Rusciano, 2003)	Unidimensional/ Multidimensional: Mostly cognitive Cognitive and affective	Quantitative (experimental, non-experimental) – in political psychology and int. relation streams Qualitative – in public diplomacy	• Global opinion theory • Framing theory • International image theory • Schema theory • Balance theory • Social identity theory • Social dominance theory
Nation branding Tourism promotion, FDI, mega-events Talent and international students' attraction	Place image (referred to a country) National/ nation brand image	The sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that people have of a place (Kotler *et al*, 1993, p. 141) Mental maps that relate to a place (Jaffe and Nebenzahl, 2001) and people use these images to assist the decision-making process (Kotler and Gertner, 2002) (Nadeau and Olafsen, 2015, p. 294) Powerful stereotypes, an oversimplification of the reality that is not necessarily bounded by preciseness (Yousaf, 2016)	Unidimensional Cognitive	Mostly conceptual or qualitative Quantitative (non-experimental)	/

Table 2.2 Country image studies: Definitions, measurement and theories. Author's elaboration (2020).

2.2.2 Country Image Research in Business Studies

The history of country image in business studies can be traced back to the 1960s (Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009; Herz and Diamantopoulos, 2017) and has developed at an incredible pace throughout the years. The literature, in fact, boasts more than 1000 studies in international marketing alone (Usunier, 2006; Lu *et al.*, 2016; Samiee *et al.*, 2016). This increasing interest in country image studies is due to the importance of this construct for corporations, governments and institutions. Country image exerts a significant impact on consumers' and retailers' evaluation of foreign products, services and businesses (Elliot and Papadopoulos, 2016) acting as signal of quality and reducing perceived risk (Herz and Diamantopoulos, 2017). The image of a place also affects how tourists evaluate destinations, influences their travel intentions (Yilmaz and Yilmaz, 2020), satisfaction (Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim, 2011) and willingness to recommend (Kislali, Kavaratzis and Saren, 2020). Finally, country image has been posited to influence international students' perceptions towards a country's universities (Srikatanyoo and Gnoth, 2002; Herrero-Crespo, San Martín Gutiérrez and De los Salmones, 2016) and foreign workers' intentions to migrate (Nadeau and Olafsen, 2015).

Fig 2.1 offers a more comprehensive view of main antecedents and consequences of country image in business studies, based on a review of extant literature. The advantage of this model is that it includes findings from the different streams of business namely marketing, tourism and place branding, thus providing a clear picture of the relevance of place image studies.

Compared to other fields, country image theory in business is relatively advanced, however it is nor without limitations. One of the biggest criticisms of country image in marketing has been the lack of managerial relevance due to consumers' limited interest and scant knowledge, partly exacerbated by the effects of globalisation (Liefeld, 2004; Usunier, 2006; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2008; Josiassen and Harzing, 2008; Samiee, 2011). This problem has been addressed by several authors who have provided theoretical and empirical support for the existence of the COO effect (Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch and Palihawadana, 2011; Magnusson, Westjohn and Zdravkovic, 2011; Herz and Diamantopoulos, 2013; Ko, Moon and Magnusson, 2017; Amatulli *et al.*, 2019). Despite the advent of a global market, there is enough evidence that place still matters (Papadopoulos *et al.*, 2018) and regardless of the level of accuracy of individuals' perceptions, country image exerts a significant influence on attitude and behaviour (Zolfagharian, Saldivar and Braun, 2017).

Another key issue that has been raised by both marketing and tourism scholars concerns the poor conceptualisation and operationalisation of the image construct mostly due to a lack of consistency in the way the construct is defined and measured (Beerli and Martin, 2004; Samiee, 2010; Carneiro and Faria, 2016; Lu *et al.*, 2016; Stylidis, Belhassen and Shani, 2017; Yilmaz and Yilmaz, 2020).

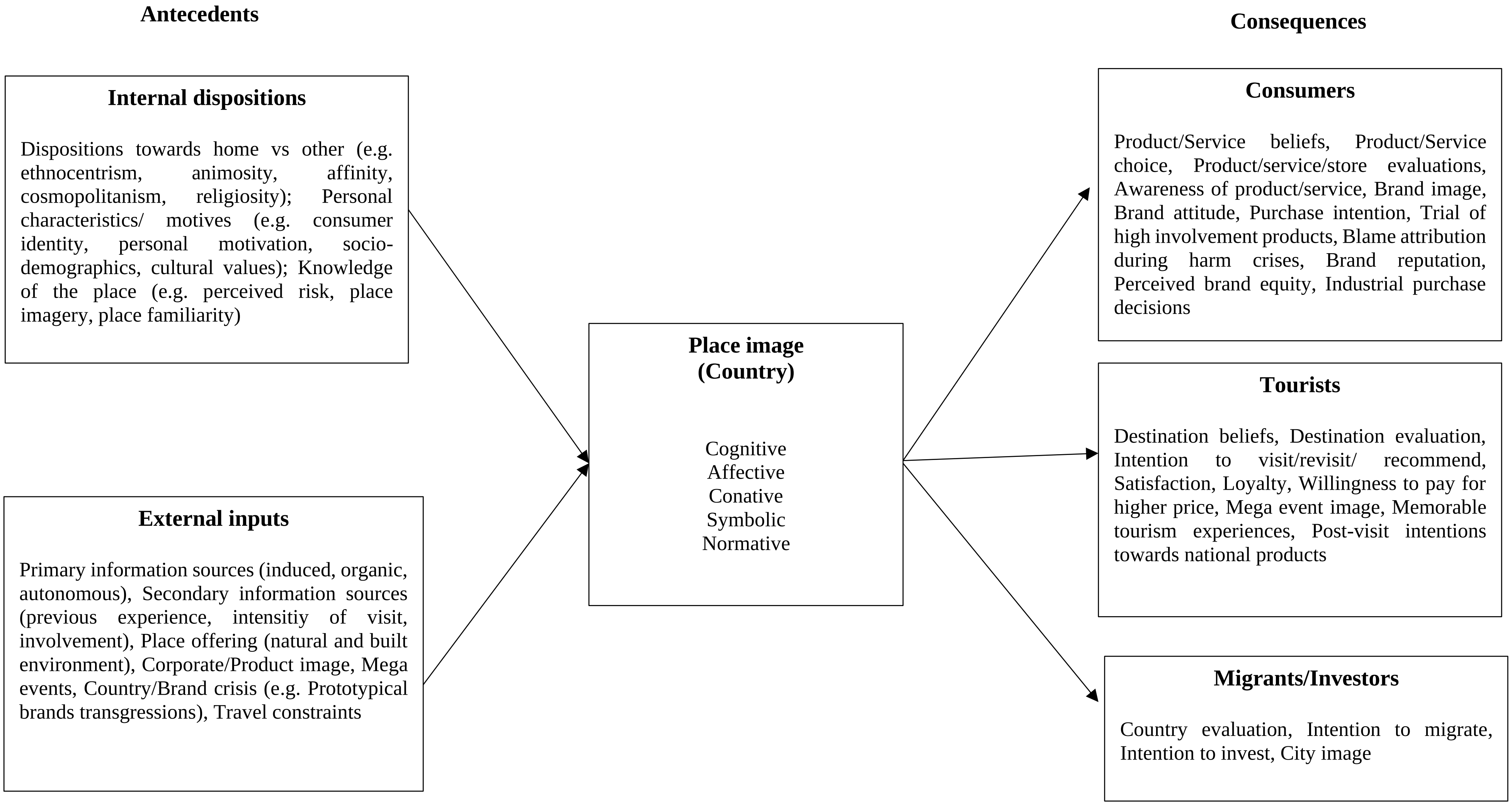

Antecedents
Consequences
Internal dispositions
Dispositions towards home vs other (e.g. ethnocentrism, animosity, affinity, cosmopolitanism, religiosity); Personal characteristics/ motives (e.g. consumer identity, personal motivation, socio-demographics, cultural values); Knowledge of the place (e.g. perceived risk, place imagery, place familiarity)
External inputs
Primary information sources (induced, organic, autonomous), Secondary information sources (previous experience, intensitiy of visit, involvement), Place offering (natural and built environment), Corporate/Product image, Mega events, Country/Brand crisis (e.g. Prototypical brands transgressions), Travel constraints
Place image (Country)
Cognitive
Affective
Conative
Symbolic
Normative
Consumers
Product/Service beliefs, Product/Service choice, Product/service/store evaluations, Awareness of product/service, Brand image, Brand attitude, Purchase intention, Trial of high involvement products, Blame attribution during harm crises, Brand reputation, Perceived brand equity, Industrial purchase decisions
Tourists
Destination beliefs, Destination evaluation, Intention to visit/revisit/ recommend, Satisfaction, Loyalty, Willingness to pay for higher price, Mega event image, Memorable tourism experiences, Post-visit intentions towards national products
Migrants/Investors
Country evaluation, Intention to migrate, Intention to invest, City image

Fig 2.1 Country image: Antecedents and consequences. Adapted from Papadopoulos et al. (2018). Authors' elaboration (2020).

This second issue has received increasing attention in both streams and scholars have made some progress reviewing conceptual delimitations and measurements of country of origin image (CoI) and tourist destination image (TDI) (Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009; Carneiro and Faria, 2016; Josiassen *et al.*, 2016; Lai and Li, 2016; Lopez and Balabanis, 2019). Although some inconsistencies and compartmentalisations still persist, scholars now generally agree on the following taxonomy (See also Hsieh, Pan and Setiono, 2004; Mossberg and Kleppe, 2005; Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009; Carneiro and Faria, 2016):

- **General country image (GCI)** = is also known as overall image, macro image or simply country image (Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Brijs, Bloemer and Kasper, 2011). It refers to everything a person associates with a country and its people (Wang *et al.*, 2012) "irrespective of products categories or any product" (Carneiro and Faria, 2016, p. 4412). It is the most holistic approach and due to its higher level of abstraction has been adopted in tourism and place branding studies together with TDI components. Various definitions, configurations and measurements exist. These and related studies will be discussed in 2.2.3
- **Product-country image (PCI)** = refers to "consumers' images of different countries and of products made in these countries" (Li, Fu and Murray, 1997, p.166; Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009). It combines GCI mentioned above and PI here below (Carneiro and Faria, 2016).
- **Product-related country image (PI) =** refers to an individual's overall image of products originating in a certain country (Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009). It is usually measured alone or in combination with GCI.
- **Product-category country image (PCatI)** = is the image of products of a foreign country pertaining to a certain category (e.g. TVs, mobile phones…) or industry (e.g. fashion, food…) (Han and Terpstra, 1988; Häubl, 1996; Carneiro and Faria, 2016).
- **Tourism destination image (TDI) =** refers to the image tourists hold of a certain country as a potential destination. Although there is no agreement in literature regarding its definition, TDI is generally conceived as "an individual's mental representation of knowledge" and feelings towards a destination (Fakeye and Crompton, 1991; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999, p. 870; Zhang *et al.*, 2014; Fu, Ye and Xiang, 2016; Mak, 2017; Stepchenkova and Shichkova, 2017).

The main advantage of this classification is that it enables researchers to navigate the conceptual complexity of the construct domain and identify the correct level of analysis based on theoretical grounds. Since the aim of this study is to examine the concept of the social responsibility image of countries, GCI has been chosen over other constructs as the basis for this initial analysis in line with recommendations on conceptual delimitations set by Carneiro and Faria (2016). The main advantage of GCI and the main reason for this choice is its flexibility. GCI and its dimensions have already been integrated in tourism studies and this higher level of abstraction is relatively common in place branding studies. However, compared to international marketing, place branding literature lacks a similar rigour in the analysis and measurement of country image (RG2 – See Table 1.1). Finally, the way in which GCI has been operationalised allows for a better integration with the concept of corporate social responsibility image (RG1 – See Table 1.1).

2.2.3 General Country Image

Studies on general country image in marketing emerged from the need to improve the validity and reliability of measurement instruments developed to capture the COO effect (Laroche *et al.*, 2005). CoI research, in fact, initially failed to distinguish between products' characteristics (e.g. quality) and general features of the country (e.g. economic and political stability, culture, people). This created confusion when trying to understand the impact of COO on consumers'evaluations. The concept of GCI therefore caught the attention of several international marketing scholars (Papadopoulos, Marshall and Heslop, 1988; Desborde, 1990; Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Laroche *et al.*, 2005; Lala, Allred and Chakraborty, 2009).

Initial studies focused on the conceptualisation and measurement of the GCI scale (Martin and Eroglu 1993; Lala, Allred and Chakraborty, 2009), testing its impact on products'evaluations (Wang and Lamb, 1980, 1983; Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Häubl, 1996; Laroche *et al.*, 2005). This constitutes the first and most prolific stream of the GCI literature. The unit of analysis here is the consumer and GCI is analysed alone or as part of PCI. The majority of studies have found a positive significant impact of GCI on product beliefs (Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim, 2011) and evaluations (Brijs, Bloemer and Kasper, 2011; Wang *et al.*, 2012; Koubaa, Methamem and Fort, 2015). According to scholars in this area of research, GCI plays an important role as a dimension of country equity (Pappu and Quester, 2010).

A second stream of literature analyses the interlink between GCI and corporate image (CI). Corporate image refers to a network of affective and cognitive associations deep seated in consumers memory about a company (Nandan, 2004; Gotsi, Lopez and Andriopolous, 2011). The unit of analysis of these studies is the company itself (Gotsi, Lopez and Andriopoulos, 2011; Lopez, Gotsi and Andriopoulos, 2011; Suter *et al.*, 2018). Research shows that corporate image influences GCI and that this relationship is reciprocal (White, 2012). However, most of these initial studies are qualitative and/or rely on single cases. When tested in a service industry such as higher education, this relationship is disconfirmed. GCI is found to affect the awareness and perceived quality of university images but not university image itself (Herrero-Crespo *et al.*, 2015; Herrero-Crespo, San Martín Gutiérrez and Garcia de los Salmones, 2016). Therefore, more empirical studies are needed in order to assess this link quantitatively (RG4- See Table 1.1). A significant interaction, according to Magnusson (2015), can also be found between country image and CSR (White and Alkandari, 2019) as a positive CSR is evaluated more positively when a country has a positive country image and more negatively in presence of negative CSR signals. He thus posits that "focussing on CSR and promoting positive CSR has benefits for the individual brand and this may, over time, translate into improved overall country image" (Magnusson, Westjohn and Zdravkovic, 2015, p. 677). Prototypical brands transgressions on the other hand can have a negative impact on country image and on the image of other country brands (Magnusson, Krishnan, Westjohn, *et al.*, 2014). Finallly, some scholars have studied GCI looking at how brands can integrate some of its aspects in the brand strategy (e.g. visual elements, senses, testual elements, natural and cultural resources, employees...) and what aspects should be integrated (Hynes *et al.*, 2014; Suter *et al.*, 2018).

The third stream uses GCI dimensions for the examination of tourists' behaviour and thus is most used within the tourism field (Zeugner-Roth and Žabkar, 2015). Studies confirm that cognitive and affective dimensions of country image have a positive direct effect on destination beliefs and destination evaluation and a direct/indirect effect on intention to visit (Nadeau *et al.*, 2008; Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim, 2011; Alvarez and Campo, 2014; Zhang *et al.*, 2016; Zhang *et al.*, 2018). GCI operates as an antecedent of TDI (Chaulagain, Wiitala and Fu, 2019) and as such the affective dimension is proven to have a stronger impact on TDI (Palau-Saumell *et al.*, 2016). GCI has also been found to exert an impact on revisit intentions as demonstrated by De Nisco and colleagues (De Nisco *et al.*, 2015). Within this stream we also include studies investigating mega events. These have shown the existence of a positive link between GCI, TDI and mega events image suggesting a possible spillover effect of one image onto the others (Hahm, Tasci and Terry, 2018). Mega events image also plays a key role in GCI formation, particularly when the country is unfamiliar (Herz and Arnegger, 2017). For familiar countries or in presence of negative media coverage studies, though, no change was found (Hahm, Tasci and Terry, 2018; Tasci, Hahm and Terry, 2019).

The fourth and final stream is rooted in the place branding literature and comprises studies on the effect of GCI on highly skilled migration intentions (Nadeau and Olafsen, 2015) and on the attractiveness of foreign direct investments (FDI) (Papadopoulos, Hamzaoui-Essoussi and El Banna, 2016). This is the least prolific field and therefore in need of more exploratory research (RG3- See Table 1.1.).

Table 2.3 here below offers a summary of relevant studies on GCI, definitions and dimensions. As the table shows, conceptualisations and operationalisations of the construct vary. Differences are often linked to the specific stance embraced by the authors: country image as attitude, stereotype, schema, set of associations or perceptions (Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009; Lopez and Balabanis, 2019). Each of these stances has advantages and disadvantages. For instance, shortcomings of the perception, stereotype and schema approach have been outlined by Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009). Similarly, Lopez and Balabanis (2019) recently explained the flaws of the attitude stance, one of the most widely adopted in country image studies.

	GCI conceptualisation and measurement
Selected studies	Wang and Lamb (1980), Wang and Lamb (1983), Papadopoulos *et al*. (1988), Desborde (1990), Papadopoulos *et al.* (1990), Weber and Grundofher (1991), Martin and Eroglu (1993), Haubl (1996), Laroche et al. (2005), Mossberg and Kleppe (2005), Nayir (2008); Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009), Zeugner-Roth *et al.* (2008), Nadeau *et al.*, (2008), Campo Martinez and Alvarez (2010); Pappu and Quester (2010), Elliot *et al.* (2011); Gotsi *et al.* (2011); Lopez *et al.* (2011); Wang et al. (2012), Alvarez and Campo (2014); Hynes *et al.*, (2014), De Nisco *et al.* (2015); Herrero-Crespo *et al.* (2015); Koubaa *et al.* (2015); Nadeau and Olafsen (2015); Zeugner-roth (2015), Carneiro and Faria (2016); Fan and Shahani (2016); Herrero-Crespo *et al.* (2016); Palau-Saumell *et al.* (2016); Zhang *et al.* (2016); Herz and Arnegger (2017); Yousaf (2017); Hahm *et al.* (2018); Igenhoff *et al.* (2018); Zhang *et al.* (2018); Zhang, Wu and Buhalis (2018), Chaulagain, Wiitala and Fu (2019); Dedeoglu (2019); Dubinsky and Dzikus (2019); Lopez and Balabanis (2019); Magnusson, Westjohn and Sirianni (2019); White and Alkandari (2019)
Selected Definitions	"Overall image of a country in consumers' minds. It reflects a country's culture, political system and its level of economic and technological development" (Desborde, 1990, p. 168) "Sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that people have of a place. Images represent a simplification of a large number of associations and pieces of information connected with a place" (Kotler *et al.,* 1993, p. 141; Lopez *et al.,* 2011; Alvarez and Campo, 2014; Fan and Shahani, 2016; Zhang *et al*., 2018a) "Country images have been described as mental maps that relate to a place (…) and people use these images to assist the decision-making process (…)" (Nadeau et al., 2008, p. 87) "Total of all descriptive, inferential and informational beliefs one has about a particular country" (Martin and Eroglu, 1993, p.193; Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009; Pappu and Quester, 2010; Hynes *et al*., 2014; De Nisco *et al.*, 2015; Herrero-Crespo *et al.*, 2015; Carneiro and Faria, 2016; Fan and Shahani, 2016; Herrero-Crespo *et al*., 2016; Zhang *et al.*, 2018; Chaulagain, Wiitala and Fu, 2019; Chaulagain, Wiitala and Fu, 2019; Dedeoglu, 2019; Magnusson, Westjohn and Sirianni, 2019) "Perceptions and impressions that institutions and consumers have of a country. This prior impression is based upon the economic state of the country, its political structure, culture, its potential conflicts with other countries, its labor market conditions and other environmental factors" (Allred, Chakraborty and Miller, 2000, p. 36). "A generic pool of associations, which is not linked to any particular context but the country itself" (Mossberg and Kleppe, 2005, p. 497; Hahm *et al.*, 2018; Zhang *et al.*, 2018) "Mental network of affective and cognitive associations connected to the country" (Verlegh, 2001, p.25; Gotsi, Lopez and Andriopoulos, 2011; Lopez *et al.*, 2011) "Mental representation of a country and its people, including cognitive beliefs of the country's economic and technological development stages, as well as the affective evaluations of its social and political systems or standpoints" (Wang *et al.,* 2012, p. 1041)

	"Network of associations that consists of nodes linked together in the consumer's memory networks" (Magnusson, *et al.*, 2014, p. 23)	
Dimensions	Cognitive (Unidimensional)	(Nayir and Durmusoglu, 2008; Herrero-Crespo *et al.*, 2015; Zeugner-Roth and Žabkar, 2015; Herrero-Crespo, San Martín Gutiérrez and Garcia-De los Salmones, 2016; Hahm *et al.* 2018; Zhang *et al.*, 2018)
	Cognitive (Multidimensional)	(Wang and Lamb, 1980, 1983; Weber and Grundhöfer, 1991; Kotler, Haider and Rein, 1993; Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Kotler and Gertner, 2002; Zeugner-Roth, Diamantopoulos and Montesinos, 2008; Carneiro and Faria, 2016; Costa, Carneiro and Goldszmidt, 2016; Chaulagain, Wiitala and Fu, 2019; Dedeoğlu, 2019)
	Cognitive and affective	(Verlegh, 2001; Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009; Martínez and Alvarez, 2010; Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim, 2011; Wang *et al.*, 2012; Alvarez and Campo, 2014; De Nisco *et al.*, 2015; Nadeau and Olafsen, 2015; Zhang, Wu and Buhalis, 2018)
	Cognitive, Affective and Symbolic	(Zeugner-Roth and Žabkar, 2015)
	Cognitive, Affective, Conative	(Laroche *et al.*, 2005; Nadeau *et al.*, 2008; Hynes *et al.*, 2014; Koubaa, Methamem and Fort, 2015; Palau-Saumell *et al.*, 2016; Herz and Arnegger, 2017)
	Cognitive, Affective and Normative	(Brijs, Bloemer and Kasper, 2011)

Table 2.3 GCI conceptualisation and measurement. Author's elaboration (2020).

It is complicated to choose from this large pool of options insofar as several scholars often privilege data analysis over conceptualisation as highlighted by Usunier (2006) and Carneiro and Faria (2016). An in-depth analysis of the literature on country image conceptualisation, however, might help to identify the appropriate stance for this study. Amongst the paradigms mentioned above the one that has received the least criticism is image as network of associations. This paradigm is supported by the associative network theory of memory (ANT) (Collins and Loftus, 1975; Anderson, 1983; Lee, Lockshin and Greenacre, 2016) and brand equity theory (Pappu and Quester, 2010; Lopez and Balabanis, 2019). According to ANT, human memory relies on a network of nodes or associations to help store and catalogue information (More about ANT can be found in chapter 3). ANT has been used by previous authors to explain and define the concept of brand image and more recently country image as follows: "Images represent a simplification of a large number of associations and pieces of information connected with a place" (Kotler, Haider and Rein, 1993, p.160). These associations can be of cognitive and affective nature (Verlegh, 2001; Gotsi, Lopez and Andriopoulos, 2011).

Other dimensions considered by previous authors are conative, symbolic and normative. The last two appear only in a couple of studies and have been generally neglected by other scholars. The use of a conative aspect, instead, has received some criticism (Carneiro and Faria, 2016). Conations refer to behavioural intentions (e.g. intention to buy a product/ intention to visit a country) and as such they represent an outcome of country image. This means that the conative dimension is a separate construct outside the definiational domain of country image (Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009; Carneiro and Faria, 2016; Kislali, Kavaratzis and Saren, 2020).

Regarding the cognitive and affective dimension, the majority of papers have studied both at the same time or focused on one of the two - mostly the cognitive aspect. Since this study aims to examine SRIC, a cognitive - multidimensional approach is deemed as most adequate. This view fits well with our definition of the construct and the approach taken by place branding researchers. Moreover, this is in line with how CSR image is conceptualised (cognitive -multidimensional) as will be explained in 2.3.

To conclude, this section has offered a comprehensive overview of country image studies. The role of the concept has been discussed by comparing research conducted in different disciplines. Particular attention has been paid to the conceptualisation and operationalisation of country image in business studies. In the light of this, the level of analysis chosen for this research project is presented and discussed.

The next section will be devoted to corporate social responsibility studies. It will offer an overview of research conducted on CSR image and outline its role and benefits for both corporate and place brands.

2.3 Corporate Social Responsibility Studies

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) can boast an impressive history and a huge number of publications (Malik, 2015). An accurate analysis of the literature since the 1950s shows not only divergent definitions (Pérez and del Bosque, 2013a), but also the use of related yet different constructs (Carroll, 1979; Varadarajan and Menon, 1988; Glavas, 2016) and the proposition of several methodologies to measure CSR (Öberseder *et al.*, 2014; Alvarado-Herrera *et al.*, 2017; Crane *et al.*, 2017; Latif and Sajjad, 2018). Up to the present, although many theories and schools of thought can be identified and the number of publications is constantly growing, no formal definition has been agreed upon.

In the next sections the terminology will be revised in the light of the past research, with the aim of explaining its origins and clarifying the definition and objectives, starting from a review of the business-society relationship. Benefits and limitations will also be discussed in order to cast light on the controversies regarding the role and impact of CSR, still widely criticised. Finally, the section will review studies on CSR image.

2.3.1 The Role of Business in Society

CSR and business ethics studies arise from the discussion concerning the role of business within society (Presto, 1975). The need for a delimitation between these two realities has been evident since Plato. In the "Crito" and the "Republic", the Greek philosopher claimed that "business and the generation of material wealth must be harmoniously interwoven with the social and political dimensions of society and government" (Cragg, 2012, p. 82). A similar viewpoint can be found in Aristotle's "Politics" (Marcoux, 2008) and "Nicomachean Ethics" where the virtue ethics theory is expounded (Kurzynski, 2009). In Aristotle's view, ethics (from the Greek word ethos (ἔθος) for habit or behaviour based on tradition) have prominence over business and society. The concept of community, conceived as the place in which one derives identity, a sense of self and a purpose, is also given a salient role in Aristotle's work. A man is "by nature a political and social animal" (Aristotle, 1908, p. 1523a), thus he cannot exist and fully develop without a community of others (Aristotle, 1926). Religion (e.g. Exodus 20:2-17; Deuteronomy 5:6-21; Holy Qur'an; Rerum Novarum, Rights and Duties of Capital and Labor) (Abeng, 1997; Marcoux, 2008), philosophy (e.g. Hobbes, Hume, Bentham and Mill, Kierkegaard), politics and literature (e.g. Dickens, Verga, Kingsley, Carlyle, Arnold, Wood) played an important part in this debate throughout the years. Although forms of proto-CSR have been documented by historians (Hielscher and Husted, 2019), it is not until the industrial revolution (1st era of responsibility) and the advent of the welfare state (2nd era of responsibility) that the role of business in society started to become a pressing matter (Blowfield and Murray, 2019). Yet it will take a few years for the issue to enter academia.

The first academic writings on the responsibility of business date back to the 1930s (Latapí Agudelo, Jóhannsdóttir and Davídsdóttir, 2019). These first articles were characterised by a focus on the responsibilities of the individual business leader rather than the company (e.g. Berle and Mean, 1932; Barnard 1938; Clark 1939) (Carroll, 1999) but paved the way for subsequent studies on the role of business such as those of Drucker's and Bowen's. Drucker, also known as the "modern day Aristotle for the business community" (Kurzynski, 2009, p.357) was one of the first to highlight the social dimension of business. In his writings, he identified companies as "social institutions" (Drucker, 1954, 1957) and therefore posited that their role goes beyond the mere economic purpose (Drucker, 1942). Companies had started to replace the church as being the place where a person's economic stability, social justice, and personal needs are fulfilled (Kurzynski, 2009). Whilst Drucker's work is considered highly influential, the book that marked the beginning of the modern era of CSR is Bowen's '*The Social Responsibility of the Businessman*' (Bowen, 1953). In Bowen's words "Business, like government, is basically of the people, by the people and for the people" (Bowen, 1954, p. 5). Therefore, businessmen should consider social consequences when making business decisions.

Bowen's book contributed to the emergence of the CSR concept in academia. It also led to the development of a new area of research and several related streams (e.g. corporate sustainability, triple bottom line…). These will be discussed in more detail in the following section (See 2.3.3.1 and Table 2.6). Before delving into this analysis, though, it is important to note the contextual factors and events that played a part in bringing the issue of business responsibilities to the centre of public scrutiny in the second half of the twentieth century. These are summarised in Table 2.4. Authors particularly point at the environmental protests and civil rights movements (Latapí Agudelo, Jóhannsdóttir and Davídsdóttir, 2019) that in the 1960s and 1970s exerted significant pressure on governments and corporations as well as at the socio-economic impact of globalisation in the 1980s (Blowfield and Murray, 2019). In this respect, corporate social responsibility has been interpreted as a response to globalisation excesses: "An attempt to contain and share the social adjustment costs that open markets inevitably produce" (Blowfield and Murray, 2014, p. 117). Globalisation has made things bigger, quicker and more visible than before, thus increasing the pressure on companies to act responsibly.

More recently, corporate scandals and new social movements (e.g. Friday for Future, Extinction Rebellion, Black Lives Matter) have contributed to increasing the awareness of social and environmental responsibilities and irresponsibilities of companies. The VW emissions scandal, Starbucks racial bias incidents and the Facebook-Cambridge Analytica political intrigue are only some the most infamous corporate transgressions that have fuelled public indignation (Hotten, 2015; Gabbatt, 2018; Wong, 2019).

The origin of the debate – The Three Eras of responsibility	
Era of responsibility I – Industrial revolution (1760-1860)	• Increase in population engaged in manufacturing • Poor living and working conditions and frequent episodes of exploitation • Episodes of civil disorder followed by government interventions • Rise of the modern corporation
Era of responsibility II – Welfare State (1870-1970)	• Welfare schemes aimed at protecting employees • Companies' attempts at improving working conditions (e.g. quality of life) • First examples of corporate philanthropy (e.g. Macy's; Cadbury; Pullman Palace Car Company) • Increased awareness of the connection between environmental degradation and corporate activity • Rise of non-governmental organisations • First academic publications on the responsibility of business (1950) • Civil-rights movements, anti-war protests, environmental movements (1968) • Creation of the Club of Rome (1968), the Earth Day and the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) (1970) • Committee for Economic Development (CED) first publications on corporate responsibility (1970)
Era of responsibility III – Globalisation (1980- 2020)	• Changes in the relationship between business and society due to the advent of globalisation • Deterritorialisation leading to growing interconnectedness and interdependence • Offshoring of jobs, rapid growth in international trade, international capital flows • Weakened national governments and unprecedented private sector wealth, power and impact • Greater sense of awareness of environmental protection and sustainable development • Creation of the European Commission's Environment Directorate-General (1981) and the World Commission on Environment and Development (1983) • Brundtland Commission's "Our Common Future" introducing the idea of sustainable development (1987) • Institutionalisation of CSR (1990s-2000) • Creation of the European Environment Agency (1990) • Rio Declaration on Environment and Development (1990) • Adoption of the Kyoto Protocol (1997) • United Nations Global Compact and eight Millennium Development Goals (2000) • Paris Agreement and launch of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (2015) • New social movements and climate change protests (2014-2020)

Table 2.4 The Eras of responsibility Adapted from Blowfield and Murray (2019) and Latapí Agudelo et al. (2019). Author's elaboration (2020).

Nowadays an increasing number of consumers expect companies to adopt CSR programmes (Nielsen, 2018a) and are ready to voice their discontent both online and offline. On the other hand, businesses have started to see CSR as a strategic tool: more than 50% of managers are convinced that CSR is a priority and 96% believe it offers value for money (Blowfield and Murray, 2019; Cao, Liang and Zhan, 2019). It is therefore undeniable that the role of business in society has become increasingly important in today's world.

2.3.2 The Responsibility of Business and Related Constructs

The previous section offered an analysis of the context that led to the origin of the debate around business responsibility within and outside academia. Although corporate social responsibility (CSR) is the first concept that emerged from this discussion, the literature boasts more than ten different but strictly related constructs (Roszkowska-Menkes, 2017). These are: business ethics (BE), corporate philanthropy (CP), corporate social responsiveness (CSR_2), public responsibility (PR), corporate social performance (CSP), corporate social rectitude (CSR_3), corporate sustainability (CS), corporate citizenship (CC), political corporate social responsibility (PCSR), corporate responsibility (CR) and corporate environmental responsibility (CER). The figure here below (Figure 2.2) offers an overview of these approaches and positions them in chronological order. A more in-depth analysis of the concepts, their definition, origin and relation to CSR is presented in table 2.5 in the appendix (See Appendix A – Table 2.5).

Whilst an extensive review of these concepts lies beyond the purpose of this research, it is important to explain the choice of CSR as main construct within this study. As Baden and Harwood (2013) explain, terminology plays an important part in the development of the CSR literature. The choice of a different term helps to make some aspects of a concept more salient than others, facilitating the achievement of specific aims (Baden and Harwood, 2013). Based on the analysis of terms presented in table 2.5 (See Appendix A) CSR can be seen as the key concept around which all the others revolve. Its choice over the others stems from theoretical, conceptual and socio-linguistic reasons. From a theoretical viewpoint CSR can be considered as the "root construct" that has stimulated research on the role of business in society since the 1950s (Roszkowska-Menkes, 2017). Despite the amount of critiques and the development of new concepts, CSR has never been superceded or completely replaced (Carroll, 2016). As Carroll (2015) explains: "CSR has been consistent and stable in its popularity and at least three driving forces have kept it alive and well—business acceptance, global growth, and academic proliferation" (Carroll, 2015, p. 95). From a conceptual viewpoint, the terminology that has emerged in the last 50 years mainly overlaps with CSR (e.g. CS, CR) or represents one of the facets (e.g. PCSR, ECR) or phases (e.g. CSR_2 ; CSR_3) of the CSR process.

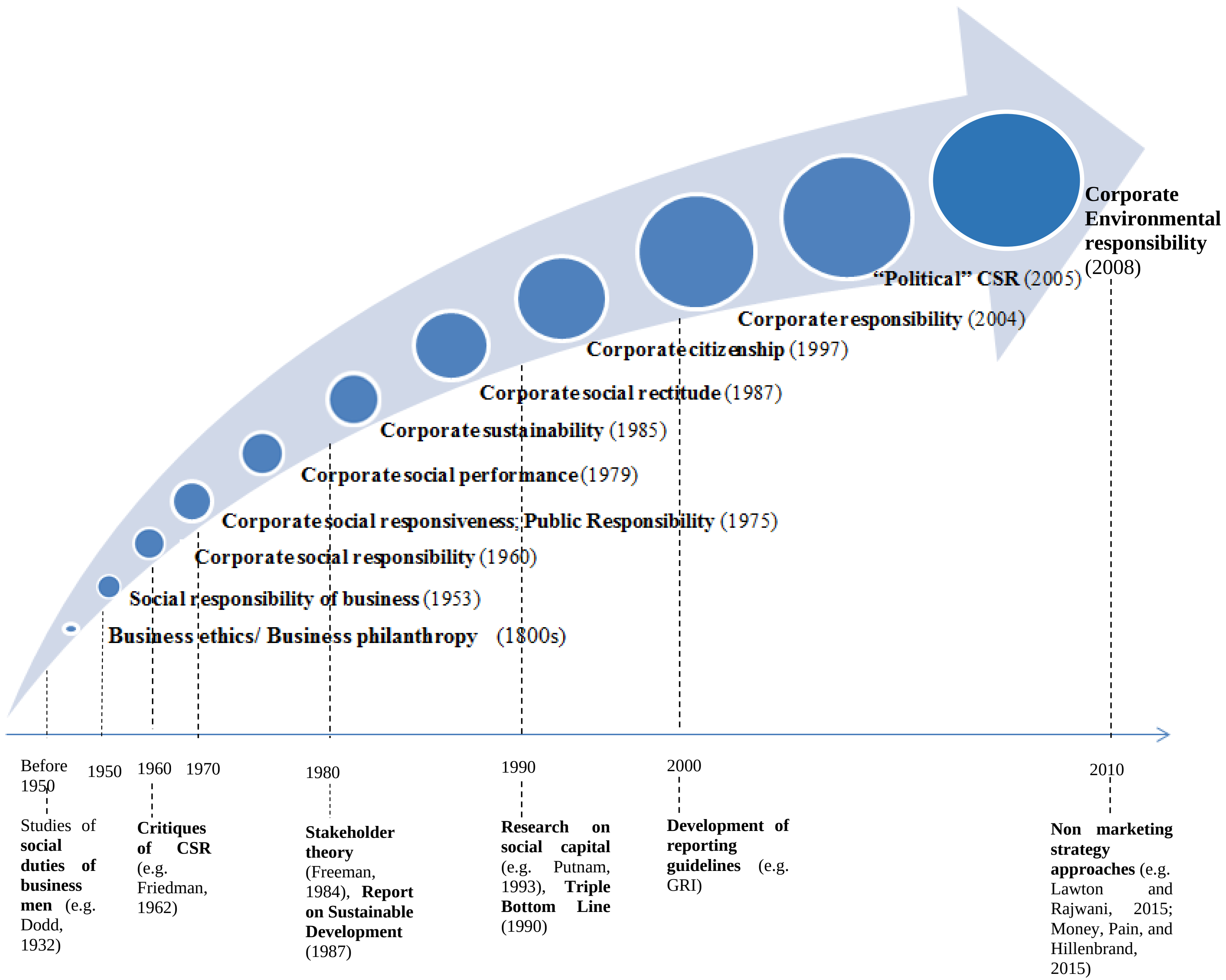

Corporate Environmental responsibility (2008)
"Political" CSR (2005)
Corporate responsibility (2004)
Corporate citizenship (1997)
Corporate social rectitude (1987)
Corporate sustainability (1985)
Corporate social performance (1979)
Corporate social responsiveness; Public Responsibility (1975)
Corporate social responsibility (1960)
Social responsibility of business (1953)
Business ethics/ Business philanthropy (1800s)
Before 1950
1950
1960
1970
1980
1990
2000
2010
Studies of social duties of business men (e.g. Dodd, 1932)
Critiques of CSR (e.g. Friedman, 1962)
Stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984), Report on Sustainable Development (1987)
Research on social capital (e.g. Putnam, 1993), Triple Bottom Line (1990)
Development of reporting guidelines (e.g. GRI)
Non marketing strategy approaches (e.g. Lawton and Rajwani, 2015; Money, Pain, and Hillenbrand, 2015)

Fig. 2.2 Business and responsibility: A timeline. Adapted from Mohan (2003), Carroll (2015), Ghobadian, Money and Hillenbrand (2015), Masoud (2017) and Latapí Agudelo et al. (2019). Author's elaboration (2019).

The choice of CSR also answers the need for rationalisation and consolidation of terminology – a point raised by a few authors that have criticised the proliferation of "parallel universes" (Garriga and Melé, 2004; Waddock, 2004; Roszkowska-Menkes, 2017). From a socio-linguistic viewpoint we refer to Wittgenstein (Wittgenstein, 2009; Ibbotson, 2013). Language is a tool and tools are defined by what they do and how they are used. Wittgenstein's thought engendered the creation of the usage-based theories of language that affirm that "the complexity of language emerges not as a result of a language-specific instinct but through the interaction of cognition and use" (Ibbotson, 2013, p. 241). It is generally acknowledged that the concept of CSR, adopted by international organisations (e.g. European Union, United Nations) and corporations (e.g. EU documents and GRI reports), has entered the business vocabulary and it is universally used within and outside academia (Malik, 2015). Although CSR activities might differ, its contribution is undeniable. Therefore today no one criticises its existence and importance for the society.

2.3.3 Corporate Social Responsibility: A Multidisciplinary Overview

The analysis presented above illustrates the central role played by CSR in the business vs society debate. Studied for more than 60 years, this concept has received increasing attention from academics working in a variety of fields (e.g. management, marketing, business ethics, accounting and finance, politics, human resources management and organizational psychology). Despite the vast amount of articles, literature reviews (Carroll, 1999, 2008; Waddock, 2004; Frederick, 2008; Aguinis and Glavas, 2012; Glavas, 2016; Latapí Agudelo, Jóhannsdóttir and Davídsdóttir, 2019) and the growing interest outside academia, there still appears to be no consensus over its definition, its boundaries, its implementation as well as the benefits and motivations behind it. These problems fostered the development of the related constructs explained in 2.3.2

This section will provide an overview of CSR studies and relevant theories. It will then offer a review of main criticisms. By providing an overview of these aspects, this study aims to cover the major issues that have challenged academics for more than half a century.

2.3.3.1 A Review of CSR Literature

The concept of CSR emerged in the 1950s and developed in parallel with the constructs presented in 2.3.2. A historical overview of the evolution of the concept is discussed in various articles (Carroll, 2008; Latapí Agudelo, Jóhannsdóttir and Davídsdóttir, 2019) and a brief summary is provided in the appendix (See Table 2.6- Appendix A). Overall, the CSR literature can be divided into three main academic streams according to the levels of analysis: macro-CSR, meso-CSR and micro-CSR (Frynas and Stephens, 2015; Jones, Willness and Glavas, 2017). It is worth noting that for some authors macro and meso levels are aggregated and considered simply as “macro” (e.g. Tian and Robertson, 2019). The contribution of each stream is discussed here below:

- **Macro-CSR** research focuses on how political, social, institutional and economic dynamics shape CSR discourses and processes (Jones, Willness and Glavas, 2017). In other words, they analyse “normative, cultural-cognitive, and regulative elements” (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012, p.936). Authors working on the macro-level mainly pertain to management, politics and business ethics. Examples of articles in this area include studies on political aspects of CSR (Frynas and Stephens, 2015; Scherer, 2018) and institutional/governmental environments and policies (Spence, 2007; Bondy, Moon and Matten, 2012; Su *et al.*, 2016; Dentchev, Haezendonck and van Balen, 2017; Schneider and Scherer, 2019). An in-depth analysis of antecedents and consequences can be found in Aguinis and Glavas (2012) and Jamali (2016). Macro-CSR leverages political-institutional theories such as Habermasian Theory, Legitimacy Theory, Social Contract Theory (See Appendix A - Table 2.7).
- **Meso-CSR** is one of the most prolific areas of research. Studies can be traced back to the 1950s and the field continues to grow. Articles in this stream mostly pertain to marketing, management and accounting & finance. The focus here is on relational issues at firm-level and the impact of CSR on organisational indicators such as financial and non-financial outcomes (Jones, Willness and Glavas, 2017). Most papers examine CSR contribution to social and financial performance – a highly debated topic (Orlitzky, Schmidt and Rynes, 2003; Shaukat, Qiu and Trojanowski, 2016; Price and Sun, 2017; Theodoulidis *et al.*, 2017; Yim *et al.*, 2019). In this group we also find studies investigating consumers’ responses to CSR (Deng and Xu, 2017; Hildebrand *et al.*, 2017) as well as CSR processes. An in-depth analysis of antecedents and consequences can be found in Aguinis and Glavas (2012). Meso-CSR studies adopt a variety of theories. The majority belong to economic/instrumental (e.g. cause-related marketing, resource-based theory) and social (e.g. stakeholder theory, triple bottom line) theories (See Appendix A - Table 2.7).
- **Micro-CSR** is the least prolific of the three areas but has recently received growing attention from scholars in human resource management and organisational psychology (Jones *et al.*, 2019). Its focus is on “the effects and experiences of CSR on individuals as examined at the individual level of analysis” (Rupp and Mallory, 2015, p. 216). In other words, it studies executives’ (Hafenbradl and Waeger, 2017), potential and current employees’ underlying motives, beliefs and behaviours towards CSR (Marin and Ruiz, 2007; Turker, 2009a; Kim and Park, 2011; Jones, Willness and Madey, 2014; Jones, Willness and Heller, 2016; Jones, Willness and Glavas, 2017; Ng, Yam and Aguinis, 2019; Tian and Robertson, 2019). Theories used by Micro-CSR scholars pertain to the social and ethical groups (See Appendix A - Table 2.7).

The three areas have developed within separate circles for years. However, recently, a few scholars have started integrating different levels of analysis (e.g. Shea and Hawn, 2019).

This tripartite framework offers a useful map to navigate a complex and very extensive literature. The present research focuses on CSR image and leverages the work of Marin and Ruiz (2007), Kim and Park (2011) and Jones et al. (2014, 2016) on CSR impact on the attractiveness of highly skilled resources. It therefore places itself within the micro-CSR tradition. Before looking at CSR image studies, the following sections will discuss the main criticisms and challenges that have dominated extant research.

2.3.3.2 CSR Challenges and Criticisms

- **Conceptualisation**

One of the main criticisms of CSR concerns its conceptualisation. Despite being almost 70 years old, there is no common agreement on its definition (See Appendix A - Table 2.8). The concept has therefore been judged by many as limited and vague (Argandoña and von Weltzien Hoivik, 2009; Hansen, 2016). According to Votaw and Sethi CSR "means something but not always the same to everyone" (Votaw and Sethi, 1973; van Marrewijk, 2003, p.96). This creates a number of issues. First, where there is ambiguity an opportunity arises for brands to define CSR according to their self-interests (Baden and Harwood, 2013). Second, different cultures and industrial contexts differ in the way they understand CSR (Matten and Moon, 2008; Frynas and Stephens, 2015). This means it is hard to identify a universal meaning. Third, the definition of the concept has evolved in time and is affected by trends (Argandoña and von Weltzien Hoivik, 2009; Strand, Freeman and Hockerts, 2015). For instance, although the two concepts developed within separate literature, today many companies use CSR and sustainability interchangeably in their communication and reports. Whilst it is hard to agree on a definition, when looking at academic and institutional explanations of the concept it is possible to identify some common themes. For example, in his review of CSR definitions, Dahlsrud (2008) highlighted five common dimensions: environmental, social, economic, stakeholder and voluntariness. As Table 2.8 in the appendix shows, the first three still recur in recent definitions of CSR. The same applies to the idea of responsibility understood as a form of commitment or responsiveness (e.g. "actions", "solve, "achieve") (See Argandoña et al. 2009). For the purpose of the present research, thus, CSR can be defined as: the commitment of companies to contribute to sustainable development by integrating "social and environmental imperatives in their business operations (…) while, at the same time, addressing the expectations of shareholders and stakeholders" (Jones *et al.*, 2019; UNIDO, 2020). This commitment results in strategic actions aimed at improving the well-being of the local community, the environment, the economy and the society at large (Burke and Logsdon, 1996; Carroll and Shabana, 2010).

- **Rationale**

The second major criticism that has been raised against CSR concerns its very existence. According to Friedman the only purpose of organisations is to increase profit (Friedman, 1970; Cosans, 2009). Companies should only answer to the law and their shareholders (Carson, 1993). In this sense, CSR is seen as an agency-problem (Roszkowska-Menkes, 2017): “using business resources for non-business purposes is (…) an unjustified appropriation of the owner’s property” (Sternberg, 2018, p.41). This idea is supported by the concern that the notion of social responsibility may hinder the fundamentals of market economy (Aluchna, 2017). As opposed to Friedman’s view is Freeman’s approach (Freeman, 1984). Known as the father of the stakeholder theory, Freeman recognises that, although a company has a legal duty to its shareholders, it cannot ignore other actors that are “essential to the very survival and prosperity of the enterprise” (Blowfield and Murray, 2014, p. 203) such as consumers, employees, media, governments, NGOs, trade unions, competitors and partners. Freeman’s purpose was not – as some authors claim - to hinder Friedman’s view but to complement it. His theory has been widely adopted by CSR scholars for two main reasons: on the one hand it captures the complexity of the business-society nexus, on the other it helps to reinforce organisations’ “licence to operate”. Another response to Friedman’s concerns can be found amongst supporters of the business case for CSR (Carroll and Shabana, 2010). From a business case perspective there are legitimate motivations for companies to invest in CSR (Brown and Forster, 2013). CSR can be seen as a strategic tool aimed at creating shared value and improving the organisation’s competitiveness and financial performance. CSR, in fact, offers several benefits to companies as highlighted by previous research (See Table 2.9 for a summary of the main organisational benefits). This idea is at the origin of the strategic approach to CSR (Latapí Agudelo, Jóhannsdóttir and Davídsdóttir, 2019). Past studies investigating executives’ motivations to implement CSR activities also report that the business case is amongst one of the main drivers, followed by external pressures and individuals’ ethical values (Hafenbradl and Waeger, 2017). Notwithstanding the wide acceptance of the business motive, strategic CSR does not come without challenges. Part of the benefits mentioned above might be hindered by this very idea. Research findings have repeatedly shown consumers’ concerns over the real motives behind CSR as companies are thought unable to walk the talk (Skarmeas and Leonidou, 2013; Connors, Anderson-MacDonald and Thomson, 2017). Recent examples of corporate hypocrisy (e.g. VW emission scandal) and corporate irresponsibility (e.g. Facebook-Cambridge Analytica) have exacerbated these concerns. Concurrently, managers seem to be doubtful about the real contribution of CSR (Porter and Kramer, 2006; Stahl and De Luque, 2014; Hafenbradl and Waeger, 2017). These issues and other criticism of CSR effectiveness will be discussed in the following section.

Organisational Areas	Benefits
Structural Capital	CSR has a positive impact on corporate image (Davis, 1973; Hossain, Alamgir and Alam, 2016) corporate reputation (Weber, 2008; Slack, Corlett and Morris, 2015) and corporate brand equity (Hur, Kim and Woo, 2014; Sierra *et al.*, 2017; Cowan and Guzman, 2018; Yang and Basile, 2019)
Human Capital	CSR can directly influence employees' retention, morale, motivation, productivity and recruitment (Turban and Greening, 1997; Marin and Ruiz, 2007; Turker, 2009a; Kim and Park, 2011; Jones, Willness and Madey, 2014; Slack, Corlett and Morris, 2015; Jones, Willness and Heller, 2016; Voegtlin and Greenwood, 2016; Gubler, Larkin and Pierce, 2018; Jones *et al.*, 2019).
Relational Capital	CSR enhances consumers' identification with a brand, the level of product/brand satisfaction (Martínez and del Bosque, 2013; Saeidi *et al.*, 2015) and loyalty (Pérez and del Bosque, 2015a). It also enhances firm/product evaluations (Brown and Dacin, 1997; Palihawadana, Oghazi and Liu, 2016) and purchase intention (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). Results on actual behavioural intentions, however, are conflicting (See section on CSR Effectiveness).
Economic Capital	A few studies show that CSR has a positive direct/indirect impact on financial performance (Luo and Bhattacharya, 2006; Wu and Shen, 2013; Saeidi *et al.*, 2015; Galbreath, 2018; Platonova *et al.*, 2018). However, these findings have been criticised (See section on CSR effectiveness here below). CSR also helps to reduce costs (Epstein and Roy, 2001; Galbreath, 2018), enhance innovation (Sharma and Vredenburg, 1998) manage CSR-related risks (Weber, 2008; Albuquerque, Koskinen and Zhang, 2019) and support the organisation license to operate (Claasen and Roloff, 2012). In terms of procurement and supply chain, it promotes best practices and a sustainable use of natural resources (Porter and Kramer, 2006)

Table 2.9 CSR Benefits. Author's elaboration (2020).

- **Effectiveness**

The third area of criticism relates to the financial and social impact of CSR. This constitutes one of the most prolific and significant streams within the meso-CSR literature as finding evidence of CSR effectiveness would help to support the business case and justify the implementation of socio-environmental activities. So far, however, results have been mixed. Whereas some studies confirm the existence of a positive link between CSR and financial performance, others show no or negative relationships (McGuire, Sundgren and Schneeweis, 1988; McWilliams and Siegel, 2001; McWilliams, Siegel and Wright, 2006; Roszkowska-Menkes, 2017). One of the reasons at the origin of these differences is the lack of consistency in the way CSR is conceptualised (See above) and measured (Martinez, Pérez and del Bosque, 2013; Capelle-Blancard and Petit, 2017; Roszkowska-Menkes, 2017). Other problems include issues with research designs, lack of theoretical or methodological rigour and failure to prove causality (McWilliams, Siegel and Wright, 2006; Roszkowska-Menkes, 2017). Studies focusing on CSR impact on consumers' behaviour have also revealed obvious inconstencies. According to some scholars, CSR positive impact on consumers' perceptions and attitudes does not directly lead to actual purchase – what is known as the attitude-behaviour gap (Carrigan and Attalla, 2001). This is partly due to the increased level of consumers' scepticism towards companies' ethical claims (Connors, Anderson-MacDonald and Thomson, 2017), their lack of awareness of CSR activities (Öberseder, Schlegelmilch and Gruber, 2011) and lack of interest compared to other product features (Ford and Stohl, 2019). Additional research has also demonstrated that, despite the growing number of ethical consumers, "markets do not necessarily punish corporations that do not engage in CSR" (Ihlen, Bartlett and May, 2011, p. 58). Whilst literature on the business case abounds, research on the "sustainability case" for CSR is still relatively limited in comparison (Halme *et al.*, 2020). One of the main issues that has been identified in this stream is the gap between CSR policies and practice, also called "CSR washing" (Pope and Wæraas, 2016). This claim, however, often seems inflated compared to another more urgent issue: the discrepancy between CSR policies/activities (inputs) and positive social/environmental outcomes (outputs) (Halme *et al.*, 2020). Although there is evidence of some pathways that can lead to positive outputs, the road to success is filled with obstacles and more research is warranted. Given these limitations, it is evident, as Waddock points out, that CSR alone will not be able to drive the systemic transformation of economies towards sustainable development (Waddock, 2018). She therefore suggests a change of the whole socio-economic narrative. But will this change alone be enough?

2.3.4 CSR Image Studies

Sections 2.3.3.1 and 2.3.3.2 have offered an overview of extant CSR literature and identified the major sources of criticism. This section will focus more specifically on the CSR image (CSRI) concept which represents one of the most researched aspects in the micro and meso streams of research.

Conceived as the fourth aspect of ethicalisation (Fukukawa, Balmer and Gray, 2007) scholars have studied the construct under different names: CSR perceptions (Lee, Park and Lee, 2013), CSR associations (Marin and Ruiz, 2007; Lee, Zhang and Abitbol, 2019) or CSR image (Pérez, Martínez and del Bosque, 2013b; Plewa *et al.*, 2015). For the purpose of the present research, the term CSR image will be used. CSR image refers to stakeholder perceptions of corporate social responsibility commitment, initiatives and identity (Ng, Yam and Aguinis, 2019). It has been defined by previous authors as "stakeholder perceptions of corporate responses to the general social concerns of stakeholder groups" (Pérez and del Bosque, 2013b, p. 265). Perceived CSR is different from objective CSR (Martinez, Pérez and del Bosque, 2013). Yet it represents an important aspect that practitioners and researchers alike have been trying to understand and measure.

Antecendents

Meso-persective

Consumers' ethical ideologies, Brand-cause functional and image fit, Perceived familiarity with corporate volunteering activities, Corporate credibility, Brand trustworthiness, Brand expertise, Financial performance, Commitment to ethical statements, CSR communication, CSR reporting, Consumers'values, Perceived CSR motives

Micro-perspective

Ethics programs, Participative leadership, Perceived CSR motives, Organisational commitment, Perceived CSR capability, Perceived fit between corporate culture and CSR activities

→

CSR image

→

Consequences

Meso-perspective

Product/Company evaluation, Corporate image, Brand prestige, Brand distinctiveness, Brand attractiveness, C-C identification, Corporate brand credibility, Corporate reputation, Willingness to recommend, Repurchase/Revisit intention, Customer brand preference, Consumer trust, Brand loyalty, Purchase intention, Consumer response to new products; Emotional brand attachment, Corporate ability, Consumer satisfaction, Willingness to pay a premium price

Micro-perspective

Quality of working life, Affective commitment, Organisational citizenship behaviour, Job satisfaction, Pride in membership, Organisational identification, Turnover intentions, Organisational embeddedness, Employee creativity, Employees' compassion, Intrinsic motivation, Meaningful work, Job performance, Employee attachment, Perceived corporate performance, Organisation's ethical climate, CSR engagement, Organisational attractiveness, Organisational cit. behaviour

Fig. 2.3 CSR image: Antecedents and consequences. Author's elaboration (2020).

Its significance is related to the impact it exerts on consumers' and employees' attitudes and behavioural intentions (Singh, 2016). A summary of main antecedents and consequences of CSRI is presented in Fig. 2.3 here above. As the diagram exemplifies, CSRI at the meso-level affects several organisational variables such as brand reputation, purchase intention, consumer satisfaction, loyalty and revisit/repurchase intention (e.g. Stanaland, Lwin and Murphy, 2011; Tian, Wang and Yang, 2011; Pérez and del Bosque, 2013b; Hur, Kim and Woo, 2014; Palihawadana, Oghazi and Liu, 2016; Park, Kim and Kwon, 2017). At the micro-level the main consequences include employees' commitment, job satisfaction and job performance (e.g. Edwards and Kudret, 2017; Gond *et al.*, 2017; Kim *et al.*, 2017). Aside from having a positive impact on employees, CSRI has also been found to act as an effective signal to attract potential candidates (e.g. Turban and Greening, 1997; Jones, Willness and Madey, 2014; Jones, Willness and Heller, 2016; Osburg et al., 2020). As reported by Osburg and colleageus (2020), company ethicality is perceived as particularly important especially for millennials and highly skilled resources.

When looking at both meso and micro streams, it is evident that, whilst a lot has been written about outcomes, more research on antecedents is required, especially at the micro level (Gond *et al.*, 2017). More attention should also be paid to mediators at micro level as highlighted by Jones and colleagues (Jones, Willness and Glavas, 2017). So far, in fact, only the role of a few constructs such as the importance of CSR (ICSR) and socio-environmental consciousness has been investigated (See Turker, 2009; Tsai *et al.*, 2014). It is also important to note that, although Fig. 2.3 considers the main outcomes of positive CSRI, it does not include the effects of negative CSRI. These are, for instance, negative product evaluations (Brown and Dacin, 1997) and negative word-of-mouth (Skarmeas and Leonidou, 2013). Poor CSR associations also have a negative effect on purchase intention (Leonidou and Skarmeas, 2017) and can induce attributions of blame with regard to specific products or in the context of brand crises (Klein and Dawar, 2004). Therefore, stakeholders reward CSR integrity and commitment while, at the same time, punishing corporate hypocrisy (Wagner, Lutz and Weitz, 2009; Jahn and Brühl, 2019).

Aside from the gaps mentioned above, another important limitation that affects CSRI research is the way the construct is measured. There is no unified scale for measuring CSR image at either micro or meso level (Alvarado-Herrera *et al.*, 2017) and different models have been used (Perez and Bosque, 2013; Gond *et al.*, 2017), meaning it is difficult to compare results across different studies (Coles, Fenclova and Dinan, 2013). This shortcoming is linked to the issues mentioned above regarding the conceptualisation and operationalisation of CSR. A few researchers have tried to classify measurement systems and the framework that inform them (e.g. Perez and Bosque, 2013). Results of these attempts are reported in table 2.10.

Generally, we can identify four main approaches at the meso-level and three at the micro-level. At the meso-level, CSRI is measured as a unidimensional or multidimensional construct depending on the focus. When the focus is on testing relationships with other variables, authors tend to choose a unidimensional measurement. When the aim is to explore the concept and/or identify the effect of certain dimensions, a multidimensional level is preferred. In this case, the number and type of dimensions vary according to the framework used. There are three main alternatives: the Carroll's pyramidal model, the Sustainable development model and the stakeholder theory model.

	Framework	**Dimensions**	**References**
		Meso-level	
Unidimensional	Not specified/ Not applied	Not applicable	(Valentine and Fleischman, 2008; Currás-Pérez, Bigné-Alcañiz and Alvarado-Herrera, 2009; Alcañiz, Cáceres and Pérez, 2010; Stanaland, Lwin and Murphy, 2011; Tian, Wang and Yang, 2011; Hur, Kim and Woo, 2014; Plewa *et al.*, 2015; Baskentli *et al.*, 2019; Crespo and Inacio, 2019; Latif, Pérez and Sahibzada, 2020)
Multidimensional	CSR Pyramidal model (Carrol, 1979)	Economic, Legal, Ethical, Philanthropic	(Maignan, 2001; Palihawadana, Oghazi and Liu, 2016; Kim *et al.*, 2017)
Multidimensional	Sustainable development model (UNWCED,1987)	Economic, Environmental, Social	(Martinez, Pérez and del Bosque, 2013; Fatma, Rahman and Khan, 2016; Alvarado-Herrera *et al.*, 2017)
Multidimensional	Stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984)	Shareholders, Customers, Employees, Society, Others	(Öberseder, Schlegelmilch and Murphy, 2013; Perez and Bosque, 2013; Pérez and del Bosque, 2015b)
		Micro-level	
Unidimensional	Not specified	Not applicable	(Schaefer, Terlutter and Diehl, 2020)
Multidimensional	CSR Pyramidal model (Carrol, 1979)	Economic, Legal, Ethical, Philanthropic	(Maignan and Ferrell, 2000; Lee *et al.*, 2012; Park, Kim and Kwon, 2017)
Multidimensional	Stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984)	Social and non-social stakeholders (society/community, employees, supplier, customers, government, environment)	(Turker, 2009b; Öberseder, Schlegelmilch and Murphy, 2013; El Akremi *et al.*, 2018)

Table 2.10 CSRI measurement. Authors'elaboration (2020). Adapted from Perez and Bosque (2013).

Whereas studies generally adopt one of these three models, a few scholars seem to opt for or suggest the integration of dimensions from different models (e.g. Pérez and del Bosque, 2012; Öberseder *et al.*, 2014). Concerning the micro-level, CSRI is studied as a unidimensional or multidimensional construct. Here the focus is on employees' perceptions and the construct is captured using a multidimensional stakeholder approach. As the micro stream is still in development, more studies are needed to improve the CSRI measurement. Since most research investigates employees, special attention should be paid to potential employees, managers and executives (Gond *et al.*, 2017). For the purpose of this study, as explained above, a micro-CSR lens is adopted. As far as the measurement framework is concerned, whilst a stakeholder approach was considered at first, given the complexity of the nation brand and lack of previous research on the topic, dimensions of both Carroll's pyramidal framework and sustainable development model will be taken into consideration for the development of the conceptual framework (See Chapter 4).

To summarise, this section has offered a detailed analysis of CSR and CSRI studies. As Currás-Pérez and colleagues explain "CSR is such a significant attribute of corporate image that is able to mechanically attract" (Currás-Pérez et al., 2009, pp.547-548) consumers and employees alike. The following section will be devoted to nation branding which represents the context of this study. It will offer an overview of the literature and explain how country image and CSR image relate to place brands.

2.4 Nation Branding Studies

A newly emerging area of studies, nation branding represents an important stream within the place branding literature (Kotler, Haider and Rein, 1993; Kotler and Gertner, 2002; Foroudi *et al.*, 2016). The idea of branding a place such as a nation emerged from the integration of different fields (Campelo, 2017): international marketing (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1993, 2002, 2003; Jaffe and Nebenzahl, 2006), public diplomacy (Ham, 2001; Anholt, 2006; Gilboa, 2008) and tourism (Morgan, Pritchard and Pride, 2002) – See section 2.2 – but also national identity (Smith, 1991; Bond, McCrone and Brown, 2003; Dinnie, 2008) and corporate branding (Olins, 2004; Hanna and Rowley, 2008). Although definitions vary (Hao *et al.*, 2019), a nation brand can be defined as "the unique, multi-dimensional blend of elements that provide the nation with culturally grounded differentiation and relevance for all of its target audiences" (Dinnie, 2008, p. 15). Nation branding is therefore a process aimed at managing and monitoring a country's image in order to enhance its reputation among its national and international audience (Fan, 2010). It is worth noting that, although the terms country and nation have slightly different meanings, they will be used interchangeably here (See Fan, 2010 and Campelo, 2017 for an in-depth analysis of their differences).

Despite it being considered an emerging area of research, with its 25 years of activity nation branding is gradually becoming established in the academic literature. When going through these two decades of scholarly work, it is possible to identify four highly researched topics: (1) country image and reputation (2) nation brand personality (3) country brand equity / strength and (4) promotion (Hao *et al.*, 2019). The major scope of each area and a list of selected studies is available in Table 2.11. The concept of country image has been discussed in detail in Section 2.2. Reputation is a closely related construct which is often used as a synonym for image, although the two technically bear some important differences (See Mariutti, 2017). Studies on country reputation are rooted in public relations, corporate communication and public diplomacy literature. These studies aim to measure the construct and understand its impact on the interational audience (Passow, Fehlmann and Grahlow, 2005). Compared to country image, research on reputation is relatively scant and more contributions are warranted. The second area focuses on nation brand personality and has been receiving increasing attention in recent years due to the positive effects personality yields on brand differentiation. Considered as an antecedent of image, the concept derives from Aakers' studies on brand personality and has been applied to places in the context of branding and tourism (Stokburger-Sauer, 2011; Matzler *et al.*, 2016).

Theme	**Definition**	**Scope**	**Selected studies**
Country image and reputation	"A mental network of affective and cognitive associations connected to the country" (Verlegh, 2001, p.25 ; Gotsi, Lopez and Costantine Andriopoulos, 2011)	To measure the impact of country image and country reputation on a number of stakeholders (e.g. consumers, tourists, residents, investors…)	See Section 2.2 for country image For country reputation (Passow, Fehlmann and Grahlow, 2005; Fullerton and Kendrick, 2014; Dimitrova, Korschun and Yotov, 2017; Mariutti, 2017; Ingenhoff *et al.*, 2018)
Nation brand personality	"a set of positive and/or negative human personality traits comprising specific dimensions that internal and external audiences associate to a country name…" (Rojas-Méndez, Murphy and Papadopoulos, 2013, p.1029)	To understand the nature of nation brand personality as antecedent of image; to measure the construct; to analyse the link between nation brand and individual personality	(d'Astous and Boujbel, 2007; Pitt *et al.*, 2007; Stokburger-Sauer, 2011; Kim, Shim and Dinnie, 2013; Rojas-Méndez, Murphy and Papadopoulos, 2013; Rojas-Méndez, Papadopoulos and Alwan, 2015; Matzler *et al.*, 2016)
Country brand equity and brand strength	Top down and bottom-up approaches used to assess the nation brand value from a consumer/investor (brand equity) and a financial viewpoint (brand strength) (Fetscherin, 2010; Hao *et al.*, 2019)	To measure the value of the nation brand	(Anholt, 2005; Fetscherin, 2010; Cromwell, 2011; Bose, Roy and Tiwari, 2016; Dinnie, 2016; Bloom Consulting, 2019; Future Brand, 2019; Rasmussen and Kjærgaard, 2019)
Nation brand promotion	Activities aimed at promoting the nation among the national and international stakeholders	To explore the use of promotional activities and measure their results	(Avraham, 2009, 2018; Dinnie *et al.*, 2010; Kerrigan, Shivanandan and Hede, 2012; Rasmussen and Merkelsen,

			2014; Pamment, Olofsson and Hjorth-Jenssen, 2017; Gupta *et al.*, 2018; Zavattaro and Fay, 2019)

Table 2.11 Nation branding main areas of research. Authors' elaboration (2020). Adapted from Hao et al. (2019).

Research on nation brand value constitutes the third field of studies. These studies can be divided into customer-based brand equity and financial-based brand equity (Fetscherin, 2010). Research in this area has also captured the attention of practitioners leading to the development of different indexes aimed at assessing and comparing the value of nation brands (e.g. Future Brand Country Brand Index, Bloom Consulting Country Brand Ranking, Anholt-Ipsos Nation Brand Index, The Good Country Index…) (Rasmussen and Kjærgaard, 2019). The final stream of research is the most comprehensive and deals with the promotion of the nation brand. Scholars have discussed a variety of issues here starting from the use of integrated marketing communication to public diplomacy and public relations. Articles explore the type of activities used and the effectiveness of promotional campaigns. Special attention is also paid to crisis management in the context of tourism (Avraham and Ketter, 2008; Avraham, 2009, 2018).

Another effective way to organise nation branding literature is by using Anholt's hexagon six dimensions (Anholt, 2005): tourism (e.g. Matzler *et al.*, 2016; Pan, 2019), export (e.g. Ingenhoff *et al.*, 2019), investment & immigration (e.g. Papadopoulos, Hamzaoui-Essoussi and El Banna, 2016), governance (e.g. Frig and Sorsa, 2018), people (e.g. Tatevossian, 2008) and culture & heritage (e.g. Gupta *et al.*, 2018; Murti, 2020). When examining nation branding from this perspective, it is interesting to note that some dimensions (e.g. tourism and export) have attracted more attention than others (e.g. people and investment & immigration) (Papadopoulos, 2004, 2018). Generally we can say that more emphasis has been placed on the external analysis of the nation brand where the focus is on tourists and consumers compared to the internal nation brand where the focus is on residents and migrants (e.g first and second generation immigrants, refugees) (Hao *et al.*, 2019) (RG3 – See Table 1.1). Aside from Anholt's model, used here to synthesise previous research, other important models include Dinnie's ICON model (Dinnie, 2016) and the more recent Steenkamp's nation branding model (Steenkamp, 2019). Although an analysis of these frameworks goes beyond the purpose of this study, it is worth noting their contribution to a field often accused of suffering from theoretical shortcomings.

In addition to the gaps highlighted here above, there are other significant limitations that have hindered the progress of place branding research. During its first years, the idea of applying branding to places was met with heightened criticism (O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy, 2000; Kaneva, 2011; Dinnie, 2016) and while the notion is becoming more accepted in academia and practice (Subramanian, 2017; King, 2018), there are still questions concerning its legitimacy and ethicality (Dinnie, 2016; Zenker, Braun and Petersen, 2017). Some of these issues, particularly regarding legitimacy, touch upon leadership and management: who should be in charge of branding the place? And what (political/economic) reasons lie behind the use of this branding process? (Fona, 2020). These questions have encouraged scholars to develop participatory forms of place branding. However, aside from a few exceptions (e.g. Hakala and Lemmetyinen, 2011) these are applied more frequently at a city and region level. Another relevant challenge concerns the measurement of nation brand value. The above-mentioned indexes have often been criticised for lack of rigour and for promoting the very same idea of nation branding (Rasmussen and Kjærgaard, 2019). Finally, when comparing this emergent literature to the other areas discussed in 2.2 and 2.3 it is evident that nation branding still lacks proper theoretical grounding (Hao *et al.*, 2019). The field is also characterised by a conceptual and qualitative type of research and requires more quantitative contributions. From a methodological viewpoint, concerns have also been raised about poor validity, reliability and generalisability of results (Hao *et al.*, 2019).

By investigating the perceptions of potential residents (highly skilled resources), this study seeks to contribute to one of the areas in place branding literature that still suffers from limited research (See RQ3 – Table 1.1). Leveraging the knowledge gained in international marketing, tourism and management this work also aspires to strengthen the methodological practices observed in the field (See RQ2 – Table 1.1). Following this review of nation branding literature, the next section will integrate the research outlined in 2.2, 2.3 and 2.4 and will introduce the concept of social responsibility image of countries.

2.4.1 Nation Brands and Social Responsibility

In the previous sections we have illustrated the socio-political context that has led to increasing demands for social responsibility initiatives. This, as we have seen, has been accompanied by organisational and institutional responses. One the one hand, organisations have embraced CSR as a strategic tool and implemented CSR reporting and activities, on the other, governmental and inter-governmental bodies have included CSR as a priority issue in their agendas (Albareda, Lozano and Ysa, 2007). Examples of this are the UN Global Compact (United Nations, 2020b) and the CSR Europe’s 2030 Strategy (European Union, 2020). CSR has been found to be very important to boast the competitiveness of corporations and at the same time it has been proven to exert a positive effect on national competitiveness (Boulouta and Pitelis, 2014). As Boulota and Pitelis point out: “CSR-based positioning strategies can be important for national competitiveness and hence should be promoted by national initiatives, especially in countries with weaker innovative records” (Boulouta and Pitelis, 2014, p.360). Despite this, only a few articles have been published on the possibility of adapting a CSR framework to nation branding.

The first studies to introduce the idea of a governmental social responsibility date back to 2010. Scholars and practitioners refer to social responsibility as an element of differentiation in the context of a nation branding strategy (Anholt, 2010; Szondi, 2010; Cozmiuc, 2012; Morgan, 2012;

White and Kolesnicov, 2015). Anholt (2010) uses the analogy of corporate brands underlining how consumers' expectations for the adoption of ethical behaviours and sustainable strategies might soon hold also for nation brands. Recent social movements such as Extinction Rebellion and Friday for Future seem to support Anholt's thesis of a growing interest for environmental and social issues among the public (Harvey, 2019). Before 2010, other authors had expressed a similar thought by pointing at the importance of environmental sustainability and the environmental sustainability index (Dinnie, 2008, 2016). In those years we can also see a growing interest towards forms of sustainable tourism (also called green, alternative, slow) amongst practitioners and marketing and tourism scholars (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003; Dolnicar and Leisch, 2008; Lee, Huang and Yeh, 2010).

These first studies contributed to initiating the discussion regarding a possible beneficial link between CSR and nation branding. Some also claimed that CSR as a framework could foster fruitful collaborations between corporate brands and nation brands (White and Kolesnicov, 2015). However, this research was mostly conceptual and lacked empirical data to substantiate these claims. Moreover, as mentioned in section 1.3, the concept of governmental/country social responsibility was not properly defined, and no specific measurement, framework or theory were suggested (RG1 – See Table 1.1).

Research conducted in more recent years (2015-2020) has moved a few steps forward in this direction. Of interest for this research is Magnusson's and colleagues' study on the interplay between CSR and country image (Magnusson, Westjohn and Zdravkovic, 2015; White and Alkandari, 2019). The article is rooted in the international marketing literature. Findings of the study prove the existence of a positive relationship between CSR and country image. As Magnusson and colleagues explain, "focussing on CSR and promoting positive CSR has benefits for the individual brand and this may, over time, translate into improved overall country image... Hence, governments may consider monitoring CSR behavior of its leading firms and providing incentives to promote positive CSR" (Magnusson, Westjohn and Zdravkovic, 2015, p.678). Another important contribution comes from Su's and Swanson's work on destination social responsibility (DSR) (Su and Swanson, 2017). This and subsequent studies conducted by Su, leverage previous research on CSR in tourism and hospitality. DSR is defined as "a perception by tourists of the social responsibilities being met by the overall destination" (Su and Swanson, 2017, p.310). Research on DSR focuses on measuring the construct and examining its impact on tourists' and residents' environmental social behaviour and subjective well-being (Su and Swanson, 2017; Su, Huang and Huang, 2018; Su, Huang and Pearce, 2018; Su, Swanson and He, 2020). Findings demonstrate the benefits of adopting social responsibility initiatives on both visitors and the local community.

Although these contributions are relevant, their scope and discussion are confined within the areas of international marketing and tourism/destination branding respectively. Leveraging these studies, the current research aims to apply CSR to nation branding and by doing this it focuses on the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC). Based on previous definitions of GRI and CSRI, SRIC is understood here as a mental network of associations connected to a country commitment to contribute to sustainable development by integrating social and environmental imperatives in its behaviour and activities. A socially responsible country, thus, aims to safeguard the physical and psychological wellbeing of the existent society and of future generations comprising its tangible and intangible resources. A positive SRIC could offer several benefits to a country such as increasing its reputation (Dinnie, 2016) and competitiveness (Boulouta and Pitelis, 2014). It could also improve its positioning (Taecharungroj, Muthuta and Boonchaiyapruek, 2019) and attractiveness as a tourism destination and as a place to live. It is this last aspect that will be analysed in the next and final section of this chapter.

2.4.2 Nation Brands and Talent Attraction

According to Klus Schwab, founder of the World Economic Forum: “Talent, not capital, will be the key factor linking innovation, competitiveness and growth in the 21st century” (WEF, 2015). The study of mobility of talents is considered part of the skilled migration literature and is often referred as brain drain, brain gain, brain circulation or talent flow (Al Ariss and Syed, 2010). As “brain drain (or high-skill) migration is becoming a dominant pattern of international migration and a major aspect of globalization” (Docquier and Rapoport, 2012, p.681) numerous fields are investigating the issue (e.g. economics, HRM, politics, international migration). Highly skilled migrants (also called talents or qualified immigrants) not only contribute to the competitive advantage of organisations (Guo and Al Ariss, 2015), they also help countries in the global war for talents (Stuart, Inkson and Thorn, 2005; Beechler and Woodward, 2009; Cerdin, Diné and Brewster, 2014; Sidani and Al Ariss, 2014) advancing their economic development (Schultz, 1992; Docquier and Rapoport, 2012; Crowley-Henry and Al Ariss, 2018) and facilitating human capital accumulation (Maria and Stryszowski, 2009). It is thus crucial for both companies and nations, to understand where and how to source and retain talent (Silvanto, Ryan and McNulty, 2015) in order to encourage a virtuous cycle of brain drain-brain gain and foster the international competitiveness (Beine, Docquier and Rapoport, 2008; Al Ariss and Syed, 2010; Silvanto, Ryan and McNulty, 2015).

To this end, national programs have been developed by some countries willing to attract highly skilled resources (European Commission, 2016). Nations such as Estonia and Ireland represent a relevant example (EU, 2016). More recently marketing and branding strategies have also been adopted in order to enhance the attraction of talents, though the majority of cases are at a city branding level: e.g. “I Amsterdam” (EU, 2016) and Greater Copenhagen (Lubanski, Andersson and King-Grubert, 2016). From an academic perspective the analysis of highly skilled resources has mostly been discussed within the human resources management and migration literature. Their focus has mainly been on understanding the motives behind immigration. Researchers refer in particular to the gain or loss framing (Cerdin, Diné and Brewster, 2014). When examining the host country, talents are attracted by a number of pull factors: cultural, political, economic, personal and family related (Stuart, Inkson and Thorn, 2005; Solimano, 2008; Doherty, Dickmann and Mills, 2011; Cerdin, Diné and Brewster, 2014). From a home country perspective, instead, motivations are mainly linked to economic or political aspects such as insecurity, lack of social justice, poor working conditions, stressful or difficult work environment... (push factors) (Carr, Kerr Inkson and Thorn, 2005; Cerdin, Diné and Brewster, 2014). From an organisational viewpoint highly skilled are attracted amongst other things (e.g. financial incentives) by intangible benefits that can help them satisfy their self-definitional needs. Embracing and promoting corporate social responsibility activities can therefore help companies to improve their attractiveness towards talents as supported by previous studies (Kim and Scullion, 2011; Vaiman, Scullion and Collings, 2012; Jones, Willness and Madey, 2014; Story, Castanheira and Hartig, 2016; Crowley-Henry and Al Ariss, 2018).

When looking at nation branding literature on talent attraction, as mentioned above, only a few studies have been published so far. This is surprising given the significance highly skilled migrants play in the future economy of countries. Previous studies have investigated the drivers of talent attraction (Silvanto and Ryan, 2014, 2018; Silvanto, Ryan and McNulty, 2015) and the impact of country image on intention to migrate (Nadeau and Olafsen, 2015). The study by Nadeau and Olafsen (2015) is particularly important for this project. The authors find that country image has a positive impact on country evalutation and intention to migrate. However, their work focuses on general beliefs of country and its people and country as a destination. Given the positive impact CSR image exerts on talent attraction in the corporate arena, this research hypothesises SRIC might exert a similar impact in the context of nation brands and therefore social responsibility initiatives could be used to attract the brightest. As Silvanto and colleagues (2015) highlight "branding strategies need to be based on practical, instrumental and symbolic appeals that resonate with highly-educated people interested in relocating to a new country" (Silvanto, Ryan and McNulty, 2015, p. 56) (Lievens and Highhouse, 2003; WEF, 2015; Silvanto and Ryan, 2014). SRIC represents an interesting "opportunity for the private sector and governments to work together" (Nadeau and Olafsen, 2015; p. 294) to attract skilled employees and retain talents. This project aims to focus on this very aspect and by doing so it hopes to contribute to an emerging area of research (RG1 and RG3 – See Table 1.1).

Given the scant research and the limitations identified in the area of nation branding and skilled migration, this work relies on past studies published in marketing, tourism, CSR, HRM and migration studies focusing on corporate brand/destination brand /employer brand attractiveness, identification and intention to travel/migrate/apply for a job vacancy. The concept of attractiveness is often studied in marketing (e.g. brand awareness), tourism (e.g. destination attractiveness), HRM (e.g. employer brand attractinveness, organisational attractiveness) and migration and urban studies (e.g. country/place/city attractiveness) (e.g. Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Currás-Pérez, Bigné-Alcañiz and Alvarado-Herrera, 2009; De Noni et al., 2014; Xie, Bagozzi and Meland, 2015; Lee, 2016; Elbedweihy *et al.*, 2016; Reitsamer, Brunner-Sperdin and Stokburger-Sauer, 2016; So *et al.*, 2017; Wesselmann, 2019; Balmer, Mahmoud and Chen, 2020). According to marketing research, brand attractiveness represents the positive evaluation of the corporate brand identity that helps consumers to satisfy their self-definitional needs (i.e. coherence, prestige and distinctiveness) (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Currás-Pérez, Bigné-Alcañiz and Alvarado-Herrera, 2009). Based on social identity theory, brand attractiveness is known to work as an antecedent of consumer-company and employee-company identification (Currás-Pérez, Bigné-Alcañiz and Alvarado-Herrera, 2009). Tourism literature, instead, describes "the attractiveness of a destination as one that reflects the feelings, beliefs, images, and opinions that individuals have about the perceived capacity of a destination to provide satisfaction" (Hu and Ritchie, 1993; Um, Chon and Ro, 2006, p. 1146; Wang *et al.*, 2019). Destination attractiveness contributes to place brand competitiveness by exerting a significant impact on satisfaction and revisit intention (Um, Chon and Ro, 2006), tourists' attitudes and destination attachment (Reitsamer, Brunner-Sperdin and Stokburger-Sauer, 2016). Rooted in HRM literature organisational/employer brand attractiveness is intended as "the degree to which a person favorably perceives an organization as a place to work" (Gomes and Neves, p. 687). It is proven to contribute to a company competitiveness by affecting the intention to apply for a job vacancy (Roberson, Collins and Oreg, 2005; Saini, Rai and Chaudhary, 2014; van Prooijen and Ellerms, 2015). Stemming from these studies, nation brand attractiveness (NBA) can be defined as a drawing force generated by the extent to which a country is considered favourable, distinctive and enables stakeholders (e.g. skilled migrants) to satisfy their self-definitional needs. A strong NBA influences skilled migrants to prefer one country to another based on an evaluation of tangible and intangible aspects (Lee, 2016). This is line with Nadeau's and Olafsen's study (2015) on nation branding and talent attraction. The authors used destination and country-employer attractiveness to study the migration intentions of skilled workers. For these reasons, NBA represents a key construct in this study.

Closely linked to attractiveness is the concept of brand identification. This construct often appears in studies investigating corporate brand/employer brand attractiveness as well as CSR image. Rooted in social identity theory (SIT) (Tajfel and Turner, 1979) (See section 3.3), identification refers to the "cognitive state of connection and proximity of the consumer to a company, generated through a subjective process of comparison between the individual's own personal identity and that of the organisation" (Currás-Pérez, Bigné-Alcañiz and Alvarado-Herrera, 2009,

p. 547). Previous studies have found that consumer-company (C-C) identification is affected by CSR image, brand attractiveness, brand–self similarity, brand distinctiveness, brand social benefits, brand warmth and memorable brand experiences and that it exerts a significant influence on a number of relevant behavioural outcomes such as willingness to recommend, repurchase behaviour, brand attitude, purchase intention and emotions (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Currás-Pérez, Bigné-Alcaňiz and Alvarado-Herrera, 2009; Stokburger-Sauer, Ratneshwar and Sen, 2010; Pérez and del Bosque, 2013; 2015a 2017; So et al., 2017, 2018). Similarly, HRM scholars have found organisational identification to play a significant role as a framework to understand employees' behaviours and attitudes (Mostafa *et al.*, 2019). Employees that identify with their organisation show higher levels of motivation, commitment and satisfaction and are more likely to demonstrate positive organisational citizenship behaviours and customer orientation (Farrell and Oczkowski, 2012; Wilkins, Butt and Annabi, 2018). Organisational identification also affects employees attractiveness, intention to apply for a job and retention and is negatively associated with intention to quit (Kim and Park, 2010; Wilkins, Butt and Annabi, 2018; Mostafa et al., 2019). This is in line with both social identity theory (SIT) mentioned earlier and Schneider's attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) theory (Choi, Park and Sohn, 2015- See Section 3.3). More recently the concept of identification has been applied to tourism and place branding literature (e.g. Stokburger-Sauer, 2011; Hultman *et al*., 2015 Kumar and Kaushik, 2017; Zenker, Braun and Petersen, 2017). Stokburger-Sauer defines nation brand identification as the "perception of belongingness to the nation brand, and thus, experiencing the nation brand's successes and failures" (Stokburger-Sauer, 2011, p. 1283). Similarly, Kumar and Kaushik conceptualise destination brand identification as follows: "a tourist's psychological state of perceiving, feeling, and valuing his or her belongingness with a destination" (Kumar and Kaushik, 2017, p. 2149). A strong identification between tourists and a destination has a positive impact on destination trust, loyalty, advocacy, visit and re-vist intentions and word-of-mouth (Stokburger-Sauer, 2011; Hultman *et al.,* 2015; Kumar and Kaushik, 2018). Moreover, as demonstrated by Su and Swanson (2017), identification works as a powerful mediator between destination social responsibility and tourists' pro-environmental behaviours.

To summarise, hence, attractiveness and identification represent two important constructs that could be applied to a nation branding context. Most importantly, past literature shows that both attractiveness and identification are affected by CSR image and they exert an influence on a number of significant behavioural outcomes such as the intention to apply for a job vancancy (IAJV) (Saini, Rai and Chaudhary, 2014; van Prooijen and Ellerms, 2015). IAJV is a known construct in HRM literature and refers to intentions that move beyond the passivity of company attractiveness and imply further action. Aside from attractiveness and identification, a number of factors contribute to IAJV either directly or indirectly. Amongst others we find two important constructs we have mentioned before: corporate image, (Saini, Rai and Chaudhary, 2014; Wei,

2016) and CSR image (Tsai et al., 2014). When looking at the link between CSR image, attractiveness and intention to apply for a job vacancy in more detail, demographics of potential employees (e.g. age and gender) are found to influence perceptions of CSR attractiveness (Davies *et al.,* 2018; Carlini et al., 2019). More research, on the other hand, is needed on the "role of individual psychographic attributes (e.g. individual's ethical values and beliefs)" (Carlini *et al.,* 2019, p. 200 – See also section 2.3.4). Constructs such as the importance of CSR (ICSR) and social-responsibility consciousness are the only few moderators that have been studied in past micro-CSR research, but results are conflictual regarding their effect which seems to change based on the type of CSR dimension considered (e.g. Turker, 2009; Tsai *et al.,* 2014). When a significant effect was found, the two helped to strengthen the relationships between CSR image and organisational commitment (the first) and intention to apply for a job (the second). This makes them two interesting factors that should be investigated in more depth in the context of employer CSR brand process but could also prove interesting in our context.

A final aspect that should be taken into consideration when studying attitudes and behavioural intentions towards a country as a place to work is the level of familiarity. As already highlighted by Nadeau and Olafsen (2015) low familiarity can represent a challenge when trying to recruit skilled workers. Familiarity is a well-known construct deemed very useful to understand tourists, employees and consumers behaviours (Tan and Wu, 2016). It refers to the level of knowledge and experience a consumer/tourist/potential employee have of a given brand. For instance, Casali and colleagues define destination brand familiarity "as one's 'ability to describe or even map a place based on images, memories and perceptions of locations, size, distance, physical attributes and site experiences (Hammitt et al., 2009, p. 25)" (Casali *et al.,* 2021, p. 152). Destination familiarity can be operationalised as a single item, multiple item or multiple dimensions construct (Tan and Wu, 2016): as the sum of informational familiarity, experiential familiarity (Chen *et al.*, 2017) and self-described familiarity (Chaulagain, Wiiatala and Fu, 2019). Past researchers have treated it as a variable, as a moderator or as a context. Its importance derives from the level of influence it exerts on place image (Stylidis et al., 2020) and its proven direct/ moderated effect on attitudes and intentions towards a place (e.g. visit/revisit intentions) (Chaulagain, Wiiatala and Fu, 2019). In organisational and HRM studies, employer brand familiarity expresses "the level of awareness that a job seeker has of an organization, as influenced by greater information exposure" (Theurer *et al.,* 2018, p. 162). It is a determinant of employer image and reputation and plays an important role in attracting potential candidates due to its direct/indirect effect on employer attractiveness and intention to apply for a job (IAJV) (Lievens *et al*. 2005; Turban 2001; Nadeau and Olafsen, 2015; Theurer *et al.,* 2018) "with more familiar organisations being perceived as more attractive" (Saini et al., 2014, p. 98). For the purpose of this study, nation brand familiarity (NBF) is conceived as the level of knowledge and experience of a certain country that influence travel intentions. Controlling for the level of familiarity should provide us with a better understanding of the relationship skilled workers have with the stimuli countries.

To conclude, to analyse SRIC and its impact on talent attraction this study leverages constructs that have long been studied by international marketing, CSR, HRM and migration studies researchers (nation brand attractiveness, identification, familiarity and intention to apply for a job/study) and applies them to a nation branding context. This represents a significant contribution to place branding literature and specifically to the area of country image and skilled migration that still lacks solid theoretical research (Papadopoulos *et al.*, 2018 – RG3 See Table 1.1).

2.5 Summary

This chapter has explored the literature at the heart of this study and has provided relevant justifications for the analysis of a new and emerging concept: the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC). In order to develop SRIC, country image and CSR image literature have been examined. The two concepts have been analysed in the light of different theoretical approaches and special attention has been paid to their conceptualisation and operationalisation. Country image and CSR image have then been examined in the context of the place branding literature. Image and reputation represent one of the most researched topics in nation branding. However, as it has been noted by previous authors, the majority of studies focuses on consumers and tourists and limited research is devoted to other key nation brand stakeholders such as industrial buyers and investors, international students and highly skilled resources. In addition, compared to other fields in business and management research, place branding has been found to lack a solid theoretical background and rely on scant empirical research. Compared to image, CSR has received less attention by place branding researchers. Although a few studies have tried to introduce the idea of a governmental and a destination social responsibility their contribution remains theoretical or limited to tourism. In the light of these shortcomings and based on the findings of previous research, the present study aims to develop a scale for the social responsibility image of countries and examine its impact on the attractiveness of highly skilled resources. It aims to do so by leveraging theories and methods adopted by marketing scholars, thus contributing to strengthen the theoretical and empirical foundations of place branding research.

The following chapter will present the conceptual framework which includes the social responsibility image of countries dimensions and consequences. The model will guide the researcher through the next steps of the research journey.

Chapter 3

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

The aim of this third chapter is to present the conceptual framework and research hypotheses based on the above literature review. The first section of this chapter explains the process undergone in order to develop the framework. In the first part, the author justifies the choice of the measurement model. Then the design of the framework and choice of the hypotheses are discussed in the light of previous studies. The model adopts three well-known theories. These are explained in section 3.5. The chapter ends with the analysis of the main constructs and related measures.

3.2 The Development of the Conceptual Framework

This section will explain the process undertaken to develop the conceptual framework starting with the choice of the measurement model. It will then provide an overview of the models taken into consideration as baselines for the research model of this study.

3.2.1 The Choice of the Measurement Model

One of the first choices that a researcher needs to make in the elaboration of a conceptual framework concerns the type of measurament model (Sajtos and Magyar, 2016). There are three main typologies of measurement model currently used in marketing research: formative, MIMIC and reflective (Jarvis, MacKenzie and Podsakoff, 2003). Each of these combines specific characteristics.

Initially a MIMIC model was considered for this research. However, according to Jarvis and colleagues (2003), there are several issues associated with the modelling of MIMC/formative indicator constructs that the researcher cannot neglect. Poor guidance is provided regarding how to specify formative measurement constructs in latent variable structural equation models. Moreover "journal reviewers demand high internal consistency between measures and unidimensionality as a condition for acceptance and publication of latent variable research" (Jarvis, MacKenzie and Podsakoff, 2003, p. 213). Reflective models ensure this high consistency and are therefore predominant in social research. A review of quantitative studies conducted on GCI and CSRI also revealed a predominance of reflective models and the use of a scale development approach in order to capture the multidimensional nature of the constructs (e.g. Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Perez and Bosque, 2013; Alvarado-Herrera *et al.*, 2017). The researcher also noted a preference for multi-item constructs in all the studies taken into consideration. Multi-item constructs, in fact, are generally preferred to single-items especially when the researcher aims to adopt a CB-SEM approach (Hair *et al.*, 2018). Based on this analysis of relevant literature, a reflective multi-item measurement model has been preferred for this study.

3.2.2 The Models of Reference

The research model adopted in this study has been developed in the light of CSRI and GCI models and related CSR frameworks published in high quality marketing and branding journals (3*/4* ABS Journal List Guide). These are presented here below.

First, concerning the measurement of SRIC, given the scope of the study and in line with previous literature (See Section 2.3.4) a multidimensional approach (Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009; Perez and del Bosque, 2013; Costa, Carneiro and Goldszmidt, 2016; Alvarado-Herrera *et al.*, 2017) (e.g. Perez and del Bosque, 2013; Alvarado-Herrera *et al.*, 2017) has been preferred to the unidimensional (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001; Pérez-Currás, 2009; Tian, Wang and Yang, 2011; Plewa *et al.*, 2015). Among the three theoretical frameworks used to measure CSRI (Carrol's pyramidal model, sustainable development theory and the stakeholder theory), the pyramidal model (See Fig. 3.1) (Saeidi *et al.*, 2015; Carroll, 2016) and the sustainable development model (See Fig. 3.2 and 3.3) (van Marrewijk, 2003; Adams, 2006; Martinez, Pérez and del Bosque, 2013; Alvarado-Herrera *et al.*, 2017) are considered here. The reasons for considering both derives from the lack of previous research investigating CSR at place branding level (please note that DSR articles were published after data collection and could not be used as reference for this stage) and the complexity of the nation branding context. Following past studies, SRIC is operationalised as second-order construct comprising the following dimensions: environmental, economic, social, political and ethical (See Fig 3.6).

Fig. 3.1 Carrol's pyramidal model (Carroll, 2016)

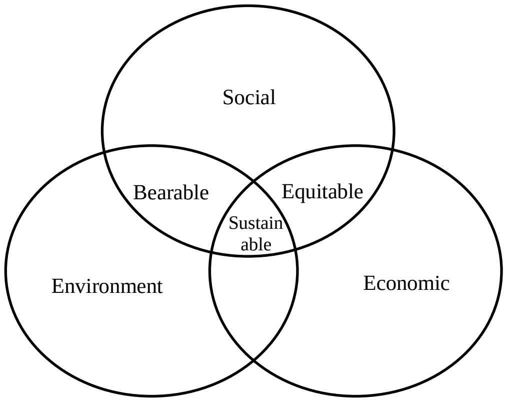


Fig 3.2. IUCN Venn diagram of Sustainable Development (Adams, 2006).

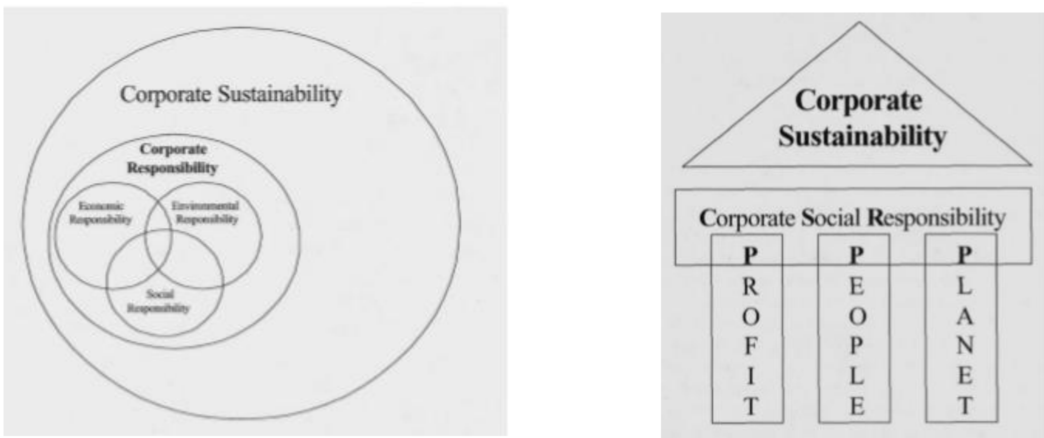


Fig 3.3 CSR-CS models (van Marrewijk, 2003).

The rest of the research framework has been modeled around previous CSRI studies. Of particular interest for this project is Perez's and Del Bosque's article. In their 2013 study, Pérez and Del Bosque followed a scale development process in order to measure CSRI conceptualized as a multi-dimensional second-order construct. The authors subsequently validated the scale by using the following reflective model:

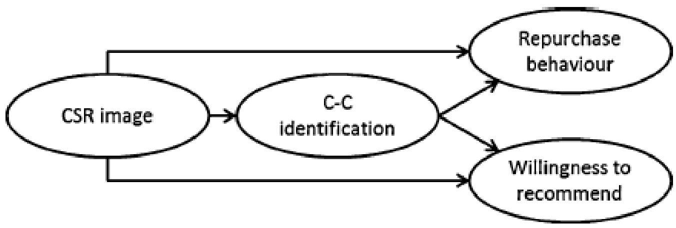


Fig. 3.4 The model tested by Perez and Del Bosque in 2013 (Perez and Del Bosque, 2013b).

Similarly, the first objective of this study is the development of a new scale for SRIC. In order to confirm the validity of the scale, in the second part of the study, the author aims to use a reflective model which will be tested by using a CB-SEM approach (Pérez and Del Bosque, 2013b).

Other studies and models that have been taken into consideration for this research include Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) and Currás-Pérez, Bigné-Alcañiz and Alvarado-Herrera (2009) (See Fig 3.5). These models have been used to identify the remaining variables (e.g. brand attractiveness, C-C identification and intention), support the research hypotheses and identify relevant theories (e.g. social identity theory).

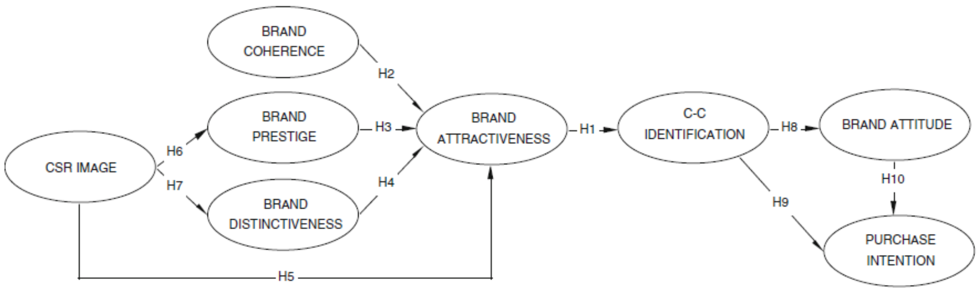


Fig. 3.5. The model tested by Curràs-Pérez et al. in 2009 (Currás-Pérez, Bigné-Alcañiz and Alvarado-Herrera, 2009).

These variables and related hypotheses will be explained in more detail in sections 3.4 and 3.5. Before moving on to these, in the next section, we will introduce the theories that support the present study.

3.3 The Theories Adopted

The conceptual framework presented in section 3.5 is supported by three main theories:

Associative Network Theory (ANT) – This theory explains how human learning and memory operate (Lee, Lockshin and Greenacre, 2016). It is rooted in philosophy and cognitive psychology and has been extensively used in marketing and consumer behaviour studies. According to ANT, the mind is composed of an interlinked network of nodes or associations (Collins and Loftus, 1975; Wickelgren, 1981; Mitchell, 1982; Anderson, 1983). These networks are used to categorise and store information. The theory has been used by previous researchers to define country image as consisting of nodes linked together in the consumers' memory with regard to a specific nation (Verlegh, 2001; Gotsi, Lopez and Andriopoulos, 2011; Lopez, Gotsi and Andriopoulos, 2011; Lopez and Balabanis, 2019). ANT has later been adopted by Lee and colleagues (Lee, Lockshin and Greenacre, 2016) to explain the process of country image formation and more recently by Lopez and Balabanis (2020). Following previous studies ANT is used here to understand GCI and SRIC formation and support SRIC conceptualisation.

Social Identity Theory (SIT) - SIT was developed by Tajfel and Turner (1986). The theory establishes that by "articulating their sense of self, people typically go beyond their personal identity to develop a social identity" (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003, p.73). This theory has been applied to marketing (C-C identification) tourism (destination/nation brand identification/embeddedness) and human resources management (organisational identification) (Hameed *et al.*, 2016; Kumar and Kaushik, 2017; Jones *et al.*, 2019). Specifically, literature supports that the identification of consumers/employees with an organization/brand can lead to positive behavioural outcomes (Mael and Ashforth, 1992; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Elbedweihy *et al.*, 2016). For instance, identification can mediate the relationship between CSR-brand attitude and purchase intention (Currás-Pérez, Bigné-Alcañiz and Alvarado-Herrera, 2009) and CSR and job satisfaction (de Roeck *et al.*, 2014). When applied to tourism, nation branding identification (NBI) refers to "the perception of belongingness to the nation brand" (Stokburger-Sauer, 2011, p. 1283). Following previous studies NBI is considered here as a mediator linking SRIC to behavioural intentions (Currás-Pérez, Bigné-Alcañiz and Alvarado-Herrera, 2009).

Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ASA) - This theory derives from interactional and person-environment fit literature. It has been used in human resources literature to explain how people join and leave an organisation. Its development is due to the seminal work of Benjamin Schneider (Schneider, 1987) and colleagues (Schneider, Goldstiein and Smith, 1995). Specifically, regarding the attraction process, this theory asserts that "people's preferences for particular organizations are based upon an implicit estimate of the congruence of their own personal characteristics and the attributes of potential work organizations" (Schneider, Goldstiein and Smith, 1995, p.749). Similarly, attrition refers to the idea that people that do not feel they fit within the company are more likely to leave. This theory completes and complements the social identity theory explained above: "employees are attracted to, selected, and leave a company based on their personality and value match to others in the organization" (Turner *et al.*, 2019, p. 129). ASA is used here to shed light on the process of attractiveness and retention of highly skilled resources.

3.4 The Research Hypotheses

Based on the conceptual framework and theories presented above, this section will introduce and discuss the research hypotheses of this study:

H1: Social responsibility image (SRIC) has a direct positive influence on nation brand identification (NBI)

The concept of nation brand identification (NBI) is rooted in social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner, 1986) and is strictly connected to consumer-company (C-C) identification (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Deng and Xu, 2017), organisational identification (Bhattacharya, Rao and Glynn, 1995; Kumar and Kaushik, 2018) and consumer-brand (C-B) identification (Kim, Han and Park, 2001; Tuskej, Golob and Podnar, 2013; Elbedweihy *et al.*, 2016; So *et al.*, 2017) (See Section 2.4.2, pp. 64-65). The positive link between CSR perceptions and C-C identification is confirmed by several articles (Lichtenstein *et al.*, 2004; Maignan and Ferrell, 2004; Currás-Pérez, Bigné-Alcañiz and Alvarado-Herrera, 2009; Deng and Xu, 2017; Su and Swanson, 2017). Identification in place/destination branding has also been studied recently by a few authors (Stokburger-Sauer, 2011; Su and Swanson, 2017; Zenker, Braun and Petersen, 2017; Kumar and Kaushik, 2018). Stokburger-Sauer (2011) defines NBI as the "perception of belongingness to the nation brand, and thus, experience of the nation brand's successes and failures" (Stokburger-Sauer, 2011, p. 1283). NBI refers to the active, selective, and volitional identification of individuals (residents/tourists) with the country. This helps them to satisfy one or more key self-definitional needs. Zenker and colleagues studying the effects of brand complexity and identification for residents and visitors, define identification as the process of "creating a meaningful connection between the self and the target of identification", in our case, the country (Zenker, Braun and Petersen, 2017, p.17). According to Su's and Swanson's study (2017) destination social responsibility exerts a positive effect on tourist-destination identification. Based on these previous findings, we posit that SRIC has a positive direct effect on NBI.

H2: **Social responsibility image (SRIC) has a direct positive influence on nation brand attractiveness (NBA)**

Nation brand attractiveness (NBA) stems from international business (e.g. customer attractiveness, organizational and employer brand attractiveness), tourism (destination attractiveness) and migration studies (country attractiveness). Nation brand attractiveness indicates a drawing force generated by the extent to which a country is considered favourable, distinctive and enables stakeholders to satisfy their self-definitional needs (Kaur, 1981; Kim, Han and Park, 2001; Sophonsiri and Polyorat, 2009; Lee, 2016) (See Section 2.4.2, pp. 63-64). A strong NBA influences stakeholders to prefer one nation brand to others thanks to the appeal of its intangible and tangible characteristics (e.g. economic, social, cultural and environmental) (Lee, 2016). As highlighted by Pérez-Curras et al. (2009) several studies have demonstrated that CSR image has a positive and direct influence (without the action of intermediate variables) on brand attractiveness (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001; Marin and Ruiz, 2007). The relationship is supported also by Turban and Greening (Turban and Greening, 1997; Greening and Turban, 2000), according to whom the organization's corporate social performance is related to its attractiveness as an employer and its reputation. They prove, indeed, that "firms with positive, rather than negative, CSP would have better reputations and would be seen as more attractive employers because potential applicants would expect to have more positive self-concepts when they worked for them" (Turban and Greening, 1997, p.667). The idea of self-concepts is directly linked to the self-definitional needs and the construct of identification explained above. More recent studies have highlighted the role of CSR as one of the main factors influencing organizational attractiveness (van Prooijen and Ellemers, 2015) especially for young generations (Catano and Morrow Hines, 2016). Following this line of thought, SRIC is hypothesised here to exert a positive and direct effect on nation brand attractiveness.

H3: Nation brand attractiveness (NBA) mediates the relationship between social responsibility image (SRIC) and nation brand identification (NBI)

Previous studies demonstrate that identification is strictly related to attractiveness (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Currás-Pérez, Bigné-Alcañiz and Alvarado-Herrera, 2009; So *et al.*, 2017). This is because when consumers/tourists/employees perceive a brand as attractive they are more likely to identify with it (Elbedweihy *et al.*, 2016; So *et al.*, 2017). Moreover, both constructs enable stakeholders to satisfy key self-definitional needs (Currás-Pérez et al., 2009). Therefore, leveraging previous studies, nation brand attractiveness (NBA) is posited to exert a positive effect on nation brand identification (NBI) and mediate the relationship between the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC) and nation brand identitfication (NBI).

H4: Nation brand attractiveness (NBA) mediates the relationship between the social responsibility image (SRIC) and the intention to apply for a job/study (IAJV)

Conceived as thoughts about an institution that specifically imply further action, "intentions move beyond the passivity of company attractiveness to involve active pursuit of a job" (Highhouse, Lievens and Sinar, 2003, p. 989) (See Section 2.4.2, p. 65). The positive relationship between attractiveness and intention to apply for a job vacancy is proved by Roberson and colleagues (Roberson, Collins and Oreg, 2005), Gomes and Neves (Gomes and Neves, 2011) and more recently by van Prooijen and Ellemers and Saini et al. (Saini, Rai and Chaudhary, 2014; van Prooijen and Ellemers, 2015). Further support to this relationship comes from Yu's and Cable's model of the four stages of recruitment and recruitment outcomes (Cable and Yu, 2013), based on Saks' dual stage model of the recruitment process (Sacks, 2005). In the first three stages (application, interaction and job offer), the link job/organisation attractiveness intention-decision becomes manifest. Since, as we have argued earlier, nation brand attractiveness (NBA) is a consequence of the social responsibility image (SRIC), NBA represents the perfect mediator between SRIC and intention to apply for a job/study (IAJV).

H5: Nation brand identification (NBI) mediates the relationship between the social responsibility image (SRIC) and the intention to apply for a job/ for study (IAJV)

According to previous studies there is a strong relationship between nation brand identification (NBI) and intention to apply for a job (IAJV). Specifically, Kim and Park (2011) provide evidence of a high correlation between the two and demonstrate the importance of person-organisation fit or identification as mediator between CSR perceptions and intention to apply. Therefore, NBI mediates the relationship between SRIC and IAJV.

H6: The importance of CSR (ICSR) moderates the relationship between the social responsibility image (SRIC) and nation brand identification (NBI)

The importance of CRS (ICSR) refers to the role and importance that social responsibility plays in the stakeholders' minds (See Sections 2.3.4, p. 55 and Section 2.4.3, p. 66). This construct derives from the perceived role of ethics and social responsibility (PRESOR) initially developed to measure managers' perceptions of the role of ethics and social responsibility. It has been subsequently tested and used by other scholars such as Singhapakdi (1995) and Turker (2009) (Vitell, Singhapakdi and Thomas, 2001; Turker, 2009b). This construct can be considered as a good proxy for ethical beliefs and easy to operationalise. Testing the role that ethics and CSR play in the life of the respondents could help to explain the level of identification with a socially responsibile nation brand. In other words, the higher the importance given to ethics and CSR, the more the individual will identify with a country with a high SRIC. Therefore, ICSR moderates the relationship between SRIC and NBI.

H7: Nation brand familiarity (NBF) moderates the relationship between the social responsibility image (SRIC) and nation brand identification (NBI) and between the social responsibility image (SRIC) and nation brand attractiveness (NBA)

The concept of brand familiarity has been studied in several fields of marketing and tourism such as employer branding, destination marketing and branding (See Section 2.4.2, p. 66). In the tourism and destination marketing literature, familiarity is often used as moderator and refers to the level of knowledge and experience gained regarding a place (Tan and Wu, 2016; Fullerton, Kendrick and Broyles, 2019; Stylidis *et al.*, 2020). It can be operationalised as "the sum of informational familiarity (the degree to which a person has been exposed to information related to the place) and experiential familiarity (the number of visits to a destination)" (Horng *et al.*, 2012; Chen et al. 2017, p. 4). It ultimately affects attitudes and intentions towards the place (e.g. intention to visit/revisit) (Fullerton, Kendrick and Broyles, 2019). Similarly, according to Lievens et al. (2005) employer familiarity constitutes the employer knowledge in terms of reputation and image and it represents a predictor of employer attractiveness (Lievens, Hoye and Schreurs, 2005). More familiar companies are indeed perceived as more attractive (Turban and Greening, 1997; Turban, 2001). In marketing studies, familiarity and awareness are important anchors to which information is attached (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993; Lievens, Hoye and Schreurs, 2005). In this context nation brand familiarity (NBF) is conceived as the level of knowledge and experience of a certain place/destination that can influence travel intentions. The author posits that familiarity can influence the relationship between SRIC and NBI and SRIC and NBA since a better familiarity with the country will increase the possibility and level of identification or misidentification and the level of attractiveness with consequential positive attitudes and intentions towards the nation brand.

H8c-9c: Corporate image (CI) moderates the relationship between nation brand identification (NBI), nation brand attractiveness (NBA) and the intention to apply for a job/ study (IAJV)

Corporate image refers to a mental network of affective and cognitive associations connected to an organisation (Bernstein, 1984; Keller, 1993; Dowling, 1994; Van Riel, 1995; Gotsi, Lopez and Andriopoulos, 2011) (See Section 2.2.3, p. 38 and Section 2.4, p. 57). According to previous research, corporate image represents a critical organisational factor in recruitment success (Collins and Stevens, 2002; Chapman *et al.*, 2005; Tsai and Yang, 2010; Van Hoye *et al.*, 2013) of employees such as academic staff for instance, but also of prospective students (Wilkins and Huisman, 2011; 2013). Moreover, corporate image has a strong reciprocal relationship with country image (Gotsi, Lopez and Andriopoulos, 2011; Lopez, Gotsi and Andriopoulos, 2011). In this nation branding context, thus, its role is to moderate the decision towards the intention to apply for a job or study in a new country that has a positive and strong social responsibility image.

H8d-9d: Control variables moderate the relationship between nation brand identification (NBI), nation brand attractiveness (NBA) and the intention to apply for a job/study (IAJV)

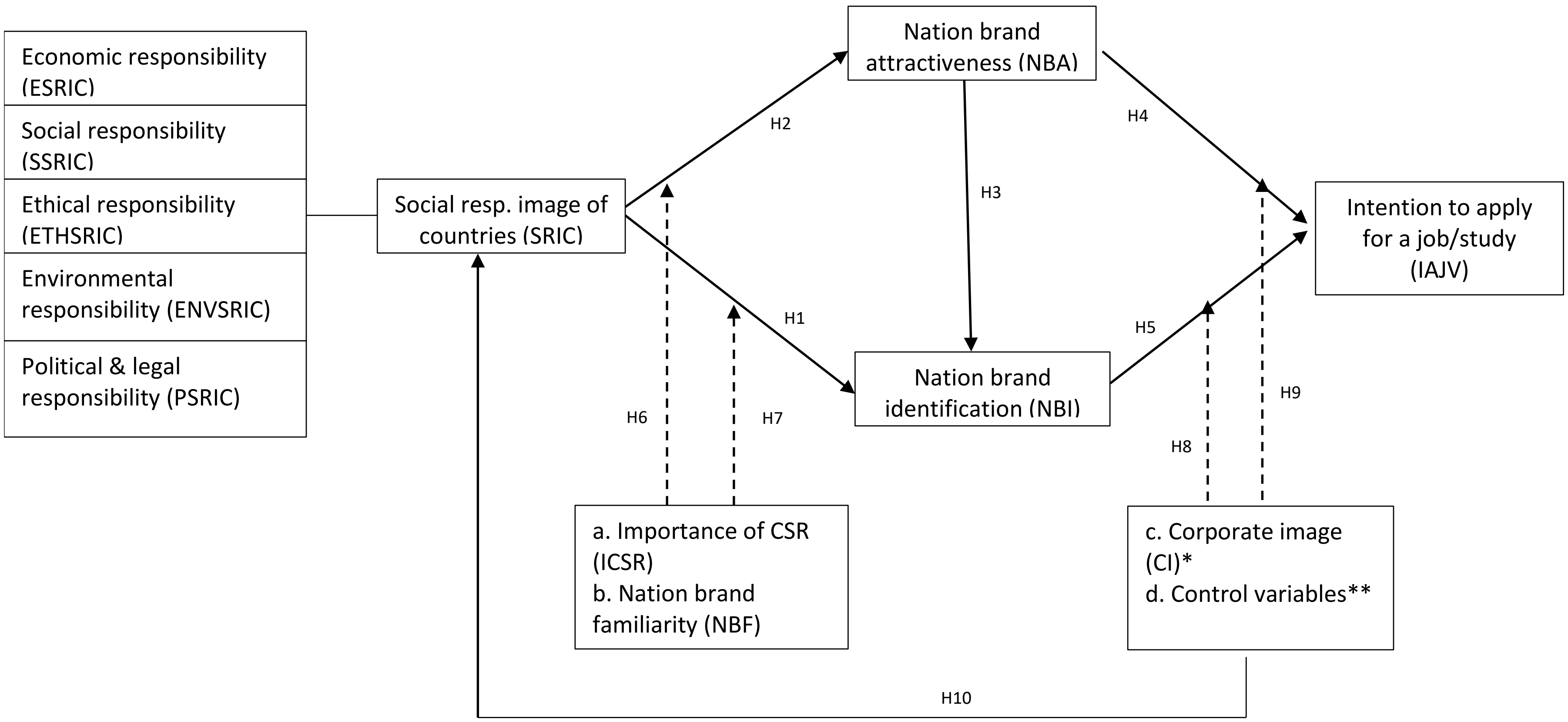
In addition to corporate image, two other control variables are considered here: employment status and country of residence. As the study focuses on highly skilled resources in higher education both students and academic staff will be included in the study. Due to differences in terms of age, professional development and prospects we are interested in examining whether there are similiarities or differences regarding their intention to apply for a job/study. Moreover, as data will be collected in both Italy and the United Kingdom, we want to explore whether the countries chosen as stimuli exert the same impact on both Italy and the UK.

H10: Corporate image (CI) exerts a positive direct influence on the social responsibility image (SRIC)

By adopting the associative network theory, Lopez et al. (2011) hypothesised the presence of a reciprocal relationship between corporate image and country image (Lopez, Gotsi and Andriopoulos, 2011) (See Section 2.2.3, p. 38 and Section 2.4, p. 57). The authors encouraged researchers to test this feedback-loop across different companies and countries (e.g. Hynes *et al.*, 2014). Following previous studies on country image and CSR, it is possible to suggest that a similar reciprocal influence might occur between SRIC, which represents a part of the overall country image (GCI), and corporate image (Magnusson, Westjohn and Zdravkovic, 2015; White and Alkandari, 2019). Nevertheless, since it is difficult to test the bi-directionality of a relationship in a CB-SEM model, the author limits the analysis to the effect corporate image might exert on SRIC.

3.5 The Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework presented here below (Fig. 3.6.) is a multi-item reflective model with SRIC being a reflective second-order construct. As per research questions presented in chapter 1, the first aim of this model is the measurement of SRIC through the development of a multidimensional scale. This is reflected in the first part of the model (on the left-hand side) including SRIC and its sub-dimensions. The second main objective is to assess the reliability and validity of the newly developed scale and test its impact on nation brand attractiveness (NBA), nation brand identification (NBI) and intention to study/apply for a job vacancy (IAJV). The model also includes three moderators (importance of CSR (ICSR), nation brand familiarity (NBI), corporate image (CI)) and two control variables (employment status and country of residence).



* Only corporate image is hypothesised to have a positive effect on SRIC
**Control variables include employment status and country of residence

Fig. 3.6 The conceptual framework. Author's elaboration (2016).

3.6 Summary

This chapter has presented the research framework and provided justifications for the choice of the measurament model and the research hypotheses. After careful consideration of all viable options (formative, MIMIC and reflective), a reflective measurement model has been adopted in line with previous studies. The model comprises one independent variable (social responsibility image of countries (SRIC)), three dependent variables (nation brand identification (NBI), nation brand attractiveness (NBA) and intention to apply for a job vacancy (IAJV)) and five moderators (importance of CSR (ICSR), nation brand familiarity (NBF), country image (CI), employment status and country of residence). These variables and related hypotheses are discussed in detail, in the light of previous research conducted in the areas of marketing, management, HRM and social psychology. The model is supported by the associative network theory, the social identity theory and the attraction-selection-attrition theory and has been developed based on an in depth analysis of corporate social responsibility image and general country image models and related CSR frameworks published in high quality marketing and branding journals (3*/4* ABS Journal List Guide).

Drawing from these and the literature review presented earlier, the following chapter will outline the methodology of the present study.

Chapter 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology adopted in order to answer the research questions outlined in chapter 1. The research philosophy that underpins the study and the research methods used for data collection are examined in sections 4.3 and 4.5 respectively. These are followed by an analysis of the research design, the research setting and the unit of analysis. The second part of the chapter discusses the development of measurement instruments by examining the process of scale develpment. An in-depth review of data collection techniques and analysis is the object of paragraph 4.9. The last section expounds the research ethics and the ethical constraints encountered during the different stages of data collection.

4.2 Research Methodology

Research can be defined as a systematic investigation (Burns, 1997) "whereby data are collected, analysed and interpreted" (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006, p.194) to facilitate the understanding of a specific phenomenon (Mertens, 2005). In order to conduct social research, it is important to develop an effective and structured methodology. Often used interchangeably with the term '*research methods*', methodology refers to the process that should be undertaken to answer the research questions (Kothari, 1985; Crotty, 2003; Bell, Bryman and Harley, 2019). A methodology explains the conceptual and philosophical foundations that underpin a research study (Table 4.1 a). It also guides the researcher through the choice of the adequate design, strategies, methods and instruments (Table 4.1 – b) and illustrates the ethical principles that inform the research (Table 4.1 – c) (Crotty, 2003).

Despite the vast number of social research textbooks available authors generally disagree on methodological terms such as research approaches, perspectives, paradigms, philosophies (Crotty, 2003). To overcome this issue a diagram exemplifying the methodology chosen for this study and its components is presented in figure 4.1. Research methodology as an overall process includes the following elements:

- **Research paradigm** is a set of fundamental and basic assumptions that are connected to the researcher's worldview or rather his/her perspective on the nature of the world, on the place and roles the individuals play in it and the relationship between them and reality (e.g. gnosiology and epistemology, theology…) (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The term "*basic*" refers to their "human constructed" nature and the impossibility of demonstrating their truthfulness. These assumptions are generally accepted on faith and there is no way to elevate one over the others (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Therefore, researchers make their own choices of paradigm based on to their own beliefs and the characteristics of their study: research objective, questions and hypotheses (House, 1977; Guba and Lincoln, 1994);

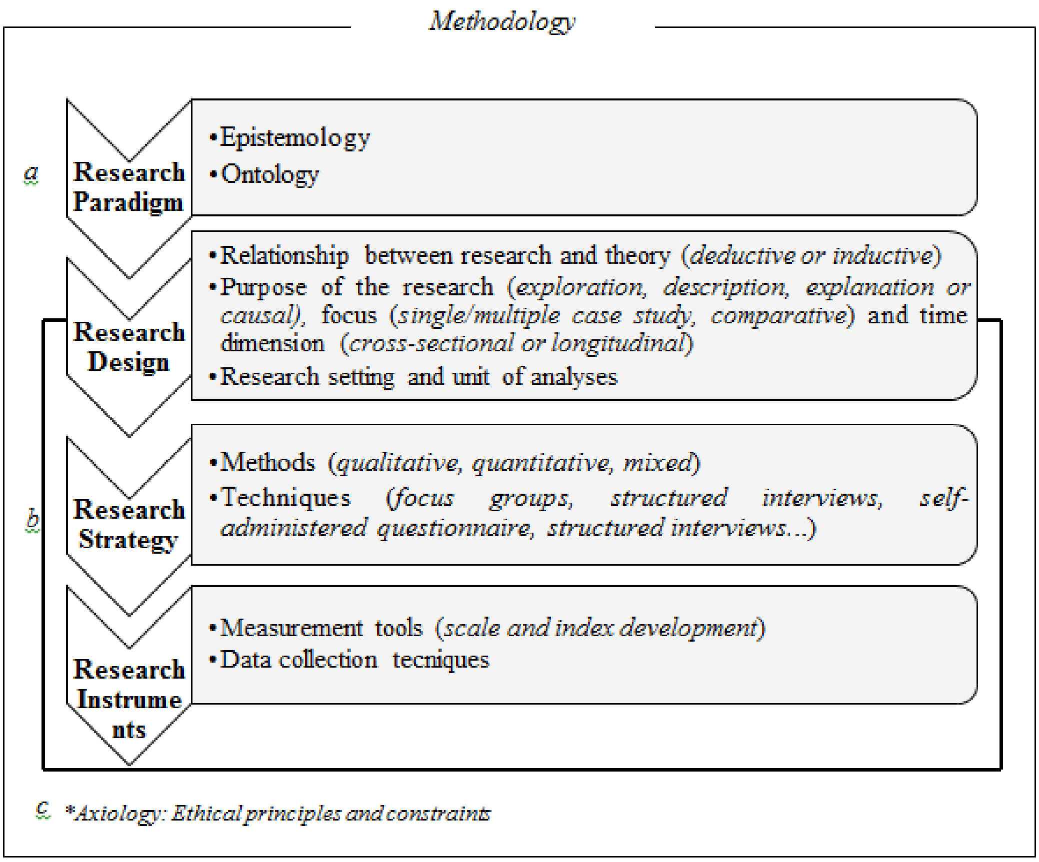


Fig. 4.1. Research methodology: The process and its components. Author's elaboration (2016).

- **Research design** is the blueprint which specifies the procedures implemented to ensure the research project is conducted efficiently and effectively (Malhotra, Nunan and Birks, 2017). According to Maxwell (2013) it comprises a menu of standard types of designs (e.g. descriptive, causal, exploratory…) from which the researcher can choose and a prescribed series of stages to conduct research. Designs include information regarding the selection of the approach (inductive/deductive), the design structure which derives from questioning the purpose of research, the focus and time dimension, the research strategies adopted (methods and techniques) and the research instruments;

- **Research strategy** derives from the combination of the research paradigm and design models previously selected, and it refers to the selection of the main method (qualitative, quantitative or mixed method) and techniques (e.g. focus groups, surveys…). The word method, often confused with methodology, refers to the procedures and techniques used to gather and analyse data (Crotty, 2003). Therefore, methodology includes the selection and justification for the chosen methods and the techniques that belong to them. These will be explained and described, in more depth, in the next sections;

- **Research instruments** comprise the tools employed to develop better measures for the constructs examined (scales and/or indexes) as well as the techniques (e.g. thematic analysis) and statistical packages (e.g. NVivo, SPSS) used during data collection and analysis;

- **Axiology** concerns the identification of the norms the research should embrace from an ethical point of view. These include the respect for the participants (e.g. lack of informed consent, invasion of privacy, deception) and the obligations the researcher should have towards the scientific community and the society (Babbie, 2010; Bell, Bryman and Harley, 2019).

The analysis of the meaning and role of methodology and its components briefly outlines the plan of the chapter, while providing a "terminological map" that avoids overlaps and misconceptions. With this in mind, the following section enters the first stage of the methodology discussion, presenting the philosophical foundations of this research.

4.3 Research Paradigm

Paradigms play a significant role in research: they pave the ground for the implementation of the design model/s and provide a useful guideline to understand the topic, develop a framework and analyse the results (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). As outlined in the previous paragraph, a research paradigm is a set of linked assumptions that "provides a conceptual and philosophical framework (…) for the organized study of the world" (Deshpande, 1983, p.5). According to previous scholars a paradigm should accomplish four main objectives (Filstead, 1970; Deshpande, 1983; Corbetta, 2003):

1. It serves as a guide to professionals in a specific discipline and it is accepted by the community of scientists in that discipline;
2. It provides an epistemology and ontology which define the organising principles for carrying out the research;
3. It develops an explanatory scheme which allows scholars and practitioners to justify their choices while solving the research problem;
4. It suggests the criteria for the choice of the most appropriate methodological components such as the design, the methods and the types and forms of data collection;

As Babbie (2010) explains "paradigms are neither true nor false; as ways of looking, they are only more or less useful" (Babbie, 2010, p. 25) to a specific study. Unlike natural science in which emerging paradigms tend to supplant the old as their shortcomings become obvious, in social research they might gain or lose popularity, but they seem to endure the constraints of time (Bell, Bryman and Harley, 2019). Research paradigms are often difficult to recognise within the narrative of a research article, because they are implicit, assumed or taken for granted (Babbie, 2010). This is connected to two main factors: a self-conscious reflection on theory construction in marketing is still considered fairly recent and and, as explained earlier, there is still confusion with regards to definitions, number and nature of paradigms. For instance, according to some scholars qualitative and quantitative are considered as paradigms, while others refer to them as methods or strategies (Bell, Bryman and Harley, 2019). A number of researchers have also argued against the existence of paradigms, considered, according to them, "unhelpful" (Biesta, 2010), while others have suggested the introduction of the terms "mental models" (Greene and Hall, 2010) or "stances" (Maxwell and Mittapalli, 2010).

The increase of conflictual views constitutes a major obstacle to the creation of a structured and unanimous research methodology. This issue has been partly addressed in the introductory section, where a model explaining the methodological process has been developed. As far as the research paradigm is concerned, figure 4.2 here below helps to explain the relation between paradigm, ontology and epistemology. A paradigm essentially refers to the selection of a **philosophical foundation** or **perspective** which enables the researcher to orientate himself. It takes a stance with regards to the following two questions (Guba and Lincoln, 1994):

- What is the form and nature of reality? What can be known about it? (**ontology**)
- What is the relationship between the individual (knower or potential knower) and reality (what can be known)? (**epistemology**)

Ontology and epistemology are both branches of philosophy. The first studies what there is (Hofweber, 2014) in the world, whether physical or abstract structures (Schuh and Barab, 2008). Epistemology, instead, addresses the "origins, nature, methods, and limits of human knowledge" (Reber, 1995, p.56).

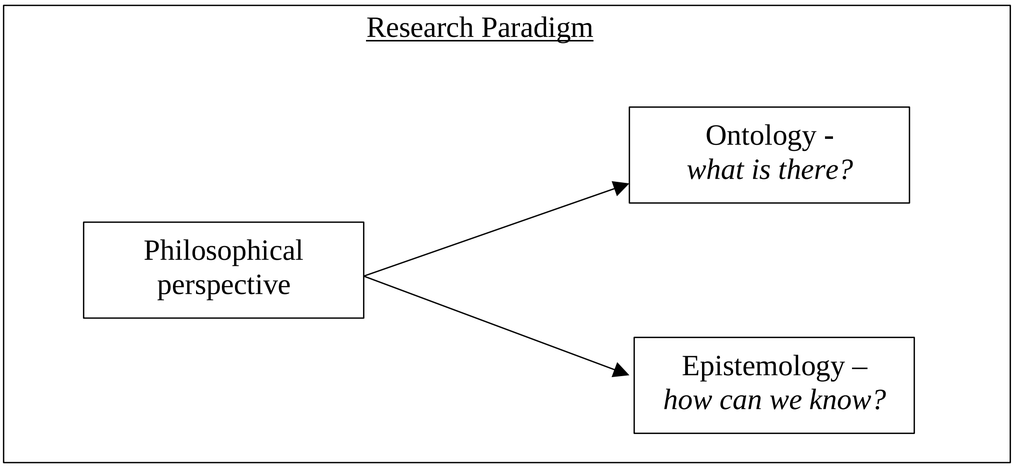


Fig 4.2. Social research paradigm: Ontology and epistemology. Author's elaboration (2016).

Each philosophical perspective (e.g. positivism, interpretivism…) answers these questions in a different manner and therefore holds a different view of the world and of the way in which human beings can gain knowledge. It is important to note that the choice of a specific paradigm should not be used as a means to achieve a desired research conclusion (Babbie, 2010). It should be used to guide the researcher towards what to look for and what to ignore.

Following this explanation, the succeeding section will introduce the main research paradigms used in social research and will identify the one adopted for this research.

4.3.1 A Classification of Paradigms in Social Research

The number and nature of paradigms in social research is still an object of debate. The main reason for this relates to the use of different terms to indicate the same stance, the proliferation of similar perspectives and the lack of an integrated framework.

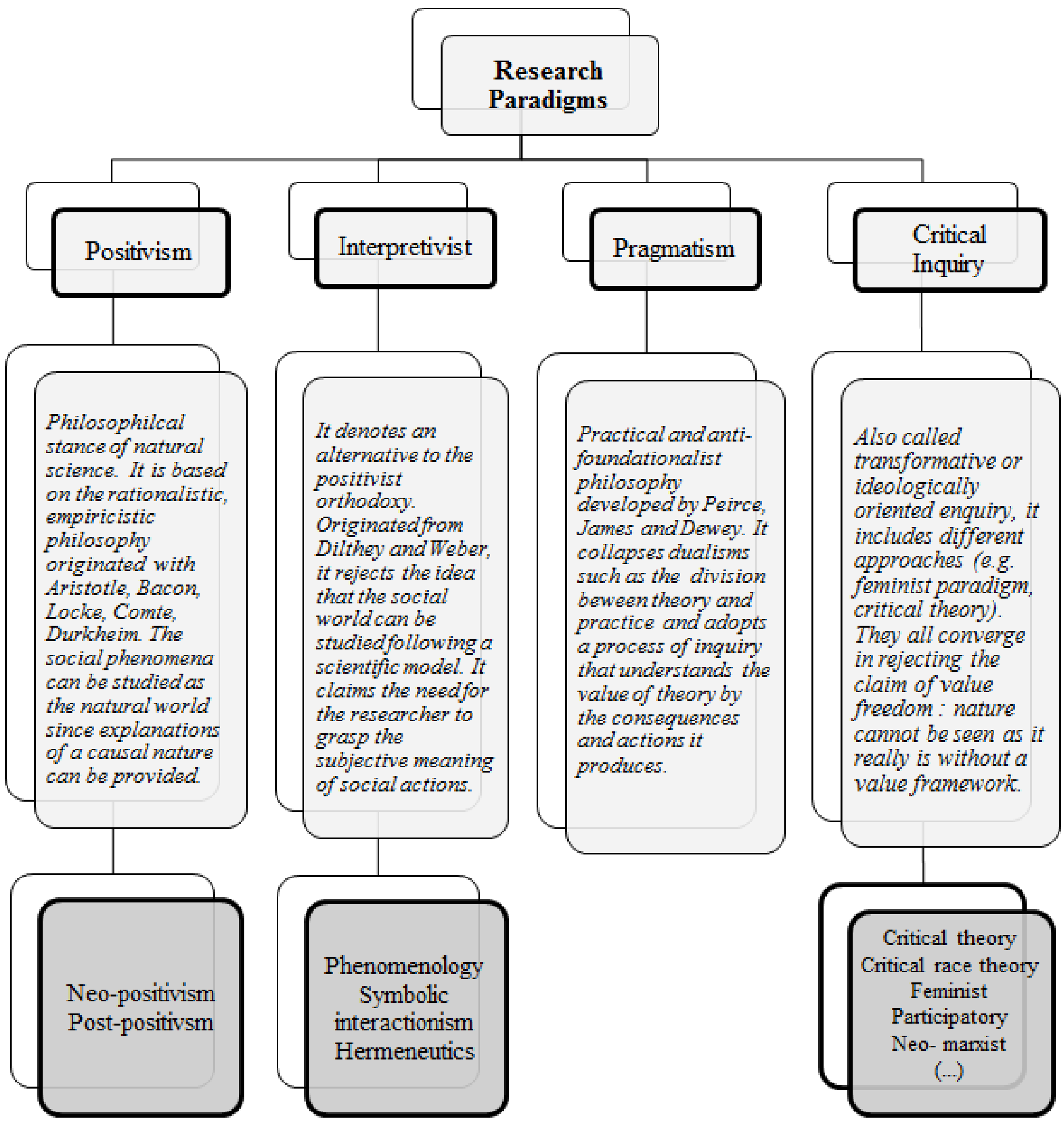


Fig 4.3. Social research paradigms: A classification. Adapted from Guba (1990), Corbetta (2003), Mackenzie and Knipe (2006), Mertens (2007, 2015), Bell, Bryman and Harley (2019). Author's elaboration (2020).

Nevertheless, two major concepts seem to be generally accepted by the majority of authors: positivism and interpretivism (Malhotra and Birks, 2003; Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006; Bryman, 2012). According to Guba and Lincoln (2005), Mertens (2005), Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) and Bell et al. (2019), in addition to these two main philosophical stances, it is possible to identify two other main paradigms: pragmatism and critical inquiry. Figure 4.3 here above attempts to provide a first overview of these paradigms. These will be reviewed in more detail in the following paragraphs.

4.3.1.1 Positivism, Neo-positivism and Post-positivism

Introduced by Saint-Simon and Auguste Comte at the beginning of the 19th century (Crotty, 2003) positivism "advocates the application of the methods of the natural science to the study of social reality" (Bryman, 2012, p. 28) as the only valid system for achieving true knowledge. One of the fundamental beliefs of positivist research is that the social and natural world are knowable, measurable and conform to fixed laws (Malhotra, Nunan and Birks, 2017). Social facts are material/immaterial entities that have meaning outside of the individual consciousness (Corbetta, 2003) - they are given, singular and unmodifiable. According to positivism, in order to understand marketing phenomena, the researcher needs to observe reality behind a "thick wall of one-way glass" (Guba, 1990, p.19) or a '*scientific grid'* (Crotty, 2003). The individual and the object under study are separate and they do not influence each other (Corbetta, 2014). The three main axioms of positivism, thus, are: 1) social reality exists outside the individual, (2) it is objectively understandable, and (3) it can be studied by the same means as natural science (Corbetta, 2003). See Table 4.1 for a summary of ontological and epistemological positions of this paradigm.

What has been described here coincides with the so-called "historical" positivism. This stance has been subsequently revised by the neo and post-positivists (See Table 4.1). Neo-positivism developed within the "Vienna Circle" and the logical positivism school between the 1930s and 1960s. The term post-positivism, instead, refers to the subsequent evolution that took place from the 1960s onwards (Corbetta, 2003). The authors that influenced these two stances are Heisnberg and Bohr, who questioned the objectivity of science but also Popper, Kuhn and Feyerabend (Crotty, 2003). Both perspectives emerged with the objective of solving the limitations encountered in positivism. To make things easier, only the second one will be discussed here. Compared to positivists, post-positivists recognise the relativism of knowledge. Although they still believe that a real world driven by natural forces exists, it is impossible for individuals to know it, if not imperfectly (Guba, 1990). From an epistemological viewpoint, "the very perception of reality, is not an objective picture, but is theory-laden, in the sense that even the simple recording of reality depends on the researcher's frame of mind, and on social and cultural conditioning” (Corbetta, 2003, p.19). Post-positivists, therefore, support a modified objectivism: objectivity remains as a “regulatory ideal” that can be achieved only “reasonably closely” but never completely.

4.3.1.2 Interpretivism

This paradigm developed from Dilthey’s and Weber’s studies at the beginning of the 20th century (Crotty, 2003). Interpretivists criticise the positivist approach and its use of the scientific model to study social reality, by claiming that to grasp the complexity of the world researchers need to understand the social role of individuals (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007; Bell, Bryman and Harley, 2019).

From an ontological viewpoint, according to interpretivists, there is not only one objective reality. Multiple social realities exist. They are knowable but constructed according to the meanings attributed by individuals. Therefore, in order to know reality, the researcher does not only have to observe but also to interpret. The relationship between individual and object is characterised by the lack of that distance advocated by positivists and by subjectivism, or rather the idea that social phenomena derive from the perceptions and actions of social actors (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007). Social research, thus, is no longer defined as “an experimental science in search of law, but an interpretive one in search of meaning” (Geertz, 1973, p.5-6). According to interpretivism: (1) there is a social reality outside the individual, but it is not universal since multiple realities exist, (2) these realities are only subjectively understandable and (3) can be studied by complete immersion into the social world through interpretation (Corbetta, 2003; Bryman, 2012).

Interpretivism is often confused or associated with constructivism (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006a). The two are intertwined and share similar views: meaning is created and negotiated by human actors (Andrews, 2012). However, the majority of scholars do not consider constructivism as an independent paradigm, but as an ontological position (Corbetta, 2003; Bryman, 2012). Another issue worth mentioning concerns the link between interpretivism and the following philosophies: hermeneutics, phenomenology or sociological phenomenology and symbolic interactionism. Bryman considers these stances precursors of interpretivism while Crotty defines them as streams that developed alongside it (Crotty, 2003; Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006; Bryman, 2012). Although compelling, time and space constraints oblige us to overlook this debate. Nevertheless, the author believes that the need for more clarification is increasingly urgent, since this persistent confusion could weaken the foundations of social research.

4.3.1.3 Pragmatism

Pragmatism is known as one of the most influential philosophies that arose in the US. It developed during the first quarter of the 20th century thanks to Peirce (1870), James (1898) and Dewey (Thayer, 1981; Kelemen and Rumens, 2013; Kaushik and Walsh, 2019). Recent authors include Rorty (1990), Murphy (1990), Patton (1990), and Cherryholmes (1992) (Creswell, 2003). The founders were neither clear nor consistent in providing an account of how the doctrine originated and what the term pragmatism stood for. This confusion has engendered the general tendency to reduce pragmatism to a doctrine “holding that the meaning and the truth of thought is determined (somehow) by criteria of practical usefulness” (Thayer, 1981, p.5) and strictly linked to the “typical” commercial and materialistic mentality of North America (Biesta and Burbules, 2003). This generalisation is ultimately incorrect. As suggested by Kelemen and Rumens (2013), pragmatism is an anti-foundationalist philosophy (Childers and Hentzi, 1995) “that focuses on the future, concerned with improving the conditions that enable individuals to thrive in their everyday lives” (Kelemen and Rumens, 2013, p.3). Anti-foundationalist refers to the fact that there are no fundamental principles which are the basic ground of knowledge: pragmatism is not committed to any previous system of philosophy (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006). Authors such as Dewey, in fact, believe in human experience and in inquiry as the process-based approach to knowledge, instead of relying on metaphysical discussions about reality or truth. The starting point for research, according to pragmatists scholars, is life itself (Morgan, 2014).

Pragmatism is, thus, considered an alternative to the previous stances (positivisms and interpretivism) since it eliminates the conflict between them by collapsing the “old” dualisms: theory-practice, body-mind, subject-object (Kaushik and Walsh, 2019). James, in effect, presented pragmatism as a “method for settling metaphysical disputes that might otherwise be interminable” (James, 1907, p.45). In doing so pragmatism adopts the above-mentioned process of inquiry that conceives the value of theory by the consequences and actions it produces (Kelemen and Rumens, 2013; Hookway, 2015). This allows researchers to be free from mental and practical constraints and able to simply choose the best method that fits the purpose of the research (Feilzer, 2010; Kaushik and Walsh, 2019).

Transferred to an ontological level, this doctrine claims that: there is a single “real world”, but individuals have their own understanding and interpretations of that world (Mertens, 2005). Moreover, it is possible to know reality, since knowledge is created through actions rather than antecedent conditions as positivists posit (Creswell, 2003). From an epistemological viewpoint, instead, objectivity and inter-subjectivity can coexist. Pragmatists claim that interaction is the key element in order to address and understand the problem (Mertens, 2005). Researchers are not distant observers since research develops within the community. This strict relation enables the researcher to explore the course of action, define and study the problem and understand the appropriateness of the actions subsequently implemented.

4.3.1.4 Critical Inquiry

The fourth paradigm emerged as a criticism to the limitations of interpretivism and positivism. Also called transformative (Mertens, 2005; Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006; Bell, Bryman and Harley, 2019), it represents an ideologically oriented inquiry stance that includes different schools of thoughts: critical theory, participatory action research, feminism, Marxism and Neo-marxism, Freirean or Pedagogy of the oppressed…(Crotty, 2003; Mertens, 2005; Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006). Although no unified body of literature can effectively represent this paradigm, the main characteristic that englobes all the approaches concerns their positioning of research within social justice. This philosophical framework, in fact, addresses issues of power and justice (Creswell, 2003): “transformative researchers consciously and explicitly position themselves side by side with the less powerful in a joint effort to bring about social transformation” (Mertens, 2005, p.21).

Their ontological position is similar to the constructivism view: there are multiple versions of reality (Crotty, 2003). However, they acknowledge the damage of considering them equally legitimate, ignoring the influence of socio-cultural factors that privilege one over the others in the construction of reality. As a consequence, what seems real sometimes might be only “*reified structures*” taken for real. Therefore, a critical approach needs to be adopted at all times (Mertens, 2005). Regarding knowledge, instead, the researcher maintains an interactive relationship with the would-be-known, which also involves a consciousness of the socio-cultural complexity of the context in which they are (Mertens, 2005; Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006).

Overall, this paradigm seems the most fragmented and less rooted in solid philosophical stems. Several authors of social research methods manuals often do not take it into consideration. Nevertheless, it is important to acknowledge its existence and underline the need for the development of a systematic approach.

4.3.1.5 Research Paradigms: A Summary

The following chart synthesises the main beliefs of the four research paradigms previously identified. It explains their nature and their position from an ontological and epistemological viewpoint.

The Research Paradigms: A Guideline	
Positivism	**Ontology** Naïve Realism -Social reality really exists and, as nature, it is driven by immutable laws and mechanisms. Social facts are objects and they are knowable in their true essence. The role of the researcher is to predict, control and explain these social phenomena.
	Epistemology *Dualist* - mind and matter or individual and social reality are essentially distinct *Objectivist* - human knowledge and values are objective. They exist and are defined by the nature of reality. They can also be discovered by the individual's mind. Thus, the researcher observes social phenomena in a dispassionate and objective manner.
Post-positivism	**Ontology** Critical Realism - Reality exists and it is driven by immutable laws. However, it can never be fully apprehended due to the imperfection of human knowledge and the probabilistic nature of the laws.
	Epistemology *Modified dualist* – the complete separation between subject and object is no longer supported. This is because post-positivists recognize that the researcher/individual may influence the object (of the study/observation). *Modified objectivist* – objectivity can be obtained only approximately but it remains the ideal aim.
Interpretivism	**Ontology** *Relativist* - there is no universal reality but only multiple realities and different perspectives from which people perceive and interpret social facts *Constructivist* – the meaning and thus the world is interpreted and constructed.
	Epistemology *Non-dualist* – there is no separation between the researcher and the object *Subjectivist*– inquirer and inquiry are fused in a single entity and the findings are the creation of the process of interactions between the two
Pragmatism	**Rejection of dualisms – Transactional approach** The idea that there is a single "real world" and that individuals have their own interpretations of that world coexist. Similarly, objectivity and inter-subjectivity are equally accepted. Research develops within the community and inquiry rises from actions and their consequences. Interaction is thus an intrinsic element of research as well as life.
Critical Inquiry	**Ontology** *Critical realist* – as post-positivists, since reality can never be fully apprehended due to the socio-cultural frameworks in which the object is trapped.
	Epistemology *Subjectivist* – as interpretivists, since inquiry acts are related to the values of the respondent/object.

Table 4.1 Social research paradigms: A classification. Adapted from Guba (1990), Biesta and Burbules (2003), Mertens (2005, 2007), Mackenzie and Knipe (2006), Bryman (2012). Author's elaboration (2016).

4.3.2 Pragmatism

Following the analysis of the main paradigms in social research, pragmatism has been chosen as the theoretical framework for the present study. Compared to other philosophical stances, pragmatism is the paradigm that best fits the purpose of this study. Moreover, it is the stance that better expresses the author's epistemological and ontological understanding of the world. As previously highlighted pragmatism "sidesteps the contentious issues of truth and reality, philosophically accepts that there are singular and multiple realities that are open to empirical inquiry and orients itself toward solving practical problems in the ''real world'' (Feilzer, 2010, p. 8; Cooper, 2018). Accordingly, this study gives prominence to the research questions and to understanding social responsibility in a nation branding context, superceding the constraints imposed by the "forced choice" between positivism and interpretivism (Feilzer, 2010; Creswell and Clark, 2017) and specific research methods or techniques (Robson, 1993). This freedom, however, weighs on the researcher as a need for a greater sense of responsibility as he/she tries to assess and align his/her goals with the means to meet those goals (Morgan, 2014).

Rejecting all dualisms, as previously examined, pragmatism argues that research should no longer focus on representing reality but aim at "utility" for the improvement of the human condition (Kelemen and Rumens, 2013). Whereas ontology and epistemology have been presented in the previous section, before investigating the design adopted for this study, it is worth pointing out other important elements of this philosophical stance concerning. They have been briefly outlined in the following table:

Pragmatism: The Pillars	
Objective	Building intelligence and meaning rather than truth in order to improve the conditions that enable individuals to thrive in their everyday lives. Pragmatism focuses on the future or rather the outcomes of the research: the actions, situations and consequences of inquiry. It envisages the promise and the possibility of social reform. Social progress and social science are indeed strictly entrenched. The philosopher as well as the researcher have a practical duty: the solution of social, economic and political issues to ensure that individuals live a more fulfilling life.
Truth	There is no absolute truth and thus truth is not the main objective for pragmatists. It is not possible, in fact, to define it a priori, since its value is realised in its application to real situations. Therefore, some events or accounts of the world are "truer" than others. Truth does not have to correspond to the world but to anticipate and shape future experience, taking day-to-day experiences as a starting point. The belief that truth equals utility is thus only a mere simplification. According to this stance truth starts with experience and contributes in some form to experience itself.

Experience	It is the basic unit of analysis and refers to the site of knowledge and meaning. Experience englobes both action and thought and contributes to the improvement of knowledge. According to James, the starting point of experience is the individual's interaction with the other (environment/subject) and it develops as a process of personal continuity. Indeed, it is never abstract or concrete, it is fluid and embraces external objects, their relationship to each other, and their relationship to the subject in question.
Inquiry	Inquiry is a continuous process of self-conscious decision making in which beliefs that are considered problematic are analysed and solved through action. The role of the inquirer is to look behind experience adopting many beliefs-action cycles that aim at a final resolution of the issue encountered. In many authors' studies inquiry and research are considered as synonymous: this highlights the importance of careful and reflective decision making in research. Moreover, inquiry is always social in nature: it is solved within, affects and is affected by the community.
Ethics	Ethics deals with questions about what to do and about the consequences of acting in one way versus another. In this respect axiology and pragmatism are intertwined. This paradigm assigns a central role to politics and ethics. It also supports freedom of inquiry (democratic model of research): individual and social communities identify the issues that matter most to them and investigate them in the ways that they consider as the most meaningful to them. The ethical goal of research, thus, is to gain knowledge in the search of desired ends.

Table 4.2 Pragmatism: The pillars. Adapted from Mertens (2005), Kelemen and Rumens (2013), Morgan (2014) Creswell and Creswell (2018), Kaushik and Walsh (2019). Author's elaboration (2019)

In conclusion, pragmatism is a paradigm that offers researchers considerable advantages: "an immediate and useful middle position philosophically and methodologically" that aims at breaking the traditional schism, "a practical and outcome-oriented method of inquiry that is based on action and leads, iteratively, to further action and the elimination of doubt" (Burke and Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 17) and a certain freedom in selecting the best methodological approaches that can enable researchers to answer the research questions (Kaushik and Walsh, 2019).

4.4 Research Design

As previously outlined, the research design defines the procedures implemented to ensure the research project is conducted efficiently and effectively. It specifies the direction of the research and its position towards theory and identifies what kind of underlying scheme will be adopted. In line with the pragmatic perspective the choice of the design derives from the research questions and objectives (Vaus, 2010).

Firstly, as far as theory is concerned, this study adopts a deductive approach. This means that after a review of pre-existent studies the author has developed a number of hypotheses that constitute the subject of the empirical analysis (Bell, Bryman and Harley, 2019). The theories and hypotheses deduced, thus, drive the process of data collection and analysis.

Concerning the choice of the design, authors tend to classify the existent models in different ways. For instance, according to Malhotra, Nunan and Birks it is possible to identify three main types of designs: exploratory, descriptive and causal (Malhotra, Nunan and Birks, 2017). Saunders and colleagues, instead, distinguish between exploratory, descriptive, explanatory and evaluative (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019). After an in-depth review of the literature, the author has decided to opt for an exploratory sequential design (qual→ QUAN) (Creswell and Clark, 2017) which combines an exploratory stage followed by a confirmatory stage (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019). In the first part of the research, the author aims at theory construction or rather identifying and understanding the nature and dimensions of a phenomenon which is still considered new in marketing. Therefore, an exploratory design seems the most appropriate. Data collected in this preliminary section will inform the second part of the research which, instead, has the objective of testing the model, measuring the construct and investigating its effects.

The study is cross-sectional as the information is collected from one sample of respondents drawn from the selected population, only once (Malhotra, Nunan and Birks, 2017). This is in line with the pragmatic perspective previously analysed as it "draws on employing "what works," (…) giving primacy to the importance of the research problem and question, and valuing both objective and subjective knowledge" (Morgan, 2007, p.43).

Regarding the focus of the study, initially a cross-national comparative approach was considered. Several articles in international marketing, in fact, analyse country image using this approach (Roth and Romeo, 1992; Ahmed and D′Astous, 1993; Ettenson, 1993; De Nisco *et al.*, 2016; Eng, Ozdemir and Michelson, 2016). However, for a cross-national study to be valid and generalisable the author is normally required to select a minimum of 5-7 countries (Cadogan, 2010). This unfortunately would have exceeded the time and resources of a PhD dissertation. Therefore, it was decided to focus the study on two countries only at this stage. Collecting data from more than one country to test a model is not necessary but, as explained by Cadogan, "it is a bonus, because it provides information on the stability of the model across national samples" (Cadogan, 2010, p.604). This is particularly important especially when a new construct is developed and therefore a new theory is added. Unlike with cross-national comparative and cross-cultural studies, the element of culture is not included in the theoretical model. This means that the researcher is not required to specify whether differences across the cultures are expected to influence the independent variable. Clearly, aspects of culture or specific contextual elements may be identified as reasons why certain observed differences occur. If this is the case, the researcher will acknowledge them as a key element to be investigated in future research. "If no differences are observed across the samples, then this just provides empirical support for the robustness of the theory originally proposed" (Cadogan, 2010, p. 604). Any difference observed across the national samples will be therefore reported by the researcher in the final discussion and additional insights for future studies highlighted. More details regarding the choice of the countries can be found in the Research Setting section. Further studies should improve the SRIC scale, testing it in multiple contexts in Europe but also in Eastern countries. For more information about the limitations and suggestions for future studies see Chapter 7.

4.5 Research Strategy

The research design fundamentally differs from the research strategy (Vaus, 2010). While the design represents the logical structure of the inquiry, methods and strategies are used for the collection of data. In line with the research questions and objectives and following the research design presented above, a mixed-method strategy has been chosen, including three different techniques: focus groups and in-depth interviews (qualitative stage) and a survey (quantitative stage). These choices are analysed in detail in the next three sections and relevant justifications for these choices are provided.

4.5.1 Mixed Methods Research

As previously explained "pragmatism emphasizes that all aspects of research inherently involve decisions about which goals are most meaningful and which methods are most appropriate" (Morgan, 2014, p.56). The two are strictly related. Therefore, pragmatism gives the researcher the freedom of choosing the methods, techniques and procedures that best meet the need and purposes of the research (Creswell and Poth, 2017). Silverman, among others, underlines that "both science and everyday life teach us that there is no "right" method to proceed. Everything depends on what you are trying to achieve" (Silverman, 2014, p. 79). This study tries first to explore the independent variable (SRIC) and then to test its impact. Given these two main objectives and in line with the design already outlined, the researcher has decided to opt for a mixed method strategy.

A mixed method is constituted by the combination of "quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study" (Burke and Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 17). As Kelemen and Rumens highlight: "The pursuit of pragmatist knowledge invokes the need for plural methodologies which place doubt rather than certainty at the heart of the inquiry process" (Kelemen and Rumens, 2013, p. 12). The rationale for the use of a mix-method relies on the idea that qualitative methodologies are ideal for theory construction or generation but are lacking in generalisability, validity and reliability (Deshpande, 1983). Quantitative methodologies, instead, are suitable for theory verification or testing but scarcely identify subjective dimensions of behaviour and those "*shades of meaning*" that are key in theory construction (Deshpande, 1983). The following chart (Table 4.3) summarises the main features of the two methods:

Features of Quantitative vs Qualitative Methods	
Quantitative	**Qualitative**
<u>Strengths</u> • **Generalizable** - It allows the researcher to replicate the study under different conditions • **Reliable** • **Faster** - It makes the data collection and analysis faster • **Precise** - It facilitates the conversion of textual data into numbers or categories • **Objective** - It ensures that results are independent of the researcher using technology as the main instrument • **Population oriented** - It is effective for the analysis of a big sample size • **Verification and outcome oriented** - It enables the researcher to test already constructed theories and hypotheses proving how and, to a lesser degree, why (cause-effect relationships) phenomena occur	**<u>Strengths</u>** • **Flexible** – It responds to changes that occur during data collection and allows for a shift in focus as a result • **Subjective** – The researcher is close to the data using the self as an instrument and the participants' own categories of meaning as data • **Case oriented** – It is useful for the analysis of a small number of cases and the examination of complex phenomena in detail • **Discovery and process oriented** – It is useful for theory construction or generation
<u>Weaknesses</u> • **Confirmation bias** - The emphasis on theory testing rather than on theory generation might lead the researcher to neglect certain phenomena • **Threat of generalisation** - Knowledge produced could be either too abstract or too general for direct application to specific situations	**<u>Weaknesses</u>** • **Ungeneralisable -** Knowledge developed may not generalise to other individuals or other settings • **Time consuming -** Data collection and analysis usually require more time • **Threat of subjectivism** – Results can be influenced by the researcher's biases and personal characteristics

Table 4.3 Features of qualitative vs quantitative methods. Adapted from Burke and Onwuegbuzie (2004). Author's elaboration (2015).

As the chart clearly depicts, qualitative and quantitative methods have different but complementary features. According to Deshpande (1983), the characteristics of both methods are essential since "theory construction is as important as theory verification" (Deshpande, 1983, p. 107) . This is even more evident in the context of this study, in which the construction and measurement of the independent variable and the identification of its dimensions is the first objective of the research. In addition, since several variables derive from marketing and tourism, scales and measures need to be adapted to a nation branding context. At the same time, the author aims to generate scales that could be the most reliable and generalisable while testing a model that tests the consequences of SRIC. Therefore, theory construction is essential in the first stage of the research design. In this exploratory phase, qualitative methods have been shown as the most effective, thus, focus groups and in-depth interviews will be conducted with key informants. "Qualitative research is […] used as a prelude to statistical enquiry when the subject matter needs to be more clearly understood or defined before they can be measured" (Ritchie, Jane Lewis, *et al.*, 2013, p.37). Theory verification instead is fundamental in the second stage, during which quantitative methods will be employed through a self-administered questionnaire. The combination of the two methods allows researchers to reduce their weaknesses and improve their effectiveness (See Table 4.3) to such an extent that a mix-method is considered by several authors as a key element in the improvement of social science (Creswell, 2003; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

The use of a mixed method also requires the researcher to make decisions concerning the weight given to the two strands (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003). As explained above, this study adopts an exploratory sequential design qual→QUANT meaning that priority is given to the quantitative stage (Creswell and Clark, 2007; Bell, Bryman and Harley, 2019; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019). The time dimension considered is sequential, meaning that the strands are implemented in two distinct phases, "with the collection and analysis of one type of data [quantitative] occurring after the collection and analysis of the other type [qualitative]" (Creswell and Clark, 2007, p. 41).

In the next sections, the author will offer a brief overview of the features of the main techniques that have been taken into consideration and will provide justifications for their use.

4.5.2 The Qualitative Stage

The qualitative stage is essential in the exploratory phase of this work for the following reasons: (1) to gain an in-depth understanding of a subject which is still considered an under-researched area of studies, (2) to confirm whether hypotheses are valid, generate uncovered hypotheses and verify that the constructs are sufficiently relevant and (3) to purify the selected measures (Churchill, 1979). Exploratory interviews and focus groups that precede social surveys also contribute to the collection of information concerning "the receptivity, frames of reference and span of attention of respondents" (Sieber, 1973, p.1343) thus reducing the number of non-returned questionnaires. Moreover, these exploratory techniques enable the researcher to improve the questionnaire, strengthen the theoretical structure that guides the analysis, validate certain results and facilitate the interpretation of data (Sieber, 1973).

Two techniques have been selected in this first stage: focus groups and in-depth interviews. Focus groups is "a research technique that collects data through group interaction on a topic determined by the researcher" (Morgan, 1996, p.130). This definition highlights two characteristic features of focus groups: (1) the interaction amongst participants which constitutes the core of data collection and (2) the researcher who plays a central and active role in the discussion. Focus groups are mainly used to explore in depth people's experiences and thoughts regarding a specific topic and encourage self-disclosure (Krueger and Casey, 2014).

As suggested by Kitzinger when using a specific technique it is worth considering what it offers compared to, or in combination with, other techniques (Kitzinger, 2005). Compared to other qualitative techniques the strengths of focus groups comprise: the freedom of the participants to talk to the researcher and generate a discussion among themselves and the possibility of examining how "knowledge, ideas, story telling, self-presentation and linguistic exchanges operate within a given cultural context around specific topics" (Kitzinger, 2005, p.5). In other words, it uses group dynamics to better understand perceptions and experiences. Compared to quantitative techniques instead, focus groups, being qualitative in nature, provide a better explanation of how ideas and viewpoints are constructed and expressed, preferring depth to breadth (Krueger and Casey, 2014). Following Morgan (1996), the analysis of the literature reveals that the most frequent pairing is constituted by the combinations of focus groups with individual interviews or surveys. Specifically, "the use of focus groups with individual interviews is the most straightforward, since both are qualitative techniques" (Morgan, 1996, p.134). The combination of the two is proved to give access to different aspects of people's experiences (Michell, 1999). Concerning the time sequence, the author has decided to start with focus groups followed by in-depth interviews. Focus groups, indeed, are ideal at the initial stage of the research because they allow the exploration of relevant issues that will be then analysed in more depth with interviews (Ritchie *et al.*, 2013).

In-depth interviews are described as a form of conversation with a specific purpose (Silverman, 2017). They reproduce "a fundamental process through which knowledge about the social world is constructed in normal human interaction" (Maruster and Ginjsenberg, 2013, p. 140). It is possible to identify four typologies of interview: (1) structured, (2) semi-structured, (3) unstructured or focused and finally (4) group interviews and focus groups (May, 2011; Clark, Foster and Bryman, 2019). Structured interviews are a technique that belongs to quantitative methods and thus will be analysed in the next section (Muijs, 2011). Unlike structured interviews, unstructured interviews are very open and flexible (Clark, Foster and Bryman, 2019). Questions have an open-ended structure which provides a variety of advantages compared to the techniques at the quantitative end of the spectrum. It allows the interviewee to express himself/herself without the limits imposed by the frames of a structured interview and enables the researcher to gain a complete understanding of the respondent's viewpoint. There is a real interaction between interviewer and interviewee which resembles more a day-to-day conversation. Moreover, this technique offers the possibility of uncovering new categories enlarging the theoretical background initially considered by the researcher. Semi-structured, instead, are at the centre of the continuum constituted by structured and unstructured interviews and combine the characteristics of both (Bell, Bryman and Harley, 2019). "Questions are normally specified, but the interviewer is freer to probe beyond the answers" (May, 2011, p. 134). The researcher can also complement the interview with the collection of general information about the participants (e.g. sex, age, religion, income…) in a standardised format (May, 2011). This typology is the one that has been chosen for this study, since it integrates comparability and flexibility and it gives sufficient importance to context, language and behaviour. In addition, since the objective of the qualitative stage is to enrich the study from a theoretical viewpoint, as well as validate the variables and relative measures, semi-structured interviews seem the ideal option.

Another choice needs to be made concerning in-depth interviews. Interviews can be face-to-face or can be carried out using telephone or Internet (Ritchie *et al.*, 2013). Normally face-to-face is the preferred mode since it enables the researcher to establish a better relationship with the interviewee and it creates a more relaxed environment. Moreover, it allows the researcher to pay attention to other details such as the non-verbal communication (Ritchie *et al.*, 2013). For this reason, the author has adopted this mode for the present research.

4.5.3 The Quantitative Stage

The quantitative method is used here in the second part of the research. Its function is fundamental for testing theoretical hypotheses since, as has been explained before, it ensures reliability, generalisability and replicability (Corbetta, 2003; Muijs, 2011). Experimental, quasi-experimental and non-experimental are the main typologies of quantitative studies (Creswell, 2003; Muijs, 2011).

Experiments and quasi-experiments are defined as the operation of modifying "one thing in a situation and then compare an outcome to what existed without modification" (Neuman, 2013, p. 116). Compared to other social research techniques, their main advantage is the possibility of effectively testing causal relationship (Muijs, 2011; Malhotra, Nunan and Birks, 2017). They test hypotheses in an artificial setting (a more natural setting is instead provided for quasi-experimental) which is a simplification of the complex reality, enabling the researcher to consciously control the study. Their powerful logic is threatened by the numerous practical constraints (space, time, budget) and ethical limitations linked to the impossibility of manipulating all the situations (Neuman, 2013). Moreover, experiments have a narrow scope, answering micro-level theoretical concerns which focus on a few causal variables. All these characteristics make them inappropriate, at this stage, for the present study.

Non-experimental studies, also called survey research, include structured interviews (telephone or face-to-face) and questionnaires (online or offline) (Creswell, 2003; Muijs, 2011; Bell, Bryman and Harley, 2019). Surveys are widely used in social science because they can provide accurate, reliable and valid data. Their main objective is to "remove as much bias from the research process as possible and produce results that are replicable by following the same methods, the first of which is standardization" (May, 2011, p. 97). Survey researchers are able to capture the full complexity of the world thanks to the investigation of extensive research designs. The stages that constitute the design of a survey are similar to the ones used in experimental inquiries and comprise the identification of the objectives and relevant research questions, the formulation of hypotheses, the selection of a specific methodology (e.g. specification of unit of analysis, setting…), the collection and analysis of data.

One of the most frequently used techniques in non-experimental studies is the online questionnaire. Online questionnaires offer the researcher ready-made templates that are flexible and easily adaptable. They allow information to be stored directly online. Compared to the traditional formula "pencil-and-paper", it is faster and cheaper to administer questionnaires online (Malhotra, Nunan and Birks, 2017). In relation to interviews, it is considered as less intrusive, it ensures anonymity, and it is again quicker. Finally, online surveys are often used in country image, place branding and tourism research (See chapter 1). For these reasons, online questionnaires have been chosen as the best option for the quantitative stage. The only issue that is normally raised against this specific technique, Internet accessibility, can be easily overcome due to the characteristics of the sample selected for the study. These will be discussed in more detail in the next sections (4.7).

4.6 Research Setting

Along with the time dimension ("when"), also the context of the research is an important part of the design that needs to be examined. The research setting ("where") is one of the contextual factors, with "who" and "when" that limits the propositions contained in the theoretical model and sets the boundaries of generalisability (Whetten, 1989). Moreover, as confirmed by the pragmatist perspective, the context is really important for meaning: "we understand what is going on by appreciating where and when it is happening. Observations are embedded and must be understood within a context" (Whetten, 1989, p. 492). Since the objective of this research is to understand the consequences of SRIC in terms of attractiveness of highly skilled resources, the higher education sector and specifically universities of two Western European countries (Italy and the UK) have been chosen as the best environment to explore and test the hypotheses of the model. Justifications for this choice will be provided in the following sections supported by secondary data.

4.6.1 The Choice of the Nation Brands

The UK and Italy have been chosen as the nation brands to be used as the setting for the present study. Although these two nation brands share some similarities (e.g. both countries are in Western Europe and they are both in the top ten of the Anholt Ipsos Nation Brands Index 2019 and top twenty in the Good Country Index 2019) they are characterised by different cultural backgrounds (Hostfede Insights, 2019) and hold different positions in European and international markets. They appear in several cross-cultural and comparative studies on country image (Lu *et* *al.*, 2016) and in a few studies on corporate social responsibility (Maignan and Ralston, 2002; Habisch *et al.*, 2006; CSR Europe, 2010; Turker, Vural and Idowu, 2016; Maon, Swaen and Lindgreen, 2017; Calabrese *et al.*, 2018). The majority of CSR studies mainly focus on how CSR strategies are implemented from a governmental and organisational viewpoint (Albareda *et al.*, 2008; Maon, Swaen and Lindgreen, 2017). It emerges that the two countries shared a similar vision due to EU regulations (Grayson, 2011; European Commission, 2018), but approach ethics and CSR policies differently (Albareda *et al.*, 2008). In Italy, organisations and authorities tend to focus on the market implications of their CSR commitments and on the effect on external stakeholders (e.g. local community and non-profit sector) more than on internal CSR-related outcomes. The environmental aspect is also reported to be the one that is most overlooked by these countries. In the UK, instead, less attention is devoted to market-related opportunites but more to employees and to the link with the large non-profit sector.

The two chosen countries also exert a different attractive force towards skilled labour and hold a different position in Europe (OECD -International Migration Division, 2019). National programs have been developed by several European and non European countries willing to promote the attraction of talents (European Migration Network, 2006, 2013; European Commission, 2016). When the researcher started to write this dissertation, the UK and Italy were not only part of the OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development) but also of the European Union. Following the Brexit Referendum held in June 2016, the UK started the process of separation from the European Union (EU). Even though Brexit is a compelling topic to analyse, especially in a nation branding context, its analysis goes beyond the purpose of this study. This project will consider Brexit as a contextual factor that held enormous political, social and economic consequences for both the UK and the other EU members (Merrick, 2017; Singh, 2017). Since its announcement, Brexit has started to threaten the solid reputation of the UK as the government was accused of “sorely lacking” in the leadership needed to maintain Britain’s position in areas such as robotics and climate change” (Syal, 2017). The report published by the National Audit Office (NAO) also warned about the disastrous effect that Brexit could have on UK research fundings which were previously relying to a large extent on EU contributions (Syal, 2017). From a migration viewpoint, before Brexit, the UK government had already stressed the necessity of prioritising skilled over unskilled migration (The Migration Observatory, 2014). This resulted in the introduction of a Points Based System (Tier 1-5) and policies designed to decrease the net migration while attracting the ones “who have most to contribute to the UK” (Home Department, 2006, p.1). Data gathered by the Migration Observatory (2014) revealed that the number of highly skilled resources belonging to the European Economic Area (EEA) increased during the period 2004-2013. This was also confirmed by the study “*The Fiscal Effects of Immigration to the UK*” (Dustmann and Frattini, 2014): the UK represented a magnet for highly educated EU migrants (Travis, 2014). A few months after the Brexit referendum, though, a

Deloitte study revealed a dreaded change: "47% [Europeans] were considering leaving after Brexit, while overall one-third of non-British workers could leave" (Allen, 2017). Brexit engendered a phenomenon called "Brexodus" which seems to involve, in addition to EU and non-EU citizens, also more than 100,000 British born citizens who do not identify with their country any more (Dearden, 2017). This is added to the one in ten British skilled resources that every year leave the UK to work abroad (UCL, 2015; Whitehead, 2015). This will have a huge impact on the British economic and political future. Whilst before Brexit the UK could count on a positive brain circulation, the identity and political crisis that it is undergoing seem to be able to undermine this or at least leave some uncertainty about the effects of Brexit.

After the loss of the British ally, Italy and with it all the other EU-members need to act fast to contrast the fierce competition from a vast number of other economies (European Commission, 2016). As far back as the '90s, the Italian press and academic articles have pointed out the huge level of migration of local highly-skilled resources, due to the lack of job and research opportunities in the country (Becker, Ichino and Peri, 2003). According to a recent report compiled by the Italian National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT), 25,000 highly skilled workers left the country in 2016 (+9% compared to 2015) (Licari, 2017). Looking at university, specifically, Italy exports more researchers than the ones it imports with -13%, the only negative figure in Europe (Intravaia, 2016). What distinguishes Italy from other nations, such as the UK, is therefore not the number of exiled graduates but the lack of that virtuous circle of brain drain-brain gain, which, interestingly, is more typical of a developing economy (The Economist, 2011).

This brief overview does not aim to be exhaustive but to explain the context chosen for the present investigation. The following section will present the industry this study has focused on and will explain how the issues presented here affect the higher education sector.

4.6.2 The Choice of the Higher Education Sector

The higher education sector represents an interesting area of investigation in the context of highly skilled resources. "There is [in fact] heightened recognition of tertiary education's role in driving growth through stimulating innovation, providing skilled workers and supporting business start-ups" (McNeil and Silim, 2012, p.3). Highly skilled workers represent a key resource for both academia and nation brands and the two often work together in the battle to attract international talents. As nations compete to attract the brightest, in fact, also universities are forced to fight with each other in order to entice the best students and skilled academic staff (Nguyen, Melewar and Hemsley-Brown, 2019). This increased competition is due to a number of different factors (e.g. globalisation, governmental pressure, increasing offer, financial costs…) and has contributed to the growing adoption of marketing and branding in higher education (Stephen Wilkins and Huisman, 2013; Nguyen, Melewar and Hemsley-Brown, 2019). From a research perspective, the last decade has been characterised by a proliferation of studies on branding higher education

(Nguyen, Melewar and Hemsley-Brown, 2019; Oplatka and Hemsley-Brown, 2020). Special attention has been devoted to the perception of university images (Kazoleas, Kim and Moffitt, 2001; Arpan, Raney and Zivnuska, 2003; Stephen Wilkins and Huisman, 2013; Berndt and Hollebeek, 2019), brand performance (Nguyen *et al.*, 2016) as well as to factors that influence a university attractiveness from a student point of view (Wilkins, Balakrishnan and Huisman, 2012; Hemsley-Brown and Oplatka, 2015; Herrero-Crespo, San Martín Gutiérrez and Garcia-de los Salmones, 2016). Although the majority of studies focus on students, a few authors have more recently started to look into HE organisational branding and the attractiveness of academic staff (Saurombe, Barkhuizen and Schutte, 2017). Nevertheless, more research is needed in this area.

When we look at the two chosen countries, data clearly show several issues affecting the Italian higher education sector. In the last decade universities have experienced a 20% enrolment drop (Cammelli and Gasperoni, 2015). According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OCSE), Italy is among the last countries in the EU for the number of individuals in higher education (Intravaia, 2017). Only 22% of young people receive tertiary education (Subacchi, 2016). Looking at the attractive potential of Italian universities to a foreign public, the figures are even more discouraging. Although the country is one of the richest in terms of cultural and historical heritage, foreign students account only for 3.7% of all students (Cammelli and Gasperoni, 2015). On the contrary more and more Italians decide to leave Italy to study in another country, "also pushed by concerns about employment prospects"(Cammelli and Gasperoni, 2015, p.16; Romei, 2017). With regards to research, compared to other nations, Italy devotes only 1.05% of its GDP to research & development (R&D), which is below the EU average and below the objective of 3% agreed in the Treaty of Lisbon (ANVUR, 2017). The same report also highlights a reduction of doctoral students of 41% since 2013. At the same time, the indicator of the level of attractiveness of foreign talents is really low: only 1% of academics come from a foreign country. To reverse the trend, at the end of 2015, the Prime Minister, Matteo Renzi, announced the goal of attracting 500 new talents from abroad (including foreigners but also Italians that left in the brain drain) (the measure is included in the recent law "*Legge di Stabilità"*) (Bruno and Tucci, 2015).

Unlike Italy, the UK has always shown positive figures also thanks to the prestige and reputation of its universities (Pells, 2017). Until 2015, international students accounted for 18% of the total population (UKCISA, 2015) against 3% in Italy. Similarly, the number of academic staff increased by 4.5%. These positive results also derive from the governmental pressure on universities to attract a greater number of students, raise the tuition fees, and increase the offer and the "internationalization" of universities (Ivy, 2001; Binsardi and Ekwulugo, 2003; Bennett and Ali-Choudhury, 2009; Nguyen, Melewar and Hemsley-Brown, 2019). Moreover, "the use of English and the openness of the system make the UK very attractive also for academics" (European University Institute, 2014). The country, indeed, showed a competitive academic structure and flexible job market. Compared to Italy, affected by brain-drain, a virtuous cycle has always characterised the UK: “while there are significant inflows of highly-skilled migrants, there has been a significant net outflow of highly-skilled workers from the UK” (European University Institute, 2014). However, these positive figures have started to change after Brexit with a fall in the number of EU students applying to British universities and a million skilled EU workers planning to leave the island (Helm, 2017). Amongst them, there are several academics that already left or are currently reviewing their opportunities in the UK (Moules, 2017). According to Standard Charter chief executive, Bill Winters: “Some of the best talent that we can have in the UK marketplace is coming from students that have chosen to study here and then stayed for some extended period afterwards… We've noticed that's been impacted already” (Jack, 2017).

In the light of this analysis, higher education institutions in the two chosen countries, Italy and the UK, have been chosen as the context of this research. The collection of qualitative data took place in the two major industrial cities in the UK and Italy, Milan and London. The two cities present similar characteristics: they contribute substantially to the economy of the country and are considered the hubs of the fashion industry (OECD, 2006). Although Milan is not the capital of the peninsula, it is considered “a major engine of Italian growth thanks to the presence of a well-educated and relatively young labour market, a lively entrepreneurship pool, and networks of dynamic small firms” (OECD, 2006). Both metropolises constitute the centre of the most prestigious educational institutions and some of the biggest research centres in the respective countries (The Mayor of London, 2011; Ministry of Education, 2014). For pragmatic reasons (i.e., the need for a higher number of responses), at the quantitative stage all academic institutions in the UK and Italy were taken into consideration for the administration of the online questionnaires.

To conclude, this section has described the setting in which this research will be conducted. The characteristics of the population and the sample will be explained, in more detail, in section 4.7.

4.7 Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis is the “who” or rather the major entity explored in the study (Trochim, 2006). The choice of an appropriate unit of analysis depends on the correct formulation and examination of the research questions and objectives (Baker, 1994).

In line with the research objective and the conceptual model presented in the third chapter, the unit of analysis includes the highly skilled resources of the academic institutions of the UK and Italy (See RG3 – Table 1.1.). As previously explained, research on highly skilled resources in the context of nation branding has been scant (Papadopoulos, 2004; Nadeau and Olafsen, 2015; Silvanto, Ryan and McNulty, 2015). Therefore, individuals and not groups have been chosen as the preferred focus for the unit of analysis (Babbie, 2010). It is important, at this point, to clarify the meaning of “highly skilled resources” also called “qualified immigrants” or “talents”. These terms have been used intercheangeably to identify a “group of people who are well educated, or who have relatively high scores in cognitive tests, or who earn high incomes, or who work (or have work experience) in professional or managerial occupations. In an even larger sense, the highly skilled are those who enhance the innovative ability of the economy*"*(Micro-Economic Policy Analysis Branch, 2008). Even though slight differences have been found in the use of these terms, they will be used here intercheangeably to refer to "university-educated people who have moved on a permanent basis to work in countries other than their own" (Cerdin, Diné and Brewster, 2014, p. 151; Guo and Al Ariss, 2015; Crowley-Henry and Al Ariss, 2018). Since the setting is higher education, skilled resources in this sector include students and academic staff at all levels: researchers, lecturers, assistant professors and professors. While the academic staff is the flagship of the R&D of a country, students are a great resource for nation brands and an important channel for the arrival of high-skilled migrants (Kahanec and Zimmerman, 2011; Raghuram, 2013; Bryła, 2019). "Countries increasingly see international students as a source of well-integrated, qualified labour and facilitate the entry of students through simplified visa arrangements and measures to make international study more attractive" (Hopkins and Levis, 2012, p.62). Moreover, students can be attracted and retained more easily than highly skilled professionals, and at a lower price, which makes it an appealing option for many countries (Hawthorne, 2008). Finally, students have been used as the main sample by previous authors in studies aimed at understanding migration intentions of highly skilled workers (Naudeau and Olafsen, 2015; Schade *et al*., 2018). Therefore, both students and academic staff constitute the unit of analysis for this project.

4.7.1 Sample and Sampling Design

A sample is generally defined as some part of a larger body selected to represent the whole (Malhotra, Nunan and Birks, 2017). The process of selecting this part is called sampling (Babbie, 2010; Bell, Bryman and Harley, 2019). In order to be representative of the whole from which it is selected the overall characteristics of the sample should approximate the ones of the population. Following Malhotra and Birks the researcher needs to carefully specify "who should and should not be included in the sample" (Malhotra, Nunan and Birks, 2017, p. 414) in order to make it representative.

Before explaining which sampling design has been chosen for this research, it is important to introduce a few concepts: target population, sampling elements and sampling frame. The target population is the ideal universe from which research results are to be generalised. It is the aggregation of different sampling elements and it is important because it owns "the information sought by the researcher" (Malhotra, Nunan and Birks, 2017, p.414). In this specific case, the population is constituted by the highly skilled resources of Italy and the UK, while the elements are students and staff of academic institutions. As Babbie (2010) explains "in a given study elements are often the same as units of analysis, though the former are used in sample selection and the latter in data analysis" (Babbie, 2010, p.78). Therefore, an in-depth analysis of the characteristics of the sampling elements and the justification for that choice are provided above. Finally, the sampling frame is the list of the study population from which the researcher can extract the sampling elements (e.g. phone book or database of mailing lists) (Malhotra, Nunan and Birks, 2017). Due to data protection, universities are not allowed to provide a database with the contact details of their students and staff. It is therefore impossible for the researcher to access a complete list of the population.

The choice of the design relates to the set of rules or procedures that indicate how the sample elements are selected from the pool of the whole population. According to Bell and colleagues (2019) it is possible to identify two main techniques: probability and non-probability sampling. In a probability sample "elements in a population are chosen at random and have a known probability for selection" (Ritchie *et al.*, 2013, p. 247). The strategies for probability sampling comprise: simple random sampling, systematic random sampling, stratified random sampling and multi-stage sampling (Bell, Bryman and Harley, 2019). Its main advantages are: the possibility of producing a statistically representative sample (Denscombe, 2002), avoiding researcher bias in element selection and reliably estimating sampling error (Babbie, 2010). It is therefore considered the most effective method, especially when there is a need to test hypotheses empirically. On the contrary with non-probability sampling, it is impossible to estimate the probability that any element has been included in the sample (Churchill, 1996). Non-probability strategies include: purposive, theoretical, convenience, quota and snowball sampling (Ritchie *et al.*, 2013; Malhotra and Birks, 2017). Since it is not possible to obtain a precise sampling frame, the author had to exclude the use of probability-based sampling. Following Denscombe (2002), when evident limitations, as in this case, are acknowledged, the researcher can opt for a non-probability sampling, even though the generalisability of the statistical results can be relatively limited. Specifically, a purposive sampling (called judgment or criterion-based sampling) (Bryman, 2012) has been adopted since, compared to the others, this strategy allows the researcher to choose the participants on the basis of particular characteristics or features that "enable detailed exploration and understanding of the central themes and questions which the researcher wishes to study" (Ritchie *et al.*, 2013, p.121). In this case, it allows the researcher to choose the individuals that have the following characteristics: are enrolled in Italian/British universities as undergraduate, postgraduate or PhD students and/or are part of the academic staff. Moreover, this strategy ensures that all the key elements are taken into consideration and guarantees enough diversity (Ritchie *et al.*, 2013) with regards to age but also gender, ethnic groups and nationality. This is particularly important in the first stage of the study, where the researcher has more control over the choice of sampling elements. Heterogeneous samples or maximum variation sample (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2013) have thus been considered as the best option, since it is the most inclusive, considering a variety of cases that are different from each other. In addition to purposive sampling, snowball sampling has been used to recruit participants for the main study. Snowball sampling refers to selection based on referrals provided by an initial group of participants (Malhotra and Birks, 2017). The advantages of using snowball sampling in combination with purposive sampling are rapidity and accuracy. The main disadvantage, instead, is potential bias as respondents tend to refer people who are similar to them (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019). However, the use of snowball is justified when elements in the sample are difficult to identify or accesss.

A final aspect that should be taken into consideration is the access to the sample. Concerning academic staff, contact details comprising e-mail address and telephone number are published on the university websites and can be easily accessed by members of the public. Access to students' information, instead is limited. For interviews/focus groups students were recruited directly on campus and/or via social media (Facebook university students open groups). In order to administer the survey to students, instead, Qualtrics database was used. Qualtrics is an insights and research software often cited in professional journals and used in academic research (Feinberg, Kinnear and Taylor, 2013).

4.7.2 Sample Size

Sample size concerns the number of elements that constitute the sample and can vary according to the objective of study and the methods adopted. As previously mentioned, qualitative research uses smaller sizes while quantitative relies on a larger number of participants to ensure generalisability. The rationale for the choice of the size for the two selected methods is presented here below:

- **Qualitative stage**

For focus groups, Churchill (1979) suggests 8-10 respondents should be enough to generate additional measurement items (Fern, 1982), while Ritchie et al. (2013) consider 6 to 12 participants ideal. Since the researcher needs to assess perceptions of both highly skilled resources of both Milan and London universities, four focus groups - two in each city (one with students and one with academic staff)- were conducted. Each focus group comprised at least 6 participants up to a maximum of 15. With regards to interviews, instead, following a general rule of thumb, the number of respondents should remain under 50 (Ritchie *et al.*, 2013). Adler and Adler, for instance, suggest the use of a sample between 12 and 60 respondents, Bryman between 12 and 30 (Baker and Edwards, 2012). As Bryman underlines, those numbers are, of course, only an indication and not ideal figures. Limitations concern time and the theoretical underpinning of the study in terms of breadth and scope of RQs and philosophy (Baker and Edwards, 2012). Since these are exploratory interviews, the researcher has privileged depth over breadth, the latter being instead the objective of the quantitative stage. The researcher, therefore, selected 6 individuals in each country (3 students and 3 members of the academic staff) for in-depth interviews.

- **Quantitative stage**

For the main questionnaire a number of factors need to be considered, such as the number of variables, the use of techniques such as confirmatory factor analysis, sampling error, response and non-response bias, but also time and costs. Since it was not possible to obtain a complete list of the target population due to the limitations previously mentioned, the methods used in probability sampling for the calculations of the sample size were neither useful nor effective (Battaglia, 2008).

In purposive sampling, there is no “correct” number of participants (Lynch, 2011). The choice of the size is influenced by a number of other factors that the researcher needs to take into consideration such as data analysis processes or techniques (Hair *et al.,* 2010). For instance, the use of confirmatory factor analysis to confirm the validity of the scales as suggested by Churchill (1979) and of SEM and Maximum Likelihood Method (ML). Following Netemeyer, Bearden and Sharma (2003) and Hair et al. (2018), a minimal sample size for CFA should be at least more than the number of covariance in the input data matrix. Similarly, Hair et al. (2018) suggest that the minimum sample size should be between 100 and 400 responses if using maxium likelihood (ML) in Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). Moreover Hair (2010) indicates the 1:10 proportion (ten observations for each variable) when performing multivariate data analysis. Others, instead, believe a proportion of 1:5 might be sufficient (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988). The researcher also needs to consider the nonresponse bias, which is around 50% for mail surveys (Yu and Cooper, 1983). Therefore, the sample size for the quantitative stage should be between 270 and 540 respondents (54 parameters considered). Given the 50% nonresponse bias, the researcher aimed to distribute at least 1.080 questionnaires.

4.8 The Research Instruments: Scale Development

After the analysis of the research design and methods, it is important to define the research instruments or rather the tools that will be adopted in order to measure the constructs. To do this, researchers need to develop a scale which makes it possible to link the theoretical framework with the empirical testing. Scales refer to “measurement instruments that are collections of items combined into a composite score and intended to reveal levels of theoretical variables not readily observable by direct means” (de Vellis, 2016, p. 91). The scale development process comprises eight stages (Churchill, 1979) (See Fig 4.4). These steps include the specification of the domain construct, the generation of a sample of items (qualitative study) and the first data collection through the pilot study (quantitative study). The purification of the measures leads to the main survey and the techniques to assess the validity and reliability of the constructs before developing a norm. These eight stages will be described in more detail in the following sections.

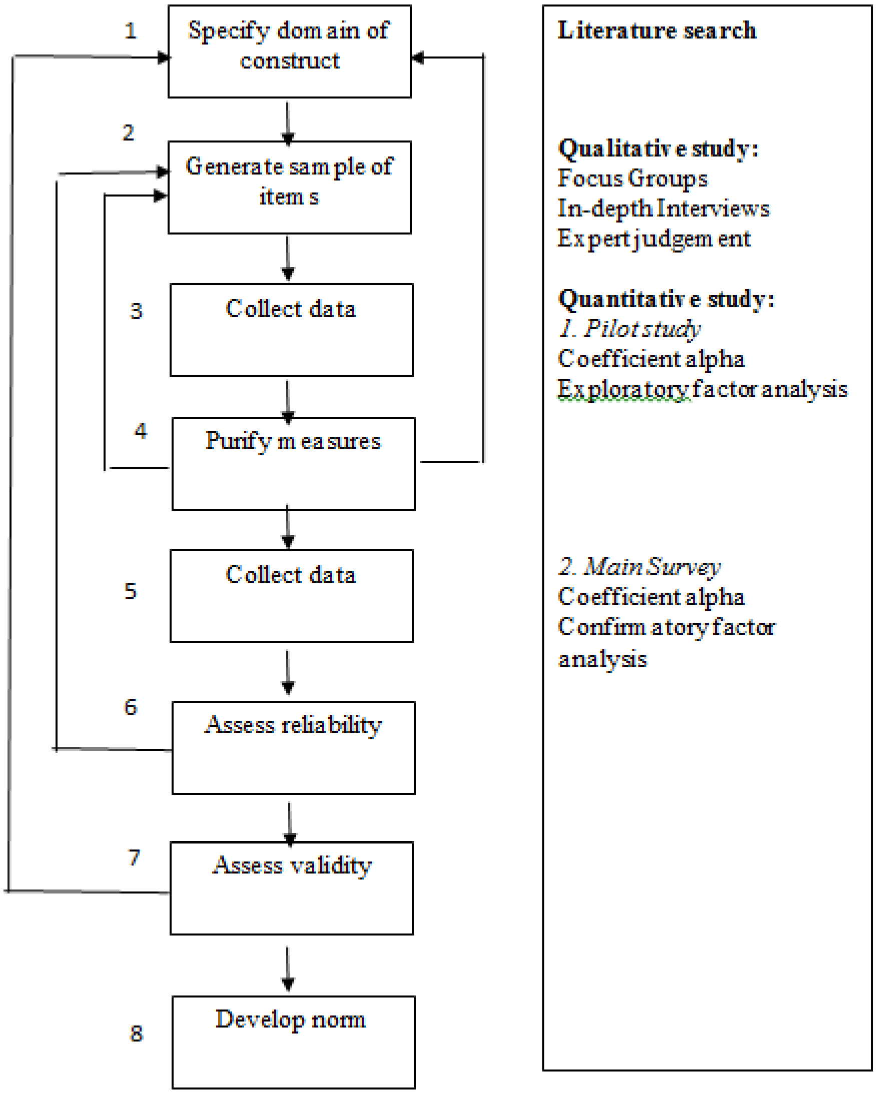


Fig 4.4. Scale design process. Adapted from Churchill (1979). Author's elaboration (2016).

4.9 The Research Process and Data Analysis

In line with the process illustrated in Figure 4.4, this section will describe each stage in detail starting with the domain construct specification:

4.9.1 Domain Construct Specification

The first step of this research consists of defining the constructs (Churchill, 1979; Zaichkowsky, 1985; de Vellis, 2016; Alvarado-Herrera *et al.*, 2017) by "delineating what is included in the definition and what is excluded" (Churchill, 1979, p.67). An in-depth literature search is thus fundamental at this stage to explain where the variables come from, what they mean and what are the items that best describe them. In line with the aim of the present study, chapter 2 has reviewed the literature on country image, corporate social responsibility and nation brands. The review spans across different academic fields: international marketing, tourism, place branding, managemenet, organisational behaviour, international migration and human resources management. Table 4.4 here below illustrates the main constructs identified, based on the research questions and following the literature search (See Chapter 3 for the conceptual framework).

The constructs and their definitions		
Main constructs		
Constructs	**Definition**	**References**
Social responsibility of country (SRIC)	Mental network of associations connected to a country commitment to contribute to sustainable development by integrating social and environmental imperatives in its behaviour and activities.	(Verlegh, 2001; Pérez-Currás, 2009; Gotsi, Lopez and Andriopoulos, 2011; Jones *et al.*, 2019; UNIDO, 2020)
	Environmental responsibility (ENVSRIC) - Effective management and protection of natural resources and biodiversity thanks to a reduction of the stakeholders' impact on the environment (e.g. efficient waste disposal, reduction of CO_2 emissions, support of environmental initiatives…).	(Panapanaan *et al.*, 2003; Mazurkiewicz, 2004; Panwar *et al.*, 2006; Turker, 2009b; Isa and Reast, 2012; Rahman and Post, 2012; Martinez, Pérez and del Bosque, 2013)
	Political responsibility (PSRIC) – Effective management and respect of national and international policies that contribute to the stability and reliability of country (e.g. stability of government, level of corruption, immigration policies…).	(Carroll, 1979; Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Allred, Lala and Chakraborty, 2008; Nadeau *et al.*, 2008; Pérez and Rodríguez del Bosque, 2015a)
	Social responsibility (SSRIC) - Safeguard and promotion of national wellbeing (health care, education and public welfare) and heritage (culture and values) (e.g. promotion of education, social security services, health care system…)	(Barbier, 1987; Panapanaan *et al.*, 2003; Panwar *et al.*, 2006; Martínez and del Bosque, 2013; Pérez and del Bosque, 2013b)
	Economic responsibility (ECOSRIC) – Safeguard and promotion of economic activities, job opportunities, good level of standard of living and sustainable levels of labour costs.	(Panapanaan *et al.*, 2003; Panwar *et al.*, 2006; Martinez, Pérez and del Bosque, 2013)
	Ethical responsibility (ETHSRIC) – Safeguard of basic rights of freedom and equality and promotion of respect and integration.	(Carroll, 1979; Lantos, 2002; Virvilaite and Daubaraite, 2011)
Nation Brand Identification (NBI)	Active, selective and volitional identification of stakeholders with the country that help them satisfy one or more key self-definitional needs. It causes them to engage in favourable as well as potentially unfavourable country-related behaviours	(Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Kim, Han and Park, 2001; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Escalas and Bettman, 2005; Stokburger-Sauer, 2011; So *et al.*, 2017)

Nation Brand Attractiveness (NBA)	Drawing force generated by the extent to which a nation brand is considered favourable, distinctive and enables stakeholders to satisfy their self-definitional needs.	(Kaur, 1981; Weigold, Flusser and Ferguson, 1992; Mael and Ashforth, 1992; Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail, 1994; Kim, Han and Park, 2001; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; scar Gonzlez-Benito, Martnez-Ruiz and Moll-Descals, 2008; Currás-Pérez, Bigné-Alcañiz and Alvarado-Herrera, 2009; Sophonsiri and Polyorat, 2009; Lee, 2016; So *et al.*, 2017)
Intention to Apply for a Job Vacancy/ to study (IAJV)	Likelihood that a person would apply for or accept a job offer/studies in a country. Intentions move beyond the passivity of company attractiveness to involve active pursuit of a job/ apply to study	(Highhouse, Lievens and Sinar, 2003; Wang *et al.*, 2013)
	Moderators	
Constructs	**Definition**	**References**
Corporate Image (CI)	Mental network of affective and cognitive associations connected to the company	(Bernstein, 1984; Keller, 1993; Dowling, 1994a; Van Riel, 1995; Gotsi, Lopez and Andriopoulos, 2011)
Importance of ethics and social responsibility (ICSR)	The role and importance that social responsibility plays in the stakeholders' minds. This construct derives from the Perceived Role of Ethics and Social Responsibility (PRESOR) initially developed to measure managerial perceptions about ethics and social responsibility. It has been subsequently used by other scholars such as Singhapakadi (1995) and Turker (2009)	(Singhapakadi, 1995; Turker, 2009)
Nation Brand Familiarity (NBF)	Level of knowledge and experience of a certain place/destination that can influence travel intentions	(Horng *et al.*, 2012; Bianchi, Milberg and Cúneo, 2017; Chen *et al.*, 2017)

Table 4.4 The constructs and their definitions. Author's elaboration (2016).

The chart has been developed based on the analysis of the literature. Definitions have been adopted and, in some cases, adapted to fit a nation branding context. The next step involves the identification and generation of the items that enable the measurement of these constructs.

4.9.2 Items Generation

The generation of an adequate pool of items requires the researcher to specify the parameters that capture the domain of the construct. The techniques used in this stage comprise: literature searches, experience surveys, critical incidents, focus groups…(Churchill, 1979; de Vellis, 2016). In order to facilitate the generation of the items, the author has combined the following techniques: literature search, focus groups and semi-structured interviews with highly skilled resources of academic institutions in Milan and London. The use of interviews and focus groups at this stage is crucial for generating ideas and new hypotheses (Fern, 1982; Ritchie et al., 2013). These qualitative techniques constitute the qualitative stage of this study and will be treated in detail in the following section. This first part, instead, will focus on the first generation of a pool of items derived from the literature review process.

The chart here below (Table 4.5) presents the main items taken into consideration after the analysis of previous studies. While some were maintained similar to the original, others had to be adapted (Dilmperi, King and Dennis, 2017). A few of them, instead, were added by the author. This pool of items was further refined after the collection of qualitative data, which enabled to improve the measures and constructs presented in this table. As suggested by Churchill all the constructs are measured using more than one item (multi-items constructs). Multi-items constructs, in fact, should be preferred to single-items: “no single item is likely to provide a perfect representation of the concept, just as no single word can be used to test for differences in subjects' spelling abilities and no single question can measure a person's intelligence” (Churchill, 1979, p.68). This is also supported by Hair and colleagues (2018). The items are measured using a 7-points Likert scale and a semantic differential scale (Malhotra, Nunan and Birks, 2017). These are considered by the majority of authors as the most suitable methods for the measurement of constructs in social research and have been used by many for the evaluation of country image and CSR image as well as attitudes and intentions.

List of Constructs and Related items		
Independent Variable		
Construct	**Dimensions and Items**	**References**
Social responsibility image of countries (SRIC)	Environmental responsibility 1. ENVSRIC1 X companies make an effort to protect the environment 2. ENVSRIC2 X government implements policies and special programs to minimise the negative impact of companies and individuals on the natural environment 3. ENVSRIC3 X is environmentally friendly	Lala, Allred and Chakraborty, 2009; Pérez and del Bosque, 2013b (1-2); Turker, 2009 (2) Researcher, 2018 (3)
	Political responsibility 4. PSRIC1 Stable political environment – Unstable political environment 5. PSRIC2 X has high levels of corruption 6. PSRIC3 X government is reliable 7. PSRIC4 Altruistic - Selfish	Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Lala, Allred and Chakraborty, 2009 (1); Researcher, 2018 (2-3); Aaker, 1997 (4)
	Social responsibility 8. SSRIC1 Existence of an adequate welfare system – Lack of an adequate welfare system 9. SSRIC2 Existence of an optimal health-care system (hospitals, medical aids, emergency services) – Lack of an optimal health-care system 10. SSRIC3 X is a safe place where to live	Martin and Eroglu, 1993 (1,3); Researcher, 2018 (2)
	Economic responsibility 11. ECOSRIC1 X offers good job opportunities 12. ECOSRIC2 X workers have a good work life balance 13. ECOSRIC3 X workers are very well treated 14. ECOSRIC4 High standard of living – Low standard of living	Researcher, 2018 (1); Pérez and Del Bosque, 2013b; Turker, 2009 (2-3); Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Nadeau and Olafsen, 2016 (4); Lala, Allred and Chakraborty, 2009 (3)

	<u>Ethical responsibility</u> 15. ETHSRIC1 X citizens have a great deal of freedom (many rights) 16. ETHSRIC2 X promotes equality, respect and integration 17. ETHSRIC3 X is ethical	Nadeau et al., 2008; Lala, Allred and Chakraborty, 2009 (1); Researcher, 2018 (2-3);
	Dependent Variables	
Nation Brand Identification (NBI)	18. NBI1 I feel that my personality and the personality of the country X are very similar 19. NBI2 I feel that my values and the values of the country X are very similar 20. NBI3 When someone criticizes X, it feels like a personal insult 21. NBI4 How attached are you to X	Tuskej et al. 2013 (1-2); Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000 (3) So et al., 2017 (4)
Nation Brand Attractiveness (NBA)	22. NBA1 I think that X is a very attractive country 23. NBA2 I like what X embodies 24. NBA3 This country X is attractive to me as a place for employment/study 25. NBA4 I am very interested in what others think about this brand	Carless, 2005; Gomes and Neves, 2011; Viktoria Rampl and Kenning, 2014 (1,3); Pérez-Curràs, 2009; So et al., 2017 (1-2); Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003 (2); So et al., 2013 (4)
Intention to Apply for a Job Vacancy/ to study (IAJV)	26. IAJV1 I consider this country X one of my best choices to apply for job a opportunity/ studies 27. IAJV2 If I were searching for a job/phd/master abroad, there would be a strong probability that I would apply to a university/company in this country 28. IAJV3 If you were offered a job/position in this country would you accept it? 29. IAJV4 In the near future, I would consider searching for a job/PhD/master in X	Roberson et al., 2005; Gomes and Neves, 2011 and Saini et al., 2013 (1-2); Wang *et al.*, 2013; Tsai et al, 2014 (1,3) ; Researcher, 2018 (4)
	Moderators	
Corporate Image (CI)	30. CI1 Universities in X have internationally well-known or excellent professors 31. CI2 Universities in X have internationally known academic programs/department/schools 32. CI3 I have always had a good impression of universities in X	Arpan, Raney and Zivnuska, 2003 (1-2; 4-5); Aaker, 1997 (5);

	33. CI4 Universities in X have good resources (computer equipment, transportation, library, scholarships…) 34. CI5 Universities in X are socially responsible	Schlesinger, Cervera and Pérez-Cabañero, 2017 (3)
Nation Brand Familiarity (NBF)	35. NBF1 In general, how familiar are you with this country? 36. NBF2 I have heard many things about the country X as a place where to work 37. NBF3 How often have you visited the country X?	Turban, 2001; Bianchi et al., 2017 (1) ; Lievens et al., 2005 (2); Researcher, 2018 (3)
Importance of ethics and social responsibility (ICSR)	38. ICSR1 Being socially responsible is the most important thing a firm can do 39. ICSR 2 Social responsibility of a firm is essential to its long-term profitability 40. ICSR 3 The overall effectiveness of a business can be determined to a great extent by the degree to which it is socially responsible 41. ICSR 4 Business has a social responsibility beyond making profit	Singhapkadi, 1995; Turker, 2009 (1-4)

Table 4.5 The literature search: Main constructs and their measures. Author's elaboration (2020).

Comparing the use of the two formats in order to measure country image, Jaffe and Nebenzahl point out that tests do not indicate a preferred method (Jaffe and Nebenzahl, 1984). The combination of the two scales could therefore be useful to strengthen the measurement of the items whilst, at the same time, reducing common methods variance (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003).

4.9.3 The Qualitative Study

The exploratory study has the objective of facilitating the generation of ideas to enhance the conceptual framework, the hypotheses and the generation of adequate measures. The use of a qualitative study is thus particularly appropriate (See Section 4.5) at this stage and will be carried out in two steps: focus groups followed by semi-structured interviews.

4.9.3.1 Focus Groups

Focus groups are ideal for generating measurement items as "putting a group of people together will produce a wider range of information, insight and ideas" (Malhotra, Nunan and Birks, 2017, p.186) even more compared to individual responses gathered through interviews. Four main focus groups, two (one with students and one with academic staff) in each city (Milan and London) were conducted. Each focus group comprised a minimum of 6 participants. Due to time and space limitations, the researcher also had to choose a specific university to conduct the focus groups. Therefore, the Polytechnic University of Milan (Politecnico di Milano) and Middlesex University London were selected as setting for this first qualitative stage. Even though the recruitment was extended to all students/staff working in all the institutions located in the two cities, we acknowledge that the choice of the university might have had an influence on the decision of individuals of other institutions to participate. As far as our RQs are concerned, however, this does not create any specific issue.

Participants were recruited using purposive and snowball sampling (See section in 4.7). The recruitment process employed two different strategies: email and Facebook (e.g. groups of PhD students/PG students in Milan/London). The researcher first contacted colleagues who worked or studied in university by sending them direct emails. She explained the purpose of the research and asked whether they would like to participate and if they could forward the email to colleagues and/or students. She then wrote on the Facebook page of groups or subgroups of the respective universities to increase the participation of students.

The author conducted the focus groups following the five stages and relative rules suggested by Ritchie et al. (2013): scene-setting and ground rules, individual introductions, the opening topic, discussion and conclusion. During the scene-setting, respondents received information about the study and were asked to sign the informed consent (See Appendix B). A brief socio-demographic questionnaire was also distributed to the participants. It is common practice to collect some socio-demographic data before a focus group/interview as these can facilitate the identification of the respondents, enrich the answers received during the discussion and enhance the generation of interesting moderators to be included in the model (Ritchie, Jane Lewis, *et al.*, 2013). Following the collection of socio-demographics, an interview protocol (topic guide) was used to guide the participants through the session (See Appendix B). The protocol was designed around key-themes that cover the main constructs of the research and included prompts and probes "allowing respondents to expand their answers and clarify issues" (Stylidis and Cherifi, 2018, p. 59). The focus groups lasted one hour and a half.

4.9.3.2 Semi-structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews represent the second technique adopted in the qualitative stage, used to complement the information obtained through focus groups. As explained before (See Section 4.5), focus groups are normally used in the initial stage of the study when the researcher needs to explore relevant issues that will be analysed in-depth with interviews (Ritchie *et al*., 2013). Compared to the previous technique, interviews allow "more candid discussion on the part of the interviewee, who might be intimidated to talk about a particular topic in a group" (Churchill, 1996, p.127). In addition, time and space are two of the main advantages of interviews since focusing on a single person allows the researcher to analyse the answers in more depth.

The researcher selected 6 individuals in each country (3 students and 3 academic staff members, comprising also PhDs). As per focus groups, the settings for the interviews were the Polytechnic University of Milan (Politecnico di Milano) and Middlesex University London. Each interview lasted on average one hour and followed the guidelines suggested by Ritchie et al. (2013). The participants were asked to fill in an informed consent and a short socio-demographic questionnaire prior to the interview (See Appendix B). The interviewer used a topic guide to facilitate the conversation and ensure that the research questions were adequately covered during the interview (See Appendix B). Questions in the topic guide remained flexible so as to allow respondents to express their opinions freely and revolved around the key concepts that pertain to the study (Stylidis and Cherifi, 2018). Follow-up questions including prompts and probes were used to unfold complex ideas expressed by the respondents (Fielding and Thomas, 2008; Ritchie et al., 2013).

4.9.3.3 Language and Translation

When a researcher decides to test the same constructs or model in different countries, he/she has to face a number of challenges linked to socio-cultural as well as linguistic differences. One of the first issues concerns the equivalence of constructs. The application of similar constructs in different settings requires the researcher to be particularly careful about the equivalence of both variables and related items (Craig and Douglas, 2000; Kaynak and Kara, 2002). Indeed, "a particular construct identified in one country may not exist in another country or may not be expressed in the same terms" (Craig and Douglas, 2000, p.311). In order to assess if a variable is applicable in both cultures (in this case the UK and Italy), Shimp and Sharma suggest first translating the construct and its measure into the language that pertains to the specific country (English for the UK and Italian for Italy) and then test it directly in the context of reference (Shimp and Sharma, 1987).

The second challenge is thus the translation and interpretation of questions. The researcher needs to provide answers to the following issues: who should translate the questions, how and if a translator is implied, what is his/her margin of freedom? (Temple and Young, 2004). According to Temple and Young (2004) the paradigm and theoretical framework chosen for the study should guide the researcher in the choice of a specific position regarding the answers. Dewey refers to language as the "*tool of tools*" highlighting its importance as form of sense (Innis, 2002) and of experience (Koopman, 2007). Thus, pragmatism recognises the influence of language in the development of the research. Although English is studied in Italy at school at all levels and it is widely used in the academic context, which is also the setting of this research, the researcher believes that an adequate translation of the questions is important to avoid discrepancies and eventual overlaps. A back-translation method was, hence, adopted as suggested by Brislin (1970) for the translation of both interview/focus groups guides and later for the translation of the questionnaire. This method is widely adopted in marketing studies (e.g. Dilmperi, King and Dennis, 2017; Priporas, Stylos and Kamenidou, 2019). It involves the use of two bilinguals, "one translating from the source to the target language, the second blindly translating back from the target to the source" (Brislin, 1970, p. 186). The two versions, original and back translated, are then compared in order to identify potential differences. "The accuracy of the back-translated version is considered an indicator of the accuracy of the target translation" (Douglas and Craig, 2007, p.30). Although back-translation is well-established in international marketing and business research, a few authors have recently raised some concerns (Douglas and Craig, 2007; Chidlow, Plakoyiannaki and Welch, 2014) regarding the notion of equivalence. To address these concerns, after back-translation the protocols and questionnaire was (1) re-examined by a team of monolingual/bilingual academics and (2) pre-tested as recommended by Brislin (1970).

4.9.3.4 Qualitative Data Analysis

Qualitative data were transcribed and analysed first manually and then using NVivo 12 Software (Bazeley and Jackson, 2013). As confirmed by Foroudi and colleagues the combination of manual coding and NVivo strengthens the quality of the analysis (Foroudi *et al.*, 2016). In order to analyse the data this study adopted thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Clarke and Braun, 2014). This technique involves searching across the data set in order to identify repeated patterns of meaning or themes. "Its unique selling point is its flexibility and wide-ranging application" (Clarke and Braun, 2014, p.51). Thematic analysis indeed is not linked to pre-existing theoretical framework. Therefore, it can be adopted by research embracing different paradigms (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Moreover, thematic analysis is known to be used in mixed method studies and widely adopted in exploratory sequential designs (Guest, MacQueen and Namey, 2012). The analysis is guided by the research objective and questions (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Being deductive in nature, a theoretical approach has been adopted. In a theoretical thematic analysis in fact the researcher can approach the data with a specific question in mind he/she wishes to code around (Boyatzis, 1998). In addition, stemming from a pragmatic paradigm, both semantic and latent themes were taken into consideration (Boyatzis, 1998; Braun and Clarke, 2006). In conducting the analysis, the researcher followed the six steps suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006, 2014). Data collected at this stage will be used to refine the measurement scales and identify the countries to be used as stimuli in the survey.

4.9.3.5 Expert Judgment

Before proceeding with the next steps, numerous authors suggest verifying content and face validity by asking a panel of experts to review the initial pool of items (de Vellis, 2016), already adjusted after the results obtained during the qualitative stage. This facilitates items generation and allows maximising the validity of the constructs, their definition and measures, assessing the trustworthiness of the process used to collect these information (Wrenn, Loudon and Stevens, 2007).

The term validity refers to the degree to which a measure reflects the construct investigated (de Vellis, 2016; Bell, Bryman and Harley, 2019). In other words, it allows verifying the adequacy of the scale as a measure of a specific variable. There are different typologies of validity assessments: content validity, face validity, criterion-related validity, construct or measurement validity (de Vellis, 2016) but also internal, external, ecological (Bell, Bryman and Harley, 2019) convergent, known-groups, predictive or pragmatic, discriminant and nomological validity (Viswanathan, 2005; Wrenn, Loudon and Stevens, 2007). The first two are normally assessed during preliminary stages and will be discussed here. The others, instead, will be explained in the next sections.

Both content and face validity are subjective judgments that rely on the experience of the scientific community (Viswanathan, 2005). Face validity is the easiest and most basic form of validity (Neuman, 2013). It allows assessing how adequately the items of a scale measure the construct of interest, asking a pool of experts to provide their judgment (Bell, Bryman and Harley, 2019) Content validity is a more sophisticated form of face validity. It verifies that the measures capture the entire meaning of the construct or rather that the indicators "sample all the ideas or areas in the conceptual space" (Neuman, 2013, p.78). The researcher needs to provide the experts with the working definition of the constructs and the related measures. They are thus asked to rate each item with regards to its relevance (high, moderate or low) in capturing the whole meaning of the construct expressed by the definition provided (De Vellis, 1991). At the same time, they can offer useful comments to improve the clarity and conciseness of the measures and reduce redundancy, while suggesting the introduction of variables that have been disregarded.

The researcher therefore asked three faculty members in the department of Marketing, Branding and Tourism of Middlesex University, London (UK) and three faculty members in the marketing department of the University of Leicester (UK) to judge the content, structure and wording of the scales and constructs definitions. This helped to strengthen the model and allowed the author to proceed with the collection of data.

4.9.3.6 Common Method Bias

Another important aspect that should be considered before proceeding with data collection is common method bias (CMB). This refers to the “biasing effects that measuring two or more constructs with the same method may have on estimates of the relationships between them” (Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Podsakoff, 2012, p. 540). In other words, covariation can be inflated due to measurement issues causing a bias in the results. Previous scholars that have studied CMB have identified two strategies to control this issue: procedural remedies and statistical remedies (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). Both strategies were used in this study. In terms of procedural remedies, Posdakoff et al. (2003) recommend collecting data to measure independent and dependent variables from different sources or using a temporal, proximal or psychological separation of measurements. Applying these remedies, however, might not be feasible in cases such as our study and comes with a series of disadvantages. Therefore, other procedural remedies were used, the first one being the improvement of scale items. Questions were enhanced to reduce ambiguity and complexity due to convoluted syntax, use of vague concepts or double-barreled questions. Another strategy to counteract CMB consists of the use of different response formats. For the purpose of this study, Likert Scale was thus used in combination with Semantic Differential. Finally, Posdakoff et al. (2003) suggest paying attention to the protection of respondents’ anonymity and to strategies that help to reduce evaluation apprehension. The intro section of the questionnaire (See Appendix C) covers both aspects and therefore offers another instrument to minimize CMB. Regarding statistical remedies, amongst the options, Harman’s single factor test (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003; Alnawas and Hemsley-Brown, 2018; Stylidis, 2020) and the CFA marker technique (Richardson, Simmering and Sturman, 2009) were used. These will be discussed in more depth in chapter 6.

4.9.4 The Quantitative Study: Pilot Study

Pilot studies enhance the development of the measurement instruments adopted in the main survey (Malhotra, Nunan and Birks, 2017). They are often used before self-administered questionnaires as pre-tests to ensure that the questions operate as expected (Bell, Bryman and Harley, 2019). They enable the researcher to clarify concepts, definitions, test questions wording, sequence, form and layout and identify eventual issues. Pilot studies also verify the level of difficulty of questions and instructions, the familiarity of respondents with certain themes, the response rate and the questionnaire completion (Bryman, 2012; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019).

Therefore, the researcher administered the online questionnaires to a small group of highly skilled resources in the above-mentioned settings (the UK and Italy). According to Malhotra, Nunan and Birks (2017) the participants in a pilot study should belong to the same population as the ones of the main survey. In this specific case, the respondents are the highly skilled resources of Italian and UK universities, whose characteristics have been previously described. The method used for data collection is always e-mail but the link to the survey was distributed only to selected universities in London and Milan. One of the main reasons is that the researcher needed to ensure that people taking part in the pre-test would not be involved in the survey, since this might impact on their behavior (Bell, Bryman and Harley, 2019). Therefore, more control over the administration process was required.

The sampling technique adopted is a non-probability technique called purposive sampling. As for the sample size a small number of participants (15-30) is usually required to test the questionnaire (Malhotra and Birks, 2003). However, in order to conduct factor analysis, the respondents should be more than the number of variables (52 parameters considered) (Hair *et al.*, 2018). In particular, Hair et al. (2018) suggest conducting 50 to 100 observations. Therefore, a sample size of 120 respondents was taken into consideration for this first part. In the questionnaires, the participants were asked to rate the items from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree) according to their perceptions and experience. Both Likert scale and Semantic Differential were adopted.

4.9.5 Measurement Purification

The purification of measures is another essential step before proceeding with the actual confirmatory phase where the correlation between constructs is tested (Wrenn, Loudon and Stevens, 2007). The process of purification is based on the data collected in the previous stage through the pilot study. It involves different techniques which allow the researcher to evaluate the items and test the reliability of the scales (Churchill, 1979). Reliability is a key term in social science and refers to the necessity of proving the degree of stability or consistency exhibited by the measurement instruments. In other words, "it suggests that the same thing is repeated or recurs under the identical or very similar conditions" (Neuman, 2013, p. 179). Specifically, coefficient alpha (also known as Cronbach's Alpha) is considered the most important indicator of a scale's quality and reliability and the first one to be assessed since it ensures the internal consistency of the set of items (Churchill, 1979). According to De Vellis (2016, p. 102) it can be defined as "an indication of the proportion of variance in the scale scores that is attributable to the true score". It provides useful indications in case of poor variability, negative correlations among items, noncentral mean and low scale-item correlation. If the coefficient alpha is low or negative, indeed, this indicates that the sample of items does not accurately capture the construct (Churchill, 1979). The statistical package IBM SPSS 26 was used to compute the coefficient. The analysis and parameters considered whilst conducting reliability tests are discussed in section 6.3.

Another important technique used to purify measures according to Churchill (1979) is exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Several authors, indeed, use it at early stages to determine the number of dimensions underlying the constructs. Moreover EFA becomes particularly useful when there is scarce theoretical information available on the constructs under investigation (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). Both concerns well fit this study characterised by a multi-dimensional independent variable and the adaptation of some pre-existent constructs to a new context. The IBM SPSS 26 statistical program was used to conduct EFA. The type of method used, and the process followed while conducted EFA are discussed in more detail in section 6.3.

4.9.6 The Quantitative Study: Main Survey

After the development and test of the measurement scales the researcher will conduct the main survey in the UK and Italy. The data gathered will be subsequently analysed to ensure validity and reliability of the constructs and to confirm the research hypotheses (Churchill, 1979).

According to what has been said above, the academic institutions of London and Milan represent the ideal research setting (See Section 4.6). The sample consists of academic highly skilled resources comprising PGs and PhDs students and staff (lecturers, professors and researchers) (See Research Sample, 4.7.1). They will be recruited using a non-probability sampling technique known as purposive sampling. With regards to the academic staff, the author will create a database of email addresses using the contacts available on the universities web pages. They will be asked to complete the questionnaire and to distribute it to their PGs and PhDs students. Overall, the questionnaire will be administered to 1,080 key informants in order to collect 540 responses across the two selected countries (54 parameters – 50% response rate via email) (See Section 4.7). Once the data have been collected, the researcher will proceed with the last phases which comprise the assessment of the validity and reliability of the study (Churchill, 1979), leading to the confirmation or rejection of the research hypotheses.

4.9.7 Validity and Reliability

This section will briefly explain the techniques used in order to test the validity and reliability of the study. As previously mentioned, both concepts are critical for social scientists (Neuman, 2013), since they allow the researcher to increase the quality and value of the research. While validity refers to the truthfulness and coincidence between construct and related definition and measure, reliability, instead, ensures the stability, generalisability and consistency of the results (Carmines and Zeller, 1979). In the following chart, the author presents the different typologies of validity and reliability and the main techniques used to test them:

Validity and reliability: types and techniques		
Validity		
Face Validity	It allows the researcher to assess how adequately the items of a scale measure the construct of interest	Experts judgment
Content Validity	It verifies that the measures capture the entire meaning of the construct or rather that the indicators "*sample all the ideas or areas in the conceptual space*"	Experts judgment
Construct Validity	Convergent Validity: It verifies that multiple items of the same construct operate in a similar way and are thus associated with one other Discriminant Validity: It is also called divergent and is the opposite of convergent validity. It ensures that the items linked to different construct are equally different or negatively associated	Factor analysis
	Nomological Validity: the examination of the hypothesised relationships between constructs and the empirical link between indicators and their underlying dimensions	Goodness-of-fit indices
Ecological Validity	It refers to the degree to which the behaviour observed in a study reflects what occurs in natural settings	Research design
Reliability		
Internal Consistency	It refers to the homogeneity of the items within the scale and their level of correlation	Coefficent Alpha
Stability reliability	It refers to the stability of measures across time	Test-Retest method
Representative Reliability	It verifies the reliability across subpopulations or groups of people	Subpopulation analysis
Equivalence Reliability	It tests if the measure obtains consistent results across different indicators	Split-half method Intercoder reliability

Table 4.6 Validity and reliability: Types and techniques. Adapted from De Vellis (1991, 2016) Author's elaboration (2016).

Following Churchill's guidelines (1979) the assessment of validity and reliability enters the research process in different moments:

1. Measurement Purification after first data collection (pilot study) – After the pilot test, the information is analysed to guarantee the validity and reliability of the measures. Face and content validity (expert judgement), internal consistency (coefficient alpha) and construct validity (exploratory factor analysis) are assessed. These have been discussed here above.
2. Validation of the scales after second data collection (main survey) – After the main survey, the information is analysed one more time to assess the validity and reliability. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is used to assess the measurement model in the first stage. The second stage, instead, is used to examine the structural model in line with Anderson's and Gerbing's (1988) two-steps SEM approach. During this phase, composite reliability, construct validity (convergent, discriminant and nomological) and ecological validity are analysed. The two-steps SEM approach is explained here below.

4.9.8 Development of the Norm

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is one of the most acknowledged methods in psychology and social research to test structural models (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). SEM refers to "a growing family of statistical methods for modelling the relations between variables" (Hoyle, 2012, p.3). Specifically, it is "a method of multivariate statistical analysis capable of measuring the underlying latent constructs identified by factor analysis and assessing the paths of the hypothesized relationships between the constructs" (Klem, 2000; Nusair and Hua, 2010, p.110). It is thus seen as the generalisation, integration and extension of previous methods: analysis of variance (ANOVA), multiple regression analysis and principle factor analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2018).

Like these classical approaches, SEM is based on linear models and allows models comparison (Bollen, 1989) through the chi-square values test. According to Raykov and Marcoulides (2006) it is widely applied to models which include variables not directly measurable and one of its major advantages compared to the previous methods, especially traditional regression analysis, is that it takes into account potential errors of measurement. "SEM also enables researchers to readily develop, estimate, and test complex multivariable models, as well as to study both direct and indirect effects [effects between two variables that are mediated by one or more intervening variables] of variables involved in a given model" (Raykov and Marcoulides, 2006, p.7). There are three main pillars that underlie SEM: path analysis models or diagrams, the synthesis of latent variables and measurement models and methods to estimate the parameters of structural models (Martínez-López, Gázquez-Abad and Sousa, 2013). This makes it one of the most powerful tools for theory testing (Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 2000) and thus an ideal instrument for proving the hypotheses advanced in this work. In fact, it effectively enables the researcher to estimate the level of correlation between the variables (Hoyle, 2012) and test the fit of the model while confirming or rejecting the hypotheses (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Byrne, 2016). According to Hair et al. and Nusair and Hua (Hair *et al.*, 1988, 2010; Nusair and Hua, 2010, p.106), indeed, SEM expands "the explanatory power and statistical efficiency for model testing with one comprehensive model".

SEM includes a measurement model, which links the variables to the constructs, and a structural path model, which instead links the constructs to other constructs (Iacobucci, 2009). Data analysis using this method, thus, comprises two main phases (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Hair *et al.*, 2010, Byrne, 2016):

1. Verification of the adequacy of the measurement model – Use of confirmatory factor analysis to assess the reliability of constructs and items and convergent and discriminant validity;
2. Verification of the adequacy of the structural model – Use of the goodness-of-fit indices to assess the overall model fit (Nusair and Hua, 2010).

These two steps guided the researcher in the analysis of data and test of the main hypotheses which will be discussed in more depth in chapter 6. Two types of software, IBM SPSS 26 and AMOS 26, will be used to conduct the analysis (Field, 2017; Byrne, 2016). In addition to the two stages CB-SEM, Sobel test and PROCESS (Baron and Kenny, 1986; Field, 2017; Hayes, 2018) were used to examine in more detail the mediation hypothesis and multigroup analysis was performed on the data to test the moderation hypotheses (Runyan *et al.*, 2012; Byrne, 2016). An explanation of these tests and detail of their stages is presented in chapter 6.

4.10 Research Ethics

Scholars always need to be aware of the ethical constraints of their studies (Malhotra, Nunan and Birks, 2017). In the specific context of social research, ethics relates to "principled sensitivity to the rights of others. Being ethical limits the choices we can make in the pursuit of truth" (Bulmer, 2008, p.146). As Ritchie et al. (2013) underline, in fact, there is a constant tension between ethics and research quality. This is the main reason why it is essential for the researcher to take ethics into consideration in every step of the research process (literature review, methodology, data collection and analysis).

Furthermore, ethics is a topic particularly relevant for this study as it underlies the entire research. It is indeed entrenched in the concept of social responsibility which is one of the main elements of the investigation. Ethics also plays a particular role within pragmatism, the research paradigm adopted by the researcher and explained above. Authors such as Dewey, in effect, have widely discussed the subject and developed a moral psychology and a value theory (Putnam, 1999). According to Dewey "in moral life, duty, virtue, and the good have their irreducible and proper place" (Pappas, 2008, p.2).

Specific guidelines and codes are provided by a number of associations and private/governmental institutions. Table 4.7 here below summarises some of the most important. Both countries of investigation have been taken into consideration. As the table clearly shows, while many British institutions have developed specific codes of ethics, only a few Italian associations provide guidelines to their employers and external researchers. A few international codes (ISA, MOST-UNESCO, ICC-ESOMAR, EU-GDPR) have also been included. Moreover, the researcher acknowledges the existence of a specific ethical code in her institution (Middlesex University, London), which has been thus included in the table and taken into consideration during the development of the present study.

Ethical Codes and Guidelines in Social Research	
UK Guidelines	
Social Research Association	Ethical Guidelines (2003)
British Sociological Association	Statement of Ethical Practice (2004)
Government Social Research Unit	GSR Professional Guidance: Ethical Assurance for Social Research in Government (2006)
British Psychological Association	Code of Ethics and Conduct (2009)
Market Research Society	Code of Conduct (2010) Guidelines for Online Research (2012)
Economic and Social Research Council	Framework for Research Ethics (2015)
Middlesex University	Code of Practice for Research: Principles and Procedures (2016)
UK Government Legislation	Data Protection Act (2018)
IT Guidelines	
ASSIRM	Codice di Etica Professionale (2007)
Associazione Italiana di Psicologia	Codice Etico per la Ricerca in Psicologia (2015)
Garante per la protezione dei dati personali	Codice in Materia di Protezione dei Dati Personali - Decreto legislativo 30 giugno 2003, n. 196 - (2017)
International Guidelines	
International Sociological Association (ISA)	Code of Ethics (2001)
MOST - UNESCO	Ethical Guidelines for International Comparative Social Science Research (2003)
ICC – ESOMAR	International Code on Market and Social Research (2008)
EU regulation	General Data Protection Act (2016)

Table 4.7 Ethical codes and guidelines in social research. Author's elaboration (2020).

In order to better understand the content of these codes, the next table tries to synthesise their core ethical principles that are also the guidelines adopted for this research:

Core Ethical Principles	
1. *Acceptance of responsibility*	Researchers should always acknowledge the ethical issues involved in their study and take responsibility for all the ethical choices and procedures undertaken
2. *Conduct of research*	Research should be conducted in "*a competent fashion*", as an objective, scientific project without bias. The researcher should ensure the integrity, quality and transparency of the project. Researchers should respect and protect the individuals or communities from any potential harmful effect of their participation in/contribution to the study, Specifically, their participation needs to be voluntary and free from any coercion (participation based on valid informed consent). Staff and participants should always be aware of the purpose, methods and intended uses of the research and what their participation entails. Any undue intrusion into their lives or potential risk should be avoided.

	Research should safeguard the integrity of the research institution enhancing and not diminishing its potential for conducting future research
3. *Reliability and transparency of the study*	Researchers should provide adequate information to the colleagues to allow their methods and findings to be verified. Moreover, potential limitations in terms of validity and reliability that might affect the applicability of data to other studies should always be clearly stated
4. *Cultural differences, individuals or groups at risk and minorities*	Researchers undertaking a study on different cultures, countries or ethnic groups have the responsibility to respect their laws, habits and traditions. Any issue or concern regarding the purpose of the research or their participation needs to be clarified. Furthermore, in case of groups at risk or minorities, the researcher needs to pay particular attention to issues of consent and potential risk.
5. *Awareness of legislations*	Researchers should comply with local, national and international legislations concerning privacy and data protection and any other relevant law that could apply to the project. Confidentiality and anonymity should always be respected.
6. *Independence of the study and conflictual situations*	Researchers should clarify the independence of the study as well as highlight any conflict of interest or partiality. In case of conflicts or ethical concerns assistance should be sought with colleagues or committees sponsored by the institution or the professional association.

Table 4.8 Core ethical principles. Author's elaboration (2016).

In addition to the principles expounded in table 4.8, the author acknowledges the five basic rules of ethical research, contained in the Middlesex University's "Code of Practice for Research: Principles and Procedures" (Middlesex University, 2016): autonomy, beneficence, non-maleficence, confidentiality and integrity. According to the code, "all proposed research activity (defined as any form of disciplined inquiry that aims to contribute to a body of knowledge) to be undertaken by staff or students, which requires data collection involving human participants and/or personal data must be reviewed prior to research commencing" (Middlesex University, 2016). The research project has been thus reviewed by the university Research Ethics Committee and the researcher has obtained the approval to proceed with data collection. The ethics form is included in the appendix (See Appendix B).

Specific ethical considerations are also listed according to the method used. For instance, in quantitative studies researchers need to pay particular attention to the sensitivity of individuals or groups involved, in the development of the questions for the surveys and need to ensure the confidentiality of the information received as well as the anonymity of the questionnaires (Bulmer, 2008). Since the topic of this research is not considered particularly sensitive, the survey did not contain questions that might be considered offensive. In addition, the researcher reassured participants of the high level of confidentiality and anonymity in the introductory section of the questionnaire. Those considerations also apply to qualitative studies which, in addition, need to carefully evaluate other aspects such as the personal relationship with the interviewee during individual interviews and the dynamics and relationships between participants in focus groups. In both cases, at the very beginning of the session the researcher always asked the respondents to sign an informed consent to record them and to gather some socio-demographical data (Ritchie *et al*., 2013). Again, the respect of confidentiality and anonymity as well as the objective of the research were clearly stated during the initial presentation of the activity. Moreover, when groups of people were involved, the researcher managed the discussion in order to avoid the risks of participants not respecting other people's confidentiality and situations of stress or disagreement that could cause individuals to leave the session (Ritchie *et al*., 2013).

By taking into consideration all the elements previously listed and adopting integral and transparent conduct during the collection of data, the researcher has ensured the quality and reliability of all the information included in this piece of work.

4.11 Summary

In synthesis, this chapter has presented the research methodology and provided detailed justifications for the choices made. The first section has outlined the research paradigm that underpins the study and has presented the research design, techniques and instruments. After careful examination of all available options and in line with the main purpose of this project, the researcher adopted a pragmatist approach, a mixed method technique and an exploratory sequential design (qual→QUAN) comprising four focus groups, twelve in-depth interviews and a self-administered questionnaire. This first section is followed by an explanation of the research setting, the sample size and sampling technique. The sample includes highly skilled resources working and/or studying in the higher education institutions of two Western European countries (Italy and the UK). Respondents were selected using non-probability sampling (purposive and snowball). The rationale behind these choices is explained in the light of relevant secondary data. The second part of the chapter, instead, includes a detailed explanation of the research process and data analysis techniques. Following Churchill's guidelines on scale development, the research process includes an exploratory stage (literature search, focus groups, interviews and pilot study) and a confirmatory stage (main survey). Qualitative data were analysed using thematic analysis via NVivo 12 software. Quantitative data were analysed using multivariate data analysis (EFA, CFA and SEM) via IBM SPSS 26 and AMOS 26. Specifically, a two-steps CB-SEM was used to assess the realiability and validity of the data. Sobel test and multigroup analysis were, instead, employed to examine mediation and moderation respectively. The chapter ends with a brief examination of the ethical guidelines followed by the author during data collection.

The following sections will present the findings obtained after the analysis of the qualitative and quantitative data.

Chapter 5

QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of the data collected during the qualitative stage of this research project. In the first section of the chapter, the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample are presented. Subsequently, the themes and sub-themes that emerged from the analysis are examined in detail. These are summarised and presented in figure 5.1. At the end, recommendations for the next stage of the study are provided.

5.2 A Socio-demographic Overview of the Sample

For the purpose of this study, the researcher collected data from two Western countries (Italy and the UK) as specified in the methodology. Before the main data collection, the researcher conducted a pilot test with three key informants in each country. Piloting was used to test the topic guide and check that the time set for the interviews was sufficient. No major issues were identified at the pilot stage meaning that the research instruments and timing were adequate. Data collection lasted from March 2016 until January 2017 when a total of 4 focus groups and 12 interviews were conducted with key informants. Data were transcribed and analysed manually and through NVivo 12 software using thematic analysis (See Section 4.9). Here below socio-demographic information regarding the sample is provided. More detailed information can be found in the Appendix C (Tables 5.1-5.6).

Overall, the focus groups involved 17 individuals in Italy (8 students and 9 academics) and 15 in the UK (6 students and 9 academics). Both genders are equally well represented in all focus groups. There is also a good distribution in terms of educational attainment, profession and marital status. As expected, there is a higher percentage of international highly skilled resources in the UK, above 80%, against 12% in Italy. Interviews involved 12 individuals, 6 in each country (3 students and 3 academics). Both genders are well represented and there is a good distribution in terms of educational attainment, profession and marital status. The number of international highly skilled resources is predominant in the UK compared to Italy.

Previous studies that have investigated the influence of socio-demographic characteristics on ethical beliefs, ethical behaviours and perception of CSR have reported mixed results (Burke, Eckert and Davis, 2014; Pedrini and Ferri, 2014; Pérez and del Bosque, 2015b). Results show "that lower-educated consumers experience more difficulty in understanding the different categories of ethical products and have a lower inclination to be well informed about them" (De

Pelsmacker *et al.*, 2005, p. 525). On the contrary, highly educated individuals seem more inclined to give importance to CSR (Tsai et al., 2014; Wang, 2013). According to Solomons' recent study, (2016) the same applies to millennials. Considering our sample, thus, individuals should be more informed and have a better knowledge of the subject. This has been partly confirmed by the analysis of our qualitative data. However, all respondents highlight the need for more information regarding social responsibility issues, CSR initiatives and ethical products. The lack of information, according to some, fuels scepticism and mistrust. Only a few respondents, especially the ones coming from developing or under-developed countries, show some confusion and/or limited knowledge regarding the concept of social responsibility and ethical activities which are often confined to recycling. According to Sudbury-Riley and Kohlbacher (2016) culture and "nationality [have] been found to explain more variation in unethical consumer behavior than have socio-demographic variables" (Sudbury-Riley and Kohlbacher, 2016, p. 2706). This is also confirmed by the analysis of qualitative data here below: social responsibility image appears to be contextual and driven by ethical beliefs which, in part, derive from/are influenced by the religious and cultural background of the individual. This issue and other limitations of the construct will be discussed in the following section which outlines the themes and sub-themes derived from the analysis of focus groups and interviews.

5.3 Themes and Codes

From the analysis conducted by the researcher eight themes have emerged which pertain to the concepts of social responsibility image of countries (three themes) and its relationship with nation brand attractiveness (four themes) and corporate image (one theme). These themes will be presented in the following sections in the light of the research questions.

5.3.1 SRIC and its Dimensions

The analysis of the focus groups and interviews sheds light on the first research question. SRIC is first and foremost contextual and multi-dimensional and is characterised by a general aura of scepticism. These features clearly derive from the root constructs, CSR and country image, and will be explained here below.

5.3.1.1 Theme 1 - SRIC is Contextual

The concepts of corporate social responsibility and social responsibility of countries are variably interpreted by the respondents according to the situation and/or the socio-political context they are in. This is due to fact that social responsibility is a polysemic term and is influenced by the ethical values and behaviours of the person but also by the ethical beliefs and behaviours of the country. "Ethically minded consumer behavior does not happen in a vacuum, it takes place in social and cultural environments governed by complex and different sets of laws, policies, rules and regulations, values, and norms" (Sudbury-Riley and Kohlbacher, 2016, p.2706). This explains the difficulty identified by previous authors in finding a common general definition for CSR (van Marrewijk, 2003; Garriga and Melé, 2004; Dahlsrud, 2008; Matten and Moon, 2008; Bice, 2017; Maon, Swaen and Lindgreen, 2017).

a) Polysemic - Polysemy refers to the capacity for a term to carry multiple meanings. These meanings are usually associated by contiguity and pertain to a specific semantic field. The polysemic nature of CSR was mentioned, amongst others, by Bocean and colleagues (2014) and Hill and Langan (2014). The term responsibility, in effect, can be interpreted in different ways by respondents (Malik, 2015). Overall, the researcher has identified four main meanings that appear strictly related:

1. Responsibility as sense of duty - Respondents identify responsibility with a sense of duty which is strictly linked to the role/position of the person/group of people (e.g. governments, companies) it refers to. Specifically, when the country is the subject, as in SRIC, it refers to civic duty.

"I was gonna say a sense of patriotism or being patriotic to your country, so I mean having social responsibility is having a duty to fulfil, what the country means and being like, you know, being part of the country as well…" – Student 2 UK

"For my country I think I have responsibility as a person, I, with my education I provide, I er— skills to my country? (…) The thing is, country has already er-- provided me everything, from my childhood to up to now, so I have responsibility to give back" – Student 9 UK

The idea of social responsibility as fiduciary duty was mentioned by Malik (2015) and, as he says, it is generally shared by those who are more fervent believers in CSR. In addition to Malik, authors have supported this view of responsibility (e.g. Argandoña and von Weltzien Hoivik, 2009).

2. Responsibility as accountability – Respondents identify responsibility with being accountable for their or someone elses' actions which means acknowledging what they have done and being able to answer for that. This notion was also mentioned by Malik (2015) intended as personal or legal responsibility and by Argandoña and von Weltzien Hoivik (2009) as answerability.

"To me a responsible company and therefore a State should be something like that. The ex… er— what Volkswagen did with all its prob— er— with the problem that happened, with what has been discovered it's an example of responsibility because after two days er— the managing director confessed and resigned…he took responsibility for his actions saying "I was wrong, it's my fault and I am leaving". According to me this in a company and therefore in a State means…taking care of his own responsibilities. It is an example that I will always remember…" – Student 5 IT

"INT: *What does the concept of responsibility mean? (…)*
STAFF 10: *Ha—I guess it's… to do with… hum—acknowledging the impact that you have and take steps to remedy the negative impact that you have"* – Staff 10 UK

"*A synonym of responsibility… Er I use an English term, in reality, which is "accountability"* – Staff 11 IT

3. Responsibility as safeguard - Respondents identify responsibility with the act of caring for someone/something, being careful with a specific issue. It is also seen as an active and ethical response for the good will of the citizens, especially when applied to countries.

"…according to me the responsibility of a State relies in taking care of everything that is in its territory and with this I mean its people, landscape, air, water..." - Staff 1 IT

"To take care of your people, yeah is your responsibility, social responsibility…" – Staff 1 UK

This point was raised particularly in relation to the concept of social responsibility of countries. The idea of "safeguarding" also appears in CSR definitions that embrace a sustainable development approach and in some studies that look at micro aspects of CSR.

4. Responsibility as reliability - Respondents identify social responsibility as being reliable, being willing to fulfil promises and walk the talk.

"If I had to synthesise, let's say, a responsible State or responsible company would be a State or a company that (…) keeps its promises, in the sense that, I promise, as a company, that I take care of the environment, of the society, of the working conditions and I commit to do that. Volkswagen, for instance Volkswagen, as company hum—need to answer to certain directives on industrial emissions, so I have a responsibility because I promise to follow the law, the directives, than I produce a car that emits more that what it should, this is irresponsibility, because I haven't fulfilled my promise" – Student 1 IT

"*I think is more reliability and responsibility… to basically, if you commit to something you actually do it*" – Staff 12 UK

This idea is not present in many CSR definitions but seems to be in line with consumers'expectations towards socially responsible initiatives. The inability of walking the talk is, in fact, one of the main drivers of consumers' growing scepticism (Skarmeas and Leonidou, 2013; Dunn and Harness, 2019).

b) Ethical beliefs driven - Social responsibility is strictly linked to the ethical beliefs and behaviours of the country (its values, religion, traditions…) (Schwarz, 2003; Sudbury-Riley and Kohlbacher, 2016; White and Alkandari, 2019) and the ethical beliefs of the individual (individualist or relativist) (Forsyth, 1980; Forsyth, 1992; Vitell, Singhapakdi and Thomas, 2001; Culiberg, 2015). Concerning the first, every country has different values which are informed by the culture and the religion of the place. This influences how people perceive what is right or wrong. This is also supported by Schwarz "any observed difference between … cultures may therefore reflect a meaningful difference in attitudes and behaviors, a difference in the response process, or an unknown mix of both" (Schwarz, 2003, p. 588; Sudbury-Riley and Kohlbacher, 2016, p. 2707). This is referred to in the literature as ethical relativism. As Tsalikis and Fritzsche explain "The major implication of ethical relativism is that all moral norms are relative to particular cultures. The rules of conduct that are applicable in one society do not apply to the actions of people in another society. Each community has its own norms, and morality is entirely a matter of conforming to the standards and rules accepted in one's own culture" (Tsalikis and Fritzsche, 1989, p. 700). A simple example could be the idea behind the death penalty or the possession of guns which is still accepted in some countries and in certain States of the United States whilst it would be inconceivable in European countries.

"*It's very difficult (...) to define also because different countries have different views on what is social responsibility. Like in some parts of America, you might be judged responsible if you don't have a gun, while here, you are judged irresponsible if you have a gun, eh—so...*" - Staff 3 UK

On the other hand, ethical beliefs change according to the values of the individual. As Sharp claimed "disagreements concerning morality surface because people adopt different personal ethical systems" (Sharp, 1898; Forsyth, 1992, p.461). Therefore, it is complicated to decide unanimously when an action or policy is socially responsible. Some authors reach the point of saying that "no agreed definition of corporate social responsibility exists, and such agreement may be impossible to achieve. Social responsibility to some people is irresponsible to others" (Armstrong and Green, 2013, p. 1926).

"*it creates problems isn't it? (...) because it creates all sorts of issues around this notion of responsibility because if you are going to behave in a particular way that would inevitably upset someone. I don't come from a large institutional background, and being Aussie I'm struggling with the culture still because of this notion of so-called responsibility, if you behave in a certain way, then you believe to be appropriate and then you find out that actually someone does not agree with you. So I think, I don't think, I think it's a vaguely complex thing...*" – Staff 2 UK

Business ethics scholars divide individuals according to their level of relativism and idealism (Schlenker and Forsyth, 1977). The first one refers to the degree to which people abjure universal moral rules when making moral judgments. "At one end of the relativism dimension, highly relativistic individuals espouse a personal moral philosophy based on scepticism" (Forsyth, 1992, p. 462). They make their decisions based on the circumstances more than ethical principles. Idealism, instead, concerns the degree to which a person seeks to avoid harming others (Forsyth, 1980; Forsyth, 1992). Great idealists tend to think that harming others is always avoidable. For this reason they would rather not choose between "the lesser of two evils". According to the level of relativism and idealism, individuals can be seen as situationists, subjectivists, absolutists or exceptionists. This taxonomy of personal moral philosophies provides a guide in the evaluation of the ethical beliefs of our interviewees. Many of them pertain to the category of subjectivists (high relativism – low idealism). They underline the importance of self-interest and convenience and think that this is what drives in reality "socially responsible" decisions whether by an individual, a company or a State.

“STAFF 2: *It’s a very elastic concept and I think it would depend pretty much on er—I think ultimately everything you do it’s for your own benefit, you really can’t act in a way that the primary intention is to someone else’s benefit. So, you may be for example {CG} we we have eh—whenever we go shopping we don’t ever take plastic bags, so that’s might be seen as as socially responsible, hum—but there is actually another reason why we don’t do that, and that’s because they just built up and built up and built up in the house until they take over (…) am I necessarily doing it because I think I don’t want to do plastic or is it because plastic is just a pain to keep collecting plastic bags, hum—so that, I’m not so sure that many people really engage consciously a lot in thinking I would act in this way because it would help the environment. I think there is an underpinning irrational in terms of the benefits of the individual that comes first and foremost. If you’re faced with a choice, you might then say yeah consciously I’d rather be socially responsible {CG} after the fact that I don’t think it happened before {NS}*
INT: *What do you do {NS}, sorry, what do you do if you have to speak about yourself?*
STAFF 2: *Who me? Do I consciously make socially responsible decisions? I doubt it {ALL: LG} I socially doubt it. The consequences of my decisions may be socially responsible…”* - Staff 2 UK

Others, the absolutists, find themselves at the opposite extreme. They (low relativism – high idealism) believe in and promote ethical behaviours and maintain adherence to general moral principles. They feel it is part of their (civic) duty to contribute to social responsibility as consumers and employees. They follow the rules because this is what needs to be done according to the social norms that derive from their culture, family, political views or religion.

“*I have heard a lot about corporate social responsibility, I have… I usually try to buy products that are basically produced to care for… the rest of the world [INT: Yeah…] I think it’s important for all of us to make that decision and er—somehow direct the way the market is going. I think it’s important*” – Staff 1 UK

“*The logic of consequences says that we are strategic, which means that, we evaluate the consequences of our actions and we choose those that seem the most convenient. This is not the one I am following right now. The second logic, the logic of appropriateness says instead that, hum we all have our identity, our values that define our identity and we behave accordingly, therefore hum the example people normally use is why does a person go to church when he/she could sleep on Sunday? According to the logic of consequences, the rational choice would be to sleep on Sunday. Those who go to the church are not irrational, they follow the logic of appropriateness. Why? Because that’s what needs to be done. Therefore, appropriateness according to a value, a norm, an identity. And I was following this logic, er—what defines my responsibility (…) The expectation of others in relation to what is a correct behaviour…”* – Staff 10 IT

Finally, the last two groups, situationists and exceptionists subscribe to a utilitarian philosophy. They might or might not believe in universal ethical principles, but they seek the positive outcome for the greatest number of people according to the context/situation they are in. They take pleasure in helping the others and are less selfish than subjectivists. They do not reject completely the idea of social responsibility, but they are more sceptic than the absolutists.

“STAFF 11: *I, well, I have never seen it as giving something back to the community. I don’t see it much as an exchange, I do this because you have done something for me and viceversa. It’s more something that…I feel like doing because, I felt to do it to give a hand, let’s say. And not because I think I owe something to someone or because someone owes something to me (…) simply I, I like to help other people (…)*
INT*: And what guides this behaviour? This willingness to…to help the others?*

STAFF 11: *I don't know {LG} Ah—I don't know, in the end, when you help the others you feel better. That's a way…*
INT: *Is it a gratification?*
STAFF 11: Yes. Somehow." – Staff 11 UK

5.3.1.2 Theme 2 - SRIC and Scepticism

"…In the face of a plethora of CSR claims and numerous reported incidents of corporate misconduct, many people doubt the extent to which companies live up to their professed standards, and consumer skepticism toward corporate social involvement is on the rise" (Skarmeas and Leonidou, 2013, p. 1831). This has also been confirmed by our qualitative stage. The majority of the interviewees question the adoption of ethical policies or actions and identify CSR with a marketing tool or mere convenience (Armstrong and Green, 2013; Elving, 2013; Dunn and Harness, 2019). Similarly, some of them question the idea behind the social responsibility of countries. According to the personal moral philosophy they embrace, they show a certain scepticism, which refers to a "tendency to doubt, disbelieve and question" (Skarmeas and Leonidou, 2013; Dunn and Harness, 2019, p. 890). This is particularly true for the subjectivists and the situationists. Those that commented against the idea of country social responsibility use two main arguments: the State is mainly a political asset or an economic asset and is not conceived to seek social responsibility.

a) **State as political asset -** The State is a representation of the electorate. A government or rather the elected party looks after those that voted for it and only those. It does not seek the wellbeing of the entire community. Politicians care only about their self-interest and strive to gain more power or more money. Therefore, the idea of social responsibility of a country remains a utopia.

"*I don't really understand it. Because States are not that kind of actor… States are representations of the people… [INT: Yeah?] So I don't know how, I don't know how it would work for elected representatives to be expected to give back to society beyond just representing the interests of those who voted for them [INT: Okay…] The purpose of a government is clear and narrow and a State is just a government*" – Staff 10 UK

b) **State as economic asset -** The State as an economic asset is mainly focused on defeating the international competition and preserving its position of power.

"The point is that the State-nation has always been based on… that's why I say that is very difficult that a State-nation develops…well or we change the way we perceive it, I mean we change the way we see the State-nation, because when it was conceived in the nineteenth century the idea was to find the wellbeing, the commonwealth of the nation, which is something different from the wellbeing of all citizens, the nation. I mean the national pride is something that has nothing to do with… it concerns the citizens but only in the way they help the nation to become stronger, at an international level…" - Staff 11 IT

Nevertheless, all respondents (absolutists, subjectivists, exceptionists and situationists) agree on the fact that the State needs to be responsible and this responsibility should be shared by different levels of the society: the government, the individuals and the organisations.

5.3.1.3 Theme 3 - SRIC is Multi-dimensional

Respondents strengthen the fact that social responsibility applies at different levels (governmental, societal and organisational) and comprises different areas of intervention (social, economic, political & legal, ethical and environmental). This means that for a country to be sustainable the three actors, government, citizens and organisations need to integrate and coordinate their actions across those areas. The presence of different actors is a new interesting insight that emerged during the interviews and focus groups and contributes to the conceptualisation of SRIC. The presence of different areas of intervention, instead, had already been proved by studies that analysed the root constructs, CSR and country image (Carroll, 1979; Jaffe and Nebenzahl, 1984; Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Perez and Bosque, 2013; Öberseder *et al.*, 2014; Saeidi *et al.*, 2015).

SRIC therefore proves to be characterised by a network of associations which pertain to the behaviour of the government, citizens and companies in relation to the above-mentioned areas. Nevertheless, the perception of the governmental responsibility seems to have a larger impact on respondents compared to the societal and organisational responsibility.

"I think it is made of different aspects. The first is the social responsibility of Italians, I mean… the population itself. Then maybe I can also say something about how you can obtain it, but… The second is the social responsibility of the authorities…" – Staff 12 IT

"…it's a concept that can be developed at an individual level or at an organisational level, for different reasons" – Student 4 IT

a) Multiple actors of responsibility – Respondents highlight the importance of governmental intervention in the promotion of socially responsible activities or behaviours. The government is described somehow like a "father" that needs to guide the citizens to choose more responsible behaviours. The majority of them describe this as an intrinsic duty of the government, already defined by the constitution or by existent laws. Respondents also claim that the intervention of citizens or association of citizens is fundamental. This comprises an increased sense of civic duty, openness and socially responsible consumption. Therefore, to be socially responsible a country cannot depend only on governmental policies. It also needs societal interventions which means ethical behaviours as well as an adequate response to governmental stimuli (e.g. policies). Finally, the interviewees discuss the intervention of organisations and institutions that should act for the respect and promotion of social responsibility through CSR activities.

1. Governmental intervention – The government should guide the citizens and the organisations in making the right choice and behave responsibly.

"…the responsibility at a governmental level is useful to guide the behaviour of people in a conscientious manner. As she said before, the fact that, for instance, someone er—I don't know, throws the rubbish in the middle of the street, well then, in this case, the State needs to intervene to fine and (…) guide a behaviour that is wrong (…) responsibility relies in guiding the behaviour or avoid wrong behaviours, I see it also in this sense" – Staff 4 IT

"(…) encouragement of people, citizens and companies to become socially responsible for a better living of the people and general better living standards" – Student 1 UK

2. Societal intervention – The citizens or associations of citizens should highlight the importance of social responsibility through the promotion of civic sense of duty and openness towards what is different (e.g. culture, religion…). In addition, they should behave more responsibly preferring ethical companies over non-ethical.

"*If the citizens are socially responsible then it is obvious that the nation becomes socially responsible. So, it should start from us and then, it's something from the ground level. If we, you and me are socially responsible, of course your country is socially responsible. It will become socially responsible (…) I think Sweden is more socially responsible, er—it's because er—Mostly I can say more than Sweden it's the Nordic countries, they are socially responsible and their citizens understand the importance of what's happening around them and how to react with any changes around them. And they are well educated and and also er—mmm—they er—whatever they do they kind of engage with… the political system is transparent as well, so they help other citizens. So citizens are engaged with them totally or partially*" – Student 9 IT

"*Because we discussed before about the… CSR from the company's' point of view and the majority of people connected er—this one with the law, okay, which is not the case because if the law is applicable only to companies, should be also to consumers. Take for example Primark, Primark has been accused for not being that good citizen, or having good corporate social responsibility, but if you go every day, thousands of consumers go there to buy things. The majority I think is aware of that. Okay, Primark is connected to… not having very good corporate social responsibility, so why do we have to take the Damocles' sword above the companies head and not consumers? It's not fair then...*" – Staff 1 UK

3. Organisational intervention – Organisations and institutions should contribute to social responsibility incentivising activities that protect the environment and the society.

"*I I buy a lot eco-labelled products and and but you don't get everything. Eco-labelled products they don't come for cheap ok? They come for expensive so, first thing, you know, the cost. They have to make sure the cost should not be a barrier to buy eco-friendly products. I cannot say this but it is something… they don't wanna cannibalize their products. If they bring an eco-product, for sure they know that eco product will grow and they will become the next but, it is cannabalizing the other products. They don't wanna do that, but they need to have a balance in the production also, so that is why, I am, I am, in my perspective, I am buying at least twenty-five percentage {GR} of my product I'm buying are eco-friendly and eco-labelled*" – Student 9 IT

"*So it should be all the supermarkets being more socially responsible and only provide paper packaging [STAFF 9: Yeah. Exactly] Why Marks & Spencer has been charging me for plastic bags for years, but all their fruit is covered in plastic and I think that's ridiculous*" – Staff 3 UK

b) Multiple areas of intervention – As previously stated, previous studies on the root constructs had demonstrated the multi-dimensionality of the independent variable. This feature has been taken into consideration during the elaboration of the conceptual framework and five main areas were identified merging CSRI and GRI dimensions: environmental, social, political & legal, ethical and economic. The qualitative stage has confirmed the presence of these dimensions and helped the researcher to develop additional items that will be tested during the quantative stage.

1. Environmental - Interviewees highlight the importance of environmental protection which requires particular attention from all the actors (government, citizens and organisations). They also support the idea that the government should incentivise citizens to become socially responsible consumers by promoting the affordability of, and accessibility to, eco-labelled and fair-trade products. Finally, governments should increase the availability of eco-friendly transports (eco-bus, cycle lanes etc.) and incentivise research on energy-saving technologies and environmental protection. Socially responsible countries are described as clean, rich in beautiful landscapes and uncontamined nature but also several cycle lanes and environmentally friendly public transport.

"…responsible towards the environment, also with the reduction of the emissions, CO_2, pollution, also with electrict buses, environmentally friendly. Therefore environment…" – Student 3 IT

"I think government has made consume things that are environmentally friendly more difficult, markets and farmer markets have been more and more expensive, so it's not likely that the majority of students or people that have a normal job can't afford it, in UK especially, farmers market because it is still expensive, so I don't know, is not helping the consumers making the right choice. It makes them go to the supermarket and buy big brands and they are more likely not help the environment or the workers" – Student 6 UK

"*Second, try to make a way to make become the green economy really profitable. So, I think this is because, for example for me it's really important to impose taxes on firms that pollute, but of course you cannot do that in a globalized world because otherwise things would be less competitive, but if you try to er—organize a way er—to make this profitable for firms, I think this is like the way"* – Student 6 UK

2. Social – For some, SRIC coincides with the idea of the welfare State or rather a State that ensures public access to education and to the health-care system and social protection. In addition, others highlight the importance of the protection of cultural heritage as well as personal security in terms of reduction of criminality, but also the need to educate the society to be more responsible, providing the citizens with the correct information about, for instance, what is sustainable and how to save energy.

"INT: *What should a State do in order to be socially responsible? If you had to describe it with three adjectives, how would you define it?*
STUDENT 4: *The attention to the welfare in general*.
INT: *Welfare, what do you mean?*
STUDENT 4: *Wellbeing, education, formation*" – Student 4 IT

"Yes. And I think that it's important that every person has access, has the same access to the same standard of health care and education" – Staff 10 UK

"And that it's about not harming others, but also, especially with countries, to actively help other people who are more vulnerable and who are more disadvantaged in society, and it seems that currently this government looks after only those people who already have stuff, who own properties, who are rich, and it doesn't seem… they don't seem to look at the UK as a whole. They can move forward as a country only if they look at the people who are not, not better already {GR}" – Staff 12 UK

"…the crime rate I think, that's the social respons- *the security in this country, all the ctvs problem I forgot to mention… I'm quite a paranoid person probably, my country and especially the town where I grew up is really crimful, so the crime thing is really really really important to me. And yeah, the, probably, controlling the crime is socially responsible thing to do {GR}"* – Student 8 UK

3. Economic - Respondents claim that socially responsible countries are those that value the work of their people and safeguard it. This can be done by ensuring a healthy work-life balance, easing the access to the job market, ensuring its stability and promoting meritocracy. In addition to this, nations should protect and support the local enterprises and ensure that all companies in their territories comply with socially responsible policies.

"In terms of social responsibility, Italy I can say is not up to the mark (…) I can see, the job opportunities here are becoming er—less ((available)) and people are moving to other countries. Most of them they want, they want to go to the UK or USA or more North after the graduation. All the talented people are not paid well, so in such way they are pushed to other regions, to other parts of the world and… so I think they should realise this and give importance to students, create job opportunities and and they should engage the students who are the future to come up with their own ideas and have the start-up environment …" - Student 9 IT

"*Er--, I don't know, the respect of the family, er—also at work, not only at a governmental level, is, for instance, one of the things, I think, that is very important er—the respect of the employee*" – Staff 12 IT

"*I think governments should also help local companies and yeah companies rather than searching for like big companies… I'm thinking right now, instead of hum—hum—Starbucks. For example in a country, just help small groups to pursue coffee and then has this coffee company {GR} or something and make it local or regional so you don't have to bring Starbucks or a big coffee company, so you use your own products. This would be better for the country and the money would stay in the country rather than go abroad. So you can do much more things {GR} than if you have external companies coming to your country*" – Student 6 UK

"To me corporate social responsibility actually from the countries… by the way the countries is imposing policies towards ethically responsible companies {GR}" – Student 1 UK

4. Political & Legal - Respondents mainly associate this dimension with the government responsibility but they also highlight the role of the citizens who need to be wary of the rules. Therefore, on the one hand, a government needs to prioritise the wellbeing of the citizens, reduce the level of corruption, increase transparency and trustworthiness and ensure political stability. It

also has to develop fair immigration policies and promote international cooperation. On the other, citizens need to show an increased sense of civic engagement.

"According to me, one of the worst things in the Italian system is the fact that there is a lot of inconsistency with regards to the policies and decisions taken by the minister in charge, therefore there is absolutely no predictability in the long run, there is no plan…" – Staff 2 IT

"*Hum—obviously you have these highly corrupted countries who are very bad, like, you know, you have certain African countries… Yeah. Other countries where, you know, the, the, the ruling class basically just gives off the money and, you know, there is no interest in developing the country as a whole*" – Staff 12 UK

"*Regarding immigrants lately it is pretty easy to see which ones are the nations that are the most responsible, yes the most responsible nations and the least responsible nations*" – Staff 7 IT

"*…and they don't have bureaucracy as well and their laws are strict, laws are very strict and er—which, kind of, make you think before committing a crime er—every citizen is socially responsible. Even though, see here, for example, in Italy, if you go in a train, er—you have mentioned don't scribble on the window or don't scratch the seats, don't do this, don't do that, but people they do that, even though they read that. They scratch even the sticker, why? Because they don't know… the money it's your money. If you do that the tax will be increased because you are damaging your own property and you will have to pay for it again. Why? This is the realisation… every citizen has to understand that you can see there… they are very conscious (…) Not very strict but very rigid, they follow it and they insist other people to follow it. They not force them, but they say, if you don't follow it, these are the consequences you will be facing. So be aware of the consequence, that's all*." – Student 9 IT

5. Ethical - Respondents highlight the importance of the respect for human rights and specifically: equality, openness, respect and freedom.

"INT: *Why Canada as first ah--…*
STAFF 10: *It's just a good place isn't it? Canada has got it all right.*
INT: *Good place? What do you mean with good place?*
STAFF 10: *Er—sooo, they are very liberal, they are very welcoming to eh—immigrants and refugees, eh-- very good at promoting the interests of women, er--…"* - Staff 10 UK

"STUDENT 8: *Yeah, definitely. I think they are a bit similar… so they have all similarities, because now I'm meeting people from all over the world and all Eastern European are pretty similar"*
INT: *What are the bad things of these countries?*
STUDENT 8: *Bad things… so they are very very intolerant or untolerant, I don't know the word but…*
INT: *Against?*
STUDENT 8*: Against race and homosexuality, but probably only male-wise for some reasons"*- Student 8 UK

"There is no freedom. Even though we we are independent but we are not independent from politicians. Which we are not able to change because every person has to think the same… in what a country of six billions people do you think everyone can think the same? No. So it is difficult. Population plays an important role". – Student 9 IT

5.3.2 SRIC and Nation Brand Attractiveness

The second part of the analysis sheds light on the second research question and related sub-questions. The analysis reveals that the relationship between SRIC, nation brand attractiveness and intention to move to/study in the country is complicated since there are several factors involved in the decision process, as confirmed already by the human resources management and skilled migration literature (Carr, Kerr Inkson and Thorn, 2005; Solimano, 2008; Doherty, Dickmann and Mills, 2011; Cerdin, Diné and Brewster, 2014; Silvanto, Ryan and McNulty, 2015). The decision-making process, indeed, is the consequence of an opportunity-cost scrutiny, the so-called gain framing and loss framing problem (Cerdin, Diné and Brewster, 2014), based on three main elements: opportunity, destination and dissatisfaction. This scrutiny embraces elements of attractiveness as well as elements of retention, especially where dissatisfaction is concerned. In other words, respondents make their decision comparing their situation in the COO with the one they could have in the potential destination, evaluating the gains as well as the losses. Therefore, attractiveness and retention appear to be strictly linked. Within this decision process, social responsibility elements impact on both the attractiveness (pull factors) and the retention evaluation (push factors), as will be explained in more detail here below.

The decision-making process that leads talents to choose one specific country instead of another follows a loss/gain framing (Cerdin, Diné and Brewster, 2014). Highly skilled resources need to find a compromise on how much they are willing to risk or lose when deciding about moving to another country. Migration, in fact, is "seen as an investment undertaken only if the expected returns exceed the benefits of remaining in the same place" (Niedomysl, 2011, p.845). Some of them prefer to stay in their comfort zone, while others would be willing to consider the opportunity if they can gain something from it (eg. they can work for a well-known company, they can do their dream job…). The researcher has not identified a big difference between UK and Italian highly skilled resources, nor between students and staff. We can assume that the choice is mainly guided by the situation and personal predisposition as proved by previous studies on personality and risk-taking (Dahlbäck, 1990; Weller and Thulin, 2012) and on personality and migration (Frieze, Hansen and Boneva, 2006; Jokela, 2009; Canache *et al.*, 2013).

"STAFF 11: Let's say, for instance, Japan is famous because they pay a lot but they ask a lot from you and anyway on average you need to work twelve hours a day, for instance. Then there are States where you can work eight hours per day, but the salary is not high enough to allow you to do something different from your job, such as culture or... travels, museums and similar. According to me, a State that would attract me is a compromise, I mean I don't only "want more money" and… I don't know if you understand what I am saying
INT: *Yes, a compromise between what you earn and the time you have to dedicate to other activities other than your job*
STAFF 11*: Yes, time you can dedicate to your personal culture (…)"* – Staff 11 UK

Respondents would choose a place where they feel at home. They are not willing to risk and they are very meticulous in checking all the features they need before embarking in the experience.

Security is a priority for them. This can apply whether they choose to leave short or long term, but especially for long term experiences.

"INT: So you basically want a place where you can feel like home.
STAFF 10*: Yeah. Yeah, or just feel like it's easy, I'm easy.*
INT: So it's the concept you were saying of user friendly [STAFF 10: Yeah, exactly], you know already what you have to do, you feel comfortable in the place [STAFF 10: Yeah], you feel more or less like here where you don't have issues [STAFF 10: Yeah] in terms of language or in terms of barriers.
STAFF 10*: Yes, exactly, easy"* – Staff 10 UK

Respondents would be willing to go to a country that has a negative image and take a risk because they see it as an adventure or an opportunity from which they can gain something. In the first case, they can gain an exciting personal experience, while in the second case an interesting opportunity for their career. The majority of them seem to consider these opportunities only for a limited period of time and those who do are mainly students.

"*There should be a trade off isn't it? But if, for instance, you need to choose between Africa, a very important job, let's say with the UN and a job in Germany with a German agency for six months, you know how German agencies are {ALL: LG} What do you choose? Are you safer in Germany? Yes, of course. Will they pay you? Surely less, yes. Will you learn? Surely less. I would choose to go to Africa (…) Bah, I think who doesn't risk cannot win…"* – Student 2 IT

5.3.2.1 Theme 4 – Attractiveness is Opportunity Driven

Apart from personality traits, reasons to migrate play an important role in the decision-making process. The qualitative stage has identified three main motivations that contribute to the final decision: opportunity, destination and dissatisfaction. These reasons, supported by previous studies (Solimano, 2008; Doherty, Dickmann and Mills, 2011; Cerdin, Diné and Brewster, 2014), never work in isolation but always in combination, what Carr defines a dynamic taxonomy of motives (Carr, Kerr Inkson and Thorn, 2005).

Concerning opportunity, highly skilled resources seem to be particularly interested in the possibility of career improvement, self-improvement and in the experience of "the diverse":

a) Career improvement – Respondents are attracted by the idea of gaining experience in an area that pertains to their field of study (Solimano, 2008; Hemsley-Brown, 2012) or in a place that enables them to enlarge their professional network. This is what authors define as agglomeration and concentration effect (Solimano, 2008) or geographic concentration of talent (Silvanto, Ryan and McNulty, 2015).

"*The first country is Netherlands, why? Because they really have good design thinkers and, you know, there you have good start up environment, and next would be Germany and UK. (…) I would love to stay there and work with other start-ups. Basically, I need experience; I cannot go there and build my own start-up. First of all, I need experience. Work with start-ups or any good* *company where I have, I get to have lot of experience and then implement everything, you know, to build my start up. This is my basic idea*" – Student 9 IT

Moreover, highly skilled people are very interested in companies or universities with a good image/ reputation. As Solimano (2008) underlines indeed: "…a scientist may have an over-riding interest also in the quality of the research centres and universities, the research facilities, the availability of budgets and the quality of peer interaction in the destination country. All these factors fundamentally affect the research environment and thereby the potential of professional realization of academic talent" (Solimano, 2008, p. 9).

"*Hum- the work environment, like, yes with these colleagues, with this supervisor you work well, from a personal and professional viewpoint. The group of research is well prepared, they know what they are doing, this kind of things and regarding the university itself, the way it manages the researchers, hum--, the way in which it does things, even small things… For instance, here compared to Italy, I don't have kids but if I had kids here there is a nursery school. In Italy no. These are things that are quite important to me*" – Staff 11 UK

Even though some of them highlight the importance of a good salary and/or better position compared to the one they have in their country-of-origin, the majority seem to be more interested in job satisfaction which derives from doing something they like in a pleasant or better workplace (Phillips and Phillips, 1998; Nguyen et al., 2019). The idea of job satisfaction in a migration context should be thus further explored. And this seems even more urgent in the light of recent studies that clearly show how the satisfaction with the purpose of the company influences the attractiveness and retention of young people (Hutt and Pervez, 2016).

"INT: *Okay, I think I have finished, I have asked you all the questions. Do you have any particular question or anything I have missed or I haven't asked you or…that is important for me to consider?*
STUDENT 9: *Yes, the sense of job factor if I'm choosing one country I think the p—the place, and the country, the salary and the language and all… the place job satisfaction is also important thing, money is not all without satisfaction [INT: uh-huh] In Sri Lanka I was working in several units, but only in few I had job satisfaction…*" – Student 9 UK

b) Self-improvement - A second reason why highly skilled people move is related to personal development (Vaiman, Halsberger and Vance, 2015). Talented individuals are interested in improving their language skills because it is very important for their future job or it is a good skill to acquire. This is particularly important especially for students that are still at the early stages of their career.

"(…) is pretty ((diverse)) in every European country so you would probably learn a new language or something new… and it would be good, I think, even going to Greece it would be… (…)I think it is actually a good challenge I think because if you go to Italy you need to know Italian and if you go to France you need to know French, if you go to Holland you need to know Dutch…" – Student 4 UK

Others are attracted by an experience that is enriching from a personal viewpoint (Doherty, Dickmann and Mills, 2011) or that fulfils their ambitions (e.g. dream job).

"For me it would be more the fact that, yeah that's right, it's my dream job. It's like something I really want to do, it's my ambition. I worked so hard and I've finally got this" – Student 2 UK

c) Experience of the diverse - A third reason why highly skilled people move is linked to the willingness to experience something completely different or very distant, exotic (Doherty, Dickmann and Mills, 2011). "A desire for exploration and excitement or a positive pre-disposition to the experience (…) or to escape from their current way of life or job" (Doherty, Dickmann and Mills, 2011, p. 597) are in fact amongst the key motivators for self-initiated academics and among young students undertaking working holidays overseas. Students seem the ones that mention this factor more frequently.

"… I would really like to go to Japan, but it is more for a cultural reason… I'm fascinated by these cultures that are radically different, India as well… and so, but there I admit that from an environmental viewpoint they are very bad. But I find them very interesting…" – Student 8 IT

The theme also resonates amongst academics who, according to Richardson (2002) pertain to the category of the explorers, those who expatriate driven by the desire to explore the world (Selmer and Lauring, 2012).

5.3.2.2 Theme 5 – Attractiveness is Destination Driven

The attractiveness of highly skilled people to a specific place is also destination driven. Talented people are attracted by elements such as: natural environment (e.g. climate, nature), social environment (e.g. attractions and entertainment…) and comfort (e.g. similar or well-known language, cultural/geographical closeness, security, openness, friendliness…). This element has been explored by recent studies on nation branding and talent attraction (Nadeau and Olafsen, 2015; Silvanto, Ryan and McNulty, 2015). According to Nadeau and Olafsen (2015) "little management research seems to have examined the influence of country image on the migration decision making process" (Nadeau and Olafsen, 2015, p. 297).

a) Natural and built environment - Highly skilled are particularly attracted by the natural environment of the country they would like to move to. Many of them would prefer to move to a place with a climate which is similar to their country of origin or warmer. Others are attracted by the beauty and cleanliness of the natural resources as well as the beauty of the city in terms of cultural heritage and architecture (Nadeau and Olafsen, 2015).

"*You need a place (...) where there is nature is really important to me. I love Scotland as well because is very, is very open, there is a very beautiful nature where you can, you know, breathe fresh air and relax easily*" – Staff 8 UK

"STAFF 12: *(…) So… beauty is important and ha*--
INT: *How do you describe beauty?*
STAFF 12: *Nice old buildings? Maybe some nice scenery around it?*
INT: *So you mean also in terms of landscape, nature?*

STAFF 12: *Yeah.*
INT: *Okay so nature and architecture at the same time.*
STAFF 12: *Uh-huh* " – Staff 12 UK

b) Social environment - Respondents are particularly attracted to the social environment, which comprises three main elements: city brand and attractions, city brand and multiculturalism and people's friendliness. Highly skilled people seem particularly interested in the number and type of attractions that the country or the city can offer: museums, festivals, concerts, events… They like places that are multicultural, where they feel welcome and they can learn from different cultures. Finally, they find a country very attractive if the people are friendly and open with them.

"*Yeah because I would like to live like probably in a capital where there are all the things happening, like expositions, concerts and everything like that, but it's still good, but but at the same time it's still kind of a small place*" - Student 8 UK

"*Beautiful sea, beautiful beach, friendliness… it's a good factor though*" – Staff 4 UK

c) Comfort - Highly skilled people are also attracted by places that can ensure them a certain level of comfort. This comprises different elements such as language, cultural and geographical distance, lifestyle, social bonding (e.g. presence or absence of family members or friends in the country) and familiarity. Talents would be more willing to go to a place where they speak their own language or a language they know/ they are trying to learn. Moreover, many of them would prefer a place that is closer to their country-of-origin and has a similar culture. The only exception is those that are attracted by the diverse and would be considering places that are more exotic.

"I would like to move maybe to New Zealand, Australia or United States of America. Choice is made on spoken language mostly and the landscape…: I mean, like more nature like –wise. Yeah more open spaces, I'm not very happy of the landscape in London…" – Student 8 UK

"*Because I feel life is very restricted there, but it is also culturally very distant. So, in terms of, I mean… the thing, is, is, is… I guess, for me, what's important is, is probably if I would have had to consider another country, is, is obviously cultural closeness…*" – Staff 12 UK

Lifestyle also plays an important role in the attractiveness of a country. Highly skilled people prefer places characterised by a more relaxed pace of life which allows more time for family and friends. Family indeed is an essential element and the reason why some of them are more, or less inclined to leave. If family or friends are already in the destination, the country is seen as more attractive. On the contrary, if the person needs to move to a new place leaving all the social bonds behind, he/she might be less inclined to leave. Likewise, if the person needs to move with the partner or the family, he/she will also take into consideration the needs of the others in the choice of the place. Therefore nation brands that provide the partner/family with help to integrate and/or find a job/school, are more likely to attract highly skilled workers (Andersson, King-Grubert and Lubanski, 2016).

"After working there for three months, er—and travelling around, I think it's the city for me. I am from Palermo, so there is the sea there and it's like Milan but with the sea…now, I don't know

how to explain but I feel at ease there, for the lifestyle, to go out, to work… when I was there I saw how people work, and… I have Spanish friends and others that work there and they are happy (…) The lifestyle is much better, in the sense that, where I was working, hum—it was partly supported by the European Commission, so the way in which you work is different. Life is more relaxed, you go out of the office and you are more relaxed, er—in the evening, everyday you can go out without any problem…" - Staff 12 IT

"*But then again, like I said, I might not because I don't know the culture, exactly, I don't know the language, I don't know anyone from there, so I would like kind of start from scratch and find friends and all of this, so… yeah*" – Student 7 UK

"*Er—well first and foremost a place where I can take my partner with me, so that we can move all together, that's the main thing*" – Staff 11 IT

Familiarity is another feature that might increase the level of attractiveness of a place. If the person has already been there for holidays or a previous work experience, he/she might be more willing to go back. This is because they know already how life works there and they have had a very positive impression. Therefore, tourism might play an extremely important part in attracting new talents (Stylidis et al., 2021).

"*Hum—always based on my experience of two weeks, I have found that their culture is very similar to the Italian culture, for instance. From a personal level I have had a very positive experience and hum—let's say a State that (…) take on its social responsibilities, conveys a very positive impression*" – Staff 11 UK

SRIC aspects are also taken into consideration by many respondents. Among the most cited: standard of living, openness, security, good health care and education systems, political stability, job market and meritocracy, reliability, equality, social and environmental protection. The level of comfort and therefore its importance can increase or decrease according to the time frame of the experience, the level of risk-taking they are happy with and their motivation.

"STAFF 10: … I would go to Canada, but er—no, I don't think so.
INT: Why Canada as first ah--…
STAFF 10: It's just a good place, isn't it? Canada has got it all right.
INT: Good place? What do you mean with good place?
STAFF 10: Er—sooo, they are very liberal, they are very welcoming to er—immigrants and refugees, er-- very good at promoting the interests of women, er--…
INT: Okay, all the things that you were saying at the beginning that are important
STAFF 10: Uh-huh" – Staff 10 UK

"*So, it depends on what the country has to offer in terms of living standards, social security and… but I think, it, it also depends on what is the actual sector you are working in as how open they are and I think, I think, I don't know if I'm mistaken, but I think that for example, the Scandinavian system is fairly open towards… foreigners. I think they have (()) in Denmark that haven't been very good, but there is a sort of openness for… foreigner scholars, which you don't find to that extent in Germany. So, this is something that, for me, that I would take into consideration*" – Staff 12 UK

"*… the worst example, in line with what you have said, I think is the United States, for instance. Because it's a… probably it's a place from where we receive the most negative news or maybe it really is a bad place. Or maybe because we receive more information about them than other* *countries. But, hum—I would never go to the United States. Er—for several reasons, but from a viewpoint of, let's say how they manage the supply chain, how they respect the environment, er—yes, it wouldn't be one of the criteria for the choice of the country, it wouldn't be a stringent criteria, but, in reality I have always thought about Europe, and in Europe it seems we respect the environment a little bit better compared to other countries… so I have never confronted myself with the problem, I have to say. I wouldn't like to go out of Europe, but, I mean, forever, for a permanent job. But, yes, I would like to stay in a country where the respect of the environment is amongst the priorities"* – Staff 12 IT

5.3.2.3 Theme 6 – Attractiveness is Dissatisfaction Driven

Another important reason for highly skilled resources to leave is linked to dissatisfaction. Respondents discuss their dissatisfaction in the country of origin or in the host country (for those that discussed short term experiences) due to the difficult job situation or unemployment in a specific job sector, the political situation and/or the difficulties of integration. Their stories are strictly linked to retention issues in the country of origin and/or in the host country and touch upon many of the social responsibility elements. This is in line with the felicitous and desperate types of migration identified by Cerdin et al. (2014), characterised by strong loss framing and strong push factors from the COO.

a) Employment situation - Respondents underline the difficulties of the academic/ job system in their home country due to unemployment and lack of openness and meritocracy. They express negativity, frustration and lack of motivation. They appreciate countries that offer more opportunities and value their skills more. This feeling of unhappiness is mainly expressed by the Italian respondents and is in line with our analysis of secondary data (See Section 4.6).

"*…if you see everyone wants to move to other countries than working for their country because they they are not appreciated in a way and they don't have opportunities in the country and they are forced to go elsewhere and work for other countries, and you know, in a way they are improving the growth of other countries than their own country (…) I can see, the job opportunities here are becoming eh—less ((available)) and people are moving to other countries. Most of them they want, they want to go to the UK or USA or more North after the graduation. All the talented people are not paid well, so in such way they are pushed to other regions, to other parts of the world and… so I think they should realise this and give importance to students, create job opportunities and and they should engage the students who are the future to come up with their own ideas and have the start-up environment"* – Student 9 IT

Nevertheless, Italian respondents also show a strong bond with their culture and their roots in which family is considered as a very important element. This could create a situation of mental distress in the decision about leaving or staying in the country.

b) Political situation - Respondents underline their dissatisfaction with the political situations that might push them to leave the country. They express their attractiveness to places that share the same liberal view as them.

"*Well I would definitely consider, if, if, if the UK was to leave the European Union, but it's not really my intention, I have my life here, and I feel more like a visitor in Germany. But if I had to kind of get out… but I couldn't do it straight away, I would have to think what to do in Germany,*

because I couldn't have the same career probably, cause the academic system works differently"
– Staff 12 UK

5.3.2.4 Theme 7 - Retention

Discussing attractiveness, the concept of retention emerged at several instances. When the highly skilled person enters the decision process to move to another country, he/she always considers the country of origin and evaluates the gains and the losses. Attractiveness can be the symptom of gaps in the retention level of the country of origin, especially in cases of desperate and felicitous migration (Cerdin, Diné and Brewster, 2014). Therefore, some of the respondents talked about their willingness to move because of dissatisfaction (see theme here above).

There are also situations in which talents expressed their willingness to stay or talked about refusing an opportunity to go and work abroad. When discussing retention, the presence of a dynamic job market, social responsibility as well as high levels of place attachment are considered essential.

a) Retention is opportunity driven – Respondents have found a fertile place in their home country where they can develop their careers and enhance their professional growth and therefore are less likely to leave for another country.

"INT: *Okay. Hum— would you be interested in doing an experience abroad to work, for research purposes or teach purposes?*
STAFF 10: *Hum—not really {LG}*
INT: *Okay. Why not?*
STAFF 10: *Hum—Iii have never felt the need to… move country. Hum—I think… because I've like a good network here, hum—you know, I feel like it's my home, hum—I have lots of opportunities here which I don't think would be improved by moving. I don't speak any other languages, hum-- yeah*
INT: *What do you mean when you say opportunities, like in terms of work?*
STAFF 10: *Yeahhh, I don't think there is another country. So, it would have to be an English speaking country so that I can teach in English. And I don't think there is one that would offer me a better opportunity than working in London"* – Staff 10 UK

b) Retention is destination driven – Respondents would prefer to stay in their home country or host country due to place attachment or because they live a comfortable life. The level of comfort mainly derives from some elements of social responsibility such as cultural closeness, good health care and public education, tolerance, equality, openness and job market stability. Place attachment instead refers to social bonds and place identity as observed in the environmental psychology literature (Raymond, Brown and Weber, 2010).

"STAFF 12: *Which I have done here and which… I think this is basically what keeps me here. Because I know people, I'm grounded in the community ha—So in a sense, it's, it's ha—something drastic should have to happen for me tooo think to go back to Germany*
INT: *So you basically think that the fact that you have found a new home here based on the social network you have created through the years, it would be very difficult for you to leave even if you receive an offer.*

STAFF 12*: Yeah"* – Staff 12 UK

"STUDENT 8: *I think this is way more so…this country. I have only been in three countries {LG} in my life so, this is way more socially responsible than my country and probably… Maybe because the huge countries are popular.*
INT: Okay why do you think UK is more socially responsible?
STUDENT 8: *In tolerating all kind of different people, like all the minorities, women have equal rights, then… all those supports, from medical support, education, I think that e..e..e..e.. every step is more developed than my country {GR} (…)*
INT : *And in this sense, because you said about minorities and tolerance, and immigration in this country… what is your view about Brexit for instance?*
STUDENT 8: *Hum—I think that that's a horrible thing. Like a… like just a mistake.*
INT: *Do you think that that's a thing that a socially responsible country should do?*
STUDENT 8: *No, no… socially soc—no no…….. I think that was a bad thing (…) Hum- I like in UK and I think is very socially responsible. Yeah, even before, yeah I thought that this country is doing like great, but now it's like there is no problem whatsoever, never! Well the Brexit was the main, major one [INT: yeah] But, if something happens politically or anyway things come down like they fix it, for some reasons they fix it quite quick, I don't know, so it's amazing for me (…)*
INT: *And, and what else do you like?*
STUDENT 8: *Yeah, well the tolerance, everything… everything is normal in a way, whatever you do, however you look is normal, so I really appreciate that.*
(…) Hum—I don't know, it was quite easy to me like to go to register to that local GP thing? Everyone was… so that's probably a socially responsible thing? I was quite, quite happy, so if I was sick or something…
INT*: What do you share with the country? (…)*
STUDENT 8*: Hum—probably yeah, some of my values that freedom and expressness {GR}. Yeah. I like that people are helping each other…*
(…)
INT: *How much do you feel attracted by this country and with attracted I mean, if you find a job here after your studies, would you be willing to stay here?*
STUDENT 8: *Yeah, yeah. Uh-huh*." – Student 8 UK

5.3.3 SRIC and Country Image

The last part of the analysis sheds light on research question 4. The comments received from the interviewees confirm what has already been claimed by Gotsi and Lopez and others regarding the reciprocal relationship between country image and corporate image (Gotsi, Lopez and Andriopoulos, 2011; Magnusson, Westjohn and Zdravkovic, 2015; White and Alkandari, 2019). This influence can be positive or negative. In the case of the US, for instance, Mc Donald's is seen as a symbol of the consumeristic American society and therefore engenders negative connotations that go from the corporate image to the country image. On the other hand, Ikea, well-known for its social responsibility commitment, enhances the positive image of Sweden as a socially responsible country.

5.3.3.1 Theme 8 - CSR-CI is Reciprocal

a) SRIC/country image influences corporate image - Respondents associate the behaviour and perception of a company with that of the country it belongs to

"…to leave a normal position that I have been in for six years, in order to go to a university that I don't know, that is not prestigious and also that doesn't give me much freedom, also because we are talking about Famagosta… it's evident that well…the colleagues would be quite, let's say obliged to think in a certain way…I study and teach in a religious university, that would be even more religious" – Staff 10 IT

b) Corporate image influences country image/SRIC - Respondents identify a country as more socially responsible when they associate it with a company that is well known for its corporate social responsibility commitment. This is also confirmed by previous studies such as White's and Kolesnicov's (2015).

"As virtuous example I always think about is Northern Europe … I have this perception, for instance about Sweden. I don't know the situation but I have this idea regarding all Northern countries such as Sweden, Norway especially for the environment… as well as big companies such as Ikea that safeguard the environment, the environmental impact, responsibility in this sense" – Student 4 IT

5.4 Overall Results

The qualitative stage has allowed the researcher to explore the construct of social responsibility of countries. The results are portrayed in the chart here below (Fig. 5.1).

As the root constructs (GCI and CSRI), SRIC is multi-dimensional and is criticised by some of the respondents due to its contextual nature (See section 2.3). Given the complex nature of the nation brand, SRIC is enacted at three different levels: governmental, societal and organisational. This is an interesting finding that did not emerge from the review of the literature. SRIC is also characterised by five different dimensions (environmental, economic, social, ethical and political & legal) as confirmed by the review of previous studies on corporate social responsibility image and country image (Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Perez and Bosque, 2013; Alvarado-Herrera *et al.*, 2017). The qualitative stage also confirms that a reciprocal relationship between country image and corporate image exists and that social responsibility can be used to strengthen positive associations (Gotsi, Lopez and Andriopoulos, 2011; Magnusson, Westjohn and Zdravkovic, 2015; White and Alkandari, 2019). Nevertheless, this is possible only when the respondent is quite familiar with the country and/or the company. In many cases, in fact, interviewees were reluctant to discuss the social responsibility of countries that were very distant culturally or geographically or that they had never visited. This aspect stresses the importance of studying the influence of NBF, already mentioned in chapter 4 as a key moderator. It also helps the researcher with the selection of the countries to be used as stimuli in the next stage. Whilst during this exploratory phase respondents were asked to express their opinions freely on a number of different countries, in the survey, the sample will focus on US and Canada. These two countries have been chosen based on the following criteria (1) the majority of respondents were familiar with the two countries and mentioned them in their examples; (2) both are English-speaking countries and are ranked at the top of tables measuring talent attraction (3) due to their proximity, the two countries are equi-distant to both Italy and the UK and finally (4) based on the data collected at this stage Canada is depicted as a country with high social responsibility while the image of the US looks much more controversial.

The relationship between SRIC, nation brand attractiveness and intention to move/study in the country appears to be more complicated as there are several factors involved in the decision process (Carr, Kerr Inkson and Thorn, 2005; Solimano, 2008; Doherty, Dickmann and Mills, 2011; Nadeau and Olafsen, 2015), among which also social responsibility elements (Silvanto, Ryan and McNulty, 2015). The decision-making process is the consequence of an opportunity-cost scrutiny, the so-called gain framing and loss framing problem (Cerdin, Diné and Brewster, 2014), based on three main elements: opportunity, destination and dissatisfaction. The evaluation process includes elements of attractiveness as well as elements of retention, especially when dissatisfaction is concerned. In other words, respondents make their decision comparing their situation in the country of origin with the one they could have in the potential destination, evaluating the gains as well as the losses. Attractiveness and retention are therefore strictly linked.

To conclude, this first stage has helped the researcher to explore the constructs domains and assess the theory expounded in chapter 2. Data have also been useful to generate additional items as suggested by Churchill and De Vellis (Churchill, 1979; de Vellis, 2016) and as discussed in chapter 4. Following this stage, the questionnaire has therefore been improved and 9 new items have been included: seven items in SRIC (ENVSRIC3, PSRIC5, SSRIC3 and SSRIC5, ECOSRIC1, ECOSRIC3 and ECOSRIC7, NBF4 and NBF5) and two items in NBF (NBF4 and NBF5) (See Appendix C Table 5.7). The final version of the questionnaire is included in the Appendix C. In addition to the new and old items of the constructs under investigation, the questionnaire also includes a marker variable, self-esteem, which will be used for advanced statistical tests as discussed in chapter 6 (See section 6.4.2). The interviews and focus groups have also been useful to identify the countries to be used as stimuli. Although in the qualitative stage respondents were able to discuss their opinions about different countries, the survey will focus on two countries: Canada and the US. The reasons for this choice have been provided above.

5.5 Summary

This chapter has presented the results of the qualitative stage. Overall, eight themes have emerged from the analysis of interviews and focus groups with forty-four key informants. The first three themes help to explain the nature, dimensions and limits of the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC). SRIC comprises five dimensions (social, economic, political & legal, ethical and environmental) and is influenced by the behaviour of three nation brand stakeholders (government, society and organisations). Its limitations reside in its contextual nature and the level of scepticism it is often encountered with. The following themes reflect on nation brand attractiveness as being opportunity, destination and dissatisfaction driven. The idea of attractiveness is also strictly linked to retention particularly when dissatisfaction is part of the motives. The attractiveness discourse is complex but when the destination is touched upon, some important SRIC dimensions seem to emerge. Finally, the last theme shows how the perception of certain companies can influence SRIC – an effect that, in some cases, seems to be reciprocal. To conclude, this qualitative stage has been particularly useful to explore the nature and dimensions of SRIC, thus helping the researcher with the scale development of this new construct. The analysis has also been useful in order to identify the stimuli that will be used in the following stage.

Based on these findings, the next chapter will outline the process and results of the quantitative stage of this research.

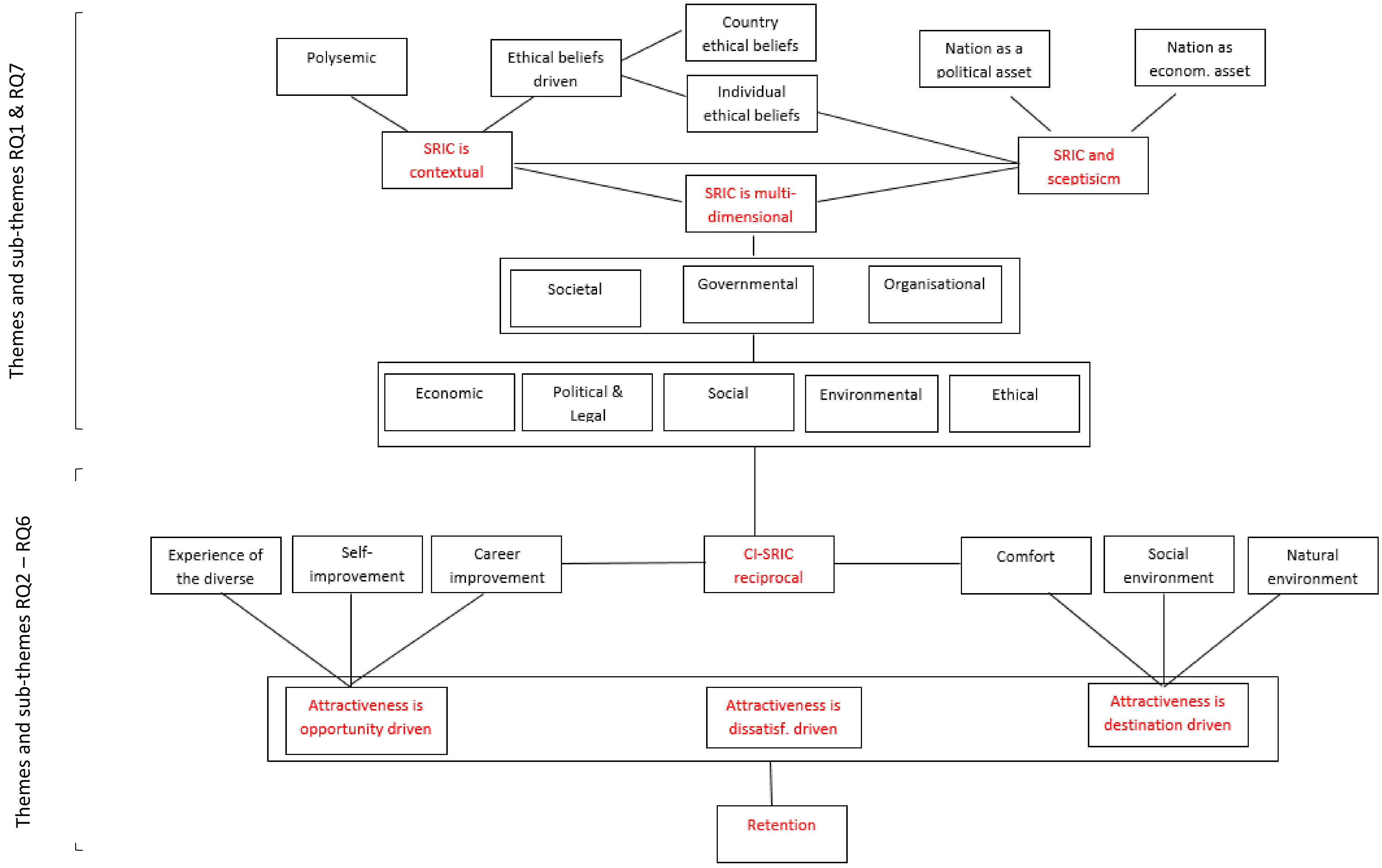


Fig. 5.1 The qualitative stage. Author's elaboration (2016).

Chapter 6

QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the findings of the quantitative stage are reported and discussed. The first section is devoted to the analysis of data from the pilot test. Results from validity and reliability tests and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) are examined in detail. Following the main study, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is performed and the hypotheses and model are tested using structural equation modelling (SEM). These are discussed in the second part of the chapter. The chapter ends with the presentation of findings derived from mediation and multigroup analyses.

6.2 Face and Content Validity

As recommended by previous authors (Churchill, 1979; de Vellis, 2016; Ruel, Wagner and Gillespie, 2018) before distributing the online questionnaires, six experts from two universities (Middlesex University London and University of Leicester) were contacted and asked to review the pool of items already adjusted after the qualitative stage. The overall feedback was positive. The experts agreed on the overall clarity of the survey. However, expert 1 and expert 3 expressed some problems with two items in the ICSR scale. As the scale had already been used and tested in previous studies, the researcher decided to avoid major changes at this preliminary stage but paid a particular attention to ICSR reliability and validity tests. Another important issue that was raised by the pool of experts concerns the length the questionnaire. Timing, clarity and ease of access were tested via a respondent-driven pretest (Ruel, Wagner and Gillespie, 2018) with a small subsample made of ten members of the academic staff at the University of Leicester. Results showed that the average time of completion was between seven and twelve minutes. Therefore, time was judged appropriate for this type of study. Respondents reported a few problems with the format of the survey when accessed via mobile phones and tablets. The problem was solved by the researcher before proceeding to the pilot test.

6.3 Pilot Test

For the pilot test questionnaires were distributed in selected universities in the cities of London and Milan. Data collection lasted from June to September 2018. Overall, the researcher distributed 1882 questionnaires using Qualtrics software (1227 in the UK and 655 in Italy) to collect 129 responses, 64 in the UK and 65 in Italy (0,06% response rate). The unexpected low response rate was related to the use of e-mail as the main method, timing (summer closure and holidays) and lack of incentives (Malhotra, Nunan and Birks, 2017). Given the risks associated with low response rate and non-response bias, corrective measures have been taken to address this problem during data collection for the main study. After screening the data for missing values, 12 questionnaires were discarded and 117 retained for subsequent analysis. This sample was deemed adequate for a pilot test as suggested by Malhotra, Nunan and Birks (2017) and Hair et al. (2018). More details regarding the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample can be found in the Table 6.1 here below. After checking the data for normality assumptions, reliability tests and exploratory factor analysis were conducted to purify the scales before recollecting the data for the main study (Churchill, 1979).

6.3.1 Socio-demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Table 6.1 presents a summary of the characteristics of the sample. The sample includes 117 participants with a good representation in terms of gender of both males and females. The majority of respondents are between 36 and 55 years old. They are married with children and hold a position of lecturer or professor at their institution.

<table>
<tr><th colspan="4">Pilot Test – Socio-demographics</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Target Population</td><td>Sampling units</td><td colspan="2">UK/Italian universities</td></tr>
<tr><td>Sampling Elements</td><td colspan="2">University staff and students</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Sampling technique</td><td colspan="2">Purposive sampling</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Sample size required</td><td colspan="2">90-120</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Distributed questionnaires</td><td colspan="2">1882</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Response rate (Returned questionnaires)</td><td colspan="2">0.06% (129)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Usable questionnaires</td><td colspan="2">117</td></tr>
<tr><td>Respondents' profile</td><td></td><td>No. of respon.</td><td>%</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Sex</td><td>Male</td><td>62</td><td>53%</td></tr>
<tr><td>Female</td><td>54</td><td>46%</td></tr>
<tr><td>Prefer not to say</td><td>1</td><td>1%</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Age</td><td>26-35</td><td>21</td><td>18%</td></tr>
<tr><td>36-55</td><td>68</td><td>58%</td></tr>
<tr><td>56 and over</td><td>28</td><td>24%</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="5">Employment status</td><td>UG/PG student</td><td>1</td><td>1%</td></tr>
<tr><td>PhD</td><td>8</td><td>7%</td></tr>
<tr><td>Researcher</td><td>13</td><td>11%</td></tr>
<tr><td>Lecturer</td><td>49</td><td>42%</td></tr>
<tr><td>Professor</td><td>46</td><td>39%</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="6">Marital status</td><td>Single</td><td>15</td><td>13%</td></tr>
<tr><td>In a relationship</td><td>12</td><td>10%</td></tr>
<tr><td>Married with children</td><td>60</td><td>51%</td></tr>
<tr><td>Married without children</td><td>21</td><td>18%</td></tr>
<tr><td>Divorced</td><td>8</td><td>7%</td></tr>
<tr><td>Prefer not to say</td><td>1</td><td>1%</td></tr>
</table>

Table. 6.1 Pilot test – Sample profile. Author's Elaboration (2020).

6.3.2 Reliability Analysis

As explained in chapter 3, reliability refers to the following: a) internal consistency reliability, b) stability reliability c) representative reliability and c) equivalence reliability. For the purpose of this study only internal consistency will be assessed. This plays an important role because it enables the researcher to test "the homogeneity of the items comprising a scale" (de Vellis, 1991, p.25) before proceeding with more complex type of analyses.

In order to analyse the internal consistency reliability, both Cronbach's Alpha coefficient and the item-total statistics have been assessed (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2016). For a scale to be internally consistent values of α should be above .7 (Hair *et al.,* 2010) and the corrected item-to-total correlation should be greater than .3 (De Vellis, 1991; Pallant, 2016). According to some scholars, in the early stages of research, values between .6 and .5 could suffice (Nunnally, 1978). Lower α values indicate that the selected items perform poorly in capturing the construct (Field, 2013).

Pilot Test - Reliability analysis – US			
Constructs	**Cronbach's alpha if item deleted**	**Corrected item-to-total correlation**	
		Before deleted	**After deleted**
Social Responsibility image of countries (SRIC) (α 0.932)		α 0.932	α 0.932
Environmental SRIC (ENVSRIC) (α 0.814)			
ENVSRIC1	0.728	0.707	-
ENVSRIC2	0.766	0.633	-
ENVSRIC3	0.816	0.517	-
ENVSRIC4	0.744	0.682	-
Political SRIC (PSRIC) (α 0.757)			
PSRIC1	0.708	0.539	-
PSRIC2	0.751	0.415	-
PSRIC3	0.657	0.665	-
PSRIC4	0.700	0.560	-
PSRIC5	0.737	0.461	-
Social SRIC (SSRIC) (α 0.654)		α 0.654	α 0.660
SSRIC1	0.570	0.498	0.522
SSRIC2	0.498	0.588	0.534
SSRIC3	0.660	0.256	**
SSRIC4	0.603	0.405	0.618
SSRIC5	0.644	0.326	0.657
Economic (ECOSRIC) (α 0.825)			
ECOSRIC1	0.817	0.496	-
ECOSRIC2	0.791	0.636	-
ECOSRIC3	0.796	0.601	-
ECOSRIC4	0.804	0.549	-
ECOSRIC5	0.776	0.733	-
ECOSRIC6	0.798	0.590	-
ECOSRIC7	0.825	0.424	-
Ethical (ETHSRIC) (α 0.813)			
ETHSRIC1	0.838	0.565	-

ETHSRIC2	0.685	0.726	-
ETHSRIC3	0.679	0.729	-

Table 6.2 Pilot Test - Reliability analysis SRIC US. Author's elaboration (2020).

It is important to note that the value of α is strictly related to the number of items in a scale, so that if items increase, Cronbach's alpha will also increase (Field, 2013). Therefore, for large scales a high value of α could be biased due to the large number of items. Moreover, as alpha does not equate to unidimensionality, in presence of a construct including sub-scales it is good practice to apply the formula to each dimension or sub scale. These considerations have an important implication for this study, particularly for the analysis of the scale of the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC). The reliability analysis for each construct will be discussed here, starting with SRIC displayed in Table 6.2 and 6.3.

Pilot Test - Reliability analysis – Canada			
Constructs	**Cronbach's alpha if item deleted**	**Corrected item-to-total correlation**	
		Before deleted	**After deleted**
Social Responsibility image of countries (SRIC) (α 0.910)		α 0.910	α 0.923
Environmental SRIC (ENVSRIC) (α 0.846)			
ENVSRIC1	0.785	0.727	-
ENVSRIC2	0.800	0.695	-
ENVSRIC3	0.826	0.634	-
ENVSRIC4	0.806	0.684	-
Political SRIC (PSRIC) (α 0.703)			
PSRIC1	0.692	0.356	-
PSRIC2	0.658	0.450	-
PSRIC3	0.601	0.598	-
PSRIC4	0.631	0.523	-
PSRIC5	0.676	0.403	-
Social SRIC (SSRIC) (α 0.441)		α 0.441	α 0.657
SSRIC1	0.322	0.346	0.582
SSRIC2	0.218	0.480	0.436
SSRIC3	0.379	0.249	**
SSRIC4	0.328	0.369	0.434
SSRIC5	0.690	- 0.005	**
Economic (ECOSRIC) (α 0.820)			
ECOSRIC1	0.818	0.470	-
ECOSRIC2	0.797	0.555	-
ECOSRIC3	0.796	0.561	-
ECOSRIC4	0.792	0.585	-
ECOSRIC5	0.770	0.736	-
ECOSRIC6	0.806	0.502	-
ECOSRIC7	0.794	0.576	-
Ethical (ETHSRIC) (α 0.777)			
ETHSRIC1	0.756	0.561	-
ETHSRIC2	0.605	0.700	-
ETHSRIC3	0.731	0.585	-

Table 6.3 Pilot Test - Reliability analysis SRIC Canada. Author's elaboration (2020)

Social Responsibility Image of Countries (SRIC) – Reliability tests for the SRIC construct have been carried out for both countries. For the reasons explained here above, Cronbach's Alpha has been computed for the overall construct and for each of its subscales as displayed in Table 6.2 and 6.3. The analysis of the overall construct shows strong internal consistency (US α = 0.932; CA α = 0.910). This is also confirmed by the α value of the majority of subscales: environmental dimension (US α = 0.814; CA α = 0.846), political dimension (US α = 0.757; CA α = 0.703), economic dimension (US α = 0.825¸CA α = 0.820) and ethical dimension (US α = 0.813¸CA α = 0.777). Only the sub-scale capturing the social aspects displays a Cronbach's alpha below .7 (US α= 0.654; CA α = 0.441). After removing SSRIC3 (corrected item-to-total correlation = 0.256 < .3) in the US scale and SSRIC3 (corrected item-to-total correlation = 0.249 <.3) and SSRIC5 (corrected item-to-total correlation = - 0.005 < 3) in the scale measuring SSRIC of Canada, it is possible to see a slight improvement of the overall fit of the sub-scale (US α =0.654 to 0.660; CA α = 0.441 to 0.657). After this change, the overall SRIC scale sees no major improvement in the case of US (α = 0.932 vs α = 0.932) and a slight improvement for Canada (α = 0.910 vs α = 0.923).

Importance of social responsibility (ICSR) – Table 6.4 reports the reliability analysis for the importance of social responsibility. The value of Cronbach's alpha for ICSR (α = 0.716) is adequate and above the recommended level of .7. The corrected item-to-total correlation also shows values greater than .3. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that the ICSR scale has a good level of reliability and the items of the construct are internally consistent.

Pilot Test - Reliability analysis			
Constructs	**Cronbach's alpha if item deleted**	**Corrected item-to-total correlation**	
		Before deleted	**After deleted**
Importance of CSR (ICSR) (α 0.716)		-	-
ICSR1	0.685	0.454	-
ICSR2	0.602	0.584	-
ICSR3	0.607	0.577	-
ICSR4	0.701	0.427	-

Table 6.4 Pilot Test - Reliability analysis ICSR. Author's elaboration (2020).

The following tables, 6.5 and 6.6, display the results of the reliability analysis for the remaining constructs, namely nation brand identification, attractiveness and familiarity, intention to apply for a job vacancy and corporate image, for the two chosen countries.

Pilot Test - Reliability analysis – US			
Constructs	**Cronbach's alpha if item deleted**	**Corrected item-to-total correlation**	
		Before deleted	**After deleted**
Nation Brand Identification (NBI) (α 0.852)		-	-
NBI1	0.790	0.748	-
NBI2	0.786	0.758	-
NBI3	0.823	0.666	-
NBI4	0.850	0.621	-
Nation Brand Attractiveness (NBA) (α 0.751)		-	-
NBA1	0.662	0.609	-
NBA2	0.660	0.615	-
NBA3	0.680	0.573	-
NBA4	0.765	0.417	-
Intention to Apply for a Job (IAJV) (α 0.855)		-	-
IAJV1	0.828	0.668	-
IAJV2	0.797	0.742	-
IAJV3	0.790	0.757	-
IAJV4	0.843	0.631	-
Corporate image (CI) (α 0.737)		-	-
CI1	0.693	0.509	-
CI2	0.664	0.593	-
CI3	0.683	0.523	-
CI4	0.669	0.557	-
CI5	0.750	0.375	-
Nation Brand Familarity (NBI) (α 0.724)		α 0.724	α 0.790
NBF1	0.636	0.674	0.599
NBF2	0.742	0.271	**
NBF3	0.611	0.635	0.736
NBF4	0.616	0.619	0.651
NBF5	0.748	0.224	**

Table 6.5 Pilot Test - Reliability analysis US. Author's elaboration (2020).

Nation brand identification (NBI) - The value of Cronbach's alpha for NBI is above the recommended value .7 (US α = 0.852; CA α = 0.814). In addition, all the coefficients representing the corrected item-to-total correlation are above .3. This indicates that the items are internally consistent, and the scale has a good level of reliability for both Canada and US.

Nation brand attractiveness (NBA) – Cronbach's alpha for NBA is above the recommended value of .7 (US α = 0.751; CA α = 0.780). Moreover, the corrected item-to-total correlation displays values greater than .3. This confirms the reliability of the scale and the internal consistency of the given items.

Pilot Test - Reliability analysis – Canada			
Constructs	**Cronbach's alpha if item deleted**	**Corrected item-to-total correlation**	
		Before deleted	**After deleted**
Nation Brand Identification (NBI) (α 0.814)		-	-
NBI1	0.754	0.665	-
NBI2	0.758	0.673	-
NBI3	0.771	0.632	-
NBI4	0.783	0.606	-
Nation Brand Attractiveness (NBA) (α 0.780)		-	-
NBA1	0.730	0.591	-
NBA2	0.719	0.645	-
NBA3	0.705	0.629	-
NBA4	0.757	0.561	-
Intention to Apply for a Job (IAJV) (α 0.815)		-	-
IAJV1	0.790	0.603	-
IAJV2	0.771	0.629	-
IAJV3	0.750	0.673	-
IAJV4	0.753	0.676	-
Corporate image (CI) (α 0.796)		0.796	0.863
CI1	0.703	0.736	0.782
CI2	0.713	0.712	0.808
CI3	0.697	0.761	0.759
CI4	0.776	0.516	0.511
CI5	0.863	0.230	**
Nation Brand Familiarity (NBI) (α 0.751)		α 0.751	α 0.778
NBF1	0.666	0.654	0.650
NBF2	0.778	0.264	**
NBF3	0.655	0.652	0.677
NBF4	0.678	0.592	0.605
NBF5	0.737	0.478	0.464

Table 6.6 Pilot Test - Reliability analysis Canada. Author's elaboration (2020).

Intention to Apply for a Job (IAJV) – The value of Cronbach's alpha for this construct is above the recommended value of .7 (US α = 0.855; CA α = 0.815). As for the previous constructs, the corrected item-to-total correlation coefficients are greater than .3. This confirms the reliability of the scale and the internal consistency of the items measuring IAJV.

Corporate image (CI) – The value of α for CI is above the recommended value of .7 (US α = 0.737; CA α = 0.796). As for the coefficients of the corrected item-to-total correlation, whilst for US all the figures are above .3, in the case of Canada CI5 shows a value of 0.230. Deleting the item results in an improvement of α from 0.796 to 0.863. However, given the importance of the item for this study and the divergence of results between the two countries CI5 has been retained for the next stage.

Nation Brand Familiarity (NBF) – Both values of Cronbach's alpha are positive and sufficiently above the recommended value of .7 (US α = 0.724; CA α = 0.751). However, when looking at the results in the corrected item-to-total correlation column, values of NBF2 for US and Canada (US = 271; CA = 264) and NBF5 for US (0.224) are below .3. When dropping these items, Cronbach's alpha slightly increases (US α = 0.724 to 0.790; CA α =0.751 to 0.778). Nevertheless, given the initial satisfactory result of Cronach's alpha, the items have been retained for the next stage.

6.3.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis

After reliability analysis, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted on the data. This type of analysis is generally recommended at early stages of scale refinement and validation (Churchill, 1979; De Vellis, 2016) as it allows the researcher to understand the underlying structure of the variables (Field, 2017). This is particularly important when theory on the constructs under research is scarce (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; Henson and Roberts, 2006). In this case, part of the items was adapted from previous articles and part was generated or adjusted after the qualitative stage. For this reason, the researcher deemed it important to run EFA before proceeding with the main study (e.g. Priporas, Stylos and Kamenidou, 2019).

Before running EFA, the following assumptions should be checked:

(1) Sample size requirements – Several scholars agree on the importance of an adequate sample size before EFA. As a general rule, the number of observations should be more than the number of variables. Hair suggests 100 or larger (Hair *et al.* 2018) and a ration of 10:1 (Nunnally, 1978) or, at least, 5:1 observations per item (Pallant, 2016);
(2) Factorability of the correlation matrix – In order to run EFA, the majority of correlations coefficients should be between 0.3 and 0.8 (Pallant, 2016; Hair *et al.*, 2018). The correlation matrix should also be checked for correlation coefficients greater than 0.9. Values above 0.9 could signal multicollinearity problems (Field, 2017);
(3) Sampling adequacy – Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measures of sampling adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity should be run before EFA. The value of KMO should be 0.6 or above and Bartlett's test should be significant ($p < 0.01$) to proceed with exploratory factor analysis (Pallant, 2016). In addition to KMO, the diagonal of the anti-image matrix should be assessed for values below 0.5. Items below 0.5 should be considered for elimination.

In addition, a decision should be made regarding the following options:

(1) *Method of analysis* – When using EFA, the researcher can choose from two main categories of methods. Principal Component Analysis (PCA), Principal Axial Factoring (PAF) and Image Factoring (IF) are included in the first category and are ideal for descriptive methods. Maximum Likelihood (ML) and Kaiser's Alpha, instead, are part of the second category and are normally used for inferential methods (Field, 2017);
(2) *Type of rotation* – As for rotation, there are two main approaches to choose from, namely orthogonal (Varimax, Quartimax and Equamax) and oblique (Direct Oblimin and Promax).

In the first option, the researcher assumes that factor solutions are uncorrelated whilst the second option allows factors to correlate (Pallant, 2016).

Based on the above-mentioned assumptions, items were divided into groups to ensure a good item-observations ratio of 5:1 (e.g. Bentler and Chou, 1987; Shoham, 1999; Vorhies and Morgan, 2005). Variables that were assumed to be theoretically related were aggregated for the analysis. The first group consists of the SRIC dimensions, namely ENVSRIC, PSRIC, SSRIC, ECOSRIC, ETHSRIC. Dimensions were analysed together and in pairs in order to observe the ratio. The second group includes the dependent variables, NBA, NBI and IAJV. The last group comprises the moderators, CI, ICSR and NBF. As per theoretical assumptions, these were analysed in groups together with the three dependent variables. Coefficients in each correlation matrix were checked for values between 0.3 and 0.8 so as to ensure the factorability of the data. No values above 0.9 were found, therefore excluding potential issues of multicollinearity (Field, 2017). Finally, sampling adequacy was assessed through the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's tests. KMO resulted in optimal values ranging between 0.89 and 0.83. Bartlett's tests held significant results, proving that the correlation matrices assessed were significantly different from identity matrices (Field, 2017). Concerning the extraction method, PCA analysis was performed on the data. In this occasion an oblique rotation, oblimin, was preferred to orthogonal rotation. The reason is, as explained by Field (2017), that it is generally more likely to expect that underlying dimensions of related variables are correlated rather than independent. In each EFA group, factorial solutions were analysed. In order to decide on the number of factors to be retained, the following elements have been taken into consideration: (1) eigenvalue greater than 1; (2) observation of the scree plot; (3) factor loadings greater than 0.5 (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Results for both countries are summarised in two tables in the appendix (See Appendix D – Table 6.7).

Group 1 – SRIC (Independent variable) – The EFA analysis of the independent variable showed positive results for both countries with KMO ranging between 0.896 (US) and 0.868 (Canada) (KMO > 0.6). Whilst the correlation matrix exhibited some values below 0.3, none of the coefficients were greater than 0.9 and the results of Bartlett's tests were significant at p 0.00 (Field, 2017). Moreover, the anti-image correlation matrix presented values all above the recommended minimum of 0.5. This allowed us to proceed with factors extraction. The number and type of factors extracted differed between US (5 factors) and Canada (4 factors). Factors loaded well on three dimensions namely, environmental, political and economic showing adequate loadings > 0.5 in both countries (Hair et al., 2010). Defying theoretical assumptions, in US, items pertaining to the social dimension loaded onto two different factors (4^{th} and 5^{th} factor). This problem reflects issues already encountered in the reliability phase with SSRIC. On the other hand, in Canada only items pertaining to the ethical dimension clearly loaded on the same factor.

Given the differences identified and the shortcomings that might derive from the use of a relatively small sample size, all dimensions were retained for the main study.

Group 2 – NBI, NBA and IAJV (Dependent variables) – The EFA analysis of the dependent variables exhibited optimal results in terms of KMO (0.891 for US and 0.881 for Canada). Correlations were all between 0.30 and 0.80 and Bartlett's test showed significant results. The diagonal in the anti-image matrix also exhibited figures above 0.50 in line with Hair's et al.'s (2010) recommendations. Factors extraction showed only some issues regarding cross-loading for NBA. Results in both countries were consistent.

Group 3 – ICSR, CI, NBF (Moderators) – The EFA analysis of the moderators showed positive results with KMO values between 0.867 and 0.838 in both countries. The correlation matrix presented some indicators below 0.30. This was expected for some of the moderators (e.g. ICSR). However, none of the coefficients was above 0.9 and Barlett's tests held significant results. Finally figures in the anti-image matrix displayed values above the recommended 0.5 (Hair et al., 2010; Field, 2012). Therefore, we proceeded with factors extraction. In line with theoretical predictions factors loadings were higher than 0.5 for the majority of items apart from CI5 and NBF2 that already presented issues during the reliability stage. Results in both countries were consistent.

To conclude, EFA results displayed similarities between countries when comparing the analysis of dependent variables and moderators. In both cases, NBA, CI5 and NBF2 showed issues of cross or poor loading (< 0.5). Some differences instead clearly emerged when examining the independent variable as only three dimensions, namely environmental, political and economic were loading on three distinctive factors. The other two, social and ethical dimensions, instead, displayed cross-loading issues that differed between Canada and US as explained here above. In the consideration of the foregoing, NBA, CI5, NBF2, SSRIC and ETHSRIC were initially considered for elimination. However, given the differences identified between the two countries, and potential issues that might have been caused by the relatively small sample, these items were retained for the main study.

6.4 Main Study

Following item purification, the questionnaire was distributed to a new sample for the data collection of the main survey. Data collection lasted from March until May 2019. Questionnaires were distributed to academic staff and students of Higher Education institutions in Italy and UK via e-mail and social media (Twitter, LinkedIn, Facebook) using Qualtrics software. Appropriate measures were taken in order to increase response rate and reduce non-response bias (Malhotra, Nunan and Birks, 2017). First, purposive and snowball sampling were used in combination. Whilst the pilot test mainly relied on e-mails, for the main study social media accounts of academic groups were also used in combination with emails. The geographic area was also extended beyond the major cities of London and Milan to comprise all the academic institutions in Italy and UK. Given the difficulties encountered with access to the student sample, Qualtrics database was used to facilitate the administration of the survey (Malhotra, Nunan and Birks, 2017). Data were first checked to confirm multivariate analysis norms were met. Reliability and validity were assessed using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and the model was tested using structure equation modelling (SEM). Each step of the process is discussed in the following sections.

6.4.1 Socio-demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Overall 756 questionnaires were collected over a 3-month period and, after screening for incomplete/faulty questionnaires (Hair *et al.,* 2018), 557 of them were retained for subsequent analysis. These 557 responses were collected from 350 members of the academic staff (172 from Italy and 178 from the UK) and 207 students (101 from Italy and 106 from the UK) in Italian and UK academic institutions. Following Hair et al. (2018), given 54 parameters, the ideal number of observations in order to respect the ratio 1:10 is 540. Therefore, the number of questionnaires was deemed suitable for the analysis. The table here below offers a summary of the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample.

Main study – Socio-demographics			
Target Population	Sampling units	UK/Italian universities	
	Sampling Elements	University staff and students	
Sampling technique		Purposive and snowball sampling	
Sample size required		540	
Distributed questionnaires		2164	
Response rate (Returned questionnaires)		35% (756)*	
Usable questionnaires		557	
Respondents' profile		**No. of respon.**	**%**
Sex	Male	235	42.2%
	Female	312	56%
	Other	4	0.7%
	Prefer not to say	6	1.1%
Age	18-25	191	34.3%
	26-35	169	30.3%
	36-55	137	24.6%
	56 and over	60	10.8%
Employment status	UG student	152	27.3%
	PG student	55	9.9%
	PhD	139	25%
	Researcher	32	5.7%
	Lecturer	112	20%
	Professor	67	12%
	Single	193	34.6%

Marital status	In a relationship	191	34.3%
	Married with children	107	19.2%
	Married without children	45	8.1%
	Divorced	16	2.9%
	Prefer not to say	5	0.9%
Country of origin	Europe	511	91.7%
	Asia	11	2%
	America	17	3.1%
	Africa	7	1.3%
	Prefer not to say	11	2%

**Response rate is calculated based on the number of emails sent and might be therefore inaccurate.*

Table. 6.8 Main study – Sample profile. Author's elaboration (2020).

As illustrated in the table above (Table 6.8), both genders are well represented as the sample comprises 56% females and 42.2% males. The majority of respondents is reported to be between 18 and 55 years old. 37.3% of them are students, 25% are PhDs and 37.7% are members of the academic staff. This, therefore, shows a good distribution also in terms of employment status. Finally, data shows that most respondents have a partner (61.6%), 34.6% are single and 2.9% divorced. Results are aggregated for both countries, Italy (49% of the total sample) and the UK (51% of the total sample). When looking at country-level differences, demographics are relatively similar with one exception being country-of-origin. The Italian sample includes a higher number of people studying/working in academia being Italian born compared to the UK where a wider variety of countries are represented. This can be seen as a first evidence of the brain drain versus brain gain phenomenon already discussed in the research setting (See Chapter 4).

6.4.2 Data Screening

Before proceeding with confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), data were checked for missing values and outliers. In addition, normality, linearity and homoskeadasticity were assessed in line with Field and Hair et al. (Field, 2017; Hair *et al.*, 2018). Results of this first step are presented here below.

Missing values

Data should always be checked prior to the analysis to identify any missing values and a decision should be made regarding how to proceed. There are four main methods that can be used to solve issues related to missing values: listwise deletion, pairwise deletion, imputation (e.g. mean substitution) and model-based approach (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Pallant, 2016). For this study 756 questionnaires were originally collected. However, 199 were excluded leaving the researchers with 557. Elimination of these observations was based on two criteria (1) the respondent did not sign the informed consent or did not agree to continue (2) there were more than 10% missing values in a single case. When investigating missing values, the majority of cases were missing at random (MAR). For the remaining 557, only 2% had missing values of less than 5%. For these, pairwise deletion was selected during the analysis.

Normality analysis

After adjusting for missing values, the next step consists of assessing the normality of data which is a pre-condition to multivariate analysis. Normality can be checked through graphical (histogram and normal Q-Q Plot) or numerical assessment (skewness and kurtosis coefficients). In order to test data for normality assumptions, items were first aggregated into scales (total score scale) by using the SPSS Transform function (Pallant, 2016). The analysis of the histograms confirmed that most variables followed a normal distribution which is generally characterized by a bell-shaped curve (See Fig 6.1).

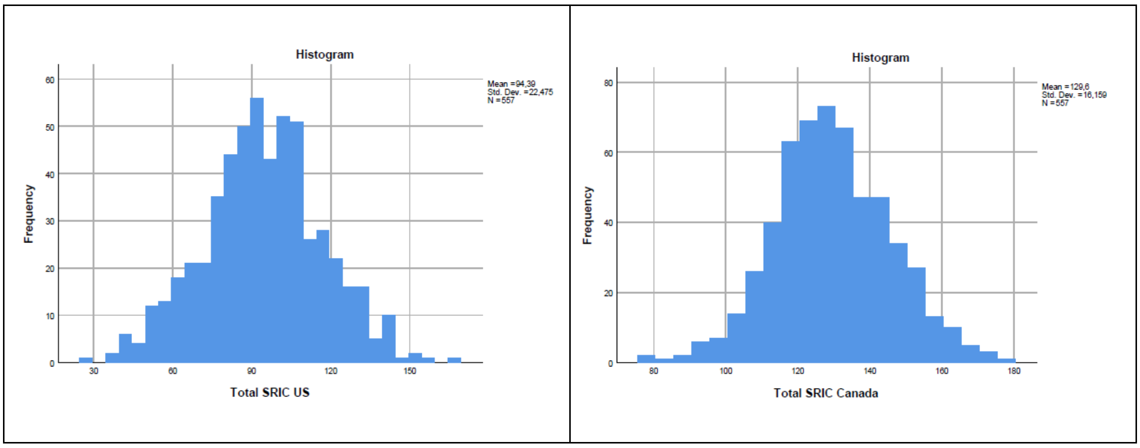
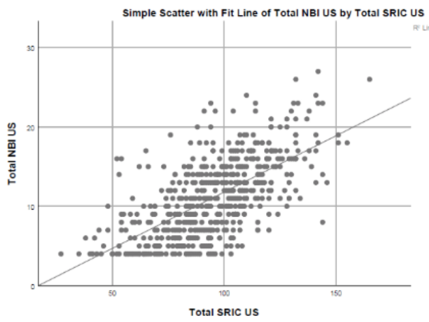


Fig. 6.1 Residual normality test for SRIC US and Canada. Author's elaboration (2020).

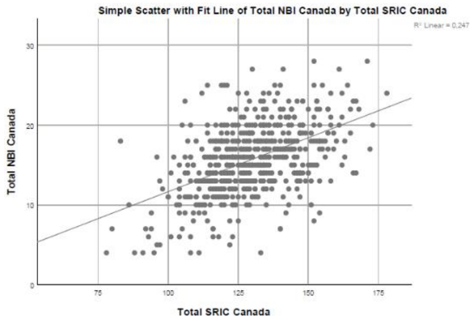
In addition to the graphical examination, researchers should examine values of kurtosis and skewness. The results show that only one variable (CI US) had a coefficient higher than +/-1 but still within the recommended range of +3/-3 (Hair *et al.*, 2010). A summary of descriptive statistics including normality tests is available in Appendix D (Table 6.9, Fig. 6.2). It is important to note that it is generally unlikely to see data that perfectly meet normality assumptions as small deviations from the norm are rather common (Field, 2017). In addition, kurtosis and skewness have been found to have a small impact on CB-SEM when dealing with large sample sizes (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013; Jannoo *et al.*, 2014). Further tests such as Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk, usually recommended to test normality, were not adopted given their proven sensibility to large samples which often results in false positives (Field, 2017).

Linearity

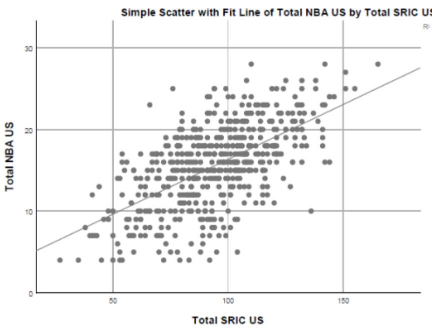
This is another important criterion that should be checked before proceeding with further analysis since the majority of statistical techniques rely on linear models. Results are displayed in the table here below (Table 6.9). Overall, patterns were linear and the relationship between variables can be easily expressed with a straight line.



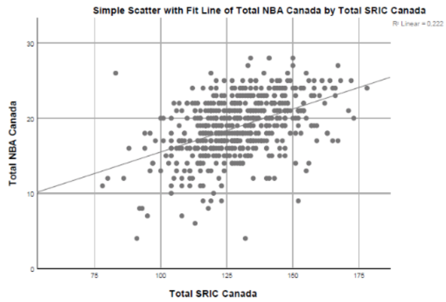
Scatterplot SRIC – NBI US



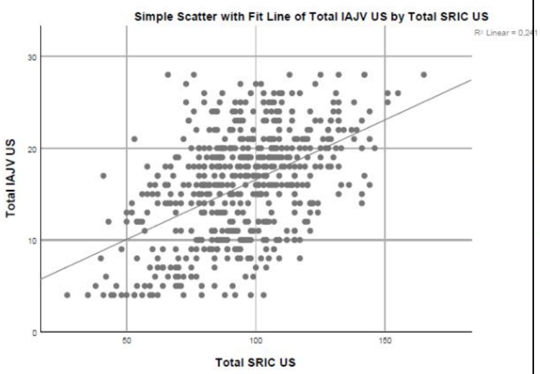
Scatterplot SRIC – NBI Canada



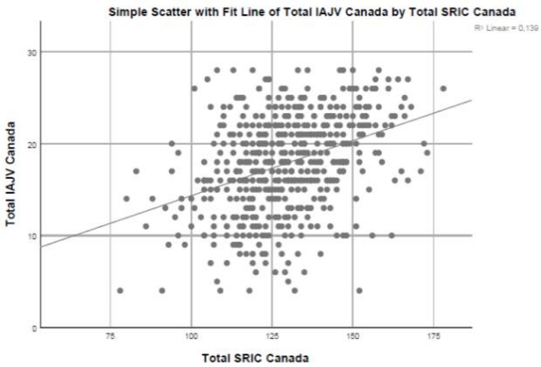
Scatterplot SRIC – NBA US



Scatterplot SRIC – NBA Canada



Scatterplot SRIC – IAJV US



Scatterplot SRIC – IAJV Canada

Table 6.10 Scatterplots (US and Canada) – Main study. Author's elaboration (2020).

Another method frequently used to assess linearity is to run a linear regression and examine the Normal P-P Plot of regression standardize residual (Hair *et al.*, 2018). The test suggested strong linear relationships for all the variables.

Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity, known as homogeneity of variance, refers to the fact that the dependent variables should exhibit "equal levels of variance across the range of predictor variable(s)" (Hair et al., 2010, p.74). This can be observed graphically by examining scatterplots or statistically by means of Levene's test or Hartley's F. For the purpose of this study graphical examination has been deemed the best option (See Table 6.10). Homoscedasticity in scatterplots identifies with a cigar shaped distribution whilst heteroscedasticity with a cone shaped distribution (Pallant, 2016). Analysing the table above it is possible to confirm an equal variance dispersion or homoscedasticity for all the variables in both countries, UK and Italy.

Outliers

An outlier is a score that appears "very different from the rest of the data" (Field, 2017, p.165). Outliers can affect the sum of squared errors and therefore bias test statistics. For this reason, is important to examine data to detect outliers before starting the analysis. A common technique to identify outliers is the inspection of histograms and boxplots (Field, 2017). Histograms and boxplots are reported in Appendix D (See Fig. 6.2 and Table 6.11). The analysis shows that for most variables there are few outliers. Variables that are characterized by more outliers are ICSR and NBF Canada. After identification of major outliers, researchers should decide whether to proceed with retention or deletion. Following Hair et al. (2018), outliers were retained as there was no evidence of their aberrance or non-representativeness of the population. In addition, retaining outliers is seen as helping to increase the generalisability of findings (Hair *et al.*, 2018).

Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity exists when two predictors in the model show a perfect linear combination and very high correlation (r = 0.9 and above) (Grewal, Cote and Baumgartner, 2004; Pallant, 2016). In order to check data for potential multicollinearity issues, correlation matrices should be examined for r values equals to or above 0.9. Correlation analysis is presented in Appendix D (Tables 6.12-6.13). Tables show no sign of multicollinearity issues in either of the two countries under examination. Another method used to detect multicollinearity is using regression and variance inflation factors (VIF) (Ofir and Khuri, 1986; Olya and Mehran, 2017; Kim, Stylidis and Oh, 2018). The test shows that VIF values range between 1.34 and 2.34 and neither is above the cut-off point of 3, therefore confirming that there is no threat posed by multicollinearity (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Results are reported in Appendix D (Tables 6.14 -6.15).

Common method bias

Method biases constitute one of the first sources of measurement error. Whilst procedural strategies to avoid common method bias (CMB) were adopted, past researchers recommend running CMB post-hoc analyses before proceeding with more advanced tests (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). Common method bias derives from "response tendencies that raters apply across measures, similarities in item structure or wording that induce similar responses, the proximity of items in an instrument, and similarities in the medium, timing, or location in which measures are collected" (Edwards, 2008, p.476). One of the first statistical techniques that are thought to help detect CMB is Harman's one-factor test (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003; Alnawas and Hemsley-Brown, 2019). This test involves running EFA using Principal axis factoring (PAF) analysis to extract a single factor. If the factor accounts for more than 50% of the total variance there is evidence of CMB. Results from Harman's test are presented in Appendix D (Tables 6.16-6.17). As the two tables show, there is no sign of CMB as single factors account for only 23% and 20% of the total variance, therefore below the recommended 50% limit. Whilst Harman's test is one of, if not, the most common post-hoc techniques to detect CMB, recently, its level of accuracy has been questioned (Fuller *et al.*, 2016). Other well-known tests (e.g. correlational marker, CFA marker and unmeasured latent method construct), used to detect CMB rely on the use of a marker variable (Lindell and Whitney, 2001; Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003; Richardson, Simmering and Sturman, 2009; Ali *et al.*, 2019). An ideal marker variable is a construct that is theoretically unrelated to other variables in the study and that shows a correlation of 0. The researchers followed Simmering's et al.'s best practices (2015) for the identification of the marker variable for this study (Simmering *et al.*, 2015). Based on the guidelines, the marker chosen for this study is self-esteem. Self-esteem is considered to be theoretically unrelated to the other variables because it focuses on individuals' self-perception whilst substantive variables aim to study the perception of external intangible elements, in this case, place brands. This construct was chosen a-priori and measured using four items derived from Rosenberg's self-esteem scale (Rosenberg, 1965). Questions were designed using a Likert-scale format that would make them similar to items of substantive variables. Following the correlational marker test, correlations were tested and results confirmed that, for the majority of items, correlation was non-significant (Lindell and Whitney, 2001; Simmering *et al.*, 2015). In a few cases items showed a significant correlation but values remained below the cut off point of 0.20 (Williams and O'Boyle, 2015) (See Appendix D – Table 6.18-6.19). The marker variable was then added to the SEM model and its impact on the other variables was tested. Results showed that the variable had no impact and there was no sign of significant change in paths estimates (See Appendix D – Figure 6.3-6.4) (Lindell and Whitney, 2001).

6.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

After data screening, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed on the data. CFA helps to assess the measurement model "– that is, the relationship between observed measures or indicators (…) and latent variables or factors" (Brown, 2015, p.1). It is hypotheses-driven in nature and assists researchers in testing construct validity and reliability before the specification of the structural model (Brown, 2015; Field, 2017). This is in line with SEM two-steps approach recommended by Anderson and Gerbin (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Nguyen *et al.*, 2016). During the first step, researchers assess the measurement model using CFA (Hair *et al.*, 2010). This leads to the examination of the structural model - the relationships between constructs - using SEM. Following Hair et al. (2010) the evaluation of the measurement model using CFA starts with an examination of goodness of fit indices and proceeds with composite reliability and validity tests (convergent, discriminant and nomological).

6.5.1 Goodness of Fit Indices

Goodness of fit indices comprise absolute fit indices, incremental fit indices and parsimony fit indices. These are summarised in the table here below (Table 6.20).

Type of GoF index	**Index**	**Recommended value**
Absolute Fit Indices	Chi-square (χ^2)	p > 0.05
	Goodness of fit index (GFI)	> 0.90
	Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	< .05 good < .08 acceptable
	PCLOSE	≥ 0.05
	Root mean square residual (RMR)	< 0.05 good < 0.08 acceptable
	Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	< 0.05 good < 0.08 acceptable
	Chi square/degree of freedom ratio (CMIN/DF)	< 2 or between 2-5
Incremental Fit Indices	Normed fit index (NFI)	≥ 0.90
	Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)	≥ 0.90
	Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	≥ 0.90
Parsimony Fit Indices	Adjusted Goodness of Fit (AGFI)	≥ 0.90
	Parsimony normed Fit Index (PNFI)	≥ 0.90

Table 6.20 Goodness of Fit statistics (Hair et al., 2010; Brown, 2015; Blunch, 2017). Authors'elaboration (2020).

Absolute fit indices help to assess how well the model fits the observed data (Hair *et al.*, 2018). The most fundamental measure of fit is represented by the chi-square statistic (χ^2). However, due to its mathematical properties, χ^2 is deemed to be sensitive to large sample sizes and therefore p is often found to be non-significant (Byrne, 2016). For this reason, χ^2 should not be used as the only indicator of fit. Absolute fit indices such as goodness-of-fit (GFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and root mean square residual (RMR) can assist researchers with fit measurement. Amongst them, RMSEA is widely used because it is not affected by the size of the sample and is therefore useful to correct χ^2 and GFI results (Hair et al., 2010). This should be read in relation to PCLOSE which tests the hypothesis that RMSEA is valid (Byrne, 2016). RMR and related SRMR capture instead the weight of residuals. Known as badness-of-fit measures, for both RMR and its standardised statistic smaller values are sign of a better fit (Brown, 2015). Incremental fit indices (also known as relative fit measures (Blunch, 2017)) which comprise normed fit index (NFI), Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI) "differ from absolute fit indices in that they assess how well the estimated model fits relative to some alternative baseline model" (Hair et al., 2010, p.580). Values range from 0-1 with higher values indicating better fit. Finally, parsimony fit indeces indicate which model amongst a series of competing models has better fit relative to its complexity. Parsimony normed fit index (PNFI) and adjusted goodness of fit (AGFI) belong to this group. Both statistics derive from the previous, NFI and GFI, but are adjusted for degrees of freedom. In order to discriminate between good and bad models, Hair et al. (2010) offer some guidance (rule of thumb). Firstly, authors should rely on multiple indices of different types: an incremental index and absolute index in addition to χ^2 and its degrees of freedom (DF) (e.g. χ^2 and DF, RMSEA, CFI/TLI). Second, the cut-off point should be adjusted to the model characteristic (e.g. N of observed variables) and sample size: as the N of respondents and observed variables increase, the cut off point is less rigid (from 0.95 to 0.90-0.80). Finally, models should be compared when possible as comparison helps to discriminate between a good and a bad model.

In addition to assessing fit indices, CFA also requires an analysis of standardized estimates. Firstly, estimated (free) coefficients should be checked to ensure they are significant. Then loadings of standardized estimates should be examined. Values should be at least 0.5 and preferabily 0.7 and higher (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Items that display factor loadings lower than 0.5 can be considered as candidates for possible exclusion from the model. Together with factor loadings, researchers should also verify standardized residual covariances (SRC) and modification indices (MI) (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Blunch, 2017). MI greater than 4.0 (3.84) represent a red flag and suggest that fit could be improved further (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Brown, 2015). According to Byrne (2016), instead, the threshold for MI is 10. Recent studies also support the analysis of expected parameter changes (EPC) in combination with MI (Whittaker, 2012). The cutoff point for EPC is 0.10 (Saris, Satorra and Sorbom, 1987). As for standardized residuals, researchers should look for values greater than 4 as these can be a cause for concern (Hair *et al.*, 2010). It is important to note that the final decision to delete an item should not be based solely on fit indices, MI or loadings but should be supported by strong theoretical reasons. This is because, unlike EFA, CFA relies on theory for the specification of the model (Brown, 2015).

The analysis of the measurement model was conducted using AMOS 26 software. The researchers followed Byrne's and Arbuckle's guidelines to design the model using AMOS (Arbuckle, 1995; Byrne, 2016). Images of the model are reported in the Appendix D (See Figure 6.5). Initial results are displayed in the table here below.

Indices	**US**	**Canada**
Absolute-Fit measures		
χ^2	2260.298	1742.826
df	583	583
p-value	0.0*	0.0*
GFI	0.771*	0.832*
CMIN/DF	3.87	2.98
RMSEA	0.072	0.060
PCLOSE	0.0*	0.0*
RMR	0.177	0.111
Incremental-Fit measures		
NFI	0.777*	0.777*
TLI	0.891*	0.825*
CFI	0.823*	0.839*
Parsimony- Fit measures		
AGFI	0.738*	0.808*
PNFI	0.719*	0.719*

** Measures that show problems with fit*

Table 6.21 CFA results – Goodness of fit indices – Initial model. Author's elaboration (2020).

As the table shows, although Canada's values look slightly higher, both models report problems concerning fit. This means models should be refined to improve the overall fit before proceeding to further analysis. The first step in model refinment is the analysis of estimated factor loadings, residuals and modification indices. This is presented here below.

6.5.2 Standardised Regression Weights

Standardised regression weights for both models are presented in table 6.22 here below.

Regression weights	US	Canada
ENVSRIC <--- SRIC	0.793	0.650**
PSRIC <--- SRIC	0.847	0.873
SSRIC <--- SRIC	0.983	0.914
ECOSRIC <--- SRIC	0.774	0.846
ETHSRIC <--- SRIC	0.912	0.933
ENVSRIC4<--- ENVSRIC	0.833	0.810
ENVSRIC3<--- ENVSRIC	0.516**	0.623**
ENVSRIC2 <--- ENVSRIC	0.743	0.740
ENVSRIC1 <--- ENVSRIC	0.771	0.746
PSRIC5 <--- PSRIC	0.390*	0.550**
PSRIC4 <--- PSRIC	0.690**	0.487*
PSRIC3 <--- PSRIC	0.720	0.639**
revPSRIC2a <--- PSRICa	0.469*	0.401*
PSRIC1a <--- PSRICa	0.570**	0.541**
SSRIC5a <--- SSRICa	0.396*	0.443*
SSRIC4a <--- SSRICa	0.536**	0.588**
SSRIC3a <--- SSRICa	0.277*	0.463*
SSRIC2a <--- SSRICa	0.637**	0.605**
SSRIC1a <--- SSRICa	0.706	0.664**
ECOSRIC7a <--- ETHSRICa	0.747	0.684**
ECOSRIC6a <--- ECOSRICa	0.681**	0.584**
ECOSRIC5a <--- ECOSRICa	0.778	0.676**
ECOSRIC4a <--- ECOSRICa	0.697**	0.552**
ECOSRIC3a <--- ECOSRICa	0.703	0.611**
ECOSRIC2a <--- ECOSRICa	0.511**	0.527**
ECOSRIC1a <--- ECOSRICa	0.478*	0.466*
ETHSRIC3a <--- ETHSRICa	0.832	0.728
ETHSRIC2a <--- ETHSRICa	0.724	0.672**
ETHSRIC1a <--- ETHSRICa	0.376*	0.570**
NBA1a <--- NBAa	0.755	0.705
NBA2a <--- NBAa	0.725	0.723
NBA3a <--- NBAa	0.820	0.699**
NBA4a <--- NBAa	0.326*	0.330*
NBI4a <--- NBIa	0.568**	0.451*
NBI3a <--- NBIa	0.526**	0.404*
NBI2a <--- NBIa	0.902	0.846
NBI1a <--- NBIa	0.820	0.819
IAJV1a <--- IAJVa	0.769	0.681
IAJV2a <--- IAJVa	0.824	0.751
IAJV3a <--- IAJVa	0.726	0.746
IAJV4a <--- IAJVa	0.694**	0.699**

** Value lower than the 0.5 threshold*
*** Value lower than the 0.7 threshold*

Table 6.22 Standardized regression weights – Initial model. Author's elaboration (2020).

All path estimates are significant, and the majority of loadings display high values. However, ten items exhibit regression weights lower than 0.5. Most of them belong to the SSRIC and PPSRIC (political and social dimensions of SRIC) and the two dependent variables NBI and NBA. Interestingly, these had shown potential issues during EFA as they did not load on the right factor. They might, therefore, be considered for potential deletion.

6.5.3 Modification Indices and Standardised Residuals

The second step in the redefinition of the measurement model is the examination of MIs and SRCs of items showing lower estimates. According to Byrne (2017) only values that present a high covariance and high regression weight should be considered for elimination. For the purpose of this study Byrne's cutoff point (10) and EPCs values were assessed in combination (Whittaker, 2012). An item should be considered for elimination only if both show figures above the limit (MIs > 10 and EPCs > 0.10). Based on the analysis of both models (See Appendix D – Tables 6.23-6.24) the following items could be considered for deletion:

- revPSRIC2 (MIs > 10 – highest value 19.642; EPCs > 0.10; SRC > 4)
- SSRIC5 (MIs > 10 – highest value 10.056; EPCs > 0.10)
- SSRIC3b (MIs > 10 – highest value 73.468; EPCs > 0.10)
- NBA4 (MIs > 10 – highest value 35.429; EPCs > 0.10; SRC > 4)
- ECOSRIC1 (MIs > 10 - highest value 31.012; EPCs > 0.10; SRC > 4)

PSRIC5 (MIs > 10 – highest value 52.727; EPCs > 0.10), PSRIC4 (MI > 10 – highest value 17.911; EPCs > 0.10), NBI4 (MIs > 10 -highest value 104.223; EPCs > 0.10) and NBI3 (MIs > 10 – highest value 80.176 ; EPCs > 0.10) and ETHSRIC1 (MIs > 10 – highest value 47.572; EPC > 0.10; SRC > 4), instead, have been flagged as problematic only in one of the two models. Therefore, they should be retained unless proven problematic in subsequent tests. Before proceeding to model modification, convergent, discriminant and nomological validity tests were conducted on the data. These tests offer relevant information concerning the strength of the measurement model.

6.5.4 Construct Validity

The primary objective of CFA is to "assess the construct validity of a proposed measurement theory (Hair et al., 2010, p.618). Construct validity is made up of four main components: convergent validity, discriminant validity, nomological validity and face validity (See chapter 4). Whilst face validity was assessed prior to data collection, the other three were tested on the data and detailed explanation of the process is reported below.

6.5.4.1 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity "is indicated by evidence that different indicators of theoretically similar or overlapping constructs are strongly interrelated" (Brown, 2015, pp. 2-3). There are several strategies that serve to estimate the level of convergent validity: the assessment of factor loadings, average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability (CR).

1. Factor loadings were examined above. The recommended value for the size of standardized loadings estimates is 0.5 and higher, preferably, 0.7. As mentioned earlier, some of the observed variables showed values below this level.

2. AVE refers to the mean variance extracted for the item loadings of a construct or the average communality. It is a summary indicator of convergence and is calculated for each latent construct using this formula:

$$\text{AVE} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i^2}{n}$$

where "λ" represents the standardized factor loadings and "i" is the number of items. AVE should be 0.5 or higher to suggest an adequate convergence (Hair *et al.*, 2010; 2018). Table 6.25 displays the results of AVE for both models. It emerges that for the constructs that had items with high MIs and SRCs, namely PSRIC, SSRIC, ECOSRIC, ETHSRIC, NBI and NBA, the level of AVE falls below the recommended cutoff point. This confirms the need for a respecification of the model.

Variable	**AVE (US)**	**AVE (Canada)**
SRIC	0.74	0.72
ENVSRIC	0.52	0.53
PSRIC	0.33*	0.27*
SSRIC	0.28*	0.32*
ECOSRIC	0.42*	0.32*
ETHSRIC	0.47*	0.44
NBI	0.52	0.43*
NBA	0.46*	0.40*
IAJV	0.56	0.51

** AVE < 0.5 threshold*

Table 6.25 Average Variance Extracted - Initial model. Author's elaboration (2020).

3. CR is another important indicator of convergent validity (Hair *et al.,* 2010). It is a "measure of internal consistency of items in a scale" (Netemeyer, Bearden and Sharma, 2003) and is similar to coefficient alpha. CR is computed as follows:

$$CR = \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i)^2}{(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i)^2 + (\sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_i)}$$

where "λ_i" is the standardized factor loadings for each construct and "δ_i" is the error variance for each construct. CR values range between 0.6 and 0.7 (Netemeyer, Bearden and Sharma, 2003; Hair *et al.*, 2010). A careful assessment of CR values shows that the only latent variable performing poorly in both models is NBA. For Canada also PSRIC and NBI display values below the cutoff point. On the other hand, in US only SSRIC has a poor CR.

Variable	**CR (US)**	**CR (Canada)**
SRIC	0.87	0.91
ENVSRIC	0.66	0.74
PSRIC	0.60	0.59*
SSRIC	0.41*	0.64
ECOSRIC	0.74	0.74
ETHSRIC	0.60	0.73
NBI	0.62	0.54*
NBA	0.53*	0.44*
IAJV	0.61	0.61

** CR < 0.6 threshold*

Table 6.26 Composite Reliability – Initial model. Author's elaboration (2020).

Results, therefore, confirm, once again that there are underlying issues characterising some of the constructs with poor MIs and SRCs.

6.5.4.2 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which a certain construct is theoretically distinct and differs from other constructs in the model (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Brown, 2015). It is measured by comparing the squared root of AVE (SQRTAVE) values with intercorrelation estimates (IC) of any two constructs in the model. According to Hair et al. (2018) SQRTAVE should be greater than IC.

	CR	AVE	NBIa	SRICa	NBAa	IAJVa
NBIa	0,806	0,521	**0,722***			
SRICa	0,937	0,749	0,826	**0,865**		
NBAa	0,764	0,469	0,760	0,708	**0,685***	
IAJVa	0,841	0,570	0,549	0,559	0,889	**0,755***

	CR	AVE	NBIb	SRICb	NBAb	IAJVb
NBIb	0,739	0,438	**0,662***			
SRICb	0,927	0,721	0,707	**0,849**		
NBAb	0,717	0,404	0,721	0,651	**0,636***	
IAJVb	0,811	0,518	0,460	0,451	0,748	**0,720***

** Problem with discriminant validity*

Table 6.27 Discriminant validity – Initial model. Author's elaboration (2020).

Results are displayed here above in table 6.27 which shows CR, AVE, correlations and SQRTAVE (in the diagonals in bold). For the three latent variables SQRTAVE values are lower than IC values. Therefore, NBI, NBA and IAJV do not pass the discriminant validity test.

6.5.4.3 Nomological Validity

The final test before proceeding with the respecification of the model is nomological valididity. This type of validity helps to assess "whether correlations between the constructs in the measurement theory make sense" (Hair *et al.*, 2010, p.601). Correlation matrices are presented here below and show that estimates support the theory with values ranging between 0.4 and 0.8 (moderate to strong correlation) (Pallant, 2016).

Correlations - US	Estimate	Correlations - Canada	Estimate
SRICa <-> NBAa	0.708	SRICb <-> NBAb	0.651
SRICa <-> NBIa	0.826	SRICb <-> NBIb	0.707
SRICa <-> IAJVa	0.559	SRICb <-> IAJVb	0.451
NBAa <-> NBIa	0.760	NBAb <-> NBIb	0.721
NBAa <-> IAJVa	0.889	NBAb <-> IAJVb	0.748
NBIa <-> IAJVa	0.549	NBIb <-> IAJVb	0.460

Table 6.28 Correlation matrices – Initial model. Author's elaboration (2020).

6.6 Model Respecification

Due to the problems identified in the initial CFA solution, model respecification was deemed essential before proceeding to test the structural measurement model. The constructs causing most problems in both countries as evidenced by the validity tests are PSRIC, SSRIC and NBA. Diagnostics cues such as GoF, modification indices, standardized residuals and validity tests were used to guide the respecification (Byrne, 2016). Going through this process always has an important impact on the theory used to develop the initial model as Hair and colleagues confirm (2010, 2018). Therefore, the researcher went through several iterations with the aim of attaining minor modifications. Results of the final model after respecification can be found here below:

GOF Index	US	Canada
Absolute-Fit measures		
χ^2	311.618	235.878
df	125	124
p-value	0.0*	0.0*
GFI	0.942	0.954
CMIN/DF	2.43	1.90
RMSEA	0.052	0.040
PCLOSE	0.329	0.981
RMR	0.124	0.075
Incremental-Fit measures		
NFI	0.938	0.937
TLI	0.953	0.962
CFI	0.962	0.969
Parsimony- Fit measures		
AGFI	0.920	0.936
PNFI	0.766	0.759
Standardised regression weights		
ENVSRIC – SRIC	0.835	0.703
ECOSRIC – SRIC	0.752	0.771
ETHSRIC – SRIC	0.984	1.004
ENVSRIC4 – ENVSRIC	0.829	0.811
ENVSRIC3 – ENVSRIC	0.511	0.617
ENVSRIC2 -ENVSRIC	0.746	0.739
ENVSRIC1 – ENVSRIC	0.776	0.751
ECOSRIC4 -ECOSRIC	0.724	0.630
ECOSRIC3 – ECOSRIC	0.669	0.590
ECOSRIC5 -ECOSRIC	0.812	0.719
ECOSRIC6 – ECOSRIC	0.607	0.565
ETHSRIC3 – ETHSRIC	0.793	0.710
ETHSRIC2 – ETHSRIC	0.645	0.537
ECOSRIC7 – ETHSRIC	0.787	0.736
IAJV1 – IAJV	0.936	0.694
IAJV2 – IAJV	0.709	0.813
IAJV3 -IAJV	0.807	0.686
IAJV4 - IAJV	0.816	0.632
NBI1 – NBI	0.819	0.832
NBI2 – NBI	0.914	0.848
NBI3 -NBI	0.511	0.375
Validity tests		
AVE	SRICa = 0.74 ENVSRICa = 0.52 ECOSRICa* = 0.49 ETHSRICa = 0.55 NBIa = 0.58 IAJVa = 0.67	SRICb = 0.69 ENVSRICb = 0.53 ECOSRICb* = 0.49 ETHSRICb* = 0.44 NBIb = 0.51 IAJVb = 0.50

CR	SRICa = 0.89 ENVSRICa = 0.66 ECOSRICa = 0.67 ETHSRICa = 0.62 NBIa = 0.80 IAJVa = 0.89	SRICb = 0.87 ENVSRICb = 0.74 ECOSRICb = 0.69 ETHSRICb = 0.65 NBIb = 0.74 IAJVb = 0.80
DV	SRICb = 0.862 NBIb = 0.768* IAJVb = 0.821	SRICb = 0.836 NBIb = 0.719* IAJVb = 0.709
NV	NBIa <--> IAJVa 0.479 NBIa <--> SRICa 0. 801 IAJVa <--> SRICa 0.500	IAJVb <--> NBIb 0.452 SRICb <--> NBIb 0.723 SRICb <--> IAJVb 0.475

Table 6.29 Models after respecification. Author's elaboration (2020).

The new model is presented in Appendix D (Figure 6.6). Despite the iterations, two dimensions of SRIC (PSRIC and SSRIC), and one dependent variable, NBA, had to be dropped due to reliability and/or validity issues. Minor changes also affected NBI (NBI4 dropped), ETHSRIC (ETHSRIC1 dropped) and ECOSRIC (ECOSRIC1 and ECSRIC3 dropped; ECOSRIC7 merged with ETHSRIC following EFA). These modifications helped to strengthen convergent and discriminant validity and improve the overall fit of the model with most indicators showing satisfactory results. Nevertheless, as displayed in Tables 6.29 and 6.30, discriminant validity concerns were still evident for one of the constructs, NBI. Before proceeding, thus, further tests were undergone using the Heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio to re-test discriminant validity on all constructs. Together with the AVE- SV test applied above (Fornell and Larcker, 1981), Henseler's HTMT is a reliable method used to assess discriminant validity in marketing studies (Voorhees *et al.*, 2016). HTMT values ranged between 0.40 and 0.79, all below the cut off point of 0.85 (Henseler, Ringle and Sarstedt, 2014; Kline, 2015) showing no real concerns of discriminant validity. Another small issue identified in the respecified model concerns the average variance extracted for ECOSRIC and ETHSRIC. Since ETHSRIC results showed problems only in one of the models, no further measures were taken. Regarding ECOSRIC, instead, both models showed values of 0.49, below the recommended cut off point of 0.50 for AVE. However, when CR is above 0.60 values of AVE between 0.49 and 0.40 can be considered adequate (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Lam, 2012).

In the light of the results presented above, the respecified model shows adequate psychographic properties confirming it is possible to proceed with the test of the structural model.

6.7 SEM Results

After examining the measurement model in the CFA stage, the focus shifts onto the structural model. A structural model "applies the structural theory by specifying which constructs are related to each other and the nature of each relationship" (Hair *et al.*, 2010, p. 641). Its main objective is, in fact, to test the relationships between latent constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2010). The transition to a structural model involves some notational and structural changes in the path diagrams. The new diagram is reported in Appendix D (See Figure 6.7). This diagram refers to the hypothesised model presented in chapter 3 adjusted after modifications following CFA as shown in figure 6.8.

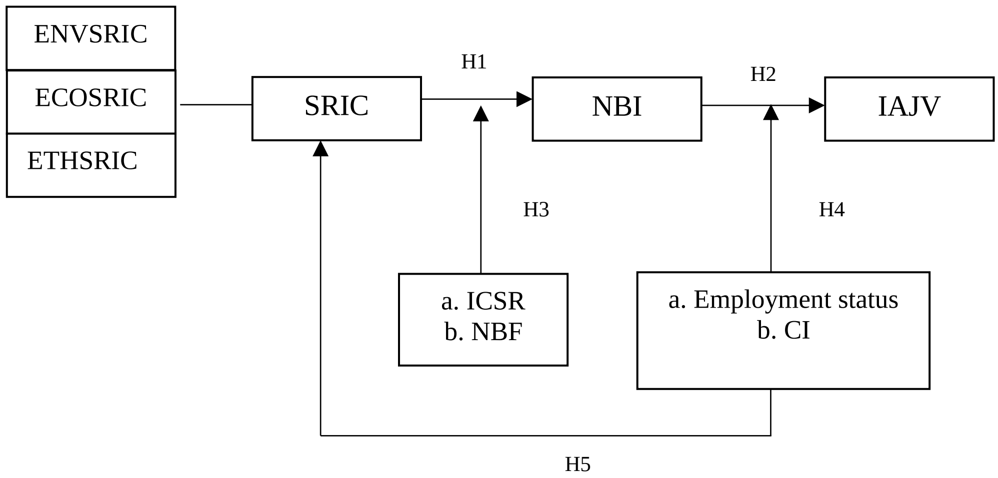


Fig. 6.8 New respecified model. Author's elaboration (2020).

Results of the analysis are illustrated in Table 6.31 here below. Basic diagnostics and model fit indicators offer evidence of good fit for both models, in line with Hair et al.'s recommendations (2018). Results show positive and significant relationships between the independent variable (SRIC) and dependent variables (NBI, IAJV) in both models, meaning H1 and H2 are supported. For the SRIC →NBI path r^2 values range between 0.66 and 0.57 showing a substantial predictive power (Hair et al., 2010). NBI→IAJV r^2 values range, instead, between 0.23 and 0.25 demonstrating weak predictive power according to Hair et al. (2010) and moderate power according to Cohen (1998) and Ferguson (2009) (moderate effect size - r^2 0.25; β 0.50).

The relationship between CI and SRIC (H5) initially hypothesised in chapter 3 was tested in a separate model (See Appendix D – Figure 6.9). Based on the results the hypothesis is rejected (US model - R^2 0.00; β 0.059; p-value > 0.05. CA model - R^2 0.05; β 0.232; p-value < 0.05). This contradicts what emerged in the qualitative stage but is in line with the results of Herrero-Crespo and colleagues (Herrero-Crespo, San Martín Gutiérrez and Garcia- de los Salmones, 2016) regarding the influence of country image on university image. The reason for a non-significant relationship here, however, could be found in the way the construct was operationalised during the quantitative stage. A construct measuring only the CSR facet of the overall corporate image might prove more effective to measure the relationship with SRIC. Another reason that might explain this outcome is the type of nation brand. The reciprocal and positive link between SRIC and corporate image was mainly observed with reference to Nothern European countries during the qualitative stage. Specifically, most respondents mentioned as example Sweden and Ikea (Gotsi, Lopez and Andriopoulos, 2011; White and Kolesnicov, 2015). Both the nation brand and the corporate brand are known for embedding sustainability and corporate social responsibility in the way they act and the way they communicate what they do. This is part of an overarching strategy that is implemented by both government and corporations as reported by previous studies and confirmed by governmental channels (Cozmiuc, 2012; Sweden.se, 2020). This strategy is rather unique to Northern countries and does not reflect other nation brands' approaches, in our case US and Canada. H4 and H3 will be discussed in the following section 6.9 on Moderation Analysis.

	Estimates (US)		**Estimates (CA)**	
	r^2	β	r^2	β
SRIC ←→ NBI	0.66	0.814 (CR 10.405***)	0.57	0.754 (CR 7.176***)
NBI ←→ IAJV	0.25	0.502 (CR 8.227***)	0.23	0.482 (CR 6.436***)
SRIC←→ ENVSRIC	0.70	0.839	0.49	0.698
SRIC ←→ECOSRIC	0.54	0.738 (CR 10.893***)	0.61	0.780 (CR 8.280***)
SRIC ←→ETHSRIC	0.98	0.991 (CR 15.806***)	0.91	0.954 (CR 11.367***)
	Diagnostics and fit stat. (US)		**Diagnostics and fit stat. (CA)**	
χ^2/df	328.049 / 126		272.474 / 127	
p-value	0.0		0.0	
GFI	0.939		0.946	
CMIN/DF	2.064		2.145	
RMSEA	0.054		0.045	
PCLOSE	0.190		0.842	
RMR	0.152		0.089	
NFI	0.934		0.927	
TLI	0.949		0.951	
CFI	0.958		0.959	
AGFI	0.917		0.928	
PNFI	0.770		0.770	

* R^2 = coefficient of determination; β = standardized regression weights; CR = critical ratio; *** = significant at p-value 0.001

Table 6.31 SEM Estimates – Respecified model. Author's elaboration (2020).

6.8 Mediation Analysis

Before proceeding with moderation analysis, it is paramount to examine in more depth the nature of mediation (Baron and Kenny, 1986). In the model presented in Fig 6.8, NBI is considered as a mediator in the relationship between SRIC and IAJV. The existence of mediation can be "tested by comparing a full mediation model with a partially mediated model and a direct effects-only model" (Kelloway, 1998, p.128; Butts *et al.*, 2009). Chi-square (χ^2) and degrees of freedom (df) are compared in order to identify the model that best fits the data. The three models are displayed in appendix D (Figures 6.10-6.12). Results show that a partial mediation model is the one that best fits the data (χ^2 311.168; df 126 / χ^2 260.501; df 126) (Table 6.32). Another common strategy used to assess mediation is the Sobel test (Baron and Kenny, 1986; Field, 2017). This test helps to estimate the indirect effect and its significance and can be expressed with the following formula (Zhao, Lynch and Chen, 2010):

$$z = \frac{a \times b}{\sqrt{b^2 s_a^2 + a^2 s_b^2}}.$$

	US			Canada		
Models	χ^2/ df	GoF		χ^2/ df	GoF	
I – Full mediation	328.249 / 126	GFI	0.939	272.474 / 217	GFI	0.939
		CFI	0.958		CFI	0.958
		TLI	0.949		TLI	0.949
		RMSEA	0.054		RMSEA	0.054
II- Partial mediation	311.168 / 125	GFI	0.942	260.501 / 126	GFI	0.948
		CFI	0.962		CFI	0.963
		TLI	0.953		TLI	0.955
		RMSEA	0.052		RMSEA	0.044
III – Direct effect	318.962 / 126	GFI	0.940	266.155 / 127	GFI	0.948
		CFI	0.960		CFI	0.961
		TLI	0.952		TLI	0.953
		RMSEA	0.052		RMSEA	0.044

Table 6.32 Mediation Models. Author's elaboration (2020).

In the formula a refers to regression coefficient for the link between the independent variable and the mediator, b is the raw coefficient for the association between the mediator and the dependent variable and S_a and S_b are the standard errors of a and b respectively. If the test is significant ($p < 0.05$) this means the independent variable significantly affects the dependent variable via the mediator. Results of the Sobel test for both countries are displayed below and show a significant mediation as p-value is below 0.05.

US- Sobel Test

Input:			Test statistic:	Std. Error:	*p*-value:
a	0.227	Sobel test:	4.1078913	0.01690941	0.00003993
b	0.306	Aroian test:	4.10326717	0.01692846	0.00004074
s_a	0.011	Goodman test:	4.11253109	0.01689033	0.00003913
s_b	0.073	Reset all	Calculate		

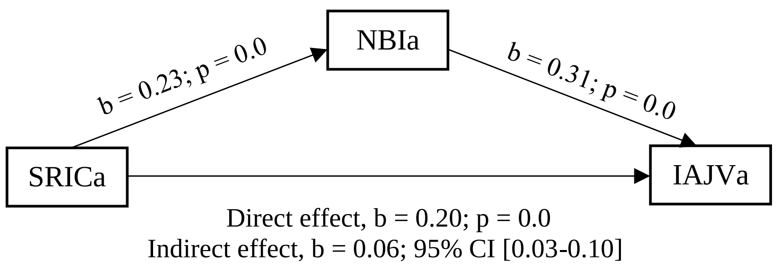
Canada- Sobel Test

Input:			Test statistic:	Std. Error:	*p*-value:
a	0.228	Sobel test:	4.58957909	0.0167414	0.00000444
b	0.337	Aroian test:	4.58057875	0.0167743	0.00000464
s_a	0.015	Goodman test:	4.59863268	0.01670844	0.00000425
s_b	0.070	Reset all	Calculate		

Fig. 6.13 Sobel Test. Author's elaboration (2020).

Whilst this test has been considered the "golden rule" for testing mediation for years, more recently researchers have started relying on bootstrapping (Kelloway, 1998; Field, 2017). Bootstrapping helps to overcome some of the weaknesses identified in the Sobel test (Preacher and Hayes, 2004; Zhao, Lynch and Chen, 2010) and enables researchers to assess the degree of mediation (Field, 2017). Therefore, using PROCESS macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2018), mediation was re-tested for both models, US and Canada. Results are displayed in the Appendix (Appendix D). In both models there is sign of significant mediation ($p < 0.05$) (See Fig. 6.15). The indirect effect of NBI is significant as b-values (b-value US = 0.0694; b-value CA = 0.0767) fall between 0.0347 - 0.1033 and 0.0403 - 0.115 with no sign of zero within the ranges.

(1) US



(2) Canada

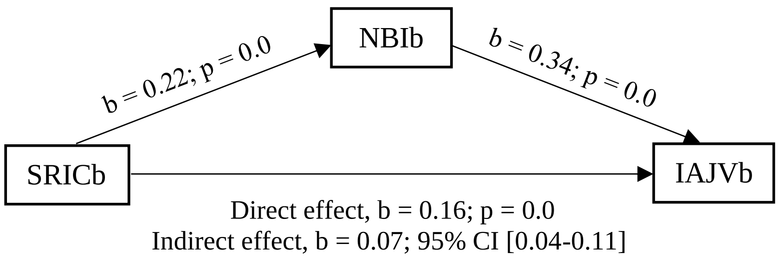


Fig. 6.15 Mediation results using bootstrapping. Author's elaboration (2020).

To conclude, the analysis conducted confirms the presence of partial mediation of NBI (See Model in Fig 6.16). SRIC therefore proves to exert a significant indirect effect on IAJV through NBI.

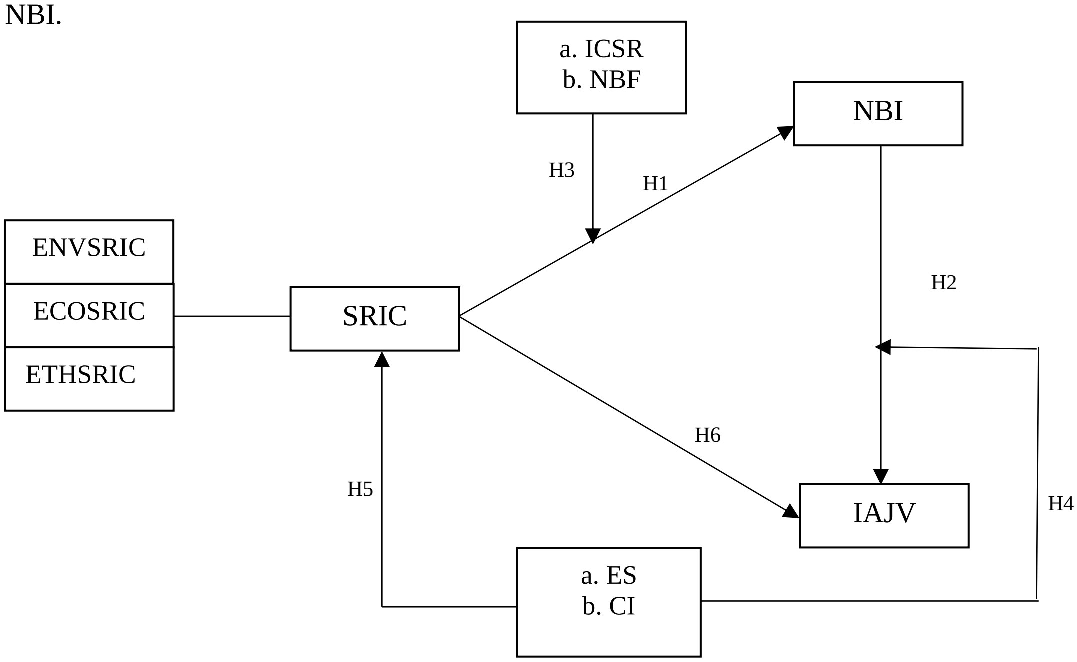


Fig. 6.16 Final model. Author's elaboration (2020).

6.9 Multigroup Analysis

This section presents the findings of the multigroup analysis conducted using AMOS 26. This type of analysis is useful to investigate differences amongst particular groups of interest (Byrne, 2016). In this study, multigroup analysis was used to test the impact of moderators and identify differences between groups (Italian vs UK sample) and models (US vs Canada).

The moderators examined in this stage are employment status, corporate image, importance of CSR and nation brand familiarity. In order to facilitate the analysis, these have been transformed into dichotomous variables (variables that take 0 and 1 as values) as follows: employment status (staff vs students), importance of CSR (high vs low importance), nation brand familiarity (familiar vs non familiar).

The process of multigroup analysis starts with a configural model and the test of configural invariance (Byrne, 2016). In this first stage it is important to establish the equivalence of the basic model structure across groups (Milfont and Fischer, 2010). This will then serve as the baseline for subsequent tests (Runyan *et al.*, 2012). The analysis proceeds with testing measurement and structural invariance (Byrne, 2016). Metric invariance measures whether the relation between scale items and underlying constructs is the same across groups. It is an important "prerequisite for meaningful cross-group comparison" (Cheung and Rensvold, 2002, p. 237) and is essential to proceed with further tests. In order to test for metric invariance, factor loadings are constrained to be equal across groups. The model with constrained loadings is then compared to the configural invariance model using the Likelihood ratio test (difference in χ^2 between nested models) and ΔCFI (Byrne, 2016). If the differences between the two models are statistically non-significant ($\chi^2 > 0.05$ and $\Delta CFI \leq 0.001$), full metric invariance is supported. However, as full metric invariance is often hard to achieve (Stylidis, Shani and Belhassen, 2017), the researcher can try to reach partial metric invariance by relaxing some of the parameters starting by those that show a bigger difference (noninvariant items) (Cheung and Rensvold, 2002). It is important to note that, in the attempt to reach partial metric invariance as few parameters as possible should be relaxed and for the comparison to be valid, at least two items should be invariant across the two countries (De Jong et al., 2007). Modification indices (MIs) and Expected parameter change (EPCs) can be considered good indicators for the identification of noninvariant items (Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 1998). If partial metric invariance is achieved, the researcher can proceed with the analysis of structural invariance. Structural invariance focuses on structural parameters (Milfont and Fischer, 2010). Likelihood ratio test and ΔCFI are once again used to assess invariance at a structural level. If evidence of non-invariance is found, the researcher can proceed to test the moderation hypothesis by focusing on the path under investigation.

Findings of the multigroup analysis are reported in the sub-sections here below.

6.9.1 Employment Status

The first moderator that will be examined is employment status. According to socio-demographics, the sample comprises 350 members of staff and 207 students (See Socio-demographic table above). For employment status the main path to be tested is hypothesis H4a where employment status moderates the relationship between NBI and IAJV. Results of the multigroup analysis are summarised in Table 6.33 and 6.34.

Multigroup Analysis - Employment Status - US									
Model tested	χ^2	df	χ^2/ df	RMSEA	CFI	$\Delta \chi^2$	Δdf	ΔCFI	p
Configural Invariance	482.641	250	1.931	0.041	0.952				
F. Measurement Invariance	516.621	263	1.964	0.042	0.947	33.979	13	0.005	0.001
P. Measurement Invariance	490.963	260	1.888	0.040	0.952	8.322	10	0.000	0.597
Structural Invariance	492.233	265	1.857	0.039	0.953	1.270	5	0.001	0.938

Table 6.33 Multigroup analysis (US) – Employment status. Author's elaboration (2020).

Fit of the theoretically derived configural model for US is presented in Table 6.33. The model has substantial fit and estimates are positive and significant in both groups apart from the NBI→IAJV path which is non-significant for students (0.180; p 0.239). The examination of results from the chi-square test, though, shows that we do not have full metric invariance ($p < 0.05$; $\Delta CFI > 0.001$). Measurement invariance is essential to proceed with the assessment of structural weights (Cheung and Rensvold, 1999). Therefore, the researcher tried to free some of the parameters (as few as possible) aiming to achieve at least partial metric invariance. These were chosen as showing the biggest difference between groups (ECOSRIC5, NBI3, IAJV1). After freeing these parameters, partial metric invariance was reached (p 0.597; ΔCFI 0.000) allowing the examination of the model structure across groups. Results confirm that the model is equivalent for both groups and employment status does not act as moderator (p 0.938).

Multigroup Analysis -Employment Status - Canada									
Model tested	χ^2	df	χ^2/ df	RMSEA	CFI	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	ΔCFI	p
Configural Invariance	393.167	248	1.585	0.032	0.962				
F. Measurement Invariance	411.045	261	1.575	0.033	0.961	17.877	13	0.001	0.162
Structural Invariance	436.494	266	1.641	0.34	0.955	34.618	18	0.006	0.011
Testing for Employment Status as moderator									
Model Tested	χ^2	df	χ^2/ df	RMSEA	CFI	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	ΔCFI	p
F. Measurement Invariance	411.045	261	1.575	0.033	0.961				
Constrained group model NBI→ IAJV	413.041	262	1.576	0.032	0.962	1.997	1	0.001	0.158
Path estimate	0.329 (***) (academic staff) - 0.135 (ns) (students)								
Constrained group model SRIC→ NBI	415.790	262	1.587	0.033	0.960	4.745	1	0.001	0.029
Path estimate	0.634 (***) (academic staff) 0.876 (***) (students)								
Constrained group model ECOSRIC→ SRIC	419.131	262	1.600	0.033	0.959	8.087	1	0.002	0.004
Path estimate	0.697 (***) (academic staff) 0.849 (***) (students)								

**** Significant at p < 0.001*

Table 6.34 Multigroup analysis (Canada) – Employment status. Author's elaboration (2020).

Our second model shows substantial fit. Estimates are positive and meaningful in both groups. The examination of results from the chi-square test indicates that there is full metric invariance ($p > 0.05$; $\Delta CFI \leq 0.001$) and employment status effectively acts as moderator ($p > 0.05$; $\Delta CFI > 0.001$). The following step consists of assessing the paths that are significantly different across groups with particular focus on the hypothesised path NBI→ IAJV. Results indicate that employment status does not moderate the hypothesised path (p 0.158; ΔCFI 0.001) but moderates the following paths: SRIC→NBI and ECOSRIC→SRIC. The impact of SRIC on NBI is stronger for students (β 0.876) compared to staff (β 0.634), meaning that SRIC dimensions represent important aspects of the country that are shared by the student sample. Amongst the SRIC dimensions, we can also see that the economic aspect is more important for students (β 0.849) compared to academic staff (β 0.697). It is also important to note that, whilst according to the test, the hypothesised path (NBI→IAJV) does not act as moderator, estimates for the two groups show some significant difference (academic staff β 0.876***; students β - 0.135ns). Therefore, it would be interesting to retest this hypothesis with a larger sample size in future studies.

To summarise, employment status does not act as moderator for the US model nor for the CA model for the hypothesised path NBI→IAJV. However, for the CA model employment status moderates two paths SRIC→ NBI and ECOSRIC→ SRIC.

6.9.2 Corporate Image

The second moderator in our model is corporate image and it refers to H4b. This variable was transformed into dichotomous prior to the analysis (positive vs negative corporate image). The overall perception of American and Canadian institutions shows similar results. Amongst those surveyed, slightly more than half, 53%, demonstrate a positive perception (296 respondents for US and 294 for Canada). The remaining 47% (261 for US and 263 for Canada) lean more towards a negative perception. Results of multi-group analysis for H4b is displayed here below:

Multigroup Analysis - Corporate image - US									
Model tested	χ^2	df	χ^2/ df	RMSEA	CFI	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	ΔCFI	p
Configural Invariance	427.141	250	1.709	0.036	0.963				
F. Measurement Invariance	457.642	263	1.740	0.037	0.959	30.501	13	0.004	0.004
P. Measurement Invariance	432.473	260	1.663	0.035	0.964	5.332	10	0.001	0.868
Structural Invariance	433.844	265	1.637	0.034	0.964	1.371	5	0.000	0.927

Table 6.35 Multigroup analysis (US) – Corporate image. Author's elaboration (2020).

Tests conducted on the US model are displayed in Table 6.35. There is evidence of adequate fit (RMSEA 0.036; CFI 0.936). Configural invariance is therefore achieved. Estimates are all significant apart from NBI→IAJV which is non-significant ($p > 0.05$) for those who have a negative perception of corporate image. Further tests show no evidence of full metric invariance as $p < 0.05$ and ΔCFI > 0.001. Relaxing some of the parameters (ECOSRIC5, NBI3 and IAJV2) helps to reach partial metric invariance ($p > 0.05$; ΔCFI 0.001) and allows us to proceed with an examination of structural invariance. The likelihood ratio test confirms that corporate image does not moderate the relationship between NBI and IAJV ($p > 0.05$) and models are structurally invariant (ΔCFI < 0.001).

Multigroup Analysis - Corporate image – Canada									
Model tested	χ^2	df	χ^2/ df	RMSEA	CFI	Δ χ^2	Δdf	ΔCFI	p
Configural Invariance	433.560	248	1.748	0.037	0.947				
F. Measurement Invariance	442.789	261	1.697	0.035	0.948	9.228	13	-0.001	0.755
Structural Invariance	473.099	266	1.779	0.037	0.941	30.311	5	0.007	0.000
Testing for Corporate Image as moderator									
Model tested	χ^2	df	χ^2/ df	RMSEA	CFI	Δ χ^2	Δdf	ΔCFI	p
F. Measurement Invariance	442.789	261	1.697	0.035	0.948				
Constrained group model NBI→ IAJV	445.178	262	1.699	0.035	0.948	2.839	1	0.000	0.122
Path estimate	0.013 (ns) (Negative CI) 0.394 (***) (Positive CI)								
Constrained group model SRIC→ NBI	453.901	262	1.732	0.036	0.945	11.113	1	0.003	0.001
Path estimate	0.880 (***) (Negative CI) 0.577 (***) (Positive CI)								

**** Significant at p < 0.001*

Table 6.36 Multigroup analysis (Canada) – Corporate image. Author's elaboration (2020).

Results for the second model are presented here above in Table 6.36. Configural invariance is achieved and the model demonstrates good fit. Examination of the indicators shows that full metric invariance is achieved (p 0.755; ΔCFI -0.001) and structural invariance shows sign of moderation for corporate image (p 0.000; ΔCFI 0.007). When looking at the paths corporate image does not act as moderator for the hypothesised path NBI→IAJV but it moderates the path SRIC→NBI. As the table shows, the impact of SRIC on identification is stronger when corporate image is negative (β 0.880) compared to when it is positive (β 0.577). As for the previous moderator, here we can note that, although the results of the test indicate no sign of moderation, estimates show a clear difference between poor corporate image (β 0.013ns) and good corporate image (β 0.394***).

In conclusion, corporate image does not act as moderator of the hypothesised path (NBI→ IAJV) in neither of the two models and therefore our hypothesis is not supported. However, in the CA model corporate image acts as moderator for the SRIC→NBI path showing that SRIC acts as an important factor especially when companies suffer from a negative image.

6.9.3 Importance of CSR

ICSR is the third moderator in the model and refers to H3a moderating the SRIC→NBI path. The variable has been transformed into dichotomous (low importance vs high importance) before proceeding with the analysis. Figures report that 57.5% (n= 320) of respondents believe CSR has low importance and 42.5% (n= 237) believe it has high importance. Results of the multigroup analysis can be found here below:

Multigroup Analysis – ICSR - US									
Model tested	χ^2	df	χ^2/ df	RMSEA	CFI	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	ΔCFI	p
Configural Invariance	488.829	250	1.955	0.041	0.952				
F. Measurement Invariance	506.371	263	1.925	0.041	0.951	17.541	13	0.001	0.176
Structural Invariance	518.660	268	1.935	0.041	0.949	12.290	5	0.002	0.031
Testing for ICSR as moderator									
Model tested	χ^2	df	χ^2/ df	RMSEA	CFI	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	ΔCFI	p
F. Measurement Invariance	506.371	263	1.925	0.041	0.951				
Constrained group model SRIC→ NBI	509.816	264	1.931	0.041	0.950	3.446	1	0.001	0.063
Path estimate	0.786 (***) (Low ICSR) 0.822 (***) High ICSR)								
Constrained group model NBI→ IAJV	513.181	264	1.944	0.041	0.950	1.944	1	0.001	0.009
Path estimate	0.045 (ns) (Low ICSR) 0.457 (***) (High ICSR)								

**** Significant at p < 0.001*

Table 6.37 Multigroup analysis (US) – Importance of CSR. Author's elaboration (2020).

Figures in table 6.37 demonstrate that the model has good fit and adequate configural and metric invariance ($p > 0.05$; ΔCFI 0.001). Estimates seem all positive and significant apart from NBI→ IAJV which is non-significant for the low ICSR model (p 0.644) and SRIC→ IAJV which is non-significant for the high ICSR model (p 0.093). Results from structural invariance tests prove that there is sign of moderation ($p < 0.05$; ΔCFI > 0.001). Next, the analysis proceeds with the test of hypothesis H1. Results show that ICSR does not act as moderator for this specific path (SRIC →NBI) but moderates the path NBI→IAJV. This means that for those respondents that do not perceive CSR as important NBI does not act as key mediator between SRIC and IAJV (β 0.045). On the contrary, for those that perceive CSR as important, NBI effectively impacts their willingness to apply for a job vacancy or study in the US (β 0.457).

Multigroup Analysis – ICSR - Canada									
Model tested	χ^2	df	χ^2/ df	RMSEA	CFI	$\Delta\ \chi^2$	Δdf	ΔCFI	p
Configural Invariance	424.344	248	1.711	0.036	0.952				
F. Measurement Invariance	454.006	261	1.739	0.037	0.948	29.662	13	0.004	0.005
P. Measurement Invariance	438.431	257	1.706	0.036	0.951	14.088	9	0.001	0.119
Structural Invariance	441.406	262	1.685	0.035	0.951	2.975	5	0.000	0.704

Table 6.38 Multigroup analysis (Canada) – Importance of CSR. Author's elaboration (2020).

Configural invariance is achieved for the second model and indicators show good fit (See table 6.38). Estimates are all positive and significant apart from the NBI →IAJV path which is non-significant for low ICSR. Since full metric invariance is not achieved, the following parameters are relaxed: ECOSRIC4, ECOSRIC3, ECOSRIC7 and NBI3. This is enough to reach partial metric invariance (p > 0.05; ΔCFI 0.001) and allow us to proceed with the assessment of the model structure across groups. Results, as table 6.38 shows, prove sign of invariance also at the structural level. Therefore, ICSR does not act as moderator in this model.

In summary, multigroup analysis shows that ICSR does not act as moderator in neither of the two models and therefore H3a should be rejected. However, interestingly, for the US model ICSR moderates the NBI→IAJV path.

6.9.4 Nation Brand Familiarity

The final moderator, nation brand familiarity, refers to H3b as moderator of the SRIC→NBI path. As done with previous variables, NBF was transformed into a dichotomous variable (low vs high familiar). Analysing the sample, 23% of respondents (n=129) have a lower familiarity with the US and 77% (n=428) have a higher familiarity meaning that the majority of respondents know the country relatively well. As for Canada we observe a more balanced spread. Figures, in fact, show that 46% (n=255) of respondents have low familiarity with Canada and 54% (n=302) have high familiarity. Results of the analysis are displayed in the following tables:

Multigroup Analysis – NBF - US									
Model tested	χ^2	df	χ^2/ df	RMSEA	CFI	$\Delta\ \chi^2$	Δdf	ΔCFI	p
Configural Invariance	487.720	250	1.951	0.041	0.951				
F. Measurement Invariance	502.635	263	1.911	0.041	0.951	14.915	13	0.000	0.313
Structural Invariance	506.731	268	1.891	0.040	0.951	4.096	5	0.000	0.536

Table 6.39 Multigroup analysis (US) – Nation brand familiarity. Author's elaboration (2020).

Figures in table 6.39 show that the model has reached configural invariance and full measurement invariance (p 0.313; Δdf 0.000). Estimates are all positive and significant apart from the

NBI→IAJV path which is non-significant for low NBF ($p > 0.05$). Examination of structural weights shows that NBF does not act as moderator (p 0.536; Δdf 0.000) and the structure of the model is equivalent for the two groups.

Multigroup Analysis – NBF - Canada									
Model tested	χ^2	df	χ^2/ df	RMSEA	CFI	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	ΔCFI	p
Configural Invariance	422.036	248	1.702	0.036	0.951				
F. Measurement Invariance	451.743	261	1.731	0.036	0.947	29.707	13	0.004	0.005
P. Measurement Invariance	435.078	257	1.693	0.035	0.950	13.042	9	0.001	0.161
Structural Invariance	436.739	262	1.667	0.035	0.951	1.661	5	0.001	0.894

Table 6.40 Multigroup analysis (Canada) – Nation brand familiarity. Author's elaboration (2020).

The second model shows good overall fit. Configural invariance is achieved but the Likelihood ratio test and ΔCFI show full measurement invariance is not reached (p 0.005; ΔCFI 0.004). Freeing some of the parameters (ENVSRIC3, ECOSRIC3, ECOSRIC5, IAJV2) allows us to reach partial metric invariance (p 0.161; ΔCFI 0.001) and proceed with the assessment of structural weights. As seen with the US model, though, there is no sign of moderation for NBF (p 0.894; ΔCFI 0.001).

6.9.5 Country of Residence

After testing the impact of moderators, multi-group analysis was used to measure eventual differences between the two groups of respondents: Italian and British. The sample comprises 284 highly skilled resources from the UK, 51% of the total, and 273 from Italy, 49%.

Multigroup Analysis – Country of residence - US									
Model tested	χ^2	df	χ^2/ df	RMSEA	CFI	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	ΔCFI	p
Configural Invariance	481.753	250	1.927	0.041	0.952				
F. Measurement Invariance	496.826	263	1.889	0.040	0.951	15.073	13	0.001	0.303
Structural Invariance	501.980	268	1.873	0.040	0.951	5.154	5	0.000	0.397

Table 6.41 Multigroup analysis (US) – Country of residence. Author's elaboration (2020).

Regarding the first model, as table 6.41 portrays, there is evidence of good fit (RMSEA 0.041; CFI 0.952). Both configural invariance and measurement invariance are achieved meaning the two models are equivalent at factor level (p 0.303; ΔCFI 0.001). Structural weights are also equivalent as showed by the Likelihood ratio test and ΔCFI (p 0.397; ΔCFI 0.000). Therefore, the model is equivalent across the two samples, Italian and British.

Multigroup Analysis – Country of residence - Canada									
Model tested	χ^2	df	χ^2/ df	RMSEA	CFI	Δ χ^2	Δdf	ΔCFI	p
Configural Invariance	391.955	248	1.580	0.032	0.961				
F. Measurement Invariance	420.358	261	1.611	0.033	0.957	28.403	13	0.004	0.008
P. Measurement Invariance	409.671	259	1.582	0.032	0.959	17.716	11	0.002	0.088
Structural Invariance	422.201	264	1.599	0.033	0.957	12.530	5	0.002	0.028
Testing country of residence as moderator for SRIC→NBI									
Model tested	χ^2	df	χ^2/ df	RMSEA	CFI	Δ χ^2	Δdf	ΔCFI	p
P. Measurement Invariance	409.671	259	1.582	0.032	0.959				
Constrained group model SRIC→ NBI	413.716	260	1.591	0.033	0.958	4.045	1	0.001	0.044
Path estimate	0.661 (***) (UK) 0.807 (***) (Italy)								
Constrained group model ECOSRIC→ SRIC	415.202	260	1.597	0.033	0.958	5.531	1	0.001	0.019
Path estimate	0.799 (***) (UK) 0.754 (***) (Italy)								

**** Significant at p < 0.001*

Table 6.42 Multigroup analysis (Canada) – Country of residence. Author's elaboration (2020).

The second model also shows good fit and, in fact, configural invariance is achieved. However, this model does not reach full metric invariance (p 0.008; ΔCFI 0.004). Relaxing two parameters (ENVSRIC3, NBI1) and examining the indicators helps to achieve partial metric invariance if we look at the Likelihood ratio test (p 0.088). ΔCFI, instead, still shows evidence of non invariance (ΔCFI 0.002). According to Byrne (2016), in case of differences between Likelihood ratio test and ΔCFI, it is up to the researcher to decide which one to follow. Since the majority of previous studies on multigroup analysis rely on chi-square difference as standard measure of invariance, the researcher proceeded with the assessment of the structural model. The examination of indicators concerning structural weights shows evidence of non invariance (p 0.028) meaning that there are some differences across the two samples. Next, each of the five hypotheses is examined in turn to determine where the differences lie. Only the following two hypotheses show some slight differences: SRIC→NBI and ECOSRIC→SRIC. These are reported in table 6.42. For both hypotheses, however, we can note once again controversial results when comparing the Likelihood ratio test and ΔCFI. When assessing path estimates, it is possible to see minor differences in both cases: the impact of SRIC on NBI is slightly stronger in Italy (β 0.807) compared to the UK (β 0.661) whilst the economic dimension has slightly more weight in the UK (β 0.799) compared to the Italian sample (β 0.754). All paths are positive and significant.

6.9.6 Nation Brands Differences

Finally, multigroup analysis was used to test the difference between the two models, US and Canada. All 557 respondents answered questions about both countries, therefore comparison could be made based on the overall sample. The models for the two countries were also similar as explained above, which ensured an effective comparison could be made. In order to proceed with multigroup analysis, the data set was divided into two: one for the US and one for Canada. The variables in the two data sets were the same so there was no need for major adjustments. To allow for comparison using multigroup analysis, though, the labels in the two sets of data needed to be recoded so that variables looked exactly the same: e.g. SRICa (US) and SRICb (Canada) were recoded into SRIC in both datasets and so on. The two datasets were then entered into Amos 26 and the two groups were created (one for Canada and one for the US) as in the examples here above. No grouping variable was selected in this case because we wanted to compare the two country groups, US and Canada (now in separate data sheets). Results of this analysis are presented here below:

Multigroup Analysis – US and Canada									
Model tested	χ^2	df	χ^2/ df	RMSEA	CFI	$\Delta\ \chi^2$	Δdf	ΔCFI	p
Configural Invariance	551.337	250	2.205	0.033	0.964				
F. Measurement Invariance	576.039	263	2.190	0.033	0.963	24.701	13	0.001	0.025
P. Measurement Invariance	563.187	258	2.183	0.033	0.964	11.850	8	0.000	0.158
Structural Invariance	564.382	263	2.146	0.032	0.964	1.195	5	0.000	0.945

Table 6.43 Multigroup analysis– US and Canada. Author's elaboration (2020).

The model in table 6.43 shows configural invariance. Overall fit is acceptable (RMSEA 0.033; CFI 0.964). Since tests of full metric invariance show controversial results (p 0.025; ΔCFI 0.001) the researcher proceeded, freeing some of the parameters (ENVSRIC3, ECOSRIC6, ETHSRIC2, IAJV1, NBI3). Partial metric invariance was achieved (p 0.158; ΔCFI 0.000). Further analysis shows that the two models are equivalent as no major differences have been found at a structural level (p 0.945; ΔCFI 0.000).

6.10 Summary

This chapter has presented the findings of the quantitative stage of this research. Data obtained from the pilot test were analysed using reliability and exploratory factor analysis in IBM SPSS 26. Results were used to improve the research instruments for the main data collection. Following the pilot, the chapter has presented the analysis of data of the main study conducted with IBM SPSS 26 and AMOS 26. After screening data for missing values and checking linearity, normality, homoskeadasticity, multicollinearity and running common method bias post-hoc tests, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed on the data. Results obtained during CFA indicated the need for model respecification before proceeding with structural equation modelling (SEM). The examination of expected parameter changes and modification indices helped to identify the problematic items to be considered for elimination and reach a good fit. After respecification the analysis proceded with assessing the structural model and testing the hypotheses via structural equaltion modelling. SEM results support H1 and H2 whilst H5 is rejected. The last part of the chapter focuses on the results of mediation and moderation using Sobel's test and multigroup analysis. The mediation analysis has shown that the model is partially mediated meaning that the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC) affects the intention to apply for a job vacancy (IAJV) directly as well as indirectly via nation brand identification (NBI). The moderation analysis, instead, has proven that, although H3a, H3b, H4a and H4b should be rejected, employment status and corporate image act as moderators in the Canada model for SRIC→NBI and ECOSRIC→SRIC, while importance of CSR acts as moderator of NBI→IAJV in the US model. In addition, the comparison of the UK and Italian sample has revealed some slight differences in the CA model for SRIC→NBI and ECOSRIC→SRIC. Finally, multigroup analysis has been used to compare the two models (Canada and US) showing no major differences that can be considered statistically significant.

The following chapter presents the discussion of the empirical findings. Research questions and related hypotheses are addressed, and results are examined in the light of previous research.

Chapter 7

DISCUSSION

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings analysed in chapter 5 and 6. These are discussed in the light of previous research presented in chapter 2. First an overview of the study is outlined. Following, research questions and related hypotheses are reviewed. Finally, the effect of moderators is examined.

7.2 Overview of the Study

This research project was designed to investigate a newly developed construct, the social responsibility image of countries. Its objective was to analyse in detail the dimensions, limitations and consequences of this construct. This led to the development of the following research questions: (1) What are the dimensions and limits of the social responsibility image of countries? ; (2) What are its consequences in a nation branding context? This second question was then divided into two: (2a) How does this image influence nation brand attractiveness consequently enhancing the intentionality of highly-skilled resources to accept a job or study in that country? ; (2b) How does this image affect corporate image?

In order to answer these questions, the researcher adopted a mixed method approach. The first stage of the process aimed to explore the dimensions and limitations of the main construct and develop the measurement scales in line with Churchill (1979). A qualitative method comprising four focus groups and twelve interviews in two countries (UK and Italy) served the purpose. A pilot test was conducted prior to main data collection. Data collected were analysed using thematic analysis. Results enabled the researcher to prepare the questionnaire for the quantitative stage. The questionnaire was reviewed by six academic experts who assessed the content validity of measurement scales. A pilot test with 117 individuals was conducted in order to purify the scale. This involved reliability (Cronbach's alpha) and exploratory factor analysis tests performed using IBM SPSS 26 software. The results helped to inform the research instruments for the main data collection. Data from the main study were analysed using IBM SPSS 26 and AMOS 26 software. The analysis consisted of two stages: confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modelling. At the end, multigroup analysis was conducted in order to examine the influence of socio-demographic and non-demographic variables.

Table 7.1 displays the research questions, related hypotheses and results obtained after the analysis of the data. These results will be discussed in more detail in the following section.

Research Questions, Hypotheses and Results		
Research questions	**Hypotheses**	**Result**
RQ1 What are the dimensions and limits of the social responsibility image of countries?	During the literature review stage 5 main dimensions were identified: environmental, political, social, economic and ethical. The five dimensions were confirmed by the findings of the qualitative stage.	Following the results of the quantitative stage only 3 dimensions could be retained: environmental, economic and ethical.
RQ2a How does the social responsibility image influence nation brand attractiveness towards highly skilled resources?	H1 Social responsibility image of countries has a direct positive influence on nation brand identitfication	Supported
	H2 Nation brand identification has a positive direct influence on intention to apply for a job vacancy	Supported
	H6 Social responsibility image of countries has a direct positive influence on intention to apply for a job vacancy	Supported
RQ2b How does this image affect corporate image?	H5 Corporate image has a direct positive impact on social responsibility image.	Rejected
RQ3 Does employment status moderate the relationship between nation brand identification and intention to apply for a job vacancy?	H4a Employment status moderates the relationship between nation brand identification and intention to apply for a job vacancy	Rejected
RQ4 Does corporate image moderate the relationship between nation brand identification and intention to apply for a job vacancy?	H4b Corporate image moderates the relationship between nation brand identification and intention to apply for a job vacancy	Rejected

RQ5 Does importance of CSR moderate the relationship between social responsibility image of countries and nation brand identification?	H3a Importance of CSR moderates the relationship between social responsibility image of countries and nation brand identification	Rejected
RQ6 Does nation brand familiarity moderate the relationship between social responsibility image of countries and nation brand identification?	H3b Nation brand familiarity moderates the relationship between social responsibility image of countries and nation brand identification	Rejected
RQ7 How do nation brands such as Canada and US differ in terms of SRIC?	H7a Canada SRIC has a more positive impact on NBI and IAJV H7b US SRIC has a more negative impact on NBI and IAJV	Rejected Rejected

Table 7.1 Summary of results. Author's elaboration (2020).

7.3 Discussion of Research Questions

7.3.1 RQ1 – The Nature and Dimensions of SRIC

The first research question seeks to examine the nature and dimensions of the new construct under investigation. The foundations for the development of the concept can be found in studies on CSR image and country image. Following the literature search (See Chapter 2) five main dimensions emerged: environmental, social, political, economic and ethical. These appear in the most cited CSR image models and country image frameworks as explained in section 3.2.2 (Carroll, 1979, 2016; Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Perez and Del Bosque, 2013b; Öberseder et al., 2014; Saeidi et al., 2015). The analysis of qualitative interviews (See Section 5.4.1) confirmed the multidimensional nature of SRIC (Hakala, Lemmetyinen and Kantola, 2013) and additionally identified the role played by three main actors in its development, namely government, citizens and organisations. During the quantitative stage the five dimensions mentioned above were used to measure SRIC. Two of them, social and political, however, had to be withdrawn due to validity and reliability concerns and some of the items in ECOSRIC and ETHSRIC removed (See Chapter 6 for more details). The final model presented and tested in chapter 6, therefore, includes three dimensions for SRIC: environmental, ethical and economic.

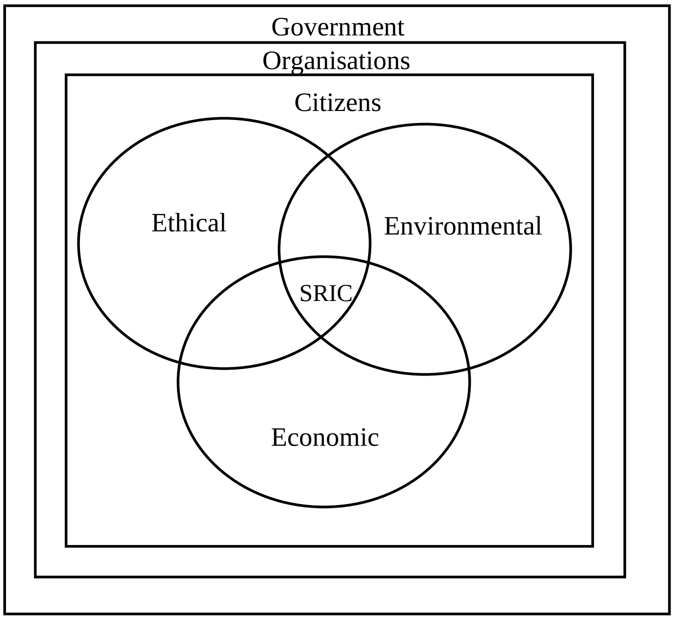


Fig. 7.1 The EEE Model of SRIC. Author's elaboration (2020).

In summary, this study helps to understand the nature of SRIC and its complexity. Based on the results, the concept of social responsibility image can be defined as a mental network of associations connected to the commitment of the government, companies and citizens to contribute to the sustainable development of the country by integrating social and environmental imperatives in their behaviour and activities. A socially responsible country, thus, aims to safeguard the physical and psychological wellbeing of the existent society and of future generations comprising its tangible (human and natural resources) and intangible resources (culture, human and social capital) (See Fig. 7.1). The results of the study confirm that SRIC is a multidimensional construct with three areas of intervention and three main players that impact these areas at different levels. Findings were consistent for both countries under investigation. Regarding the nature and number of dimensions, results of the quantitative stage partially challenge the findings of literature and qualitative stage. Since this is a newly developed construct in the literature, more studies could contribute to the discussion by examining these dimensions in more depth (See Section 8.3).

7.3.2 RQ1 – The Limitations of SRIC

The second objective of RQ1 was to assess the limitations of the new concept. Limits clearly emerged during the qualitative stage. Firstly, SRIC is inherently contextual partly due to the polysemic nature of the term responsibility, an issue already acknowleged in previous studies (George Bocean *et al.*, 2014; Hill and Langan, 2014), and partly due to problems connected to differences in individual (Forsyth, 1980, 1992; Vitell et al., 2001; Culiberg, 2015) and cultural ethical systems (Tsalikis and Fritzsche, 1989; Schwarz, 2003; Sudbury-Riley and Kohlbacher, 2016). This simply means that it is difficult to establish what is ethical or not and what is socially responsible or not given that the very notion of right or wrong varies according to individual morals and social norms. This was underlined by some of the participants and was also observed occasionally by respondents asked to compare different countries in terms of their responsibility. This is also confirmed by previous studies on CSR and CSR and talent management (e.g. Kim and Scullion, 2011; Vaiman, Scullion and Collings, 2012).

Secondly, the notion of social responsibility is surrounded by an aura of sceptisicm. Sceptisicm refers to the attitude of doubting, questioning or suspending judgement (Connors, Anderson-MacDonald and Thomson, 2017) and in business studies is usually used to indicate consumers' passive response to CSR activities and communication (Skarmeas and Leonidou, 2013). In reference to SRIC respondents showed a similar attitude as they raised two main concerns. The first is that the State is mainly a political asset and, as such, politicians are subject to the will of their electorate. It is not in their interest to take on responsibilities beyond this. The second is that the State is an economic asset. Therefore, it is governed by economic laws that want a State to expand its influence internationally. The first assertion could be easily challenged in the light of recent social movements that have demanded governments all over the world to start acting to fight issues such as climate change and racial bias (See Chapter 1).

Whilst the application of a CSR framework to place brands shows some constraints respondents were unanimous in their opinion that governmental, societal and organisational actors have a shared responsibility to promote ethical behaviours. This is also supported by previous studies on CSR, public policies and ethical consumption. As Albareda already noted in 2007 "… governments and businesses and also society stakeholders must be increasingly aware of the need to formulate their own approach to CSR" (Albareda, Lozano and Ysa, 2007, p. 404).

7.3.3 RQ2 – SRIC Consequences

The second main research question focused on the consequences of SRIC. More specifically, RQ2 refers to the following hypotheses: H1- SRIC has a positive significant impact on NBI; H2 - NBI mediates the relationship between SRIC and IAJV and H6 - SRIC has a positive significant impact on IAJV (See model Fig. 6.21). These will be discussed in more detail here below.

7.3.3.1 SRIC Impact on Nation Brand Identification

SRIC impact on NBI was tested with H1 (Fig. 6.8). Results of the partial mediated model show that SRIC exerts a positive impact on NBI. Findings are consistent in both countries (US R^2 0.64, β 0.80, $p < 0.001$; CA R^2 0.55, β 0.74, $p < 0.001$). Overall SRIC explains between 64% and 55% of variation in NBI. NBI mainly derives from studies on C-C identification, organisational identification and brand identification (Kumar and Kaushik, 2017). The construct was recently adopted by tourism and place branding researchers such as Stockburger-Sauer and Zenker. Previous research proved that there is a strong and positive relationship between CSR perceptions and C-C identification (Lichtenstein et al., 2004; Maignan and Ferrel, 2004 and Currás-Pérez, 2009). This link has been confirmed in this study: social responsibility image of countries positively and significantly impact nation brand identification. Nation brand identification also mediates the relationship between SRIC and IAJV. Its role as mediator will be explained in the following section.

7.3.3.2 SRIC Impact on Intention to Apply for a Job/Study

The role of NBI as mediator between SRIC and intention to apply for a job was tested with H2 (Fig. 6.8). The mediation role of NBI is supported by previous scholars investigating the role of C-C identification as mediator of corporate image and intention-to-apply (Wei *et al.*, 2016). Comparison of the three models, Sobel test and PROCESS were used to assess this relationship confirming the presence of partial mediation (See 6.8 Mediation Analysis). Therefore, two relationships were tested simultaneously: the partial effect of SRIC on IAJV through NBI (H2) and the direct effect of SRIC on IAJV (H6). Findings show that SRIC exerts a positive significant effect on IAJV (US R^2 0.27; CA R^2 0.25): (1) mediated relationship of SRIC – NBI -> IAJV (US β 0.22, $p < 0.005$; CA β 0.22, $p < 0.016$); (2) direct relationship SRIC->IAJV (US β 0.32, $p < 0.001$; CA β 0.32, $p < 0.001$). More precisely SRIC explains 20-30% of variation in IAJV. Past studies investigating the outcomes of CSR found that CSR perceptions exert a positive impact on organizational attractiveness and job seekers' intention (Greening and Turban, 2000; Tsai and Yang, 2010; Klimkiewicz and Oltra, 2017; Donia *et al.*, 2019; Turner *et al.*, 2019). As Cowell points out "The essential point is that individuals' attraction to and retention in a company can be at least partly explained by individual and organizational value matches and mismatches and that some of these matches and mismatches reside in perceptions of CSR" (Coldwell *et al.*, 2008, p.614). This study further indicates that this also applies in the context of place branding and talent attraction, albeit to a lesser extent. Whilst SRIC goes as far as to explain 30% of variation, around 70% remains unexplained. As found during the qualitative stage, other aspects might come into play when considering the attractiveness of a certain country as a place to study or work. The natural and built environment, the social environment and the level of comfort (Nadeau and Olafsen, 2015; Silvanto and Ryan, 2018) are characteristics that have an impact on the overall perception of the destination. Moreover, aspects of the country of residence, such as the desire to escape or the need to improve work-related situations might also have an impact on the decision (Richardson and Mckenna, 2002). Finally, the type of opportunity offered and sought should be taken into consideration when studying migration intentions. As emerged from the interviews, career improvement (Solimano, 2008; Silvanto, Ryan and McNulty, 2015), self-improvement (Selmer and Lauring, 2012) and experience of the diverse (Richardson and Mckenna, 2002; Doherty, Dickmann and Mills, 2011) are what drives highly skilled workers towards another country. The decision to apply for a job in another country is ultimately based on a compromise following the loss-gain framing explained by Cerdin, Diné and Brewster (2014). Therefore, multiple aspects play a role in this decision.

7.3.3.3 SRIC relationship with CI

Previous researchers indicated that country image and corporate image significantly affect each other and that their relationship is reciprocal (e.g. Gotsi, Lopez and Andriopoulos, 2011; Lopez, Gotsi and Andriopoulos, 2011; Guercini and Ranfagni, 2013). For this study the researcher posited that a similar relation should exist between SRIC and CI. Findings, however, are conflicting. Results from the qualitative stage support this reciprocal relationship. Companies known for their commitment to social responsibility can transfer this positive image to the relevant nation brand (IKEA-Sweden) (Gotsi, Lopez and Andriopoulos, 2011; Hynes *et al.*, 2014). Vice versa companies known for their poor CSR practices or questionable ethical values, exert a negative influence on the country image (McDonald's –US). This image transfer process already mentioned by Gotsi and colleagues (2011) is also noticed when values of the country are transferred to the company or institution (Cyprus – Cyprus University) (See 5.4.3 for more details). In the quantitative stage H5 was used to test the impact of CI on SRIC as emerged from the literature and qualitative results. Regardless of the direction of the relationship, findings reported inconsistent effect (US R^2 0.00, β 0.06, p 0.219; CA R^2 0.05, β 0.23, $p < 0.001$). Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected. Whilst this contradicts results of the qualitative stage it is in line with a stream of studies investigating the link between country image and university image (Herrero-Crespo *et al.*, 2015; Herrero-Crespo, San Martín Gutiérrez and Garcia- de los Salmones, 2016). There are a few factors to take into consideration in order to interpret these results correctly. First, the majority of studies supporting this positive link between CSRI and GRI are qualitative or conceptual. In this sense, the present research represents one of the first attempts at measuring this using a quantitative approach. Second, results of the quantitative stage might have been biased due to the poor operationalisation of the CI construct. Although theoretically scholars posit that perceptions towards CSR contribute to the overall image of the company, the majority tend to measure them separately. In this case, the researcher tried to offer a comprehensive measurement of CI including one item covering the perception toward CSR (CI5). The item was deleted at later stages due to reliability issues. Finally, this study focuses on a specific type of sector, higher education, therefore results might differ in other industries or when focusing on specific companies known for their CSR contribution. Future studies should investigate the impact of CI and CSRI on SRIC separately as well as retest the impact of corporate image on country image.

7.3.4 The Influence of Moderators

7.3.4.1 RQ3 - Employment Status

The third research question seeks to understand the role played by employment status and more specifically whether there are any differences between students and academic staff in terms of both their perception and attitudes towards the two nations. Whilst both groups pertain to the wider pool of highly skilled resources (Nadeau and Olafsen, 2015; Schade *et al.*, 2018), the researcher posited that, due to their inherent differences in terms of age, economic and marital status, they might exert different attitudes. The analysis was conducted using multigroup SEM in AMOS 26. Results outlined in section 6.9.1. show that employment status does not affect paths in the US model but plays a significant role as moderator in the CA model. Although hypothesis H4a is rejected, the are some evident differences between staff and students when looking at the following paths: SRIC→ NBI and ECOSRIC→ SRIC. The impact of SRIC on NBI is stronger for students compared to staff. This indicates that SRIC dimensions represent an important aspect of the country that are accepted and shared by our student sample. When looking at the independent variable in more detail, the economic dimension and specifically aspects concerning job security, work life balance, treatment of employees and standards of living seem to play a more important role for students compared to staff in the overall perception of Canada social responsibility. These results could be explained by different levels of familiarity or by different motivations driving the move to a foreign nation as well as length of stay. Further studies should investigate differences between students and academic staff in more depth.

7.3.4.2 RQ4 – Corporate Image

Job opportunities and career development are amongst the main drivers of migration for highly skilled workers (Silvanto and Ryan, 2018; Teney, 2019). This is also supported by the findings of our qualitative stage (See Section 5.4.2). Previous research on brand image related to recruitment demonstrates that creating positive brand associations is important to attract and retain employees (Collins and Stevens, 2002; Wilden, Gudergan and Lings, 2010; Nadeau and Olafsen, 2015). Self-initiated migrants are generally less interested in financial gains per se (e.g. pay raise). They are more attracted by other non-monetary factors and communicating these through their image, organisations might have a better chance to lure skilled candidates (Teney, 2019). Stemming from this, RQ4 posits that corporate image has a role as moderator of the NBI→IAJV path. Results show that positive/negative corporate image has no impact on the US or the CA model, but the variable moderates the path SRIC→NBI in Canada. SRIC impact on identification is stronger when corporate image is negative compared to when it is positive. Since, as we have seen above, there is no significant relationship between corporate image and SRIC in this context, this means that SRIC could have an important role to play when corporate image is perceived negatively helping countries to attract highly skilled resources. However, since this was noted only in one of the two models, researchers should investigate this further and focus on other factors that might explain this difference which might be connected to the type of sector under investigation, or other aspects of the destination.

7.3.4.3 RQ5 – Importance of CSR

As explained in chapter 3, several studies have investigated the concept of ethical beliefs and its role in marketing and consumer research (Dhandra and Park, 2018; Gentina *et al.*, 2018). In this research, the ICSR scale was used as a proxy to understand individuals' predispositions towards social responsibility. ICSR refers to the role and importance that social responsibility plays in the stakeholders'minds. This construct derives from the Perceived Role of Ethics and Social Responsibility (PRESOR) scale initially developed to measure managerial perceptions about ethics and social responsibility (Singhapakdi *et al.*, 1995; Turker, 2009a). Overall, only a small minority of respondents, 42.5%, believed that CSR is important. ICSR is thought to moderate the SRIC→NBI path as individuals who believe in the importance of social responsibility are thought to pay more attention to SRIC and therefore identify more with countries that display more social responsibility. Results demonstrate that ICSR does not moderate the hypothesised path in either of the two countries but plays a role as moderator for other paths in the US model. In fact, it moderates the relation between NBI and IAJV. This means that for those respondents that do not perceive CSR as important, the majority in our sample (57.5%), NBI does not act as key mediator between SRIC and IAJV. However, for those that believe in the importance of CSR, NBI role is pivotal to lure in new candidates as SRIC→IAJV is non-significant when ICSR is high. Therefore, overall, there is no difference in the effect SRIC plays on NBI when comparing individuals with low and high ICSR but NBI affects IAJV only in people that believe in the importance of CSR Interestingly, though, this difference can only be seen in the first model examining US SRIC. Researchers should attempt to test the model on other countries to see whether this effect upholds.

7.3.4.4 RQ6 – Nation Brand Familiarity

The concept of brand familiarity has appeared in both marketing and tourism literature. It refers here to the level of direct and non-direct experience individuals have of a given nation brand (Horng *et al.*, 2012; Martí-Parreño, Bermejo-Berros and Aldás-Manzano, 2017). By reducing cognitive effort in decision-making (Horng et al., 2012), familiarity has been able to explain some behaviours of tourists, applicants and consumers behaviours (Tan and Wu, 2016) such as increased confidence in the choice of the destination and travel intentions (Bianchi et al., 2017), reduced risks (Su and Swanson, 2017) and increased purchase intention of product/brand and increased organisational attractiveness. In this study NBF was hypothesised to moderate the relationship between SRIC and NBI and SRIC and NBA. Only the first hypothesis was tested due to the problems encountered with NBA. Results show that there are no major differences between people with high familiarity compared to people with low familiarity. Therefore, H3b is rejected. This contradicts what is found in the literature and the results of the qualitative stage. Interviewees, in fact, showed that familiarity with a certain place had an influence in shaping their perception and their attractiveness towards the place. Future studies should investigate in more detail how knowledge of a place in terms of familiarity and expertise can impact the image and attractiveness of a place comparing geographically diverse countries.

7.3.4.5 RQ7 – Nation Brands Differences

The final research question tried to capture SRIC differences between two main nation brands, Canada and United States. These nations were chosen as they are considered attractive destinations for highly skilled resources working in the higher education sector, the attractiveness of academic institutions and familiarity with the language being two of the main drivers. During the qualitative stage, it emerged that the two countries exerted different perceptions in the mind of respondents. Whilst Canada was often praised as a “good place”, the image of the United States looked more controversial. Firstly, some of the respondents stressed that overall perceptions could vary from state to state and contested the use of a holistic view of the US. Secondly, negative aspects mentioned at first (e.g. questionable immigration and gun policies, the lack of respect for the environment and lack of an equitable and sustainable health care system) were often counterbalanced by positives (e.g. tolerance, openness, promotion of freedom). Lastly, a few respondents believed that the US was often victim of negative press, hence, hampering the effect of the negative aspects. Results of the quantitative stage show that the overall perception of social responsibility is relatively higher for Canada (μ 129.60; σ 16.15) than for the US (μ 94.39; σ 22.47). When comparing the two models using multigroup analysis, however, no major differences were found (See section 6.9.6) in any of the paths. Therefore, H7a and H7b should be rejected. Results of MSEM, thus, show that differences might not be as big between Canada and the US as initially hypothesised. This might be due to the mistrust towards negative information from media outlets. As mentioned earlier a few respondents during interviews acknowledged they receive more information about the US compared to other countries but showed some mistrust towards negative information received. Moreover, both countries were highly praised for openness and tolerance, aspect that previous studies found as being key in order to attract talents to a new country (Silvanto, Ryan and McNulty, 2015; Silvanto and Ryan, 2018). Finally, some of the key issues consistently mentioned as controversial in the US were mostly covered by the two dimensions (political and social) dropped due to validity and reliability concerns. This might have impacted the results contributing to equalising the perception of the two countries.

7.3.4.6 Country of Residence

The main sample of this study comprised highly skilled resources from two European countries, the United Kingdom and Italy. As explained in chapter 3 the reasons for including two countries was based on the possibility to further test the generalisability and robustness of the model as suggested by Cadogan (2010). Therefore, towards the end of the SEM analysis, the sample was divided into two sub-groups so that responses of the Italian group could be compared to the responses of the UK sample. Results of these tests are presented in chapter 6 and confirm that there are no major differences between the Italian and the British sample on any of the paths in the US model. However, a few differences emerged in the CA model for the following paths: SRIC→NBI and ECOSRIC→SRIC. The impact of SRIC on NBI is slightly stronger in Italy compared to the UK whilst the economic dimension has slightly more weight in the UK compared to the Italian sample. It is possible that these differences might be linked to cultural aspects. As the analysis of cultural dimensions was beyond the scope of this investigation, future studies might be able to explore this in more detail. Overall, the analysis confirms that the model developed in this study is robust and may well be generalisable to other contexts. Future studies should re-test the framework within and outside the European borders. Comparing countries that are more culturally diverse could prove interesting and enrich the findings of the current research.

7.4 Summary

To conclude, this chapter offers a detailed overview of the findings and shows how these help the researcher to answer the research questions outlined in the introduction. As confirmed by both the qualitative and the quantitative stage, the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC) is a multidimensional construct that comprises three dimensions: ethical, environmental and economic. This answers RQ1. The overall findings suggest that SRIC has a positive significant influence on nation brand identification (NBI) and intention to apply for a job vacancy or study (IAJV). This is in line with our initial hypotheses and helps to answer RQ2a. H5 (RQ2b), instead, is rejected at the quantitative stage as there is no significant relationship between country image (CI) and SRIC in this context. This interestingly contradicts what emerged during the qualitative stage and what has been supported by previous literature concerning the link between country image and corporate image. Additional results from the multigroup analysis show that there are no major differences in terms of perceptions and impact on attractiveness when comparing the two nation brands, Canada and US. Therefore, H7a and H7b are rejected (RQ7). Finally, concerning moderators, the findings show no sign of moderations for the hypothesised paths in both countries, therefore H4a, H4b, H3a and H3b are rejected. However, moderators have an impact on other paths and findings often differ betweem the two models. Employment status and corporate image play a role as moderators in the CA model. The importance of CSR (ICSR) plays a role as moderators for US. Given the discrepancies identified when comparing the two models, further studies should investigate RQ3, RQ4 and RQ5 in more depth. The only moderator that shows consistency in both models is nation brand familiarity (NBF) which does not moderate any of the hypothesised paths (RQ6). Findings are consistent across the Italian and British sample in the US model, but a few differences emerged at the structural level in the CA model. Differences are observed for only two paths SRIC→NBI and ECOSRIC→SRIC. Aside from these slight differences at the structural level, no changes could be identified at the measurement level in either of the two countries, meaning that the model is robust, and results are generalisable.

Based on these findings, the final chapter here below will present the main contributions of the study, discuss the limitations of the research and provide suggestions for future studies. Finally, conclusions are drawn.

Chapter 8

CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

This final chapter aims to present the theoretical, managerial and policy implications of this study. It also seeks to identify limitations that have emerged and provide some suggestions for researchers interested in research on nation branding and corporate social responsibility. The final section offers a summary of results and reflections on the overall research process.

8.2 Research Implications

This section presents the contributions of the study. Theoretical contributions are discussed first, followed by policy and managerial implications.

8.2.1 Theoretical Implications

By merging place branding, international marketing and corporate social responsibility literature, this study offers a considerable theoretical contribution. Whilst several papers have been written on CSR benefits to corporate brands, articles on CSR and place branding are still relatively scant. This study addresses this gap (RG1 – See Table 1.1) thus contributing to early studies on governmental social responsibility (e.g. Anholt, 2010; Szondi, 2010; Cozmiuc, 2012) and destination social responsibility (e.g. Su and Swanson, 2017; Su, Huang and Pearce, 2018; Tran *et al.*, 2018; Su, Swanson and He, 2020). It does so by applying a CSR framework to nation branding. It focuses, in particular, on the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC), a newly developed concept in the literature. SRIC conceptualisation and measurement are presented and examined in the light of previous research. In order to measure SRIC, the study applied Churchill's (1979) and Zaichkowsky's (1985) guidelines for scale development. Churchill's scale development process is considered a best practice and has been applied by scholars investigating corporate social responsibility image, destination social responsibility and destination image (e.g. Turker, 2009b; Pérez and del Bosque, 2013b; Alvarado-Herrera *et al.*, 2017). The steps of the process involve an exploratory stage including interviews, focus groups and experts' judgement for face validity, a pilot study for exploratory factor analysis, and a confirmatory stage including confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modelling. To the author's knowledge this is one of the first studies to examine the social responsibility image of countries. Earlier studies were mainly conceptual or limited to the tourism and destination management context (e.g.

Anholt, 2010; Szondi, 2010; Cozmiuc, 2012; Su and Swanson, 2017; Su, Huang and Pearce, 2018; Tran et al., 2018).

In order to test the efficiency of the scale, as done by previous authors (e.g. Pérez and del Bosque, 2013b), the SRIC construct was tested in a reflective model. The development of the model also helped to answer the call for the adoption of more testable frameworks and hypotheses in place branding (Hao *et al.*, 2019) (RG2 – Table 1.1). Academics, in fact, agree that the field is still predominantly qualitative (Sun, Paswan and Tieslau, 2016) and would benefit from the use of mixed methods and quantitative approaches (Gertner, 2011; Elliot and Papadopoulos, 2016; Clouse and Dixit, 2017). The research process was rigorously framed following indications provided by high standard academic journals included in the ABS Journal Guide (e.g. Journal of Business Ethics, Journal of Business Research, Journal of Marketing Research). The framework and hypotheses were developed by adapting previous models used to investigate CSR image. The constructs were adopted or adapted from articles aimed to study CSR image, country image, destination image, C-C identification, nation brand identification, destination and organisational attractiveness. SRIC impact on nation brand identification, attractiveness and intention to apply for a job vacancy was assessed. The model was tested in two countries (Italy and the UK) to increase the validity, reliability and generalisability of results. Highly skilled resources working in the higher education sector constituted the main sample of the study.

Studying the level of attractiveness from the viewpoint of talented individuals helped to advance another stream of research often disregarded by researchers and place marketers (RG3- See Table 1.1). Compared to tourism resarch, in fact, place branding studies devoted to the analysis of talent attraction are relatively limited (Papadopoulos, 2004; Papadopoulos *et al.*, 2018). Highly skilled workers occupy an important place in the economy of a country and provide companies with a considerable competitive advantage (Micro-Economic Policy Analysis Branch, 2008; Kahanec and Zimmerman, 2011; Raghuram, 2013; Bryła, 2019). As a consequence, talent attraction is a top priority for policy and place makers. In this study, SRIC has been found to exert a significant influence on nation brand identification and the intention to migrate to a country to work and/or study. Other factors that have been found important in the quest for the brightest are the beauty of the built and natural environment (e.g. beautiful landscape, nature, architecture), the attractiveness of the social environment (e.g. friendliness of locals, open mindness, presence of cultural events/attractions) and the level of comfort (e.g. cultural/geographical closeness, presence of a social network). For aspects such as natural and social environment, not only the nation brand but also the city brand is seen to play an important role. This is confirmed by the qualitative stage of the research and by previous studies on skilled migration (Dinnie, 2011a; De Noni, Orsi and Zanderighi, 2014; Nadeau and Olafsen, 2015; Silvanto, Ryan and McNulty, 2015).

Another aspect that this study tried to shed some light on is the relationship between SRIC and corporate image (RG4 – See Table 1.1). Previous studies suggested that country image and corporate image influence each other and that the relationship is reciprocal (e.g. Lopez, Gotsi and Andriopoulos, 2011; White and Alkandari, 2019). However, the majority of these studies was qualitative, and the link was rarely tested in a quantitative study. This dissertation contributed to this area of research by testing the hypothesis quantitatively. The analysis, though, reported conflicting results, as explained above. Whilst the qualitative exploratory stage provided evidence of a reciprocal relationship, this was not confirmed in the analysis of survey data and the hypothesis was rejected. By contributing to this area of research our findings pave the way for more quantitative studies on the relationship between country image and corporate image but also, more specifically between SRIC and CSRI.

Last, the study investigated the impact of important moderators (RG5 – See Table 1.1): employment status, corporate image, importance of CSR and nation brand familiarity. Findings helped to demonstrate that nation brand familiarity does not exert a significant impact in this context while the other variables significantly moderate a few paths in at least one of the two models. Differences have been noted between students and academic staff and between respondents with negative and positive corporate image when evaluating Canada. The importance of CSR has been found an important moderator in the US model. Multigroup analysis has also been used to compare the Italian and UK sample showing minor differences at the structural level for Canada. This means that although some differences can be identified at the structural level, at a measurement level the model is invariant, and results can be generalised. Testing the same model in other countries could help to understand how the influence of moderators changes and explain whether this has to do with characteristics of the destination (e.g. cultural dimensions), the business environment and the motivation of the self-initiated migrant, as explained above, or other factors.

In summary, the main theoretical contributions of this study are (1) the conceptualisation and measurement of the social responsibility image of countries – RG1, (2) the analysis of its impact on the attractiveness of highly skilled resources – RG3, (3) the study of SRIC relationship with corporate image – RG4, (4) the examination of moderators via multigroup analysis -RG5 and (5) the use of a mixed method strategy to develop the SRIC scale and test the conceptual framework -RG2. The research therefore helped to strengthen the theoretical foundations of the place branding research. Findings have considerable implications for managers and policy makers. These will be discussed here below.

8.2.2 Managerial Implications

As the review of previous literature demonstrate, company ethicality, "the extent to which job seekers perceive a company acts responsibly towards the environment and society" (Osburg et al., 2020, p. 535) represents a key factor for talent attraction. Studies also prove that corporate social responsibility is more important for millennials (Solomons, 2016) and highly educated resources (Tsai et al., 2014; Wang, 2013). The present study focused on the perceptions of highly educated candidates of two European countries with the aim to understand whether the same effect noted in the context of corporate branding can be identified in a place branding context (RG3 – See Table 1.1).

Findings show that the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC) exerts a significant impact on nation brand identification and intention to study/ apply for a job vacancy. Moreover, when both nation brand and corporate brand/s embrace social responsibility as a framework to act and communicate with their respective stakeholders, this might exert a positive impact on country and corporate image such as evidenced in the case of Sweden and Ikea during our qualitative stage and highlighted by previous studies (e.g. Lopez, Gotsi and Andriopoulos, 2011; White and Alkandari, 2019). Although the reciprocal interaction between CI and SRIC was not supported in the context of the higher education sector as proven by the quantitative stage, there might be an opportunity to leverage ethical attributes in other sectors or drawing attention to country-based socially responsible firms (White and Alkandari, 2019). These results have important consequences for place brand consultants and marketing / HR managers.

Adopting social responsibility as a frame of reference could help companies and governments to collaborate (Su and Swanson, 2018) in order to attract talented individuals and potentially retain those that already live and work in the country (Coldwell et al. 2008; Lee and Chen, 2018; Kim et al, 2020; Osburg et al., 2020). This is in line with social identity theory, previously mentioned, and with signaling theory (Osburg et al., 2020). According to signaling theory, social and environmental programs can act as signaling devices towards key stakeholders (Zerbini, 2015). In this case, the promotion of social responsibility initatives can be used to lure highly skilled resources (Zhang et al., 2019). The collaboration between place and corporate brands should involve specific policies and recruitment programmes as well as marketing and communication initiatives aimed to promote them. As SRIC is a multidimensional concept, both parties should agree on specific aspects of social responsibility (economic, environmental or ethical) to focus on in their activities and communication. These aspects should be chosen by reflecting on internal resources and should help companies and places to position themselves and differentiate their offer from the competition (Magnusson, Westjohn and Zdravkovic, 2015). This would not only respond to the increase competitiveness in the "war for talent" (Keller and Meaney, 2017), it would also address demands for more sustainable forms of business which are expected to rise in the post-pandemic society (Remchukov and Rozhok, 2020).

These considerations are even more relevant if we examine universities, our research setting, where the competition to attract the best and brightest is increasingly harsh (Hemsley-Brown et al. 2016) and a strong connection characterises their relationship with the country. Universities represent the first point of entry for highly skilled migrants and their role should not be underestimated. This research, therefore, contributes to the micro-CSR and HRM streams by investigating the perceptions and intentions of potential candidates currently working/studying in higher education: international students and academic staff. Findings from the qualitative stage show that a taxonomy of factors contribute to the intention to move to work or study abroad. Attractiveness is opportunity, destination and dissatisfaction driven. Based on these results, universities should consider providing clear information about how their offer contributes to the applicants professional and personal development (Vaiman, Halsberger and Vance, 2015). Special attention should be paid to the development of a positive brand image and reputation (Solimano, 2008; Hemsley-Brown, 2012; Nguyen, Melewar and Hemsley-Brown, 2019), the promotion of specific research/teaching clusters and networking opportunities (Solimano, 2008; Silvanto, Ryan and McNulty, 2015) and to understand student/employee satisfaction, here conceived as doing something respondents are passionate about, in a pleasant or better (compared to their country-of-origin) work environment (Phillips and Phillips, 1998). In addition, communication outlets should showcase aspects of the destination concerning built and social environment and comfort which include, amongst others, our SRIC dimensions. Due to the policy implications, these will be discussed in more detail in 8.2.3. By focusing on this specific setting, this research casts light on an interesting area of study that certainly requires more attention: university marketing strategies in a nation branding context (e.g. Herrero-Crespo *et al.*, 2015; Herrero-Crespo, San Martín Gutiérrez and Garcia-de los Salmones, 2016). Although a few studies have been devoted to this topic, more are certainly warranted.

Aside from talent attraction, SRIC could offer other interesting sources of collaboration between stakeholders in other areas such as tourism, exports and investments. The use of social responsibility cues, in fact, could be used to differentiate firms' and destinations' positions in consumers' minds but also influence their attitudes and behaviours. Research on these topics has only just started to emerge (Magnusson, Westjohn and Zdravkovic, 2015; Su and Swanson, 2017; Su, Huang and Pearce, 2018; Tran et al., 2018; White and Alkandari, 2019). Future studies in international marketing and tourism should examine these aspects in more depth as explained in 8.4

In summary, from a managerial viewpoint, this study (1) highlights the role played by SRIC and explains how companies can leverage place brand ethical attributes (RG1-See Table 1.1) (; (2)

offers an opportunity for fruitful collaboration between organisations and national and local authorities by using social responsibility as a frame of reference and (3) identifies sources of attractiveness for highly skilled in the higher education sector by corroborating previous findings but also paving the path for new research (RG3 – See table 1.1).

8.2.3 Policy Implications

The final contribution of this research concerns policy. We have briefly mentioned the importance of policies for talent attraction here above in 8.2.2 (RG3- See Table 1.1). National and local authorities should support organisations to facilitate the process of attraction and retention of highly skilled resources (Silvanto *et al.,* 2015; Lubanski *et al.*, 2016). The presence of a department or independent agency charged to supervise and coordinate these activities, as suggested by Silvanto and colleagues (2015) would be beneficial.

As we have mentioned earlier, aspects of country social responsibility (environmental, economic, ethical) can be used as cues to strengthen the image of comfort and safety and enhance the overall attractiveness of the country (Silvanto *et al.*, 2015). Promotional tools (dedicated website and social media) that present these and the other aspects of living in the country (see here below) should be developed by the department or agency in charge and media kits should be made available to organisations. The launch of talent attraction schemes or programs that focus on aspects of the social responsibility framework, for instance environmental issues and climate change, could also assist in the promotion of these values and engender an interesting virtuous circle. These programs should be developed in partnership with organisations and third parties and should be in line with the dimension and values chosen to portray in the nation brand campaign.

The study provides also useful information regarding other factors that come into play when selecting a place where to study or work such as the natural, built and social environment. Media outlets should promote the beauty and cleanliness of natural resources but also portray the cultural heritage and architecture of major poles of attractions (Nadeau and Olafsen, 2015). In this sense, the city brand appears to play an important role in the fight for talents (Herrero-Crespo *et al.* 2015), particularly city brand attractions but also the level of friendliness and multiculturalism. Therefore, as recommended by Silvanto and colleagues (2015), a nation brand campaign aimed to attract highly skilled should convey a vision of a unique and welcoming experience. Regarding the uniqueness of the place, in addition to built and natural environment, the campaign can also explore aspects of lifestyle or diversity and exoticism (Doherty, Dickmann and Mills, 2011). However, these last two have been mentioned only by some respondents, therefore, more studies would be needed to ascertain whether length of stay, personality and/or motivation might have a role to play.

As it clearly emerges from the results of the qualitative stage discussed in chapter 5, the topic of attractiveness is strictly linked to retention (Cerdin, Diné and Brewster, 2014). Therefore, based on the findings, programmes developed to assist and not only recruit highly skilled, should be in place as suggested by Lubanski et al. (2016). Highly skilled migrants should be included in a plan aimed to help with adjustment challenges and support their integration in the country (Vaiman, Halsberger and Vance, 2015). These programmes should result from a concerted effort of local, national authorities and the employer and cover aspects such as language and culture (e.g. language and culture awareness trainings, information on social support services), networking (e.g. facilitating networking with expats and/or host country nationals through existing associations) and family support (e.g. help to find job/school for life partner/children).

Going back to SRIC (RG1 – See Table 1.1), countries could use social responsibility to inform their nation branding strategy. This would not only assist the government in attracting talents, it would also foster the country's sustainable development. As explained by previous research (Dinnie, 2016; Su and Swanson, 2017; Frig and Sorsa, 2018), in fact, both nation branding and CSR are considered to exert a positive impact on sustainable development (See Fig. 8.1) but more empirical studies are needed on this topic.

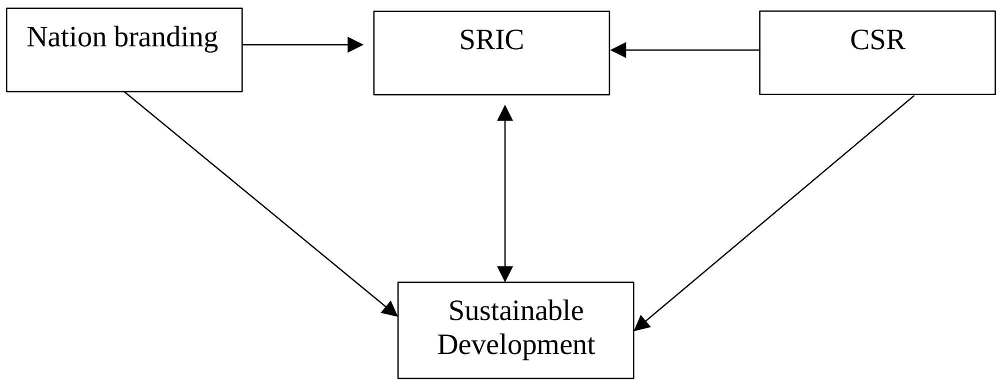


Fig. 8.1 Nation branding and Sustainable development. Author's elaboration (2020).

Developing a narrative around social responsibility would also help to strengthen the image and reputation of the nation brand (Saeidi *et al.*, 2015; Dinnie, 2016). As previous research has underlined, the promotion of CSR exerts several positive benefits on corporate brands. These benefits have the potential to transfer to the overall country image (Magnusson, Westjohn and Zdravkovic, 2015; White and Alkandari, 2019). Therefore, governments should monitor the CSR behavior of leading brands and support them by investing in CSR-based inititatives.

In addition, being a multidimensional framework that requires the intervention of government and organisations as well as civil society, social responsibility has the benefit of bringing together different stakeholders and fostering the collaboration between place marketeers, policy makers and marketing managers (Su and Swanson, 2018). By strengthening the relationship between public and private sectors, the framework could therefore support forms of participatory place branding (Kavaratzis and Kalandides, 2015; Braun *et al.*, 2018; Ripoll Gonzalez and Gale, 2018). Participatory forms of place branding have been advocated by several scholars claiming that they better reflect the way in which places are managed and consumed (Kavaratzis, 2012; Kavaratzis, 2017). In this sense, social responsibility as a frame of reference might enhance this way of approaching the marketing of places as it has been recently proposed by Rebelo and colleagues (2020) (Lichrou, Kavaratzis and Giovanardi, 2017). However, more studies on this aspect are warranted.

Lastly, whilst social responsibility has been studied here in a nation branding context, its framework is ideal for place brands as big as a country and as small as a city or town. Testing the framework on a smaller scale before implementing it on a larger scale could be beneficial to develop and prepare the required infrastructure, design the appropriate communication and understand its effect. Moreover, the framework could be adapted to the place brand architecture (Hanna and Rowley, 2015; Dinnie, 2017), meaning that, different dimensions or aspects of the social responsibility could be more prominent and therefore promoted as to characterise specific regions or cities compared to others. An analysis of internal resources and testing the framework on a local level might help to understand how to adapt it to the architecture.

In summary, concerning policy implications, this study contributes to (1) highlight the importance of a body coordinating activities and campaigns concerning the promotion of nation brands towards highly skilled resources, (2) identify key factors other than SRIC that should feature in nation branding campaigns aimed to talent attraction, (3) propose a number of actions that can be undertaken by public authorities together with local organisations and (3) explain the contribution of social responsibility and nation branding towards sustainable development.

8.3 Limitations of the Research

The research findings should be interpreted in the light of certain limitations that will be discussed here below.

One of the first limitations of this study relates to the choice of the sample. This project focuses on highly skilled resources in the higher education sector only and considers both students and academic staff as part of the sample. Future studies could examine the perception of skilled migrants working in other sectors such as IT, health care and engineering. Talents working in these sectors, in fact, represent a great resource for most countries faced with an aging population and fast developing technology (Newton, 2019). In addition, scholars interested in the higher education sector could analyse international students and academic staff in more detail in separate studies. Here, both students and staff were studied together as part of the highly skilled resources of two nation brands, the US and Canada. The quantitative stage evidenced only small differences between them when measuring Canada social responsibility image and its effect on nation brand identification (See section 6.9.1 Employment status). Studying students and staff separately could help to better understand any underlying differences and strengthen nation branding strategies for talent attraction. Regarding the sampling technique, due to the lack of a sampling frame, this study has adopted a non-probability sampling. In order to increase the generalisability of results, researchers should favour a probability approach.

In terms of research setting, Italy and the United Kingdom were chosen for this study. Both are in Western Europe and, despite the differences, they are both amongst the top developed countries and members of G7 (UN, 2014). Researchers should therefore retest the SRIC scale in a culturally diverse context outside Europe. This will assist in strengthening the scale and the generalisability of the findings. The same could be said for the choice of the stimuli. Whilst Canada and US were chosen for this study, other countries could be studied, and their perception compared. Particular attention should be paid to developing and under-developed countries that, according to some authors, could benefit more from social responsibility initiatives (Vaiman, Scullion and Collings, 2012; Dinnie, 2016).

The analysis of culture and the role this plays in the present study represents another important limitation. Although, as explained in section 4.4 Research Design, culture was not one of they key dimensions under investigation here, cultural aspects might have exerted some influence on our model, and they could help us explain some of the results obtained in the SEM and multigroup analysis. As findings of the multigroup analysis suggest (See section 6.9.6 Nation Brands Differences), in fact, there are some small, albeit interesting differences between Italy and the UK at the structural level. Future studies should pay more attention to cultural differences between the two countries chosen as setting for the research and to the proximity between the country of origin and the stimuli countries (See also section 8.4).

Regarding the conceptual framework, this study mostly focused on the link between SRIC, nation brand attractiveness, identification and intention to study/apply for a job. The author, however, recognises that, as explained in chapter 2 and chapter 5, other aspects could impact the attractiveness of a country towards skilled migrants. These elements were not included in the framework because doing so would have exceeded the resources available for the study and would have gone beyond its main scope which was the study and measurement of SRIC. This therefore leaves a good margin for future investigations.

Limitations concerning measurements should also be noted. Although great care was taken in developing the model and research instrument following Churchill's (1979) guidelines, two SRIC dimensions, social and political, had to be dropped due to validity and reliability issues in at least one of the two countries. Previous literature on CSR image and country image is generally inconsistent regarding the number and type of dimensions taken into consideration and at the time of data collection no previous studies had been conducted on this. Socio-political aspects, though, are often found in some of the main frameworks (e.g. CSR pyramidal model, sustainable development theory). Moreover, in the qualitative stage, elements of these aspects were mentioned by some of the respondents. Although, we cannot exclude issues in the operationalisation of the constructs, other factors might have played an impact here. For instance, an examination of cultural aspects as mentioned above might shed new light on these results and help us explain some of the differences identified. Based on this first study and studies on destination social responsibility, future research should pay more attention to the nature of SRIC dimensions and related items. Furthermore, issues with discriminant validity between NBI, NBA and IAJV show that there might be some overlaps between the constructs. This was not highlighted in previous studies where the constructs were used. Scholars should investigate their relationship in more detail. Regarding H5 - CI→SRIC, instead, whilst the qualitative stage showed some proof of a link, the quantitative stage demonstrated the contrary. Although we cannot exclude issues in the operationalisation of the constructs, we must also note that the majority of previous studies discussing this link are conceptual or qualitative in nature. Therefore, the relationship between country image and corporate image as well as SRIC and CSR image should be re-tested quantitatively paying more attention to the way each construct is measured. Particular attention should also be paid to the research setting, specifically the choice of the sector and of the company, here higher education, which might have contributed to these discrepancies.

Finally, an issue that emerged during the early stages of questionnaire development concerns the use of the “I don’t know” option. Although both countries, US and Canada, are generally well known to the public due to the vast media coverage they receive, the author acknowledges that some individuals might not be aware of some aspects of SRIC. Su and Swanson encountered a similar impasse when testing DSR (Su and Swanson, 2017) and listed a number of challenges linked to the use of this option such as risk of disengagement (Krosnick, 1991). For these reasons “I don’t know” was not used in this study. In order to assess the level of knowledge of the country, familiarity was integrated in the survey. No major differences have been found between samples with high and low familiarity. That said, future studies could consider integrating the “I don’t know” option in the questionnaire or use screening questions to assess respondents’ confidence and experience.

Given the limitations reported above and the relatively limited amount of research on SRIC, the next section will offer some suggestions and direction for future research.

8.4 Recommendations for Future Research

Following the research limitations, this section aims to provide some directions for future research on place branding and corporate social responsibility.

One of the first limitations highlighted above concerns the choice of the sample and sampling technique. This study has collected data on skilled migrants working in the higher education sector (See RG3 – Table 1.1). This includes both academic staff and students. Future studies could investigate academic staff and students separately. Furthermore, scholars might focus on highly skilled resources in a variety of sectors such as IT, health care and engineering as this would contribute to RG3 - research on place branding and talent attraction. Additional studies could also focus on residents and tourists. Regarding the sampling technique, in this current research, due to the lack of a sampling frame a non-probability approach was adopted. In future research, a probability sampling should be preferred for the quantitative stage.

Concerning the choice of the method, this work adopted a mixed method strategy. This is considered one the strongest approaches as the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods tend to reduce respective methodological constraints. Researchers might consider using this method in order to confirm the generalisability of results in other contexts. Culturally diverse countries within or outside Europe could be considered as new research settings. Although findings identify only small differences between the UK and Italy, cross cultural and comparative studies might be able to offer new insights. The analysis of cultural differences, in fact, might help researchers to gain a better understanding of differences in highly skilled's perceptions and attitudes towards the chosen countries. Researchers might also want to rethink the choice of the research setting and stimuli to include a wider pool of countries. Lastly, other methods could be considered such as ethnography and netnography. Their characteristics could prove useful to study SRIC and DSR in a real and virtual context. The same methods could also be adopted to explore issues of place branding and talent attraction/retention.

Looking at the core concept of this research, SRIC, there are a few considerations to bear in mind that might encourage new investigations and contribute to cover RG1. As previously discussed, SRIC is rooted in country image and corporate social responsibility image studies. Both concepts have been measured using a multidimensional and a unidimensional approach. For the purpose of this study, the author has favoured a multidimensional approach following Carroll's CSR pyramidal model and sustainable development theory (Perez and Bosque, 2013). Another important framework often mentioned in the CSR literature is the stakeholder management theory. Given the importance played by the government, organisations and civil society, as proven during the qualitative stage and as supported by Li and Swanson (2017), scholars could attempt to study SRIC using a stakeholder framework. Results have also shown that SRIC conceptualisation and measurement are characterised by some limitations. Many of these limits are inherited from the root construct, CSR. Therefore, researchers should reflect on ways to overcome these limits and look at strengths and weaknesses of alternative concepts such as sustainability. In order to cover the gaps mentioned in 8.3, attention should also be paid to the analysis of the social and political dimensions of SRIC and to the link between SRIC and CSR image. In order to assess the relationship between CI and CSR and SRIC and CSR image, studies using experimental designs might prove particularly effective as the relationship could be tested in different conditions. Moreover, previous research has highlighted the advantage of using experiments to study country image research (Lu *et al.*, 2016). This approach might also prove beneficial to further explore the SRIC construct and advance place branding research (See RG2 - Table 1.1).

Furthermore, although this work has studied SRIC from a nation branding viewpoint, future projects could effectively apply the same framework to other places (e.g. regions or cities) or specific destinations, as recently done by Li and colleagues (2017). How can places use a CSR framework to position themselves against the competition? On what dimension/s should they focus in order to differentiate their offer? Studies should also investigate in more depth the antecedents and consequences of SRIC. This could be done from a policy, tourism, marketing or urban studies perspective. Particulary interesting in this sense would be the study of how this CSR framework could be used to foster the sustainable development of a place brand. Finally, a key area of research concerns how place brands communicate their social responsibility initiatives and activities. A few authors have recently started to pave the way for this stream with their research on governmental sustainability. However, more studies are certainly needed as an increasing number of places look at CSR and sustainability to promote themselves.

Lastly, academic production on place branding and talent attraction is still relatively scant. This study contributes to this stream of research, but additional articles are needed to examine in more depth the sources of place brand attractiveness such as natural and built environment, social environment and comfort (See RG2 – Table 1.1). Although these aspects have been discussed here, they have not been analysed in detail due to time and space constraints. Moreover, academics should also dedicate particular attention to talent retention, an aspect that is as important as, if not more important than, attracting skilled migrants. The focus should be on understanding what strategies can be implemented to nurture talents and what the place brand aspects are that contribute to retention. Particular attention in this sense should be paid to place attachment and satisfaction as potential antecendents of retention.

8.5 Summary

This work has examined the concept of social responsibility image of countries, its dimensions, limitations and impact on nation brand attractiveness towards highly skilled resources. Issues regarding corporate social responsibility and sustainability have been in the spotlight in recent years as more consumers have shown they are increasingly aware of the damage companies are inflicting on the environment and the society. As a result, an increasing number of academic studies and policy reports have been devoted to these topics. The present research contributes to the discussion by proposing a shift in perspective as it analyses social responsibility-based initiatives from a place branding viewpoint. A new concept in the literature, the social responsibility image of countries (SRIC) is explored in the light of previous research published in marketing, branding, management and tourism. A conceptual framework and research hypotheses covering SRIC dimensions and consequences are presented and discussed based on the following theories: social identity theory, the associative network theory and the attraction-selection-attrition theory. To understand SRIC and test the hypotheses the study adopts a pragmatic paradigm and an exploratory sequential mixed-method strategy. Primary data are collected via twelve semi-structured interviews, four focus groups and a self-administered questionnaire in two countries (UK and Italy). Data are analysed using thematic analysis via NVivo 12 and multivariate data analysis using a two-step CB-SEM approach via IBM SPSS 26 and AMOS 26. Findings offer a clear understanding of SRIC and its economic, environmental and ethical dimensions as well as its limitations. SRIC is found to play a significant role in the quest for talents as the conceptual framework is proven valid. This project therefore contributes to previous literature on place branding and corporate social responsibility and offers practical suggestions to organisations and local administrations on how to leverage the social responsibility image of countries and how to attract and retain highly skilled resources.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A – Table 2.5 CSR and related constructs

The Responsibility of Business: Mapping the Territory			
Concepts	**Definition**	**Origin**	**Positioning**
Business ethics (BE)	"Moral rules, standards, codes or principles which provide guidelines for right and truthful behavior in specific situations" (Lewis, 1985, p.381).	Discussed before the 1930s, often theologically (e.g. the social encyclicals raising questions about just wages and the morality of capitalism), it began to develop as a field around the 1970s (e.g. first conference on business ethics, University of Kansas, 1975) and became institutionalised in 1985. 1980 was also the date of creation of the Society for Business Ethics. An interdisciplinary area of study, business ethics research mainly deals with: the analysis of morality and immorality in business, ethical decision-making process and personal and situational characteristics involved and behavioural consequences of ethical decision making (De George, 1987, 2015; Ma, 2009).	Often used interchangeably with CSR, the two boast a distinct meaning. Social responsibility, conceived as more descriptive, can be viewed as the obligations or the contract business assumes towards society and their impact. Business ethics, on the other hand, is normative and relates to rules and principles guiding individual and work-group decisions. Therefore, the second informs the first and its research concerns the business development or defence of norms against which corporate activities should be measured (Fisher, 2004; Ferrell, Fraedrich and Ferrell, 2014; De George, 2015).

Business/ Corporate/ Strategic Philanthropy (CP)	"Voluntary and unconditional transfers of assets or resources (e.g. direct grants, corporate foundations) to charitable causes" (Gautier and Pache, 2015, p. 343).	The origins of the concept trace back to the late 1800s in America, when early examples of company giving can be identified (e.g. the railroads and the Young Men's Christian Association). A few exceptions aside (e.g. Baumol, Johnson), scholars started to pay attention to the phenomenon around the 1980s, analysing the typology of contributions and their legitimacy. The concept has gradually developed, paving the way for the so-called strategic philanthropy. It can be marketing or competence oriented (Johnson, 1966; Baumol *et al.*, 1970; Porter and Kramer, 2002; Gautier and Pache, 2015).	Often confused with CSR, according to the majority of authors, philanthropy is an area of the responsibility of business (CSR). Due to its voluntary nature, in fact, it represents the third area of responsibility or "the outer circle" (Porter and Kramer, 2002; Gautier, 2015).
Social Responsibility of Business (SRB)	"This refers to the obligations of businessmen to pursue those policies, to make those decisions or to follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of the objectives and values of the society". (Bowen, 1953, p.6).	The term arose around the 1930s-1940s when society started to express its concerns with regard to the social responsibility of business (e.g. "Fortune" magazine articles). Its development culminated in 1953 with the publication of Bowen's book "Social Responsibilities of Businessman", considered a landmark of the beginning of the CSR era.	SRB and CSR are interchangeable, differing only in the introduction of the word "corporate". This might be connected to the fact that, at that time, the modern corporation's prominence in the business sector had not yet been detected. Although the concept of "business" is thought of as more general and comprehensive, both normally refer to large companies or corporations (Bowen, 1953; Carroll, 1999).

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)	"A firm's or brand's commitment to maximize long-term economic, societal, and environmental well-being through business practices, policies, and resources" (Sen, Du and Bhattacharya, 2016, p.70; Xie, Bagozzi and Grønhaug, 2019)	The first concerns regarding social responsibilities of businessmen emerged in the 1930s. However, the 1950s is considered the decade characterised by the emergence of CSR. Due to its central role in this study, a separate table is devoted to an in-depth analysis of its definitions (Carroll, 1999; Latapí Agudelo, Jóhannsdóttir and Davídsdóttir, 2019).	Considered a central concept in the discussion regarding the relationship between business and society, it is conceived as a commitment and a strategical process aimed at identifying, managing and answering to the company's social responsibilities. It is influenced by BE and it includes CP and CSR_2 .
Corporate Social Responsiveness (CSR_2)	"It refers to the capacity of a corporation to respond to social pressure. The advocates of social responsiveness see it as a more tangible, achievable concept than social responsibility" (McGee, 1998, p. 381; Kolb, 2008).	It developed in the early 1970s to answer the need for an alternative to CSR. CSR was Iin fact criticised for being too vague and more linked to obligations and motivations rather than performance. The main difference between CSR_1 and CSR_2 consists of stressing the orientation to action, so that their relationship is often thought of as a means-end continuum, one representing the principles of accountability ("what are the responsibilities of a company?") and the other the actions undertaken by the firms in this respect ("how does the firm respond?") (Ackerman and Bauer, 1976; Kolb, 2008).	Several authors have analysed the relationships between CSR_1, CSR_2 and BE. Some of them combined them under a unifying conceptual approach, e.g. The Corporate Social Policy Process or CSP. Far from being simply normative, in this study CSR is conceived as including responsiveness. $CSR_{2,}$ thus, consists of an action phase comprising management's response to social expectations (Epstein, 1987; Wood, 1991; Frederick, 1994; Kolb, 2008; Masoud, 2017).
Public Responsibility (PR)	"It concerns the functions of organizational management within the specific context of public policy" (Post and Preston, 1975, p. 10; Wood, 1991, p. 697).	Derived from Preston's and Post's studies, it is linked to the idea that businesses are not responsible for solving all social problems. They should, however, take responsibility for problems that they have caused, and for social issues which are connected to their business operations and interests (Wood, 1991).	Incorporated by Wood as one of the main CSR principles, it is also considered one of the steps of the corporate social performance model, at the organisational level. Moreover, it has main points in common with PCSR (Wood, 1991).

Corporate Social Performance (CSP)	This concept focuses on actual results achieved rather than the more general idea of responsibility to society. Its focus on performance suggests, in fact, that what really matters is the result or the outcomes of social responsibility initiatives (Wood, 1991; Kolb, 2008).	CSP appeared in the mid-1970s and it has been developed following corporate social responsiveness literature. One of the first authors to introduce the concept was Sethi in 1975. Carrol further developed the concept, creating a Social Performance Model which gathers and combines the four social responsibility categories, the modes of social responsiveness and the social issues involved. The latest revision of this model traces back to Wood (1991). Although these models try to combine CSR and the related terminologies, they foster a conceptual approach whose results are applicable by practitioners (Sethi, 1975; Carroll, 1979; Carroll and Buchholtz, 2012).	While some consider CSP a natural consequence of CSR, others define it as a configuration of principles of social responsibility. It also comprises processes of social responsiveness and observable outcomes which relate to the firm's societal relationships. The researcher believes, instead, that CSP mainly refers to the outcomes and measurement process and that it constitutes the final step of a company's CSR strategy.
Corporate Social Rectitude (CSR_3)	This refers to "the moral correctness of the actions or policies taken" (Carroll and Buchholtz, 2012, p.45).	Introduced by Frederick in 1986, in addition to responsibility and responsiveness, it is an interesting construct since, according to him, it acknowledges that ethics belongs to the core of management policies and decisions. It trains managers in accepting and practising the central role of ethics in their everyday activities. It holds analytical tools that can help them to detect ethical problems and it tries to align company's policies with ethical values (Frederick, 1986, 2006).	Conceived as strictly related to CSR_1 and CSR_2, rectitude represents more the ideal goal of corporate practices than a facet or strategic element of CSR_1.

Corporate Sustainability (CS)	This concept derives from an understanding of "the interconnectedness of human activity with all related man-made and naturally occurring systems" (Kolb, 2008 p. 2030; Hahn *et al.*, 2018). Its main goal is the achievement of a sustainable development or rather "seeking to meet the needs and aspirations of present society without compromising the ability to meet those of future generations" (Carroll and Buchholtz, 2012, p. 107).	The term was introduced by the Bruntland Commission in 1987 and initially referred to the impact human activities have on the natural environment. Successively it became broader, englobing other environments as business and exploring how our generation moves into the future and what its relationship with current resources is (Carroll and Buchholtz, 2012).	Often used interchangeably with CSR, CSP and Corporate Citizenship, CS is rooted in the sustainable development literature. Whereas at the beginning it included only environmental aspects, it has recently started to also include social and economic aspects considered fundamental for the achievement of a sustainable development. The author agrees with Linnanen and Panapanaan who suggest CS represents the business contribution to social development, and therefore the ultimate goal of CSR and results from a good corporate social rectitude (van Marrewijk, 2003).
Corporate Citizenship (CC)	This refers to the "ways in which a company's strategies and operating practices affect its stakeholders, the natural environment, and the societies where the business operates" (Kolb, 2018, p. 45).	Although the term was used within the legal field before the 20th century, it appeared in academia starting from 1992 (e.g. Karen Paul and the journal "Citizenship Studies"). The idea of the firm as citizen emerged as a consequence of the crisis of the Welfare State and globalisation. However, it gained relevance from 1997, when many corporate reports started adopting the concept (e.g. the Hitachi Foundation's corporate report). The introduction of this new term derives from another attempt to find an alternative to CSR. In fact, it stresses the fact that the corporation should see itself recapturing its place within society next to other citizens with whom the company forms a community (Matten, Crane and Chapple, 2003; Waddock, 2008; Kolb,	The term is used in different ways. According to some authors, corporate citizenship encompasses CSR. Others see them as overlapping, whilst a few scholars see CC as a form of CP. In the most extended view, CC relates to how organisations govern the rights of citizens (Crane, Matten and Glozer, 2019). In this sense CC partly covers PCSR discussed here above. Compared to CSR, CC is relatively new and not widely supported. It also suffers from different interpretations, thus not solving CSR conceptual issues.

		2018; Crane, Matten and Glozer, 2019) (Matten, 2003; Kolb, 2008; Waddock, 2008).	
Political corporate social responsibility (PCSR)	"This refers to an extended model of governance with business firms contributing to global regulation and providing public goods" (Scherer and Palazzo, 2011, p. 901) or more generally exerting an intended/unintended political impact (Frynas and Stephens, 2015).	The concept, promoted by civil society actors, has been theoretically developed by Scherer and Palazzo (2007) and Frynas and Stephens (2015)(Scherer and Palazzo, 2007; Frynas and Stephens, 2015; Scherer, 2018). Researchers have only recently started to explore how firms can actually manage and assess political CSR (Wickert, 2016).	Far from being an alternative to CSR, this concept transcends its areas (e.g. social, economic…) to study their impact on the political sphere.
Corporate responsibility (CR)	This refers to "the ways in which a company's operating practices (policies, processes, and procedures) affect its stakeholders and the natural environment" (Waddock and Bodwell, 2004, p.25; Waddock, 2008)	The term derives from the previous concepts of CSR, CC and CS and has been introduced by Waddock. It paved the way for the discussion on and implementation of total responsibility management (Waddock, 2008; Blowfield and Murray, 2014).	Similar to CC or CS, according to Waddock, it englobes CSR, which is limited to discretionary responsibilities. One of the major critiques against CSR relates to the use of the word "social", highlighting a major prominence of social responsibilities over the others (e.g. economic, legal…). Although the author recognises the existence of a terminological issue, she embraces Carroll's vision of CSR and believes the two concepts mainly overlap. She, thus, endorses the use of CSR, since, the additional S should refer to the "who" and not the "what", focusing on the relationships of business towards "what relates to society and its organisation". CR, on the contrary, remains too general a term (Waddock, 2008).

Corporate environmental responsibility (ECR)	This concept refers to "the duty to cover the environmental implications of the company's operations, products and facilities; eliminate waste and emissions; maximize the efficiency and productivity of its resources; and minimize practices that might adversely affect the enjoyment of the country's resources by future generations" (Mazurkiewicz, 2004, p. 2)	The first studies on environmental aspects of CSR emerged in the late 90s. Studies on the concept increased rapidly starting from 2004 and after 2012 (Rahman and Post, 2012) due to the growing concern around climate change. ECR is currently one of the most studied aspects of CSR.	The concept does not represent an alternative to CSR but refers to a dimension of it, the environmental aspect.

Table 2.5 The responsibility of business: CSR and related constructs. Author's elaboration (2020).

Appendix A - Table 2.6 CSR - Historical evolution of the concept

The Origins – (1950-1959)

- 1953 - "*Social Responsibility of Businessmen*", Bowen
- 1957 - "*Management's Responsibility to Society: The Growth of an Idea*", Heald

Period characterised by the initial stages of the discussion fuelled by Bowen's book (1953). The business industry starts to consider its impact on and responsibilities towards society.

At the centre of debates – (1960-1969)

- 1960 – "*Can business afford to ignore social responsibilities*?", Davis
- 1962 – "*Capitalism and Freedom*", Friedman
- 1967 – "*Corporate Social Responsibilities,* Walton

Period characterised by social movements for civil rights and heated discussions over the economic (maximisation of profits – Friedman, 1962) versus social responsibilities of business (Davis, 1960). Scholars seek to formalise and define CSR.

<u>Other authors</u>: Frederick (1960), Eells and Walton (1961), Elbing and Elbing (1961), McGuire (1963)

The evolution of parallel universes – (1970-1979)

- 1971 – "*Social Responsibilities of Business Corporation*", CED
- 1972 – "*The Modern Corporation and Social Responsibility*", Manne and Wallich
- 1979 – "*A Three-dimensional Conceptual Model of Corporate Social Performance*", Carroll

Period characterised by a multiplication of CSR definitions and the introduction of the idea of voluntarism. New alternative concepts also appear: CSR_2, CSR_3, PR and CSP. Carroll (1979) develops a multidimensional model including four facets of responsibility. Companies start to react and manage their CSR as well as society's expectations.

<u>Other authors</u>: Johnson (1971), Steiner (1971), Davis (1973), Eells and Walton (1974), Bowman and Haire (1975), Preston and Post (1975), Sethi (1975), Holmes (1976), Fitch (1976), Carroll (1979), Monsen (1979), Zeniesk (1979).

The focus on operationalisation and performance – (1980-1989)

- 1980 – "*Corporate Social Responsibility Revised*", Jones
- 1983 – "*Corporate Social Responsibility: Will Industry Respond to Cut-backs in Social Program Funding?*", Carroll
- 1984 – "*The Practice of Management*"- Drucker

Period characterised by a focus on the operationalisation and performances (business case approach). CSR is analysed in the light of CSP, accepted as a more comprehensive theory and confronted with CFP. New alternative concepts and theories appear: CS, stakeholder theory and sustainable development.

<u>Other authors</u>: Tuzzolino and Armandi (1981), Dalton and Cosier (1982), Strand (1983), Steven, Wartick and Cochran (1985), Epstein (1987).

The stakeholder integration – (1990-1999)

- 1991 – "*The Pyramid of Corporate Social Responsibility: Toward the Moral Management of Organizational Stakeholders*", Carroll
- 1994 – "*The politics of stakeholder theory: Some future directions",* Freeman
- 1999 – "*Corporate social responsibility*", Carroll

Period characterised by the integration of stakeholder's theories, accepted by the majority of academics and rejection of the term "social". CSR and CSP head towards consolidation while new concepts emerge: CC.

Other authors: Bowie (1991), Donna (1991), Swanson (1995) Burke and Logsdon (1996), Pava and Krausz (1996), Hart (1997), Murray and Vogel (1997), Balablanis *et al.* (1998), Reich (1998), Kolk *et al.* (1999).

The consolidation of theory and practices – (2000-2009)

- 2001 – "*Does Doing Good Always Lead to Doing Better? Consumer Reactions to Corporate Social Responsibility*", Freeman and Lietdka
- 2005 – "*Corporate Social Responsibility*", Kotler and Lee
- 2008 – "*The Link between Competitive Advantage and Corporate Social Responsibility*", Porter and Kramer

Period characterised by a more open view of the outcomes of CSR not only limited to the CSP-CFP comparison but also to more intangible effects in terms of competitive advantage and impact on consumers. New theories supporting CSR are investigated: institutional theory, theory of the firm. The term social is superceded and the concept of CR takes its first steps.

Other authors: Greening and Turban (2000), Lantos (2001), McWilliams and Siegel (2001), Van Marrewijk (2003), Maignan and Ferrell (2004), Luo and Bhattacharya (2006), Williams and Siegel (2006), Matten and Moon (2008), Waddock (2008), Argandona and Hoivik (2009).

The future of CSR – (2010-2020)

- 2010– "*Strategic Corporate Social Responsibility: Stakeholders in a Global Environment",* Werther and Chandler
- 2015 - *Corporate social responsibility: The centerpiece of competingand complementary frameworks*, Carroll

Period characterised by the spread of CSR-related ideas: shared values approach, hybrid organisations, BoP initiatives and social entrepreneurship. CSR remains at the centre of the debate as well as its outcomes and the mechanisms through which it can achieve a positive impact at a behavioural level. CS and CSR are often used as synonyms, the first providing a more comprehensive framework. The academic debate shifts onto macro and micro CSR.

Other authors: Porter and Kramer (2011), Frynas and Stephens (2014), Carroll (2015), Husted (2015), Jamali *et al.* (2015), Glavas (2016), Alvarado-Herrera et al. (2017), Gond et al. (2017), Jones et al. (2017), Tian and Robertson (2019).

Table 2.6. Historical evolution of CSR. Author's elaboration (2019).

Appendix A – Table 2.7 CSR Theories

Selected CSR Theories		
Economic Theories *(Economics)* This first group of theories assumes that corporation is an instrument of wealth creation. Therefore, if CSR is to be implemented, it has to pursue economic objectives. The majority of theories pertain to the field of strategic management and marketing. The key author of this group is Friedman.	*The Agency Theory* (1973)	This theory investigates risk sharing among individuals or groups and, specifically, the principal-agent relationship. It deals with issues occurring in agency relationships: conflicts that arise when the desires of the principal and agent are in contrast and it is complicated or expensive for the former to check what the agent is actually doing. Derived from the economic literature, it was introduced by Ross (1973) and Jensen and Meckling (1976) and successively developed following two main streams: positivist and principal-agent. It supports the "self-interest approach" (see profit-maximization theory) according to which the maximisation of the shareholder value is the best criterion to evaluate corporate social activities, and socio-economic objectives should be separate from economic objectives. Following this view and in line with Friedman's opinion (1970), CSR is considered the signal of an agency problem within the organisation and is reduced to an "executive perk" (Eisenhardt, 1989; Garriga and Melé, 2004; McWilliams, Siegel and Wright, 2006).
	Resource Dependence Theory (1978)	This theory discusses the importance of the relationships the organisation has with external actors with regard to access to the resources (e.g. labour, capital, raw material…). It was developed by Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) and highlights the idea that organisational actions are strictly related to their dependencies that can easily influence them due to their greater control over resources. Constituency-based theory is considered an extension of RDT. Both theories are strictly related to the stakeholder theory developed a few years later. The main difference between them is the focus on wealth maximisation of the stakeholder's equity characterising this group, which justifies their inclusion within instrumental theories and highlights its similarity with agency theory (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978; Shaukat, Qiu and Trojanowski, 2016).
	Competition-based theory – Competitive advantage (1980)	According to this theory an organisation's main objective is to manage resources in order to develop a sustainable competitive advantage over rivals. Competitive advantage is seen as superiority gained by a firm when it can provide the same value as its competitors but with more benefits. The most renowned author in this field is Porter (1980). According to Porter and Kramer, social investments in a competitive context and philanthropic activities in particular can be useful to improve the competitive advantage and create greater social value than individual donors or governments. Following some supporters of the natural resource-based theory (Wernerfelt, 1984; Barney, 1991) who believe competitive advantage resides in the interaction of human, organisational and

		physical resources over time, social and ethical capabilities can play an important role (see “the dynamic capabilities approach”). This second approach is strictly related, although opposed, to the resource dependence theory. Other authors such as Prahalad believe that the use of disruptive innovations can advance the social and economic conditions at the bottom of the economic pyramid and enhance the competitive advantage of the firm. Therefore, this theory supports and justifies the implementation of CSR programmes (Garriga and Melé, 2004; Porter and Kramer, 2006).
	Cause-related marketing strategy (1983)	This is a “self-interest approach” according to which businesses and charities or causes develop a partnership in order to promote an image, a product or a service for mutual interests. A firm, thus, can promote its tangible and intangible products in conjunction with a good cause. While raising money for that cause, the company can manifest its identity and values and improve, at the same time, its reputation, consumer loyalty and purchase. The term was first coined by American Express in a campaign to restore the Statue of Liberty in 1983. While the other theories come from strategic management, cause-related marketing, on the other hand, is a marketing strategy. It has been included among the instrumental theories since it has been considered a framework for the communication and the justification of the adoption of social activities (Adkins, 1999; Garriga and Melé, 2004; Randle, Kemperman and Dolnicar, 2019).
Political Theories *(Politics)* This second group questions the origin of society and legitimacy. These theories focus on the social power of corporations and their responsibilities within the political arena. In addition to the ones included in this chart, it is possible to mention also the following theoretical perspectives	*The Corporate Law Theory – Corporate Constitutionalism* (1960)	This theory posits that the corporation is a “nexus of contracts”. A complementary account of this theory is the so-called corporate constitutionalism developed by Davis around 1960. According to Davis, social responsibilities of businessmen derive from the level of social power they hold. He developed two principles that explain how social power can be managed: “the social power equation” and the “the iron law of responsibility”. Without entering into details that would require a more suitable space, it is important to underline that this paved the way for the development of the later concept of political corporate social responsibility or corporate political responsibility (Davis, 1967; Garriga and Melé, 2004; Frynas and Stephens, 2015; Scherer, 2018).
	Legitimacy Theory (1974)	This deals with how organisational structures as a whole have gained acceptance from society at large. Conceived by Shocker and Sethi (1974) and Preston and Post (1975) and revised by Suchman in 1995, it sees businesses as bound by a social contract: firms accept performing some socially desired actions in exchange for approval. This ensures their continued existence. Strictly connected to the previous theories, it represents a framework/primary explanation used to justify corporate social disclosure and corporate social reporting (Shocker and Sethi, 1974; Post and Preston, 1975; Perks *et al.*, 2013; Chan, Watson and Woodliff, 2014; Schaltegger and Hörisch, 2017).

used to justify political CSR: Habermasian theory, Institutional theory and Rawlsian. The key authors are Donaldson and Dunfee.	*Social Contract Theory* (1982) and *Integrative Social Contract Theory* (1994)	The first, developed by Donaldson in 1982, claims that an implicit social contract exists between business and society. In 1994 Donaldson and Dunfee expanded this approach proposing the Integrative Social Contract Theory which takes into account the social-cultural context, integrating empirical and normative aspects of management. According to them, social responsibilities come from consent and the participants of the social contract can define and agree upon the rules (hyper-norms), legitimising it. They thus identify two levels of consent: macro-social (refers to all rational contractors) and micro-social (refers to localised communities). These theories are at the basis of the concept of corporate citizenship (Donaldson, 1982; Donaldson and Dunfee, 1994; Garriga and Melé, 2004; Sacconi, 2007; Jahn and Brühl, 2018).
Social Theories *(Social integration)* The third group of theories considers it necessary for business to integrate social demands. Compared to the other two groups their focus is on society and they claim that business depends on society for its existence. The key authors of this group are Freeman and Carroll.	*Issues Management Process* (1976)	This theory supports a leadership process for the management of organisational and community resources through the public policy process. Its main goal consists of advancing the interests and rights of the company, by obtaining a mutual balance with those of stakeholders and thus managing issues. An issue is a controversial inconsistency caused by gaps between the expectations of corporations and those of the audience. The theory was coined in 1976 by Chase, but the idea is older and was lately embraced by public relations and public affairs practitioners. This multifunctional discipline is strictly connected to Legitimacy Theory and considered to complement stakeholder theory. It also paved the way for the creation of corporate social responsiveness (Watson and Jaques, 2008; Weiss, 2008).
	Public Policy approach (1975)	This is an approach developed by Preston and Post in 1975 in order to solve the corporate dilemma of business involvement in society. It determines the level of involvement of managers in social responsibility activities, distinguishing between direct and indirect functional activities. The success of social involvement is linked to public policy which includes not only law and regulations, but also social directions, values and commitments reflected in public opinion. Its development can be linked to the structural-functionalism paradigm, according to which society is a complex system whose parts collaborate in order to promote solidarity and stability. Opposed to the concept of corporate social responsiveness, the public policy approach paved the way for the public responsibility concept (Oberman, 1996; Garriga and Melé, 2004).
	Stakeholder Theory (1984)	This theory represents a systematic study of the company's relationships with its stakeholders, their origins, and their implications for how it behaves. According to this perspective, organisations are expected to manage responsibly the interests of an extended network of stakeholders comprising customers, employees, suppliers, investors as well as local communities and the environment. Despite its existence in other areas, the concept of stakeholder appeared in the organisation and management literature only in the early 1960s. However, it established itself only in the mid-1980s thanks to Freeman's book "Strategic management: A stakeholder

		approach". By suggesting that the needs of shareholders cannot be met without satisfying the needs of other stakeholders, Freeman's approach offered a new way to organise thinking about business responsibilities and CSR. Its main goal is to achieve maximum cooperation between the public and the objective of the corporation. It can thus considered a framework for the implementation of effective CSR strategies, and many authors already consider it a necessary process for its operationalisation and a complimentary rather than conflicting body of literature (Jamali, 2008; Russo and Perrini, 2010; Brown and Forster, 2013; Theodoulidis *et al.*, 2017).
	Triple Bottom Line Approach (1997)	This supports the view that firms' responsibilities go beyond simple economic aspects. It integrates social and environmental measures of performance with economic measures already adopted in most organisations. It therefore strengthens CSR and stakeholder theory, providing a new instrument for the measurement of organisational performance. The term "Triple Bottom Line" dates back to 1997 when Elkington published a paper entitled "*Cannibals With Forks: The Triple Bottom Line of 21st Century Business*". Whereas many use this term as synonymous with CSR, the 3BL movement focuses on measurement and reporting, providing managers with an effective tool to assess CSR activities (Elkington, 1998; Norman and MacDonald, 2004; Hubbard, 2009; Hussain, Rigoni and Orij, 2018).
Ethical Theories *(Ethics)* The last group includes all the theories that claim that the relationship between business and society is embedded with ethical values.	*Sustainable Development Approach* (1987)	This is an approach that focuses on "meeting the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability to meet future generations' needs" (IISD – 2020). It relies on the integration of social, environmental and economic dimensions to make balanced judgments for the long term. The term, developed in 1987 during the World Commission on Environment and Development, has been widely adopted by CSR scholars and can be interpreted as a values-based concept. In line with previous scholars, CSR can be seen as a fundamental business contribution to Sustainable Development (van Marrewijk, 2003; Garriga and Melé, 2004; Alvarado-Herrera *et al.*, 2017a).
	Normative Stakeholder Theory (1988)	This re-elaborates stakeholder theory from an ethical rather than a social perspective. Already introduced by Freeman (1984) who supported the idea of stakeholders as moral agents, it has been further developed by him and some of his colleagues such as Gilbert and Evan in 1988 and, later on, Donaldson and Preston (1995) and Philips (1997). It defends the social responsibilities of business, claiming that managers must have moral responsibilities to other people connected with a business and not just to its shareholders. According to the author, this approach can be justified taking from the Kantian capitalism, modern theories of properties and distributive justice or libertarian theories. As the traditional stakeholder theory, it is considered an effective framework for the implementation of CSR strategies (Garriga and Melé, 2004; Reynolds and Yuthas, 2008; Carroll and Buchholtz, 2012).

	The Common Good Approach (1991)	This is a classical approach according to which business has to contribute to the common good as much as any other social group in the society. The concept of common good is rooted in the Aristotelian tradition and has subsequently been developed by Christian theologians and philosophers. It thus entered the discussion on corporate responsibilities in the 1990s thanks to the article by Mahon and McGowan. 'Common good' refers to the conditions of life in a society that allow groups and individuals to achieve their own fulfilment. Although widely criticised for being inconsistent with our pluralistic society, it has been used as a referential value for CSR and also as a foundation for the stakeholder theory (Mahon and McGowan, 1991; Garriga and Melé, 2004; Velasquez *et al.*, 2014; Frémeaux and Michelson, 2017).
	Human rights-based approach (1999)	Human rights are defined as the "basic moral guarantees that people in all countries and cultures allegedly have simply because they are people" (Nickel, 1987). Many theories have been used to justify the existence of human rights: the interests theory (Finnis), the will theory (Hart), ipso facto legal rights theory (Khan), and natural law theories (Artistotle, D'Aquinas). For instance, the natural law theory refers to a type of moral theory according to which moral standards governing human behaviour are objectively derived from the nature of human beings and the nature of the world. In view of the several criticisms levelled at the previous theories, Sen has recently advocated a human rights theory. Human-rights-based approaches have been used to support/justify CSR and the principles have been integrated with business ethics to create the UN Global Compact, presented at the World Economic Forum in 1999 (Garriga and Melé, 2004; Sen, 2004; Wettstein, 2012; Buhmann, Jonsson and Fisker, 2019).

Table 2.7. CSR Theories. Adapted from Garriga and Melé (2004). Author's elaboration (2015).

Appendix A – Table 2.8 CSR Definitions

Selected CSR Definitions	
Academic publications	
Davis (1960)	"Businessmen's decisions and actions taken for reasons at least partially beyond the firm's direct economic or technical interest" (Davis, 1960, p.40).
Frederick (1960)	"It means that businessmen should oversee the operation of an economic system that fulfils the expectations of the public. And this in turn means that the economy's means of production should be employed in such a way that production and distribution should enhance total socio-economic welfare. Social responsibility in the final analysis implies a public posture toward society's economic and human resources and a willingness to see that those resources are used for broad social ends and not simply for the narrowly circumscribed interests of private persons and firms" (Frederick, 1960, p.60).
Walton (1967)	"It recognises the intimacy of the relationships between the corporation and society and realises that such relationships must be kept in mind by top managers as the corporation and the related groups pursue their respective goals" (Walton, 1967, p. 163).
Johnson (1971)	"It is the pursuit of socioeconomic goals through the elaboration of social norms in prescribed business roles; or to put it more simply, business takes place within a socio-cultural system that outlines through norms and business roles particular ways of responding to particular situations and sets out in some detail the prescribed ways of conducting business affairs"(Johnson, 1971, p.51).
Davis (1973)	"It refers to the firm's consideration of, and response to, issues beyond the narrow economic, technical and legal requirements of the firm" (Davis, 1973, p. 302).
Carroll (1979)	"It encompasses the economic, legal, ethical and discretionary expectations that society has of organisations at a given point in time" (Carroll, 1979, p.498).
Jones (1980)	"It is the notion that corporations have an obligation to constituent groups of society other than shareholders and beyond that prescribed by law and union contract. Two facets of this definition are critical. First, the obligation must be voluntarily adopted; behaviour influenced by coercive forces of law or union construct is not voluntary. Second, the obligation is a broad one, extending beyond the traditional duty to shareholders to other societal groups such as customers, employees, suppliers and neighbouring communities" (Jones, 1980, pp. 59-60).
Epstein (1987)	"It relates primarily to achieving outcomes from organisational decisions concerning specific issues or problems which (by some normative standard) have beneficial rather than adverse effects on pertinent corporate stakeholders" (Epstein, 1987, p. 104).
Roberts (1992)	"It refers to activities such as policies or actions which identify a company as being concerned with society-related issues" (Roberts, 1992, p. 595).
Reder (1994)	"It refers to both the way a company conducts its internal operations, including the way it treats its work force, and its impact on the world around it" (Reder, 1994, p. 105).

McWilliams and Siegel (2001)	"It refers to actions that appear to further some social good, beyond the interests of the firm and that which is required by law" (McWilliams and Siegel, 2001, p. 117; Attig *et al.*, 2016; Randle, Kemperman and Dolnicar, 2019; Schneider and Scherer, 2019).
Van Marrewijk (2003)	"It refers to company activities – voluntary by definition – demonstrating the inclusion of social and environmental concerns in business operations and in interactions with stakeholders" (van Marrewijk, 2003, p.102).
Kotler and Lee (2005)	"It is a commitment to improve community well-being through discretionary business practices and contributions of corporate resources" (Kotler and Lee, 2005, p.3).
Polmering and Dolnicar (2009)	"It represents the minimisation of negative externalities of a firm's operating activities and the maximisation of beneficial impacts on society" (Pomering and Dolnicar, 2009, p. 285).
Aguinis (2011)	"It refers to context-specific organisational actions and policies that take into account stakeholders' expectations and the triple bottom line of economic, social, and environmental performance" (Aguinis, 2011, p.858; Gond *et al.*, 2017; Aguinis and Glavas, 2019).
Sen et al. (2016)	"A firm's or brand's commitment to maximize long-term economic, societal, and environmental well-being through business practices, policies, and resources" (Sen, Du and Bhattacharya, 2016, p.70; Xie, Bagozzi and Grønhaug, 2019).
Jones et al. (2017)	"Company's discretionary actions and policies that appear to advance societal well-being beyond its immediate financial interests and legal requirements" (Jones, Willness and Glavas, 2017, p.520).
Tian and Robertson (2019)	"Perceived presence of socially and environmentally responsible practices and policies that aim to enhance the welfare of various stakeholders" (Tian and Robertson, 2019, p. 400).
Governmental/International Organisations' websites and publications	
World Business Council for Sustainable Development (2000)	"It refers to the commitment of business to contribute to sustainable economic development, working with employees, their families, the local community and society at large to improve their quality of life" (WBCSD, 2000, p. 10).
Commission of the European Communities (2001)	"It is a concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in the business operations and in their interactions with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis" (European Commission, 2001, p.6; Ministero del Lavoro e delle Politiche Sociali, 2020).
OECD (2001)	"Business's contribution to sustainable development. Today, corporate behaviour must not only ensure returns to shareholders, wages to employees, and products and services to customers, it must also respond to societal and environmental concerns" (OECD, 2001)
Global Corporate Responsibility Project (2003)	"It represents business practices based on ethical values and respect for workers, communities and the environment" (Global Corporate Social Responsibility Policies Project, 2003, p.8).
UK Government (2014)	"It is a voluntary action which businesses take over and above legal requirements to manage and enhance economic, environmental and societal impacts. It is about being a responsible business and, as a part of an integrated and strategic approach, creates shared value for business and society. The exact approach varies and is influenced by factors such as

	business size, sector and locality. In an increasingly volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous world, many UK based companies are leading the way" (Department for Business Innovation & Skills, 2014, p. 3).
US Government (2016)	"It is a broad concept based on the idea that businesses can perform well while doing good and that governments should set and facilitate the conditions for RBC to take place. The concept places particular importance on two aspects of the business-society relationship: (1) emphasizing and accentuating the positive contributions businesses can make to economic, environmental, and social progress; and (2) recognizing and avoiding possible adverse impacts of business conduct, as well as addressing them when they occur" (U.S. Department of State, 2016).
Government of Canada (2019)	"It refers to the voluntary activities undertaken by a company to operate in an economic, social and environmentally sustainable manner" (Government of Canada, 2019).
United Nations Industrial Development Organization (2020)	"It is a management concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and interactions with their stakeholders. CSR is generally understood as being the way through which a company achieves a balance of economic, environmental and social imperatives ("Triple-Bottom-Line-Approach"), while at the same time addressing the expectations of shareholders and stakeholders. In this sense it is important to draw a distinction between CSR, which can be a strategic business management concept, and charity, sponsorships or philanthropy. Even though the latter can also make a valuable contribution to poverty reduction, will directly enhance the reputation of a company and strengthen its brand, the concept of CSR clearly goes beyond that" (UNIDO, 2020).

Table 2.8. CSR definitions: A chrono-story. Adapted from Carroll (1999), Dahlsrud (2008) and Latapí Agudelo et al. (2019). Author's elaboration (2020).

Appendix B – Qualitative Research Instruments

Topic Guide – Focus Groups (UK)

Good morning. Thank you for taking the time to join this focus group.

My name is Cristina Fona, I am a researcher in marketing at Middlesex University (London), and I am the moderator of this session. This focus group is part of my PhD research which focuses on the social responsibility image of countries. In my work, I am interested in understanding what constitutes the social responsibility of countries and how the ethical/unethical behaviour of a country might affect its attractiveness as a place to live/study.

During this hour and a half, I will ask you a few questions and I will listen to what you have to say. I will not participate in the coversation, but I will enter the discussion to facilitate the debate and ensure that everyone can participate. Please, feel free to interact and respond to each other. There are no right or wrong answers.

Before we begin, let me give you a few suggestions that will make our discussion more productive. Since I will be recording for an accurate record, it is important that you speak up and that you only speak one at a time. We will only use first names here. No reports will link what you say to your name, department, or institution. In this way, we will maintain your confidentiality. In addition, I would like to ask that you respect the confidentiality of everyone here. Please do not repeat who said what, when you leave this room.

Finally, once again I would like to highlight that the participation in this focus group is voluntary. As specified in the informed consent form you read and signed, you can decline to answer any questions and you are free to stop taking part in the project at any time.

If it is ok with you, I will turn the recorder on and start the session now. This focus group is conducted for the social responsibility image of countries study on [date] by Cristina Fona.

Topic guide – Focus Groups (UK)		
Construct	**Questions**	**References**
Opening questions		
	Before we start can you please tell me your first name, your country of origin (what year and course you are in/) and what is your main area of study/ research? Could you please tell me if you have ever had work/internship/education experiences abroad? Would you be interested in an experience abroad for any of these reasons? In which countries? How long?* ** Tell me about your experience. What brought you to that country? / What was your main motivation? What elements have you taken into consideration when deciding to move?*	Protocol opening question (Krueger and Casey, 2014)
Introductory questions		
ICSR	**1. What does the concept of responsibility mean to you?** *What does it mean to be responsible to you? When did you feel responsible for someone/ something? Feel free to use examples. Think about yourself as citizen, father, mother, teacher, consumer, etc. In which occasion have you felt more responsible?* **2. Have you ever heard of companies' programmes or products developed to improve or help the society or the environment (so-called CSR activities)?*** *What is your relationship with these products and activities? Tell me about your experience. How much are these activities important to you? Do you engage with them? / or have you heard about companies accused of being irresponsible towards the environment/the society (e.g. the Volkswagen emissions scandal)? How do you react towards these companies? Would you still continue to buy those products?* **Examples of CSR activities are providing humanitarian support (e.g. support local non-profit organizations…), minimising the environmental impact (e.g. reduce CO_2*	Researcher's question e.g. (Strong, 1996; Carrigan and Attalla, 2001; Silberhorn and Warren, 2007; Mininni and Manuti. A., 2012; Carrington, Neville and Whitwell, 2014; Öberseder *et al.*, 2014; Vitell, 2015)

	emissions, recycle, develop eco-friendly products, preserve forest resources…), supporting human rights issues, promoting diversity and equal opportunities (e.g. promote global hiring, support women careers, promote the employment or programmes for people with disabilities…), establishing a safer workplace environment (promote a good work-life balance, support personal growth, ensure health and safety…), enhancing customer care (ensure product safety, strengthen customer support…), contributing to the local community (humanitarian/disaster relief, support to education, science, culture and sport).	
Transition questions		
ICSR/ Ethical beliefs	**3. In your opinion, what characterises a socially/environmentally conscious consumer*?** *What does he/she buy? Where? Try to describe him with adjectives. What does this consumer do?*	e.g. (Mininni and Manuti. A., 2012; Öberseder *et al.*, 2014)
	4. Tell me about your experience. For instance, tell me about three shopping experiences that involved strong ethical considerations. *E.g. Do you buy eco-labelled products, do you support recycling programmes, do you participate in voluntary programmes developed by companies (e.g. the recent Innocent's campaign "The big knit")? Let's go back to the adjectives you used to describe a responsible consumer. How many of them can you apply to yourself?*	e.g. (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Webster, 1975; Cooper-Martin and Holbrook, 1993; Newholm and Shaw, 2007; Carrington, Neville and Whitwell, 2014; Öberseder *et al.*, 2014; Innocent, 2020)
	5. We have discussed about the idea of bringing social change. I would like to ask you when have you done something that made you feel like you have made the difference, even with small gestures? Tell me what you have done. *For instance, recycling, participating in voluntary works, respecting the laws, supporting research, supporting CSR programmes, buying eco-friendly products…*	e.g. (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Webster, 1975; Cooper-Martin and Holbrook, 1993; Newholm and Shaw, 2007; Carrington, Neville and Whitwell, 2014; Öberseder *et al.*, 2014; Innocent, 2020)

	6. What guides those ethical actions? *What makes you feel like you should protect the environment for instance? E.g. religion, culture, education, family, personal values, experience, conscience…*	e.g. (Vyakarnam *et al.*, 1997; Freestone and McGoldrick, 2008; Mudrack and Mason, 2013; Vitell, 2015)
	Main questions	
SRIC	**7. Let's imagine applying the concept of social responsibility to places such as nations. How would you define, the social responsibility of a country?** *How should a country be to be defined as socially responsible? Describe it by using three adjectives.* *We can define social responsibility as the commitment of nations to contribute to sustainable development, integrating social and environmental imperatives in their operations while, at the same time, addressing the expectations of their citizens, institutions and enterprises and the international community. Does this summarise your view? Would you add anything?*	Researcher's question Researcher's definition
	8. What should a country do to be socially responsible? *In what kind of activities should it engage to be defined as socially responsible? Think about the UK. Let's imagine you are part of the government: how would you improve your life? And the life of the society?* *Let's think about the following areas:* ***environmental*** *(e.g. environmental education, reduction of CO_2 emissions, recycling programmes, nature preservation, policies for the management of chemical substances, reduction of the consumption of energy and water for individuals and companies, incentives for local companies that privilege eco-products)* ***socio- cultural*** *(e.g. safeguard the historic heritage, improvement of the health-care system, welfare system and infrastructures, improvement of education, promotion of social events)*	e.g. (Carroll, 1991; Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Lala, Allred and Chakraborty, 2009; Turker, 2009a; Pérez and del Bosque, 2013b; Öberseder *et al.*, 2014; Alvarado-Herrera *et al.*, 2017b)

	national and international politics *(e.g. provide a democratic system, a stable political environment and a fair legal system, cooperate with other governments on international issues, efficiently manage immigration, ensure sustainable levels of labour costs)* ***economy, development and employment*** *(e.g. provide adequate standard of living, enhance the economic development, enhance the production of high-quality products, ensure excellent workplace conditions, improve technology and industrialisation; incentivise the research…)* ***ethics*** *(e.g. promote equality, respect and integration, support NGOs and non-profit associations, promote voluntary projects in underdeveloped countries, be a fair mediator during international conflicts…)* **9. Can you provide the example of a country that is socially responsible and one that is not? What are their main characteristics?**	 Researcher's question
NBI and NBA	**10. Think about the country you consider as more socially responsible (except the UK). What is your relationship with this country?** *How much and in what terms do you feel connected with it?*	e.g. (Lauver and Kristof-Brown, 2001; Lichtenstein *et al.*, 2004; Marin and Ruiz, 2007; Stokburger-Sauer, Ratneshwar and Sen, 2012; Pérez and del Bosque, 2013b; Tuskej, Golob and Podnar, 2013)
	11. How much do you feel attracted by this country? What do you feel more attracted by? *For instance, made-in products? Cultural/historic/natural richness? The lifestyle or the work conditions in the country?*	e.g. (Turban and Greening, 1997; Gomes and Neves, 2011; Kim and Park, 2011)
IAJV	**12. Let' s imagine you have received a job offer from that country, what would you do?** **13. What are the most important elements in your choice?**	e.g. (Turban, 2001; Carless, 2005) e.g. (Zhang and Gowan, 2012)

	Let' s consider the pros again: what should be the pros that would make you accept? What are you expectations? **14. Under what conditions would you immediately leave again for a study/work experience abroad?** *Where would you go? For what reason? Would you come back to the countries you have previously been? Among the elements you have previously mentioned are there some you think are essential for you to decide to move?*	 Researcher's question
	Final questions	
Moderators (e.g. NBF, CI…)	**15. What are the other factors that would incentivise your decision to study/ accept a job offer in another country?** *For instance: language, similar culture, fair wages…* **16. How much does the perception of the university influence your decision?** *In what way? Think also about previous experiences if any. How much time do you devote to inform yourself about the university you are going to work?*	Researcher's question e.g. (Collins and Stevens, 2002; Chapman *et al.*, 2005; Tsai and Yang, 2010)
	Let's summarise the key points of our discussion (the moderator and assistant moderator give a brief summary of the responses to questions) Does this summary sound complete? Do you have any changes or additions?	Protocol final question (Krueger and Casey, 2014)

Informed consent – Focus Groups (UK)

Introduction and Purpose

My name is Cristina Fona and I am a researcher in marketing at Middlesex University, London. I would like to invite you to take part in my research study which concerns the social responsibility of countries.

Procedures

For the purpose of my research, I will conduct a focus group and I will ask you some questions concerning what constitutes the social responsibility of countries and what is its impact on the mobility of university highly-skilled resources (e.g. students, professors, PhDs…). The session should last about one hour and a half. With your permission, I will record and take notes during the interview. The recording is to accurately record the information you provide and will be used for transcription purposes only.

Confidentiality and Rights

Participation in this research is completely voluntary. You are free to decline to take part in the project. You can also decline to answer any questions and you are free to leave the session in any moment. Whether or not you choose to participate in the research and whether or not you choose to answer a question or continue participating in the project, there will be no penalty to you.

Data collected during this session will be handled as confidentially as possible. Subsequent uses of records and data will be subject to standard data use policies which protect the anonymity of individuals and institutions.

Follow-up

After this focus group I might ask some of you to participate to a one-to-one interview at the time and place of your convenience. The interview will only last one hour but would be really beneficial for this study, since it enables added clarification of certain concepts or ideas expressed during the session. If you are willing to be contacted for the interview, please provide your consent and your contact details below.

Consent

1. My participation in this project is voluntary. I understand that I will not be paid for my participation. I may withdraw and discontinue participation at any time without penalty. If I decline to participate or withdraw from the study, no one on my campus will be told.

2. I understand that the section won't involve sensitive questions. If, however, I feel uncomfortable in any way during the session, I have the right to decline to answer any question or to end the interview.

3. Participation involves being involved in a focus group discussion lead by researchers from Middlesex University. The section will last approximately one hour and a half. Notes will be written during the section. The focus group will be audio recorded. If I do not want to be recorded, I will not be able to participate in the study.

4. The researcher will distribute a brief socio-demographic questionnaire to be filled in before the beginning of the session. All the information provided will remain secure.

5. I understand that the researcher will not identify me by full name in any reports using information obtained from this focus group, and that my confidentiality as a participant in this study will remain secure. Subsequent uses of records and data will be subject to standard data use policies which protect the anonymity of individuals and institutions.

6. I understand that this research study has been reviewed and approved by the University Ethics Committee (UEC) of Middlesex University.

7. I have read and understood the explanation provided to me. I have had all my questions answered to my satisfaction, and I voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

8. I have been given a copy of this consent form.

If you wish to participate in this study, please sign and date below.

Participant's Name *(please print)*

_______________________________ ________________

Participant's Signature Date

Topic Guide – Interviews UK

Good morning. Thank you for taking the time to join this interview.

My name is Cristina Fona, I am a researcher in marketing at Middlesex University (London), and I am the moderator of this session. This interview is part of my PhD research which focuses on the social responsibility image of countries. In my work, I am interested in understanding what constitutes the social responsibility of countries and how the ethical/unethical behaviour of a country might affect its attractiveness as a place to live/study.

During the next hour, I will ask you a few questions and I will listen to what you have to say. There are no right or wrong answers, so feel free to express your own opinions. All the information you will provide during the interview will remain confidential and will only be used for the purpose of this research.

I would also like to highlight that participation is completely voluntary. Therefore, you can decide if you want to participate to this research or not, you can decline to answer any questions and you are free to stop taking part in the project at any time. To ensure an accurate record I will take notes and record our conversation, as specified in the informed consent form.

I ask you to read the document carefully and, if you agree to all the conditions, I ask you to sign it before proceeding with the interview.

If it is ok with you, I will turn the recorder on and start the session now. This interview is conducted for the social responsibility of countries study on [*date*] by Cristina Fona.

Topic Guide - Interviews (UK)		
Name of the interviewee: **Date:** **Place:** **Duration of the interview:** **Interviewer:**		
Introduction – Personal details		
Constructs	**Questions**	**List of references**
Personal details	Tell me something about you: what is your first name, your country of origin, what year and course are you in/ what is your title and what is your main area of study/research. Could you please tell me if you have ever had work/internship/education experiences abroad? Would you be interested to go abroad for any of these reasons? How long? (Q.18) **Tell me about your experience. What made you decide to move to that country? /What was your main reason? What elements have you taken into consideration in your decision to move?*	Protocol opening question – Researcher's question
Introduction - CSR awareness and ICSR		
ICSR	**1. What does the concept of responsibility mean to you?** *Describe it to me. What does it mean to you to be responsible? When did you feel responsible… Feel free to use some examples. Think about yourself as citizen, father, mother, teacher, consumer…In what occasion have you felt more responsible?*	Researcher's question e.g. (Gough, McClosky and Meehl, 1952; Berkowitz and Daniels, 1964)
	2. How much do you engage with politics?	e.g. (Gough, McClosky and Meehl, 1952; Berkowitz and Daniels, 1964; Strong, 1996; Carrigan and Attalla, 2001)

	For instance, do you actively support your party? Do you inform yourself about referendums, political issues…? Do you regularly vote and would you be ashamed not using your right to vote? Do you participate to manifestation to defend your rights/opinions?	
	3. How much do you take care of other people? *What do you do? Who are those people? Parents, colleagues, people in difficulty e.g. homeless, refugees, disabled, old people…*	e.g. (Gough, McClosky and Meehl, 1952)
	In our life we live in close connection with several companies (e.g. as employees or consumers of products/services). Nowadays, the majority of them acknowledge their impact on society and the environment.	e.g. (Carroll, 1979, 1991; Maignan and Ferrell, 2001; Singh, de los Salmones Sanchez and Bosque, 2008; Öberseder *et al.*, 2014)
	4. Have you ever heard of companies' programmes or products developed to improve or help the society or the environment (so-called CSR activities)?*	
	or companies accused of being irresponsible towards the environment/the society (e.g. the Volkswagen emissions scandal)? What is your relation with these products and activities? Tell me about your experience. How much are those activities important for you? Do you engage with them?	e.g. (Strong, 1996; Carrigan and Attalla, 2001; Silberhorn and Warren, 2007; Mininni and Manuti. A., 2012; Carrington, Neville and Whitwell, 2014; Öberseder *et al.*, 2014; Vitell, 2015)
	**Examples of CSR activities are providing humanitarian support (e.g. support local non-profit organizations…), minimizing the environmental impact (e.g. reduce CO_2 emissions, recycle, ethically manage chemical substances, develop eco-products, conserve forest resources…), concerning for human rights issues and promoting diversity and equal opportunities (e.g. promote global hiring, support women careers, promote the employment or programmes for persons with disabilities…), establish a proper workplace environment (promote a good work-life balance, support personal growth, guarantee health and safety…), enhance customer care (ensure product safety, strengthen customer support…), regional and community*	e.g. (Carroll, 1991; Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Lala, Allred and Chakraborty, 2009; Turker, 2009a; Pérez and del Bosque, 2013b; Öberseder *et al.*, 2014; Alvarado-Herrera *et al.*, 2017b)

	contributions (humanitarian/disaster relief, support to education, science, culture and sport). **5. When was the last time that you have you done something that made you feel like you have made the difference, even with small gestures? Tell me what you have done.** *What do you do for instance as a consumer? Tell me about three shopping experiences that involved ethical considerations. E.g., Do you buy eco-labelled products, do you support recycling programmes, do you participate in voluntary programmes developed by companies (e.g. the recent Innocent's campaign "The big knit")?*	e.g. (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Webster, 1975; Cooper-Martin and Holbrook, 1993; Newholm and Shaw, 2007; Öberseder, Schlegelmilch and Gruber, 2011; Carrington, Neville and Whitwell, 2014; Innocent, 2020)
	6. How much is important for you to give something back to the community? What do you do? *Do you participate in voluntary programmes, contribute to charities, help old/disadvantaged people…? Pay taxes regularly? Respect the law?*	e.g. (Gough, McClosky and Meehl, 1952; United Nations, 2002; Pérez and del Bosque, 2013b; Carrington, Neville and Whitwell, 2014)
	7. What guide those ethical behaviours? *What makes you feel like you should protect the environment for instance? E.g. religion, culture, education, family, personal values, experience, conscience, moral…*	e.g. (Hunt and Vitell, 1986, 2006; Vyakarnam *et al.*, 1997; Freestone and McGoldrick, 2008; Mudrack and Mason, 2013; Lu, Chang and Chang, 2015; Vitell, 2015)
R1. What are the dimensions and limits of the social responsibility image of countries?		
SRIC	As companies, also nations (e.g. UK, Japan, Italy…) should develop social responsibility plans and give something back to the world **8. What is your view on this statement?** *Do you think that nations already apply forms of social responsibility? To what extent? For instance, do you think that there should be a greater commitment from governments? or more communication?*	e.g. (United Nations, 2002; Anholt, 2010)

	9. How would you define, in your own words, the social responsibility of a country*? *How should a country be to be defined as socially responsible? Describe it using three adjectives.* **We can define social responsibility as the commitment of nations to contribute to sustainable development, integrating social and environmental imperatives in their operations while, at the same time, addressing the expectations of their citizens, institutions and enterprises and the international community. Does this summarise your view? Would you add anything?*	Researcher's question Researcher's definition
	10. What should a country do to be socially responsible? *In what kind of activities should it engage to be defined as socially responsible? Think about the UK. Let's imagine you are part of the government: how would you improve your life? and the life of the society?* *Let's think about those areas:* ***environment*** *(e.g. environmental education, reduction of CO_2 emissions, recycling programmes, nature preservation, policies for the management of chemical substances, energy and water for individuals and companies, incentivise local companies and companies that privilege eco-products)* ***socio- cultural*** *(e.g. safeguard of the historic heritage, improvement of the health-care system, welfare system and infrastructures, improvement of education, promotion of social events)* ***national and international politics*** *(e.g. provide a democratic system, a stable political environment and a fair legal system, cooperate with other governments on international issues, efficiently manage immigration, ensure sustainable levels of labour costs)* ***economy and employment*** *(e.g. provide adequate standard of living, enhance the economic development, enhance the production of high-quality*	e.g. (Carroll, 1991; Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Lala, Allred and Chakraborty, 2009; Turker, 2009a; Pérez and del Bosque, 2013b; Öberseder *et al.*, 2014; Alvarado-Herrera *et al.*, 2017b)

	products, ensure excellent workplace conditions, improve technology and industrialisation; incentivise the research…) ***ethics*** *(e.g. promote equality, respect and integration, support NGOs and non profit associations, promote voluntary projects in underdeveloped countries, be a fair mediator during international conflicts…)* **11. Give me an example of one country, which is socially responsible, and one that is not. What are their main characteristics?** **12. What do you think about the companies belonging to those countries?** *Are there any companies that influenced your choice? Are there any of them particularly re-known for their commitment to environmental/societal issue? (e.g. Ikea)* **13. Tell me your view on the social responsibility of these countries: US, Japan, Italy, UK and China.**	 Researcher's question Researcher's question Researcher's question
RQ2 - What are SRIC consequences in a nation branding context? **RQ6 – How does nation brand familiarity moderate the relationship between social responsibility image of countries and nation brand identification?**		
NBI	**14. Let's consider the country you believe is the most socially responsible (except the UK). What is your relationship with it?** *How much and in what terms do you feel connected with it? Would you describe it as a cognitive or affective connection? (See Q. 14)* **15. How much do you think that your personality fits with the country?** *Have you ever found yourself in a situation in which people were criticising it and you were trying to defend it/ you felt personally attacked*?	e.g. (Marin and Ruiz, 2007; Stokburger-Sauer, 2011; Stokburger-Sauer, Ratneshwar and Sen, 2012; Wolter *et al.*, 2016) e.g. (Lauver and Kristof-Brown, 2001; Lichtenstein *et al.*, 2004; Marin and Ruiz, 2007; Stokburger-Sauer, Ratneshwar and Sen, 2012; Pérez and del Bosque, 2013b; Tuskej, Golob and Podnar, 2013)

NBI and NBF	**16. What do you share with the country?** *Do you share similar values? Can you describe the country through adjectives? E.g. X is ethical, unfair, democratic… How many of them do you share with it?* **17. How much are you familiar with the country X? *E.g. Have you heard a lot about it?*** *Have you ever visited it? Tell me about your experience (tourist, worker, student) or through what kind of channels did you receive information about the country (WOM, TV, Newspapers, Internet…).* **18. How much do you trust the country X?** *How much do you think what it says and does is credible? Think for instance to its politicians…*	e.g. (Singh, de los Salmones Sanchez and Bosque, 2008; Vitell, 2015; Singh, 2016) e.g. (Lievens, Hoye and Schreurs, 2005; Sen, Bhattacharya and Korschun, 2006) e.g. (Alcaniz, Càceres and Pérez, 2010; W. M. Hur, Kim and Woo, 2014)
NBA	**19. How much do you feel attracted by the country?** *Describe your attraction: considering its social responsibility would you be more willing to inform yourself about/buy products from the country? Visit the country? Live or/and work in the country?* **20. What are the elements or behaviours that, according to you, make a country more attractive as a place to work?**	e.g. (Turban and Greening, 1997; Gomes and Neves, 2011; Kim and Park, 2011) e.g. (Maxwell and Knox, 2009)
IAJV	**21. Let's consider again the country X you believe is the most socially responsible. What would you do if you receive a job offer in that country**? **22. Can you list any other factors that would positively or negatively influence your decision?**	e.g. (Turban, 2001; Carless, 2005) e.g. (Zhang and Gowan, 2012)

	For instance: language, similar culture, fair wages… Are many of those factors already comprised in the social responsibility framework? **23. What are the conditions under which you would leave again immediately for a work/study experience abroad?** *Where would you go? For what reason? Would you come back to the countries you have previously been? Among the elements you have previously mentioned (e.g. respect for the environment) are there some you think are essential for you to decide to move?*	Researcher's question
CI	**24. How much does the perception of the university influence your decision to work for/study in the country X?** *In what way? Think also about previous experiences if any. How much time do you devote to inform yourself about the university you are going to work?* **25. Do you recall the name of any university in that country? Any of them you might be interested to study in/work for?** **26. What is your idea of the academic world in (name of the country X)?**	e.g. (Collins and Stevens, 2002; Chapman *et al.*, 2005; Tsai and Yang, 2010) Researcher's question e.g. (Gotsi, Lopez and Andriopoulos,2011)
Conclusion and summary		
	Let's summarise the key points of our discussion (the interviewer gives a brief summary of the responses to the questions) Does this summary sound complete? Do you have any changes or additions? **(Q.7)**	Protocol final question – Researcher's question

Informed consent – Interviews (UK)

Introduction and Purpose

My name is Cristina Fona and I am a marketing researcher at Middlesex University London. I would like to invite you to take part in my research study which concerns the social responsibility of countries.

Procedures

For the purpose of my research, I will conduct an interview and I will ask you some questions concerning what constitutes the social responsibility of countries and what is its impact on the mobility of university highly skilled resources. The session should last about one hour. With your permission, I will record and take notes during the interview. The recording is to accurately record the information you provide and will be used for transcription purposes only.

Confidentiality and Rights

Participation in this research is completely voluntary. You are free to decline to take part in the project. You can also decline to answer any questions and you are free to leave the session in any moment. Whether or not you choose to participate in the research and whether or not you choose to answer a question or continue participating in the project, there will be no penalty to you.

Data collected during this session will be handled as confidentially as possible. Subsequent uses of records and data will be subject to standard data use policies which protect the anonymity of individuals and institutions.

Consent

1. My participation in this project is voluntary. I understand that I will not be paid for my participation. I may withdraw and discontinue participation at any time without penalty. If I decline to participate or withdraw from the study, no one on my campus will be told.

2. I understand that the section will not involve sensitive questions. If, however, I feel uncomfortable in any way during the interview session, I have the right to decline to answer any question or to end the interview.

3. Participation involves being interviewed by researchers from Middlesex University. The section will last approximately 60 minutes. Notes will be taken during the session and the interview will be recorded. If I do not want to be taped, I will not be able to participate in the study.

4. The researcher will distribute a brief socio-demographic questionnaire to be filled in before the beginning of the session. All the information provided will remain secure.

4. I understand that the researcher will not identify me by my full name in any reports using information obtained from this interview and that my confidentiality as a participant in this study will remain secure. Subsequent uses of records and data will be subject to standard data use policies which protect the anonymity of individuals and institutions.

5. I understand that this research study has been reviewed and approved by the University Ethics Committee (UEC) of Middlesex University.

7. I have read and understood the explanation provided to me. I have had all my questions answered to my satisfaction, and I voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

8. I have been given a copy of this consent form.

If you wish to participate in this study, please sign and date below.

____

Participant's Name *(please print)*

______________________________ ________________

Participant's Signature Date

Socio-demographic questionnaire – Focus Groups and Interviews (UK)

First Name ……………………………………

What is your gender? ☐ Male ☐ Female	What is your marital status? ☐ Single ☐ In a relationship ☐ Married with children ☐ Married without children ☐ Separated/Divorced
What is your age? ☐ 18 -25 years old ☐ 26 – 35 years old ☐ 36- 55 years old ☐ 56 and over	What is your annual income? (If student your family income) ☐ Under £10,000 ☐ £11,000- £ 24,999 ☐ £25,000–£50,999 ☐ £51,000–£99,999 ☐ More than £100,000
What is the highest level of education you have attained? ☐ High school diploma ☐ Undergraduate degree ☐ Postgraduate degree ☐ PhD	What is your actual profession? ☐ UG/PG student ☐ PhD ☐ Researcher ☐ Lecturer ☐ Professor
What is your native country? ……………………………………… What is your nationality? a…………………………………… b……………………………………	List three countries you would like to move for study/work: ………………………… ………………………… …………………………
What is your religious preference? ☐ Roman Catholic ☐ Protestant ☐ Orthodox ☐ Muslim ☐ Jewish ☐ Atheist ☐ Other please specify …………………………………………	List three universities you would like to study/work for: ………………………… ………………………… …………………………

Socio-demographic questionnaire. Adapted from Dennis et al. (2016).

Topic Guide – Focus Groups (Italy)

Buongiorno. Grazie per aver trovato il tempo di partecipare a questo focus group.

Mi chiamo Cristina Fona, sono una ricercatrice in marketing presso la Middlesex University di Londra e sarò il moderatore di questa sessione. Questo focus group fa parte della mia ricerca di dottorato. Il mio studio è volto ad indagare gli elementi che costituiscono la responsabilità sociale di una nazione e ad analizzare come il comportamento etico di una nazione possa influenzare il suo livello di attrattività come posto dove vivere/studiare.

Durante quest'ora e mezza vi porrò alcune domande e ascolterò quello che direte. Non parteciperò direttamente alla discussione ma interverrò per facilitare il dibattito e assicurarmi che tutti abbiano la possibilità di partecipare. Sentitevi liberi di interagire tra di voi e rispondere ad eventuali commenti di altri. Non ci sono risposte giuste o sbagliate.

Prima di iniziare, voglio soltanto fornirvi alcuni suggerimenti per rendere questa discussione maggiormente efficace. La nostra conversazione verrà registrata al fine di assicurare un'accurata archiviazione delle informazioni. Vi pregherei pertanto di parlare con un tono di voce alto e di parlare uno alla volta. Durante la sessione utilizzeremo soltanto i nostri nomi di battesimo. In nessun documento sarà possibile collegare quanto direte alla vostra persona, dipartimento o istituto. In questo modo verrà assicurata la confidenzialità delle informazioni che emergeranno durante la discussione. Inoltre, vorrei chiedervi di rispettare la confidenzialità dei dati forniti da tutte le persone presenti qui oggi. Vi prego di non ripetere nulla di quello che verrà detto e di non riportare chi dice cosa, quando lascerete questa stanza.

Infine, vorrei nuovamente sottolineare che la partecipazione a questo focus group è volontaria. Come specificato dal modulo relativo al consenso informato che avete letto e firmato, potete decidere di non rispondere a qualsiasi domanda e siete liberi di lasciare la sessione in ogni momento.

Se siete d'accordo, accenderei il registratore e inizierei la nostra sessione a partire da questo momento. Questo focus group è condotto da Cristina Fona in data……………………… per lo studio relativo alla social responsibility of countries.

Topic guide – Focus Groups (Italy)		
Costrutto	**Domande**	**Bibliografia**
	Domande iniziali	
	Potreste indicarmi qual è il vostro nome di battesimo, la vostra nazione d'origine, a quale anno e corso siete iscritti/ qual è il vostro titolo professionale e quale è la vostra area di studio/ricerca? Potete dirmi se avete mai avuto esperienze all'estero per lavoro/stage/istruzione? Sareste interessati a fare un'esperienza all'estero per una qualsiasi di queste ragioni? In quali Paesi? Per quanto tempo?* **Parlatemi della vostra esperienza. Cosa vi ha portato ha spostarvi in quel Paese? /Qual era la motivazione principale? Quali fattori avete preso in considerazione nella decisione di partire?*	Protocol opening question (Krueger and Casey, 2014)
	Domande preparatorie	
ICSR	**1. Cosa rappresenta per voi il concetto di responsabilità?** *Cosa significa per voi essere responsabili? Quando vi sentite responsabili di qualcuno/qualcosa? Sentitevi liberi di utilizzare degli esempi. Pensate a voi come cittadino, padre, madre, insegnante, consumatore ecc. In quale occasione avete sentito particolarmente il peso della responsabilità?*	Domanda elaborata dal ricercatore
	2. Avete mai sentito parlare di programmi aziendali o prodotti sviluppati per migliorare o aiutare la società o l'ambiente (cosiddette attività di responsabilità sociale d'impresa)*? *Qual è il vostro rapporto con questi prodotti e attività? Raccontatemi la vostra esperienza. Quanto sono importanti queste attività per voi? Interagite con esse? / o avete sentito parlare di aziende che sono state accusate di essere*	es. (Strong, 1996; Carrigan and Attalla, 2001; Silberhorn and Warren, 2007; Mininni and Manuti. A., 2012; Carrington, Neville and Whitwell, 2014; Öberseder *et al.*, 2014; Vitell, 2015)

	poco responsabili nei confronti dell'ambiente/società (es. lo scandalo relativo a Volkswagen sulle emissioni)? Come reagite nei confronti di queste aziende? Continuereste a comprare i loro prodotti? **Esempi di attività di CSR sono: fornire aiuto umanitario (es. aiutare associazioni locali non-profit…), minimizzare l'impatto ambientale (es. ridurre le emissioni di CO_2, riciclare, gestire sostanze chimiche in modo etico, sviluppare prodotti green, preservare le risorse naturali…), occuparsi di problemi legati a diritti umani e promuovere diversità e pari opportunità (es. promuovere l'assunzione di persone provenienti dall'estero, supportare la carriera delle donne in azienda, promuovere l'impiego o programmi per persone con disabilità…), creare un ambiente di lavoro favorevole (promuovere un buon equilibrio lavoro-vita privata, supportare la crescita personale, garantire salute e sicurezza…), migliorare l'assistenza clienti (garantire la sicurezza dei prodotti, rafforzare il supporto al cliente…), fornire supporto alla regione e comunità (fornire aiuti umanitari o in caso di disastri naturali, sostenere l'istruzione, la scienza, la cultura e lo sport).*	
	Domande di transizione	
ICSR/ Ethical beliefs	**3. Secondo voi, cosa caratterizza un consumatore socialmente consapevole*?** *Cosa compra? Dove? Provate a descriverlo con degli aggettivi? Cosa fa questo consumatore?*	e.s. (Mininni and Manuti. A., 2012; Öberseder *et al.*, 2014)
	4. Raccontatemi di tre esperienze d'acquisto contraddistinte da forti considerazioni etiche. *Es. Comprate prodotti green, supportate programmi di riciclo, partecipate a programmi di volontariato sviluppati da aziende (es. Esselunga che sostiene la banca del latte umano)? Ritorniamo agli aggettivi utilizzati per descrivere*	e.s. (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Webster, 1975; Cooper-Martin and Holbrook, 1993; Newholm and Shaw, 2007; Carrington, Neville and Whitwell, 2014; Öberseder *et al.*, 2014; Esselunga, 2016)

	il consumatore socialmente responsabile. Quanti di quelli menzionati potete applicare a voi stessi? **5. Abbiamo parlato di farsi fautori di cambiamento sociale. Vorrei chiedervi quando avete fatto qualcosa in cui vi siete sentiti di fare la differenza, anche con piccoli gesti? Raccontatemi cosa avete fatto.** *Per esempio riciclate i rifiuti, fate lavori di volontariato, rispettate le leggi, supportate la ricerca scientifica, supportate aziende che investono in CSR, comprate prodotti eco….* **6. Cosa guida questi comportamenti etici?** *Cosa vi fa sentire in dovere di aiutare l'ambiente per esempio? Es. Religione, cultura, educazione, famiglia, valori personali, esperienza, coscienza…*	e.s. (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Webster, 1975; Cooper-Martin and Holbrook, 1993; Newholm and Shaw, 2007; Carrington, Neville and Whitwell, 2014; Öberseder *et al.*, 2014; Esselunga, 2016) e.s. (Vyakarnam *et al.*, 1997; Freestone and McGoldrick, 2008; Mudrack and Mason, 2013; Vitell, 2015)
	Domande chiave	
SRIC	**7. Immaginiamo di applicare lo stesso concetto di responsabilità sociale a territori come ad esempio nazioni. Come definireste la responsabilità sociale di una nazione?** *Come dovrebbe essere una nazione per essere definita socialmente responsabile? Descrivila con tre aggettivi.* *Possiamo definire responsabilità sociale l'impegno delle nazioni a contribuire allo sviluppo sostenibile, integrando imperativi sociali e ambientali nelle loro operazioni e rispondendo, al tempo stesso, alle aspettative dei cittadini, istituzioni ed imprese e della comunità internazionale. Questa definizione riesce a sintetizzare il vostro punto di vista? Aggiungereste qualcosa?* **8. Cosa dovrebbe fare una nazione per essere socialmente responsabile?**	Domanda elaborata dal ricercatore Definizione elaborata dal ricercatore es. (Carroll, 1991; Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Lala, Allred and Chakraborty, 2009; Turker, 2009a; Pérez and del Bosque, 2013b; Öberseder *et al.*, 2014; Alvarado-Herrera *et al.*, 2017b)

	In quale tipo di attività dovrebbe attivarsi per essere definita socialmente responsabile? Pensate all'Italia. Immaginate di essere parte del governo: cosa migliorerebbe la vostra vita? e quella della società? *Provate a pensare a queste aree:* ***ambientale*** *(es. educazione ambientale, riduzione delle emissioni di* CO_2*, programmi di riciclaggio, preservazione delle risorse naturali, politiche per la gestione di sostanze chimiche, riduzione del consumo di energia e acqua per privati e imprese, incentivazione di aziende locali che privilegiano prodotti eco…)* ***socio-culturale*** *(es. salvaguardia del patrimonio storico, miglioramento del sistema sanitario, di welfare, delle infrastrutture, miglioramento dell'istruzione, promozione di eventi sociali…=* ***politiche nazionali ed internazionali*** *(es. dotarsi di un sistema democratico, un ambiente politico stabile e un sistema legale imparziale, cooperare con altri governi su problemi internazionali, gestire efficacemente l'immigrazione, assicurare livelli sostenibili per quanto concerne il costo del lavoro)* ***economia, sviluppo e lavoro*** *(es. garantire standard di vita accettabili, migliorare lo sviluppo economico, migliorare la produzione di prodotti di qualità, assicurare eccellenti condizioni lavorative, migliorare lo sviluppo tecnologico ed industriale, incentivare la ricerca…)* ***etica*** *(es. promuovere l'eguaglianza, il rispetto e l'integrazione, supportare le ONG e le associazioni no-profit, promuovere progetti di volontariato a favore di nazioni sottosviluppate, essere un mediatore imparziale durante conflitti internazionali…)* **9. Mi potreste fare l'esempio di una nazione che considerate socialmente responsabile e una che non lo è. Quali sono le caratteristiche principali?**	Domanda elaborata dal ricercatore
NBI and NBA	**10. Prendiamo l'esempio del Paese che secondo voi vanta la maggiore responsabilità sociale (eccetto l'Italia). Qual è il vostro rapporto con questa nazione?**	e.s. (Lauver and Kristof-Brown, 2001; Lichtenstein *et al.*, 2004; Marin and Ruiz, 2007b; Stokburger-Sauer, Ratneshwar and Sen, 2012; Pérez and del Bosque, 2013b; Tuskej, Golob and Podnar, 2013)

	Quanto ed in che termini vi sentiti connessi?	
	11. Quanto vi sentite attirati da questa nazione? E cosa vi attira di più? *Per esempio prodotti made in quella nazione? La ricchezza a livello culturale/storico/naturale? Lo stile di vita o le condizioni lavorative nella nazione?*	es. (Turban and Greening, 1997; Gomes and Neves, 2011; Kim and Park, 2011)
IAJV	**12. Immaginiamo che abbiate ricevuto un'offerta di lavoro in quella nazione, cosa fareste?** **13. Quali elementi sono più rilevanti nella vostra scelta?** *Consideriamo nuovamente i pro: quali sarebbero i pro per accettare? Cosa vi aspettate di trovare? Pensiamo agli elementi citati in precedenza: es. situazione economica, sociale, politica, legale…tutte le precedenti?* **14. Quali sono le condizioni per cui ripartireste immediatamente per un'esperienza di lavoro/studio all'estero?** *Dove andreste? Per quale motivo? Ritornereste nei Paesi in cui siete già stati? Fra gli elementi che abbiamo menzionato prima (es. rispetto per l'ambiente…) ce ne sono alcuni che ritenete fondamentali per il vostro trasferimento?*	es. (Turban and Greening, 1997; Gomes and Neves, 2011; Kim and Park, 2011) es. (Turban, 2001; Carless, 2005) Domanda elaborata dal ricercatore
	Domande finali	
Moderators (e.s. NBF, CI…)	**15. Quali altri fattori incentivano la vostra decisione di studiare/accettare un lavoro in un'altra nazione?** *Per esempio: la lingua, una cultura simile, giusto stipendio…* **16. Quanto la percezione che avete dell'università influenza la vostra decisione?**	Domanda elaborata dal ricercatore es. (Collins and Stevens, 2002; Chapman *et al.*, 2005; Tsai and Yang, 2010)

	In che modo? Pensate anche a precedenti esperienze se ne avete avute. Quanto tempo dedicate ad informarvi sull'università in cui state per andare a lavorare?	
	Sintetizziamo i punti chiave di questa nostra discussione (il moderatore e l'assistente presentano una breve sintesi delle risposte alle domande). Ritenete che questa sintesi sia completa? Avete nulla da aggiungere o modificare?	Domanda finale (Krueger and Casey, 2014)

Modulo per il consenso informato a partecipare allo studio

Introduzione e obiettivi

Mi chiamo Cristina Fona e sono una ricercatrice della Middlesex University di Londra. Con la presente vorrei invitarla a prendere parte alla mia ricerca volta ad indagare il tema relativo alla responsabilità sociale delle nazioni.

Procedimento

A tale fine, ho organizzato il presente focus group durante il quale Le verranno poste alcune domande relative agli elementi che caratterizzano la responsabilità sociale delle nazioni e a quale sia il suo impatto sulla mobilità di risorse altamente qualificate (es. studenti, professori, dottorandi…). La sessione durerà circa un'ora e mezza. Previo suo assenso, registrerò la conversazione e prenderò degli appunti durante la sessione. La registrazione verrà effettuata per assicurare un'adeguata archiviazione delle informazioni che vorrà fornirmi e verrà utilizzata soltanto per la successiva trascrizione.

Riservatezza delle informazioni

La partecipazione alla ricerca è completamente volontaria. Ciò significa che è libero di rifiutare di prendere parte allo studio. Può inoltre rifiutare di rispondere a qualsiasi domanda e di lasciare la sessione in ogni momento. Nessuna penalità verrà applicata nel caso decidesse di non partecipare alla ricerca o di non rispondere ad una domanda.

I dati raccolti durante la sessione verranno trattati con il massimo riserbo. Successivi utilizzi delle registrazioni e dei dati saranno soggetti alle procedure standard atte a garantire la protezione dell'anonimità delle persone e delle istituzioni coinvolte.

Follow-up

Dopo questo focus group potrebbe venirle chiesto di partecipare ad un'intervista one-to-one che verrà organizzata in data e luogo da lei indicati. L'intervista durerà soltanto un'ora ma rappresenta uno strumento particolarmente utile per questo studio, in quanto consente di approfondire alcuni concetti o idee espressi durante l'odierna sessione. Nel caso in cui fosse interessato ad essere contattato per l'intervista, La prego di fornire il suo consenso e un suo contatto al termine della pagina successiva.

Modulo per il consenso informato

1. Dichiaro di essere consapevole che la partecipazione in questo studio è volontaria. Nessun compenso verrà elargito per la mia partecipazione. Sono libero di rifiutare di prendere parte alla sessione o di abbandonare la discussione in qualsiasi momento senza incedere in alcuna penalità. Nel caso dovessi decidere di non partecipare, nessuno dei miei colleghi verrà informato dell'accaduto.

2. Dichiaro di essere consapevole che la sessione non prevede alcuna domanda sensibile o provocatoria. Se, tuttavia, dovesse sentirmi a disagio, ho il diritto di rifiutare di rispondere a qualsiasi domanda o di lasciare la sessione.

3. La partecipazione consiste nell'essere coinvolto in un focus group condotto da ricercatori della Middlesex University. La sessione durerà approssimativamente un'ora e mezza. Il moderatore prenderà appunti durante la discussione che verrà registrata con dispositivi audio. Nel caso non desiderassi essere registrato, non mi sarà possibile partecipare allo studio.

4. Il ricercatore distribuirà un breve questionario socio demografico che dovrà essere compilato prima dell'inizio della sessione. Tutte le informazioni contenute verranno trattate con la massima discrezione.

4. Dichiaro di essere consapevole che il ricercatore non utilizzerà il mio nome e cognome in nessun report. In quanto soggetto partecipante allo studio verrà garantita la massima riservatezza delle informazioni che fornirò. Successivi utilizzi di dati e registrazioni saranno soggetti alle procedure standard atte a garantire la protezione dell'anonimità delle persone e delle istituzioni coinvolte .

5. Dichiaro di essere consapevole che questo studio è stato letto e approvato dall' University Ethics Committee (UEC) della Middlesex University.

7. Dichiaro di aver letto e compreso il presente documento, di aver ricevuto adeguate risposte alle mie domande relative allo studio e di aderire volontariamente a partecipare al presente focus group.

8. Dichiaro inoltre di aver ricevuto una copia di questo modulo per il consenso informato.

Nel caso desideri partecipare allo studio, è pregato di firmare ed indicare la data qui di seguito.

____

Nome e cognome del partecipante *(in stampatello)*

______________________________   _______________

Firma del partecipante   Data

Topic Guide – Interviews (Italy)

Buongiorno. Grazie per aver trovato il tempo di partecipare a questo incontro per discutere sul tema della responsabilità sociale delle nazioni.

Mi chiamo Cristina Fona, sono una ricercatrice in marketing presso la Middlesex University di Londra. Questo intervista fa parte della mia ricerca di dottorato. Il mio studio è volto ad indagare gli elementi che costituiscono la responsabilità sociale di una nazione e ad analizzare come il comportamento etico di una nazione possa influenzare il suo livello di attrattività come posto dove vivere/studiare.

Durante la prossima ora, Le porrò alcune domande e ascolterò quello che avrà da dire. Non ci sono risposte giuste o sbagliate, pertanto si senta libero di esprimere le sue opinioni. Tutte le informazioni raccolte durante l'intervista resteranno confidenziali e saranno utilizzate soltanto per questo studio.

Vorrei inoltre sottolineare che la partecipazione è completamente volontaria. Pertanto può decidere se partecipare a questa ricerca oppure no, può rifiutarsi di rispondere a qualsiasi domanda ed è libero di lasciare l'intervista in qualsiasi momento. Al fine di garantire una migliore archiviazione dei dati, durante l'intervista prenderò degli appunti e registrerò la conversazione con dispositivi audio, come specificato nel modulo di consenso informato che le ho appena fornito.

Le chiederei di leggere il documento attentamente e, se accetta tutte le condizioni previste, di firmarlo prima di procedere con l'intervista.

Se è d'accordo, accenderei il registratore e inizierei l'intervista a partire da ora. Questa intervista è condotta da Cristina Fona in data……………………… per lo studio relativo alla social responsibility of countries.

Topic guide – Interviews (Italy)		
Nome dell'intervistato: **Data:** **Luogo:** **Durata dell'intervista:** **Intervistatore:**		
Informazioni relative all'intervistato		
Concetti	**Domande**	**Bibliografia**
Informazioni relative all'intervistato	Mi può dire qual è il suo nome di battesimo, il suo Paese d'origine e a quale anno e corso è iscritto/ qual è il suo titolo professionale e la sua area di studio/ricerca? Può dirmi se ha mai avuto esperienze all'estero per lavoro/stage/istruzione? Sarebbe interessato/a fare un'esperienza all'estero per una qualsiasi di queste ragioni? Per quanto tempo? (Q. 18) **Mi parli della sua esperienza. Cosa l'ha portata a spostarsi in quel Paese? /Qual era la motivazione principale? Quali fattori ha preso in considerazione nella decisione di partire?*	Protocol opening question – Domanda elaborata dal ricercatore
Introduzione CSR awareness e ICSR		
ICSR	**1. Cosa rappresenta per lei il concetto di responsabilità?** *Me lo descriva. Cosa significa per lei essere responsabile? Quando si sente responsabile… Si senta libero di utilizzare degli esempi. Pensi a lei come cittadino, padre, madre, insegnante, consumatore… In quale occasione ha sentito particolarmente il peso della responsabilità. A chi / cosa pensa?* **2. Quanto si interessa di politica?**	Domanda elaborata dal ricercatore es. (Gough, McClosky and Meehl, 1952; Berkowitz and Daniels, 1964) es. (Gough, McClosky and Meehl, 1952; Berkowitz and Daniels, 1964; Strong, 1996; Carrigan and Attalla, 2001)

	Ad esempio, supporta attivamente il suo partito? Si informa riguardo referendum, dibattiti politici…? Vota regolarmente e si vergognerebbe se non utilizzasse il suo diritto al voto? Partecipa a manifestazioni per difendere i propri diritti/opinioni?	
	3. Quanto pensa sia importante prendersi cura degli altri? *Cosa fa? Chi sono questi altri? Genitori, colleghi, amici, persone in difficoltà es. senza tetto, profughi, disabili, persone anziane…*	es. (Gough, McClosky and Meehl, 1952)
	Nella nostra vita quotidiana viviamo in stretta connessione con molte aziende (es. come impiegati o consumatori di prodotti/servizi). Oggi, la maggioranza di queste aziende riconosce il proprio impatto sulla società e sull'ambiente.	es. (Carroll, 1979, 1991; Maignan and Ferrell, 2001; Singh, de los Salmones Sanchez and Bosque, 2008; Öberseder *et al.*, 2014)
	4. Ha mai sentito parlare di programmi aziendali o prodotti sviluppati per migliorare o aiutare la società o l'ambiente (cosiddette attività di responsabilità sociale d'impresa)*? *O aziende accusate di essere poco responsabili nei confronti di ambiente/società (es. lo scandalo Volkswagen sulle emissioni)? Quale è il suo rapporto con questi prodotti e attività? Mi racconti la sua esperienza. Quanto sono importanti queste attività per lei? Se ne interessa?*	es. (Strong, 1996; Carrigan and Attalla, 2001; Silberhorn and Warren, 2007; Mininni and Manuti. A., 2012; Carrington, Neville and Whitwell, 2014; Öberseder *et al.*, 2014; Vitell, 2015)
	**Esempi di attività di CSR sono: fornire aiuto umanitario (es. aiutare associazioni locali non-profit…), minimizzare l'impatto ambientale (es. ridurre le emissioni di CO_2, riciclare, gestire sostanze chimiche in modo etico, sviluppare prodotti green, preservare le risorse naturali…), occuparsi di problemi legati a diritti umani e promuovere diversità e pari opportunità (es. promuovere l'assunzione di persone provenienti dall'estero, supportare la carriera delle donne in azienda, promuovere l'impiego o programmi per persone con disabilità…), creare un ambiente di lavoro favorevole (promuovere un buon equilibrio lavoro-vita privata, supportare la crescita personale, garantire salute e sicurezza…), migliorare l'assistenza clienti (garantire la sicurezza dei prodotti, rafforzare il supporto al cliente…), fornire supporto alla regione e comunità (fornire aiuti umanitari o in caso di disastri naturali, sostenere l'istruzione, la scienza, la cultura e lo sport).*	es. (Carroll, 1991; Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Lala, Allred and Chakraborty, 2009; Turker, 2009a; Pérez and del Bosque, 2013b; Öberseder *et al.*, 2014; Alvarado-Herrera *et al.*, 2017b)

	5. **Vorrei chiederle quando ha fatto qualcosa in cui si e sentito di fare la differenza, anche con piccoli gesti? Mi racconti cosa ha fatto.** *Cosa fa per esempio come consumatore? Mi racconti tre esperienze di consumo che hanno visto coinvolte forti considerazioni etiche o implicazioni morali. Es. Compra prodotti green, supporta programmi di riciclo, partecipa a programmi di volontariato sviluppati da aziende (es. Esselunga che sostiene la banca del latte umano)?*	e.s. (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Webster, 1975; Cooper-Martin and Holbrook, 1993; Newholm and Shaw, 2007; Öberseder, Schlegelmilch and Gruber, 2011; Carrington, Neville and Whitwell, 2014; Esselunga, 2016)
	6. **Quanto è importante per lei restituire qualcosa alla comunità? Cosa fa?** *Partecipa a programmi di volontariato, dà il suo contributo ad associazioni benefiche, aiuta persone anziane/svantaggiate…? Paga le tasse regolarmente? Rispetta la legge?*	e.s. (Gough, McClosky and Meehl, 1952; United Nations, 2002; Pérez and del Bosque, 2013b; Carrington, Neville and Whitwell, 2014)
	7. **Cosa guida questi comportamenti etici?** *Cosa la fa sentire in dovere di aiutare l'ambiente per esempio? Es. Religione, cultura, educazione, famiglia, valori personali, esperienza, coscienza…*	e.s. (Hunt and Vitell, 1986, 2006; Vyakarnam *et al.*, 1997; Freestone and McGoldrick, 2008; Mudrack and Mason, 2013; Lu, Chang and Chang, 2015; Vitell, 2015)
R1. Quale sono le dimensioni e i limiti della SRIC?		
SRIC	Anche le nazioni (es. Regno Unito, Giappone, Italia…) dovrebbero sviluppare piani di responsabilità sociale e restituire qualcosa al mondo	e.s. (United Nations, 2002; Anholt, 2010)
	8. **Qual è la sua opinione circa questa affermazione?** *Pensa che le nazioni applichino già forme di responsabilità sociale? A che livello? Ad esempio pensa che ci dovrebbe essere maggior impegno da parte dei governi? O piu comunicazione?*	Domanda elaborata dal ricercatore

	9. Come definirebbe, con parole sue, la responsabilità sociale di una nazione*? *Come dovrebbe essere una nazione per essere definita socialmente responsabile? La descriva usando tre aggettivi.* **Possiamo definire responsabilità sociale l'impegno delle nazioni a contribuire ad uno sviluppo sostenibile, attraverso l'integrazione degli imperativi sociali e ambientali nelle loro operazioni e la pronta risposta alle aspettative dei cittadini, istituzioni e imprese e dell'intera comunità internazionale.*	Domanda elaborata dal ricercatore Definizione elaborata dal ricercatore
	10. Cosa dovrebbe fare una nazione per essere socialmente responsabile? *In quale tipo di attività dovrebbe attivarsi per essere definita socialmente responsabile? Pensi all'Italia. Immagini di essere parte del governo: cosa migliorerebbe la sua vita? e quella della società?* *Provi a pensare a queste aree:* ***ambientale*** *(es. educazione ambientale, riduzione delle emissioni di CO_2, programmi di riciclaggio, preservazione delle risorse naturali, politiche per la gestione di sostanze chimiche, riduzione del consumo di energia e acqua per privati e imprese, incentivazione di aziende locali che privilegiano prodotti eco…)* ***socio-culturale*** *(es. salvaguardia del patrimonio storico, miglioramento del sistema sanitario, di welfare, delle infrastrutture, miglioramento dell'istruzione, promozione di eventi sociali…)* ***politiche nazionali ed internazionali*** *(es. dotarsi di un sistema democratico, un ambiente politico stabile e un sistema legale imparziale, cooperare con altri governi su problemi internazionali, gestire efficacemente l'immigrazione, assicurare livelli sostenibili per quanto concerne il costo del lavoro)*	es. Martin and Eroglu (1993); Oberseder et al. (2014) es. (Carroll, 1991; Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Lala, Allred and Chakraborty, 2009; Turker, 2009a; Pérez and del Bosque, 2013b; Öberseder *et al.*, 2014; Alvarado-Herrera *et al.*, 2017b)

	economia, sviluppo e lavoro *(es. garantire standard di vita accettabili, migliorare lo sviluppo economico, migliorare la produzione di prodotti di qualità, assicurare eccellenti condizioni lavorative, migliorare lo sviluppo tecnologico ed industriale, incentivare la ricerca…)* ***etica*** *(es. promuovere l'eguaglianza, il rispetto e l'integrazione, supportare le ONG e le associazioni no-profit, promuovere progetti di volontariato a favore di nazioni sottosviluppate, essere un mediatore imparziale durante conflitti internazionali…)* **11. Può fornirmi un esempio di una nazione che sia socialmente responsabile e una che non lo sia? Quali sono le caratteristiche principali?** **12. Cosa ne pensa delle aziende che provengono da queste nazioni?** *Ci sono aziende che influenzano la sua scelta? Ce ne sono alcune particolarmente famose per il loro impegno verso problematiche ambientali/sociali?* (es. Ikea) **13. Può fornirmi il suo punto di vista sulla responsabilità sociale delle seguenti nazioni: Stati Uniti, Giappone, Italia, Inghilterra e Cina.**	 Domanda elaborata dal ricercatore Domanda elaborata dal ricercatore Domanda elaborata dal ricercatore
R2. Quali sono le conseguenze di SRIC? **RQ6. In che modo NBF modera la relazione fra la social responsibility image of countries e nation brand identification?**		
NBI	**14. Prendiamo l'esempio del Paese che secondo lei vanta la maggiore responsabilità sociale (eccetto l'Italia). Qual è la sua relazione con questo Paese?** *Quanto e in che termini si sente legato a questo Paese? La descriverebbe come una connessione cognitiva o affettiva? (Vedi Q. 14)* **15. Quanto pensa che la sua personalità si adatti alla nazione?**	es. (Marin and Ruiz, 2007; Stokburger-Sauer, 2011; Stokburger-Sauer, Ratneshwar and Sen, 2012; Wolter *et al.*, 2016) es. (Lauver and Kristof-Brown, 2001; Lichtenstein *et al.*, 2004; Marin and Ruiz, 2007; Stokburger-Sauer, Ratneshwar and Sen, 2012; Pérez and del Bosque, 2013b; Tuskej, Golob and Podnar, 2013)

	Si è mai trovato nella situazione in cui delle persone stavano criticando il Paese e lei cercava di difenderlo/si sentiva personalmente attaccato?	
NBI e NBF	**16. Cosa condivide con la nazione?** *Condivide simili valori? Può descrivere il Paese con degli aggettivi? Es. X è etico, ingiusto, democratico… Quanti di questi condivide con il Paese?* **17. Quanto è familiare con la nazione X? *es. Ne ha sentito parlare molto?*** *L'ha mai visitato? Mi racconti la sua esperienza (come turista, lavoratore studente) o attraverso quali canali riceve informazioni relative al Paese (passaparola, TV, quotidiani, Internet…)* **18. Quanta fiducia ha nella nazione X?** E quanto ciò che dice e fa la rende credibile? Pensi per esempio ai suoi esponenti politici…	es. (Singh, de los Salmones Sanchez and Bosque, 2008; Vitell, 2015; Singh, 2016) es. (Lievens, Hoye and Schreurs, 2005; Sen, Bhattacharya and Korschun, 2006) es. (Alcaniz, Càceres and Pérez, 2010; W. M. Hur, Kim and Woo, 2014)
NBA	**19. Quanto si sente attirato della nazione?** *Descriva questa attrazione. Considerando la sua responsabilità sociale sarebbe più incline ad informarsi su/comprare prodotti provenienti dalla nazione? Visitare la nazione? Vivere o/e lavorare nella nazione?* **20. Quali sono gli elementi o comportamenti che, secondo lei, rendono la nazione più attrattiva come luogo di lavoro?**	es. (Turban and Greening, 1997; Gomes and Neves, 2011; Kim and Park, 2011) es. (Maxwell and Knox, 2009)
IAJV	**21. Prendiamo nuovamente in considerazione la nazione X che secondo lei è la migliore da un punto di vista di responsabilità sociale? Cosa farebbe se ricevesse un'offerta di lavoro per andare a lavorare in quella nazione?**	es. (Turban, 2001; Carless, 2005)

	22. Potrebbe farmi un elenco di altri fattori che potrebbero influenzare positivamente o negativamente la sua decisione? *Ad esempio: la lingua, una cultura simile, giusto stipendio… Ci sono altri fattori che sono già compresi nella responsabilità sociale?* **23. Quali sono le condizioni per cui ripartireste immediatamente per un'esperienza di lavoro/studio all'estero?** *Dove andreste? Ritornereste nei Paesi in cui siete già stati? Fra gli elementi che abbiamo menzionato prima a livello di responsabilità sociale, ce ne sono alcuni che ritenete fondamentali per il vostro trasferimento?*	es. (Zhang and Gowan, 2012) Domanda elaborata dal ricercatore
CI	**24. Quanto la sua percezione dell'università influenza la sua decisione di lavorare/ studiare nella nazione X?** *In che modo? Pensi anche ad esperienze precedenti se ne ha avute. Quanto tempo spenderebbe ad informarsi sull'università in cui andrebbe a lavorare?* **25. Potrebbe citare il nome di qualche università in questa nazione? Una o più di queste in cui sarebbe interessato a studiare/lavorare?** **26. Qual è la sua opinione sul mondo accademico in (nome della nazione X)?**	es. (Collins and Stevens, 2002; Chapman *et al.*, 2005; Tsai and Yang, 2010) Domanda elaborata dal ricercatore es. (Gotsi, Lopez and Andriopoulos,2011)
	Conclusione e sommario	
	Sintetizziamo i punti chiave di questa nostra discussione (l'intervistatore presenta una breve sintesi delle risposte alle domande). Ritiene che questa sintesi sia completa? Ha nulla da aggiungere o modificare? (Q. 7)	Protocol final question – Domanda elaborata dal ricercatore

Modulo per il consenso informato a partecipare allo studio

Introduzione e obiettivi

Mi chiamo Cristina Fona e sono una ricercatrice della Middlesex University di Londra. Con la presente vorrei invitarla a prendere parte alla mia ricerca volta ad indagare il tema relativo alla responsabilità sociale delle nazioni.

Procedimento

A tale fine, ho organizzato la presente intervista durante il quale Le verranno poste alcune domande relative agli elementi che caratterizzano la responsabilità sociale delle nazioni e a quale sia il suo impatto sulla mobilità di risorse altamente qualificate (es. studenti, professori, dottorandi…). La sessione durerà circa un'ora. Previo suo assenso, registrerò la conversazione e prenderò degli appunti durante la sessione. La registrazione verrà effettuata per assicurare un'adeguata archiviazione delle informazioni che vorrà fornirmi e verrà utilizzata soltanto per la successiva trascrizione.

Riservatezza delle informazioni

La partecipazione alla ricerca è completamente volontaria. Ciò significa che è libero di rifiutare di prendere parte allo studio. Può inoltre rifiutare di rispondere a qualsiasi domanda e di lasciare la sessione in ogni momento. Nessuna penalità verrà applicata nel caso decidesse di non partecipare alla ricerca o di non rispondere ad una domanda.

I dati raccolti durante la sessione verranno trattati con il massimo riserbo. Successivi utilizzi delle registrazioni e dei dati saranno soggetti alle procedure standard atte a garantire la protezione dell'anonimità delle persone e delle istituzioni coinvolte.

Modulo per il consenso informato

1. Dichiaro di essere consapevole che la partecipazione in questo studio è volontaria. Nessun compenso verrà elargito per la mia partecipazione. Sono libero di rifiutare di prendere parte alla sessione o di abbandonare la discussione in qualsiasi momento senza incedere in alcuna penalità. Nel caso dovessi decidere di non partecipare, nessuno dei miei colleghi verrà informato dell'accaduto.

2. Dichiaro di essere consapevole che la sessione non prevede alcuna domanda sensibile o provocatoria. Se, tuttavia, dovesse sentirmi a disagio, ho il diritto di rifiutare di rispondere a qualsiasi domanda o lasciare la sessione.

3. La partecipazione consiste nell'essere coinvolto in un'intervista condotta da ricercatori della Middlesex University. La sessione durerà approssimativamente 75 minuti. L'intervistatore prenderà appunti durante la discussione che verrà registrata con dispositivi audio. Nel caso non desiderassi essere registrato, non mi sarà possibile partecipare allo studio.

4. Il ricercatore distribuirà un breve questionario socio demografico che dovrà essere compilato prima dell'inizio della sessione. Tutte le informazioni contenute verranno trattate con la massima discrezione.

4. Dichiaro di essere consapevole che il ricercatore non utilizzerà il mio nome e cognome in nessun report. In quanto soggetto partecipante allo studio verrà garantita la massima riservatezza delle informazioni che fornirò. Successivi utilizzi di dati e registrazioni saranno soggetti alle procedure standard atte a garantire la protezione dell'anonimità delle persone e delle istituzioni coinvolte.

5. Dichiaro di essere consapevole che questo studio è stato letto e approvato dall' University Ethics Committee (UEC) della Middlesex University.

7. Dichiaro di aver letto e compreso il presente documento, di aver ricevuto adeguate risposte alle mie domande relative allo studio e di aderire volontariamente a partecipare alla presente intervista.

8. Dichiaro inoltre di aver ricevuto una copia di questo modulo per il consenso informato.

Nel caso desideri partecipare allo studio, è pregato di firmare ed indicare la data qui di seguito.

____

Nome e cognome del partecipante *(in stampatello)*

______________________________ _______________

Firma del partecipante Data

Questionario socio-demografico – Focus groups e interviews (Italy)

Nome ……………………………………

Sesso ☐ Maschio ☐ Femmina	Qual è il suo stato civile? ☐ Single ☐ In una relazione ☐ Sposato con figli ☐ Sposato senza figli ☐ Separato/Divorziato
Età ☐ 18 -25 anni ☐ 26 – 35 anni ☐ 36- 55 anni ☐ 56 e oltre	Qual è il suo compenso su base annuale? (Se studente il compenso del nucleo familiare) ☐ Al di sotto dei €10.000 ☐ €11.000 - € 24.999 ☐ €25.000 – €50.999 ☐ €51.000 – €99.999 ☐ Più di €100.000
Qual è il più alto titolo di studio che ha conseguito? ☐ Maturità ☐ Laurea triennale ☐ Laurea specialistica/master 2° livello ☐ Dottorato	Qual è il suo stato professionale? ☐ Studente triennale/specialistica/magistrale ☐ Dottorando ☐ Ricercatore/Post doc ☐ Assistente ☐ Professore
Qual è il suo Paese (nazione) d'origine? ……………………………………… Qual è la sua nazionalità? a…………………………………… b……………………………………	Indichi di seguito tre nazioni in cui le piacerebbe spostarsi per studiare/lavorare: ………………………… ………………………… …………………………
A quale gruppo religioso appartiene? ☐ Cattolico ☐ Protestante ☐ Ortodosso ☐ Mussulmano ☐ Ebreo ☐ Ateo ☐ Altro. Si prega di specificare: …………………………………………	Indichi di seguito tre università estere in cui le piacerebbe studiare/lavorare: ………………………… ………………………… …………………………

Appendix B – Research Ethics Approval Form

RESEARCH ETHICS APPROVAL FORM

Ref: 264-9-6318

NAME OF RESEARCHER: Cristina Fona

STATUS: Postgraduate

PROGRAMME OF STUDY: MPhil Middlesex Business School

NAME OF SUPERVISOR/TUTOR: TC Melewar

NAMES OF ANY RESEARCH COLLABORATORS: Charles Dennis, Keith Dinnie

PROPOSED TITLE OF RESEARCH PROJECT: The Social Responsibility Image of Countries: Exploring the dimensions, limits and consequences of a nation branding strategic asset

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE MAIN AIMS OF THE STUDY: The present study aims to study the social responsibility image of countries, a new construct within the business and management literature, exploring its dimensions and consequences. In particular it seeks to understand how different perceptions of a country social responsibility can influence the migration of highly-skilled resources.

HAVE YOU READ AND UNDERSTOOD THE UNIVERSITY'S CODE OF PRACTICE FOR RESEARCH: PRINCIPLES AND PROCEDURES? Yes

IS THIS STUDY A LITERATURE REVIEW (LIBRARY STUDY) WHICH DOES NOT INVOLVE COLLECTING PRIMARY DATA? No

WILL YOUR RESEARCH INVOLVE:
a) CONDUCTING INTERVIEWS? Yes
If Yes, state with whom: Postgraduate students and academic staff
b) PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION? No
c) USE OF QUESTIONNAIRE(S) WHICH YOU HAVE DESIGNED? Yes
d) FOCUS GROUPS? Yes
e) OBSERVATION? No

WILL YOU OBTAIN WRITTEN INFORMED CONSENT DIRECTLY FROM RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS? Yes

DO YOU INTEND TO OFFER INCENTIVES TO RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS? No

WILL YOU INFORM PARTICIPANTS OF THEIR RIGHT TO WITHDRAW FROM THE RESEARCH AT ANY TIME? Yes

WILL YOU GUARANTEE CONFIDENTIALITY OF INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS? Yes

WILL YOU GUARANTEE ANONYMITY TO PARTICIPANTS? Yes

DOES YOUR RESEARCH METHODOLOGY RAISE ANY SAFETY, LEGAL ISSUES FOR YOU OR YOUR PARTICIPANTS? No

DO YOU HAVE ANY ETHICAL CONCERNS ABOUT THIS RESEARCH PROJECT? No

STUDENT DECLARATION

THE INFORMATION GIVEN ON THIS FORM IS TRUE TO THE BEST OF MY KNOWLEDGE. I WILL USE THESE METHODS IN MY RESEARCH UNLESS I RENEGOTIATE ANY CHANGES WITH MY SUPERVISOR / TUTOR.

STUDENT SIGNATURE Cristina Fora DATE ...05/02/.16.

[THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ARE FOR THE SUPERVISOR/TUTOR TO TICK AS APPROPRIATE.]

a) I HAVE READ THE INFORMATION SUPPLIED ON THIS FORM AND DO NOT THINK THAT IT RAISES ANY ISSUES THAT NEED TO BE CONSIDERED BY SRCEP. ✓

b) I HAVE READ THE INFORMATION SUPPLIED ON THIS FORM AND HAVE REFERRED/WILL REFER THE PROPOSAL TO SRCEP FOR THEIR CONSIDERATION.

c) THIS PROPOSAL HAS BEEN APPROVED BY SRCEP.

SIGNATURE OF SUPERVISOR/TUTOR Charles Dennis DATE ....05/2/16.

Please print this form and complete the declaration above. You may also want to save a copy for your records.

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Appendix C – Tables 5.1–5.6 Qualitative stage - Socio-demographics

Focus group students – Italy Tot. 8 participants		
Attributes	**Options**	**Percentages**
Gender	Female Male	25% 75%
Age	18 - 25 26 - 35 36- 55 56 and over	87% 13% 0% 0%
Level of Education	High school diploma Undergraduate degree Postgraduate degree PhD	50% 50% 0% 0%
Current Profession	UG/PG student PhD Researcher Lecturer Professor	100% 0% 0% 0% 0%
Annual Income	Under £10,000 £11,000- £ 24,999 £25,000–£50,999 £51,000–£99,999 More than £100,000	26% 12% 38% 12% 12%
Marital Status	Single In a relationship Married with children Married without children Separated/Divorced	75% 25% 0% 0% 0%
Nationality	EU (Italian) Non- EU (Mexican)	88% 12%

Table 5.1 Socio-demographics – Focus group with Italian students. Author's elaboration (2016).

Focus group academic staff – Italy Tot. 9 participants		
Attributes	**Options**	**Percentages**
Gender	Female Male	56% 44%
Age	18 - 25 26 - 35 36- 55 56 and over	0% 44% 56% 0%
Level of Education	High school diploma Undergraduate degree Postgraduate degree PhD	0% 0% 33% 67%
Current Profession	UG/PG student PhD Researcher Lecturer Professor	0% 11% 67% 0% 22%
Annual Income	Under £10,000 £11,000- £ 24,999 £25,000–£50,999 £51,000–£99,999 More than £100,000	0% 33% 56% 11% 0%
Marital Status	Single	33%

	In a relationship Married with children Married without children Separated/Divorced	33% 23% 11% 0%
Nationality	EU (Italian)	100%

Table 5.2 Socio-demographics – Focus group with Italian academic staff. Author's elaboration (2016).

Focus group students – UK **Tot. 6 participants**		
Attributes	**Options**	**Percentages**
Gender	Female Male	67% 33%
Age	18 - 25 26 - 35 36- 55 56 and over	67% 33% 0% 0%
Level of Education	High school diploma Undergraduate degree Postgraduate degree PhD	33% 50% 17% 0%
Current Profession	UG/PG student PhD Researcher Lecturer Professor	100% 0% 0% 0% 0%
Annual Income	Under £10,000 £11,000- £ 24,999 £25,000–£50,999 £51,000–£99,999 More than £100,000	0% 50% 17% 33% 0%
Marital Status	Single In a relationship Married with children Married without children Separated/Divorced	33% 67% 0% 0% 0%
Nationality	White British Mixed British (Bangladeshi/Indian) White EU (Bulgarian, Italian) Mixed – (Italian Ecuadorian)	17% 33% 33% 17%

Table 5.3 Socio-demographics – Focus group with UK students. Author's elaboration (2016).

Focus group academic staff – UK **Tot. 9 participants**		
Attributes	**Options**	**Percentages**
Gender	Female Male	56% 44%
Age	18 - 25 26 - 35 36- 55 56 and over	0% 56% 33% 11%
Level of Education	High school diploma Undergraduate degree Postgraduate degree PhD	0% 0% 56% 44%
Current Profession	UG/PG student	0%

	PhD Researcher Lecturer Professor	56% 0% 33% 11%
Annual Income	Under £10,000 £11,000- £ 24,999 £25,000–£50,999 £51,000–£99,999 More than £100,000	0% 43% 33% 21% 0%
Marital Status	Single In a relationship Married with children Married without children Separated/Divorced	56% 11% 33% 0% 0%
Nationality	White British Other British (Macedonian, Australian) Mixed British EU (Italian, Greek) Non EU (Lebanese, Saudi Arabian, Chinese)	11% 23% 0% 33% 33%

Table 5.4 Socio-demographics – Focus group with UK academic staff. Author's elaboration (2016).

Interviews – Italy **Tot. 6 participants**		
Attributes	**Options**	**Percentages**
Gender	Female Male	50% 50%
Age	18 - 25 26 - 35 36- 55 56 and over	33% 50% 17% 0%
Level of Education	High school diploma Undergraduate degree Postgraduate degree PhD	0% 50% 17% 33%
Current Profession	UG/PG student PhD Researcher Lecturer Professor	50% 16.6% 16.6% 0% 16.6%
Annual Income	Under £10,000 £11,000- £ 24,999 £25,000–£50,999 £51,000–£99,999 More than £100,000 NA	17% 33% 33% 0% 0% 17%
Marital Status	Single In a relationship Married with children Married without children Separated/Divorced	33% 50% 17% 0% 0%
Nationality	EU (Italian) Non-EU (Indian)	83% 17%

Table 5.5 Socio-demographics – Interviews with Italian highly skilled resources. Author's elaboration (2016).

Interviews – UK Tot. 6 participants		
Attributes	**Options**	**Percentages**
Gender	Female Male	67% 33%
Age	18 - 25 26 - 35 36- 55 56 and over	17% 50% 33%
Level of Education	High school diploma Undergraduate degree Postgraduate degree PhD	17% 17% 33% 33%
Current Profession	UG/PG student PhD Researcher Lecturer Professor	50% 17% 0% 33% 0%
Annual Income	Under £10,000 £11,000- £ 24,999 £25,000–£50,999 £51,000–£99,999 More than £100,000	33% 17% 50% 0% 0%
Marital Status	Single In a relationship Married with children Married without children Separated/Divorced	67% 16.6% 16.6% 0% 0%
Nationality	White British Other British Mixed British (Turkish/Caribean, US/UK) EU (Lithuanian, German, Italian) Non EU (Sri Lankan)	0% 0% 33% 50% 17%

Table 5.6 Socio-demographics – Interviews with UK highly skilled resources. Author's elaboration (2016).

Appendix C – Table 5.7 Quantitative Research Instrument

Questionnaire			
Independent Variable			
Construct	**Definition**	**Dimensions and Items**	**References**
SRIC	Mental network of associations connected to a country commitment to contribute to sustainable development by integrating social and environmental imperatives in its behaviour and activities (Verlegh, 2001; Pérez-Currás, 2009; Gotsi, Lopez and Constantine Andriopoulos, 2011; Jones *et al.*, 2019; UNIDO, 2020)	Environmental responsibility 1. ENVSRIC1 X companies make an effort to protect the environment* 2. ENVSRIC2 X government implements policies and special programs to minimise the negative impact of companies and individuals on the natural environment* 3. ENVSRIC3 X citizens are very concerned about the environment** 4. ENVSRIC4 X is environmentally friendly*	Lala, Allred and Chakraborty, 2009; Pérez and del Bosque, 2013b (1,2, 4); Turker, 2009 (2); Researcher, 2018 (3)
		Political responsibility 5. PSRIC1 Stable political environment – Unstable political environment* 6. PSRIC2 X has high levels of corruption* 7. PSRIC3 X government is reliable* 8. PSRIC4 Altruistic – Selfish* 9. PSRIC5 X citizens respect and obey federal, state, and local laws (e.g. pay taxes, participate in the democratic process, respect public places such as parks, trains…) **	Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Lala, Allred and Chakraborty, 2009 (1); Researcher, 2018 (2-3, 5); Aaker, 1997 (4)
		Social responsibility 10. SSRIC1 Existence of an adequate welfare system – Lack of an adequate welfare system* 11. SSRIC2 Existence of an optimal health-care system (hospitals, medical aids, emergency services) – Lack of an optimal health-care system* 12. SSRIC3 X adequately supports technological and scientific research**	Martin and Eroglu, 1993 (1,4); Researcher (2-3); Aaker, 1997 (5)

		13. SSRIC4 X is a safe place where to live* 14. SSRIC5 X safeguards its natural and cultural heritage**	
		Economic responsibility 15. ECOSRIC1 X is meritocratic** 16. ECOSRIC2 X offers good job opportunities* 17. ECOSRIC3 Job security – Job insecurity** 18. ECOSRIC4 X workers have a good work life balance* 19. ECOSRIC5 X workers are very well treated* 20. ECOSRIC6 High standard of living – Low standard of living* 21. ECOSRIC7 X encourages companies to be more ethical**	Researcher, 2018 (1-2,7) Pérez and Del Bosque, 2013b; Turker, 2009 (4-5) Martin and Eroglu, 1993 (1,6); Nadeau and Olafsen, 2016 (6); Lala, Allred and Chakraborty, 2009 (3,5)
		Ethical 22. ETHSRIC1 X citizens have a great deal of freedom (many rights)* 23. ETHSRIC2 X promotes equality, respect and integration* 24. ETHSRIC3 X is ethical*	Nadeau et al., 2008; Lala, Allred and Chakraborty, 2009 (1); Researcher, 2018 (2-3);
Dependent Variables			
Nation Brand Identification (NBI)	Active, selective and volitional identification of stakeholders with the country that help them satisfy one or more key self-definitional needs. It causes them to engage in favourable as well as potentially unfavourable country-related behaviours (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Kim, Han and Park, 2001; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Escalas and Bettman, 2005;	25. NBI1 I feel that my personality and the personality of the country X are very similar* 26. NBI2 I feel that my values and the values of the country X are very similar* 27. NBI3 When someone criticizes X, it feels like a personal insult* 28. NBI4 How attached are you to X*	Tuskej et al. 2013 (1-2); Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000 (3) So et al., 2017 (4)

	Stokburger-Sauer, 2011; So *et al.*, 2017)		
Nation Brand Attractiveness (NBA)	Drawing force generated by the extent to which a nation brand is considered favourable, distinctive and enables stakeholders to satisfy their self-definitional needs. (Kaur, 1981; Weigold, Flusser and Ferguson, 1992; Mael and Ashforth, 1992; Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail, 1994; Kim, Han and Park, 2001; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; scar Gonzlez-Benito, Martnez-Ruiz and Moll-Descals, 2008; Currás-Pérez, Bigné-Alcañiz and Alvarado-Herrera, 2009; Sophonsiri and Polyorat, 2009; Lee, 2016; So *et al.*, 2017)	29. NBA1 I think that X is a very attractive country* 30. NBA2 I like what X embodies* 31. NBA3 This country X is attractive to me as a place for employment/study* 32. NBA4 I am very interested in what others think about this brand*	Carless, 2005; Gomes and Neves, 2011; Viktoria Rampl and Kenning, 2014 (1,3); Pérez-Curràs, 2009; So et al., 2017 (1-2); Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003 (2); So et al., 2013 (4)
Intention to Apply for a Job Vacancy/ to study (IAJV)	Likelihood that a person would apply for or accept a job offer/studies in a country. Intentions move beyond the passivity of company attractiveness to involve active pursuit of a job/ apply to study (Highhouse, Lievens and Sinar, 2003; Wang *et al.*, 2013)	33. IAJV1 I consider this country X one of my best choices to apply for job a opportunity/ studies* 34. IAJV2 If I were searching for a job/phd/master abroad, there would be a strong probability that I would apply to a university/company in this country* 35. IAJV3 If you were offered a job/position in this country would you accept it?* 36. IAJV4 In the near future, I would consider searching for a job/PhD/master in X*	Roberson et al., 2005; Gomes and Neves, 2011 and Saini et al., 2013 (1-2); Wang *et al.*, 2013; Tsai et al, 2014 (1,3) Researcher (4)
Moderators			
Corporate Image (CI)	A mental network of affective and cognitive associations connected to the company (Bernstein, 1984; Keller, 1993; Dowling, 1994; Van Riel, 1995; Gotsi, Lopez and Constantine Andriopoulos, 2011)	37. CI1 Universities in X have internationally well-known or excellent professors* 38. CI2 Universities in X have internationally known academic programs/department/schools* 39. CI3 I have always had a good impression of universities in X*	Arpan, Raney and Zivnuska, 2003 (1-2; 4-5); Aaker, 1997 (5);

		40. CI4 Universities in X have good resources (computer equipment, transportation, library, scholarships…)* 41. CI5 Universities in X are socially responsible*	Schlesinger, Cervera and Pérez-Cabañero, 2017 (3)
Nation Brand Familiarity (NBF)	Level of knowledge and experience of a certain place/destination that can influence travel intentions (Horng et al., 2012; Bianchi et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2017)	42. NBF1 In general, how familiar are you with this country?* 43. NBF2 I have heard many things about the country X as a place where to work* 44. NBF3 How often have you visited the country X?* 45. NBF4 I am familiar with the country X because I have worked/studied there for a period of time** 46. NBF5 I am familiar with the country X because part of my family/friends lives there**	Turban, 2001; Bianchi et al., 2017 (1) ; Lievens et al., 2005 (2); Author, 2015 (3-4,5)
Importance of ethics and social responsibility (ICSR)	The role and importance that social responsibility plays in the stakeholders' minds. This construct derives from the Perceived Role of Ethics and Social Responsibility (PRESOR) initially developed to measure managerial perceptions about ethics and social responsibility. It has been subsequently used by other scholars such as Singhapakadi (1995) and Turker (2009)	47. ICSR1 Being socially responsible is the most important thing a firm can do* 48. ICSR 2 Social responsibility of a firm is essential to its long-term profitability* 49. ICSR 3 The overall effectiveness of a business can be determined to a great extent by the degree to which it is socially responsible * 50. ICSR 4 Business has a social responsibility beyond making profit*	Singhapkadi, 1995; Turker, 2009 (1-4)
Marker variable - Self-esteem (SE)	"One's positive or negative attitude toward oneself and one's evaluation of one's own thoughts and feelings overall in relation to oneself" (Park and Park, 2019, p. 1).	51. SE1 On the whole, I am satisfied with myself* 52. SE2 I feel that I have a number of good qualities* 53. SE3 I feel I do not have much to be proud of* 54. SE4 I take a positive attitude toward myself*	Rosenberg, 1965 (1-4)

**** Literature review search***
***** Generated after the qualitative stage***

Table 5.7 Quantitative research instrument – Questionnaire. Author's elaboration (2017).

Appendix D – Table 6.7 EFA Results Pilot Test

EFA Results (US)							
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of sampling adequacy = 0.896 **Bartlett's Test of Sphericity** = 0.00							
Factor	**Items**	**Descriptive statistics**		**Components**			
		Mean	**SD**	**Loading**	**Eigenvalue**	**%Var**	**Cum%**
1	ENVSRIC1 ENVSRIC2 ENVSRIC3 ENVSRIC4 *ECOSRIC7*	3.44 2.86 3.91 2.92 *3.47*	1.54 1.51 1.35 1.36 *1.43*	- 0.830 - 0.848 - 0.534 - 0.812 *- 0.773*	2.261	9.422	47.316
2	PSRIC1 PSRIC2 PSRIC3 PSRIC4 *SSRIC4*	4.66 3.93 3.03 2.61 *4.15*	1.63 1.50 1.65 1.54 *1.54*	0.727 0.439 0.681 0.535 *0.574*	9.094	37.893	37.893
3	SSRIC2 SSRIC5	2.69 4.15	1.78 1.63	0.784 0.657	1.297	5.404	59.480
4	ECOSRIC3 ECOSRIC4 ECOSRIC5	3.38 3.27 3.43	1.35 1.43 1.29	- 0.758 - 0.723 - 0.662	1.623	6.761	54.077
5	*SSRIC3* *ECOSRIC2* *ECOSRIC1* *ETHSRIC1*	*5.77* *5.20* *4.76* *4.99*	*1.09* *1.28* *1.64* *1.36*	*0.808* *0.668* *0.666* *0.522*	*1.029*	*4.287*	*63.768*
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of sampling adequacy = 0.891 **Bartlett's Test of Sphericity** = 0.00							
7	NBI1 NBI2 NBI3 NBI4 *NBA1* *NBA2*	2.78 2.87 2.19 3.38 4.27 3.55	1.50 1.52 1.53 1.79 1.52 1.51	0.804 0.855 0.711 0.866 0.646 0.823	6.289	52.410	52.410
8	IAJV1 IAJV2 IAJV3 IAJV4 *NBA3*	4.26 4.19 3.94 3.01 3.86	1.67 1.83 1.97 1.84 1.62	0.622 0.721 0.879 0.928 0.738	1.361	11.339	63.749
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of sampling adequacy = 0.847 (ICSR); 0.865 (CI); 0.867 (NBF) **Bartlett's Test of Sphericity** = 0.00							

9	ICSR1 ICSR2 ICSR3 ICSR4	5.49 5.20 4.77 6.32	1.33 1.44 1.39 0.96	0.711 0.777 0.783 0.649	2.225	13.309	53.588
10	CI1 CI2 CI3 CI4	6.29 6.39 5.79 6.03	0.87 0.90 1.14 1.04	0.820 0.874 0.542 0.685	2.142	12.602	53.211
11	NBF1 NBF3 NBF4 NBF5	4.71 3.59 2.91 3.33	1.32 1.98 2.28 2.31	0.780 0.794 0.767 0.940	2.332	13.718	54.463
EFA Results (CA)							
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of sampling adequacy = 0.868 **Bartlett's Test of Sphericity** = 0.00							
Factor	**Items**	**Descriptive statistics**		**Components**			
		Mean	**SD**	**Loading**	**Eigenvalue**	**%Var**	**Cum%**
1	ENVSRIC1 ENVSRIC2 ENVSRIC3 ENVSRIC4	5.03 5.15 5.22 4.99	1.16 1.10 1.00 1.21	- 0.770 - 0.739 - 0.784 - 0.817	2.055	8.536	43.314
2	PSRIC1 PSRIC2 PSRIC3 PSRIC4 *SSRIC4*	5.96 4.91 5.40 4.64 *5.80*	0.84 1.08 0.94 1.31 *0.83*	0.599 0.532 0.511 0.572 *0.638*	1.150	4.972	64.605
3	ECOSRIC3 ECOSRIC4 ECOSRIC5	4.54 4.80 4.69	0.98 1.04 0.91	- 0.762 - 0.845 - 0.769	1.330	5.540	54.779
4	ETHSRIC1 ETHSRIC2 ECOSRIC7	5.50 5.55 5.03	0.97 0.94 1.03	0.740 0.707 0.532	8.340	34.751	34.510
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of sampling adequacy = 0.881 **Bartlett's Test of Sphericity** = 0.00							
5	NBI1 NBI2 NBI3 NBI4 *NBA2*	4.78 4.90 2.68 3.86 5.15	1.35 1.22 1.70 1.66 1.03	0.874 0.825 0.751 0.762 0.533	6.047	50.392	50.392
6	IAJV1 IAJV2 IAJV3 IAJV4	4.89 4.75 4.71 3.36	1.28 1.53 1.78 1.91	- 0.528 - 0.624 - 0.974 - 0.860	1.347	11.229	61.621
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of sampling adequacy = 0.838 (ICSR); 0.846 (CI); 0.855 (NBF)							

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = 0.00							
7	ICSR1 ICSR2 ICSR3 ICSR4	4.89 4.75 4.71 6.32	1.33 1.44 1.39 0.96	0.672 0.777 0.751 0.697	2.218	13.865	52.401
8	CI1 CI2 CI3 CI4	5.58 5.65 5.35 5.77	1.10 1.08 1.06 0.96	0.905 0.919 0.848 0.684	2.688	15.810	54.905
9	NBF1 NBF3 NBF4 NBF5	3.94 2.31 2.10 2.85	1.48 1.77 1.82 2.10	0.704 0.779 0.794 0.708	2.180	12.821	52.848

Table 6.7 EFA Results – Pilot Test. Author's elaboration (2020).

Appendix D – Table 6.9 Descriptive statistics – Normality Tests - Main study

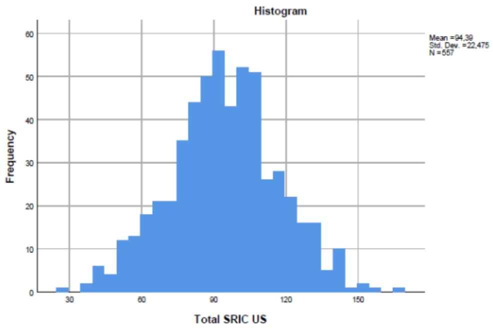
	Min	**Max**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Skewness**		**Kurtosis**	
	Statistic	**Statistic**	**Statistic**	**Statistic**	**Statistic**	**Std. Error**	**Statistic**	**Std. Error**
TSRICa	27	165	94.39	22.47	-0.01	0.10	-0.01	0.20
TSRICb	78	178	129.60	16.15	0.04	0.10	0.13	0.20
TNBIa	4	27	11.00	4.93	0.44	0.10	-0.34	0.20
TNBIb	4	28	15.66	4.39	-0.07	0.10	0.17	0.20
TNBAa	4	28	15.59	5.03	-0.17	0.10	-0.36	0.20
TNBAb	4	28	18.89	3.92	-0.51	0.10	0.58	0.20
TIAJVa	4	28	15.85	5.96	-0.13	0.10	-0.72	0.20
TIAJVb	4	28	17.88	5.19	-0.35	0.10	-0.32	0.20
TCIa	5	35	27.16	4.93	-0.89	0.10	1.26	0.20
TCIb	9	35	25.76	4.57	-0.37	0.10	0.05	0.20
TNBFa	5	35	18.74	6.40	0.58	0.10	-0.30	0.20
TNBFb	8	28	15.8	6.25	0.92	0.10	0.53	0.20
TICSR	4	28	21.23	4.22	-1.13	0.10	2.27	0.20

Table 6.9 Descriptive statistics (US and Canada) – Main Study

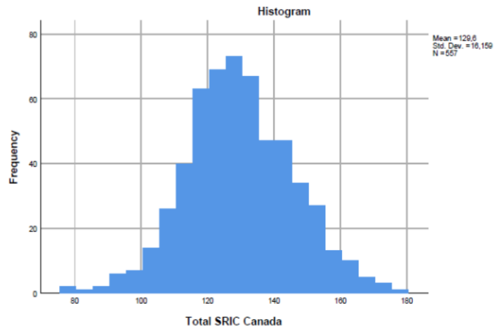
Appendix D – Figure 6.2 Normality Test – Graphical Representation- Main Study

Normality test – Graphical representation - Histogram

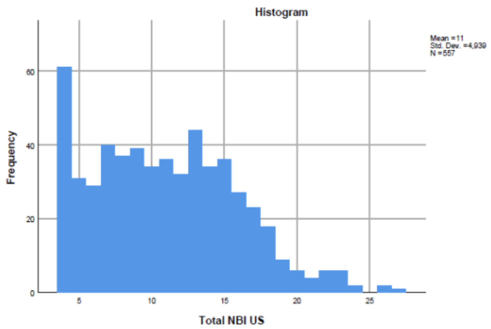
TSRIC US



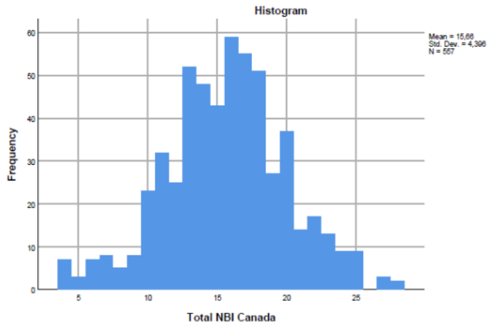
TSRIC Canada



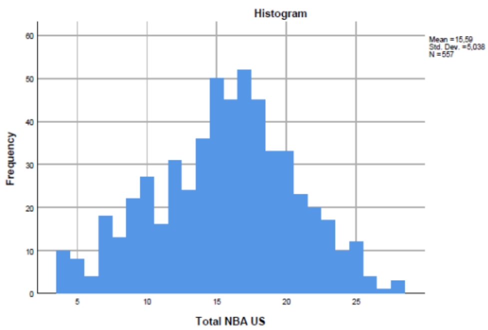
TNBI US



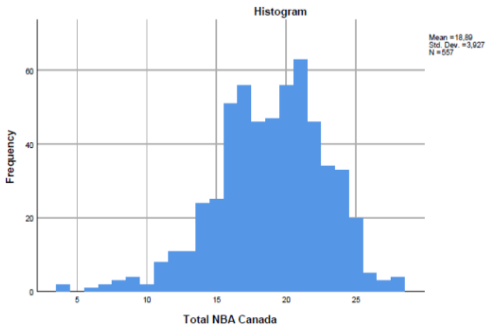
TNBI Canada



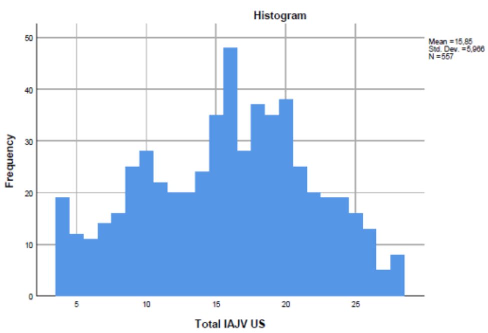
TNBA US



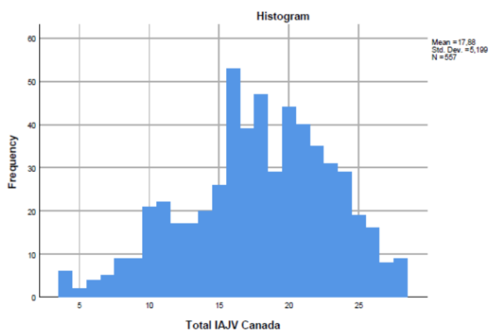
TNBA Canada



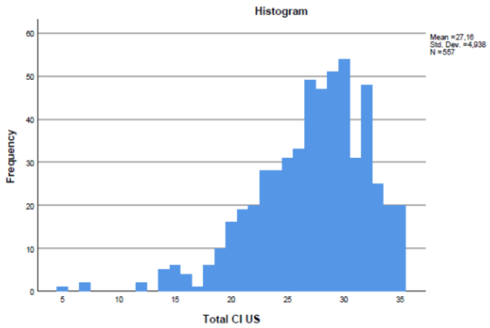
TIAJV US



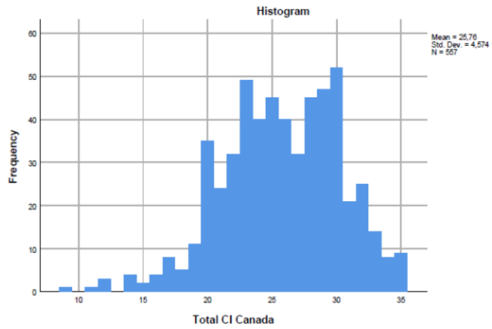
IAJV Canada



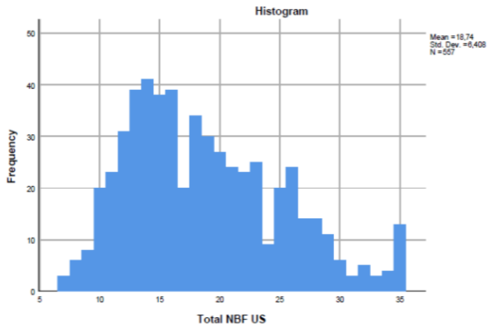
TCI US



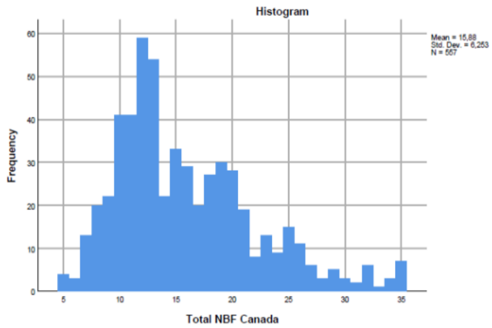
TCI Canada



TNBF US



TNBF Canada



ICSR

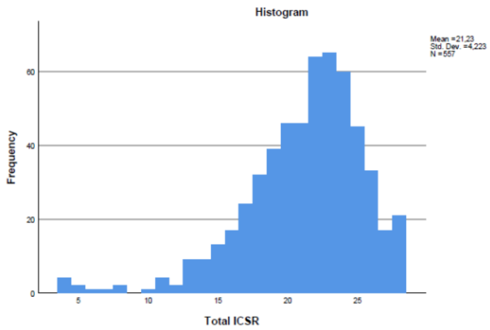


Fig. 6.2 Normality tests – Histograms (US and Canada) – Main study. Author's elaboration (2020)

Appendix D – Table 6.11 Boxplots - Main study

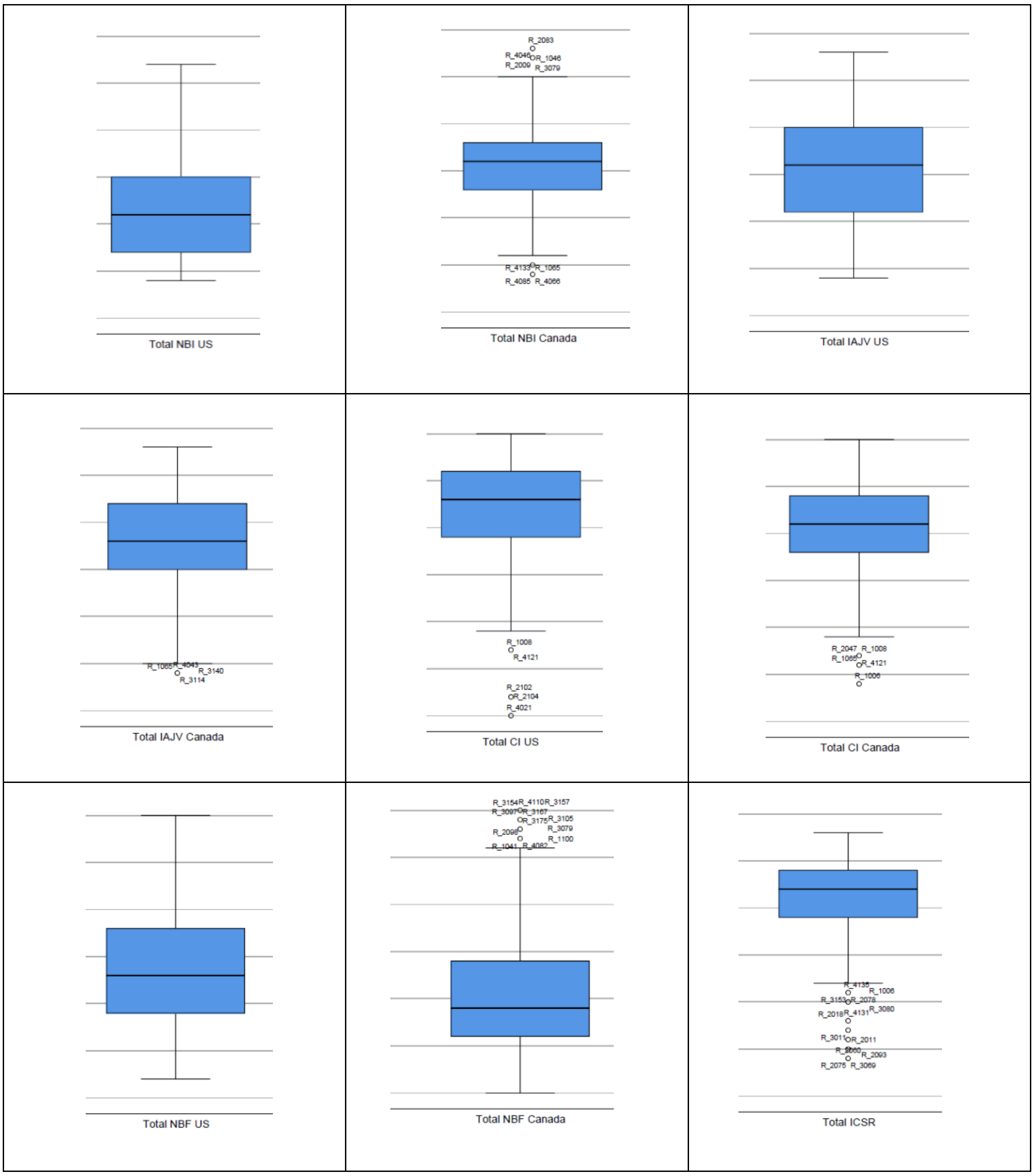


Table 6.11 Boxplots (US and Canada) – Main Study. Author's elaboration (2020).

Appendix D – Tables 6.12-6.15 Correlation Matrices – Multicollinearity check

1. Correlation matrix US

Correlations US

		TSRICa	TENVSRICa	TPSRICa	TSSRICa	TECOSRICa	TETHSRICa	TNBIa	TNBAa	TIAJVa	TCIa	TNBFa
TSRICa	Pearson Correlation	1	,748**	,761**	,843**	,857**	,772**	,645**	,599**	,491**	,289**	,110**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,009
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TENVSRICa	Pearson Correlation	,748**	1	,428**	,528**	,502**	,504**	,526**	,469**	,328**	,112**	,062
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,008	,144
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TPSRICa	Pearson Correlation	,761**	,428**	1	,617**	,534**	,547**	,531**	,356**	,253**	,171**	,161**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TSSRICa	Pearson Correlation	,843**	,528**	,617**	1	,675**	,584**	,541**	,510**	,445**	,239**	,103*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,015
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TECOSRICa	Pearson Correlation	,857**	,502**	,534**	,675**	1	,606**	,463**	,526**	,508**	,358**	,030
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,479
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TETHSRICa	Pearson Correlation	,772**	,504**	,547**	,584**	,606**	1	,538**	,521**	,389**	,235**	,130**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000		,000	,000	,000	,000	,002
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TNBIa	Pearson Correlation	,645**	,526**	,531**	,541**	,463**	,538**	1	,653**	,476**	,141**	,288**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000		,000	,000	,001	,000
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TNBAa	Pearson Correlation	,599**	,469**	,356**	,510**	,526**	,521**	,653**	1	,694**	,377**	,172**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000		,000	,000	,000
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TIAJVa	Pearson Correlation	,491**	,328**	,253**	,445**	,508**	,389**	,476**	,694**	1	,351**	,190**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000		,000	,000
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TCIa	Pearson Correlation	,289**	,112**	,171**	,239**	,358**	,235**	,141**	,377**	,351**	1	,211**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,008	,000	,000	,000	,000	,001	,000	,000		,000
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TNBFa	Pearson Correlation	,110**	,062	,161**	,103*	,030	,130**	,288**	,172**	,190**	,211**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,009	,144	,000	,015	,479	,002	,000	,000	,000	,000	
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557

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

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

Table 6.12 Correlation matrix – US – Main study. Author's elaboration (2020).

2. Correlation Matrix Canada

Correlations Canada

		TENVSRICb	TPSRICb	TSSRICb	TECOSRICb	TETHSRICb	TNBIb	TNBAb	TIAJVb	TCIb	TNBFb
TENVSRICb	Pearson Correlation	1	,421**	,434**	,446**	,422**	,411**	,325**	,272**	,166**	,153**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TPSRICb	Pearson Correlation	,421**	1	,580**	,537**	,572**	,314**	,267**	,154**	,268**	,088*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,037
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TSSRICb	Pearson Correlation	,434**	,580**	1	,647**	,553**	,380**	,409**	,345**	,377**	,182**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TECOSRICb	Pearson Correlation	,446**	,537**	,647**	1	,595**	,406**	,413**	,382**	,367**	,172**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TETHSRICb	Pearson Correlation	,422**	,572**	,553**	,595**	1	,425**	,407**	,266**	,352**	,146**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000		,000	,000	,000	,000	,001
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TNBIb	Pearson Correlation	,411**	,314**	,380**	,406**	,425**	1	,562**	,386**	,167**	,376**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000		,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TNBAb	Pearson Correlation	,325**	,267**	,409**	,413**	,407**	,562**	1	,595**	,399**	,265**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000		,000	,000	,000
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TIAJVb	Pearson Correlation	,272**	,154**	,345**	,382**	,266**	,386**	,595**	1	,414**	,335**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000		,000	,000
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TCIb	Pearson Correlation	,166**	,268**	,377**	,367**	,352**	,167**	,399**	,414**	1	,256**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000		,000
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TNBFb	Pearson Correlation	,153**	,088*	,182**	,172**	,146**	,376**	,265**	,335**	,256**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,037	,000	,000	,001	,000	,000	,000	,000	
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557

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

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

Table 6.13 Correlation matrix – Canada – Main study. Author's elaboration (2020).

3. VIF values (US)

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics Tolerance	VIF
1	TENVSRICa	,659	1,517
	TPSRICa	,563	1,776
	TSSRICa	,492	2,032
	TETHSRICa	,564	1,774

a. Dependent Variable: TECOSRICa

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics Tolerance	VIF
1	TENVSRICa	,673	1,487
	TPSRICa	,624	1,603
	TETHSRICa	,531	1,882
	TECOSRICa	,542	1,845

a. Dependent Variable: TSSRICa

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics Tolerance	VIF
1	TPSRICa	,559	1,788
	TETHSRICa	,543	1,842
	TECOSRICa	,470	2,126
	TSSRICa	,436	2,294

a. Dependent Variable: TENVSRICa

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics Tolerance	VIF
1	TETHSRICa	,548	1,823
	TECOSRICa	,466	2,146
	TSSRICa	,469	2,132
	TENVSRICa	,649	1,541

a. Dependent Variable: TPSRICa

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics Tolerance	VIF
1	TECOSRICa	,499	2,003
	TSSRICa	,427	2,340
	TENVSRICa	,674	1,484
	TPSRICa	,587	1,704

a. Dependent Variable: TETHSRICa

Table 6.14 VIF Values (US) – Main study. Author's elaboration (2020).

4. VIF values (Canada)

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics Tolerance	VIF
1	TPSRICb	,561	1,782
	TSSRICb	,493	2,030
	TECOSRICb	,491	2,039
	TETHSRICb	,542	1,846

a. Dependent Variable: TENVSRICb

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics Tolerance	VIF
1	TECOSRICb	,562	1,779
	TETHSRICb	,545	1,835
	TENVSRICb	,739	1,352
	TPSRICb	,594	1,684

a. Dependent Variable: TSSRICb

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics Tolerance	VIF
1	TETHSRICb	,581	1,722
	TENVSRICb	,745	1,342
	TPSRICb	,559	1,789
	TSSRICb	,569	1,758

a. Dependent Variable: TECOSRICb

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics Tolerance	VIF
1	TENVSRICb	,740	1,352
	TPSRICb	,599	1,670
	TSSRICb	,496	2,017
	TECOSRICb	,522	1,916

a. Dependent Variable: TETHSRICb

Table 6.15 VIF Values (Canada) – Main study. Author's elaboration (2020).

Appendix D – Tables 6.16-6.17 Common Method Bias – Harman's Test

1. Harman's Test for US

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	12,257	25,015	25,015	11,601	23,676	23,676
2	4,520	9,224	34,239			
3	2,857	5,830	40,069			
4	2,553	5,210	45,278			
5	1,976	4,032	49,310			
6	1,629	3,325	52,636			
7	1,395	2,846	55,482			
8	1,093	2,231	57,713			
9	1,062	2,167	59,880			
10	,992	2,024	61,904			
11	,941	1,921	63,826			
12	,876	1,788	65,614			
13	,824	1,681	67,295			
14	,793	1,618	68,913			
15	,779	1,590	70,503			
16	,722	1,473	71,975			
17	,697	1,422	73,398			
18	,673	1,374	74,772			
19	,653	1,332	76,103			
20	,635	1,295	77,398			
21	,627	1,280	78,678			
22	,599	1,223	79,901			
23	,566	1,155	81,057			
24	,553	1,129	82,186			
25	,527	1,076	83,262			
26	,518	1,058	84,320			
27	,498	1,017	85,337			
28	,459	,936	86,273			
29	,448	,915	87,188			
30	,445	,908	88,096			
31	,441	,900	88,996			
32	,434	,885	89,881			
33	,394	,804	90,685			
34	,382	,779	91,463			

35	,359	,733	92,196			
36	,344	,703	92,899			
37	,342	,697	93,596			
38	,336	,686	94,283			
39	,327	,668	94,950			
40	,312	,637	95,587			
41	,299	,611	96,198			
42	,284	,579	96,777			
43	,268	,547	97,324			
44	,252	,514	97,838			
45	,241	,491	98,330			
46	,223	,454	98,784			
47	,218	,446	99,230			
48	,200	,407	99,637			
49	,178	,363	100,000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Table 6.16 Harman's Test (US) – Main study. Author's elaboration (2020).

2. Harman's test for Canada

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Factor	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	10,941	21,883	21,883	10,202	20,404	20,404
2	3,668	7,336	29,219			
3	3,244	6,489	35,708			
4	2,450	4,899	40,607			
5	1,907	3,814	44,421			
6	1,619	3,238	47,659			
7	1,482	2,963	50,622			
8	1,329	2,658	53,280			
9	1,267	2,533	55,813			
10	1,058	2,116	57,929			
11	1,022	2,043	59,972			
12	,940	1,880	61,852			
13	,909	1,817	63,670			
14	,886	1,771	65,441			
15	,845	1,690	67,131			
16	,813	1,627	68,757			

17	,780	1,560	70,317			
18	,759	1,518	71,835			
19	,706	1,412	73,247			
20	,680	1,360	74,607			
21	,657	1,315	75,922			
22	,644	1,287	77,209			
23	,620	1,240	78,449			
24	,618	1,237	79,686			
25	,595	1,191	80,877			
26	,564	1,129	82,006			
27	,545	1,090	83,096			
28	,535	1,069	84,165			
29	,531	1,062	85,228			
30	,483	,966	86,194			
31	,475	,951	87,145			
32	,470	,939	88,084			
33	,463	,925	89,009			
34	,457	,913	89,922			
35	,426	,851	90,773			
36	,424	,847	91,621			
37	,404	,807	92,428			
38	,389	,777	93,205			
39	,364	,728	93,933			
40	,352	,703	94,636			
41	,334	,668	95,304			
42	,324	,648	95,952			
43	,313	,626	96,578			
44	,292	,583	97,161			
45	,284	,568	97,729			
46	,264	,527	98,256			
47	,249	,498	98,754			
48	,235	,470	99,225			
49	,204	,408	99,632			
50	,184	,368	100,000			

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Table 6.17 Harman's Test (Canada) – Main study. Author's elaboration (2020).

Appendix D – Tables 6.18-6.19 Common Method Bias – Correlational Marker Tests

1. Correlation matrix US – marker variable

		TENVSRICa	TPSRICa	TSSRICa	TECOSRICa	TETHSRICa	TNBIa	TNBAa	TIAJVa	TSE
TENVSRICa	Pearson Correlation	1	,428**	,528**	,502**	,504**	,526**	,469**	,328**	-,079
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,063
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TPSRICa	Pearson Correlation	,428**	1	,617**	,534**	,547**	,531**	,356**	,253**	-,041
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,334
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TSSRICa	Pearson Correlation	,528**	,617**	1	,675**	,584**	,541**	,510**	,445**	-,008
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,842
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TECOSRICa	Pearson Correlation	,502**	,534**	,675**	1	,606**	,463**	,526**	,508**	,036
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000		,000	,000	,000	,000	,400
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TETHSRICa	Pearson Correlation	,504**	,547**	,584**	,606**	1	,538**	,521**	,389**	,011
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000		,000	,000	,000	,799
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TNBIa	Pearson Correlation	,526**	,531**	,541**	,463**	,538**	1	,653**	,476**	-,094*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000		,000	,000	,027
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TNBAa	Pearson Correlation	,469**	,356**	,510**	,526**	,521**	,653**	1	,694**	,010
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000		,000	,820
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TIAJVa	Pearson Correlation	,328**	,253**	,445**	,508**	,389**	,476**	,694**	1	-,011
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000		,796
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TSE	Pearson Correlation	-,079	-,041	-,008	,036	,011	-,094*	,010	-,011	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,063	,334	,842	,400	,799	,027	,820	,796	
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557

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

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

Table 6.18 Correlation matrix (US) – Marker Variable – Main study. Author's elaboration (2020).

2. Correlation Matrix Canada – marker variable

		TENVSRICb	TPSRICb	TSSRICb	TECOSRICb	TETHSRICb	TNBIb	TNBAb	TIAJVb	TSE
TENVSRICb	Pearson Correlation	1	,421**	,434**	,446**	,422**	,411**	,325**	,272**	,044
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,295
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TPSRICb	Pearson Correlation	,421**	1	,580**	,537**	,572**	,314**	,267**	,154**	,111**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,009
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TSSRICb	Pearson Correlation	,434**	,580**	1	,647**	,553**	,380**	,409**	,345**	,146**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,001
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TECOSRICb	Pearson Correlation	,446**	,537**	,647**	1	,595**	,406**	,413**	,382**	,163**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TETHSRICb	Pearson Correlation	,422**	,572**	,553**	,595**	1	,425**	,407**	,266**	,128**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000		,000	,000	,000	,002
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TNBIb	Pearson Correlation	,411**	,314**	,380**	,406**	,425**	1	,562**	,386**	-,032
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000		,000	,000	,451
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TNBAb	Pearson Correlation	,325**	,267**	,409**	,413**	,407**	,562**	1	,595**	,134**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000		,000	,002
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TIAJVb	Pearson Correlation	,272**	,154**	,345**	,382**	,266**	,386**	,595**	1	,058
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000		,175
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557
TSE	Pearson Correlation	,044	,111**	,146**	,163**	,128**	-,032	,134**	,058	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,295	,009	,001	,000	,002	,451	,002	,175	
	N	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557	557

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

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

Table 6.19 Correlation matrix (Canada) – Marker Variable – Main study. Author's elaboration (2020).

3. SEM – Before and after marker variable (SE)

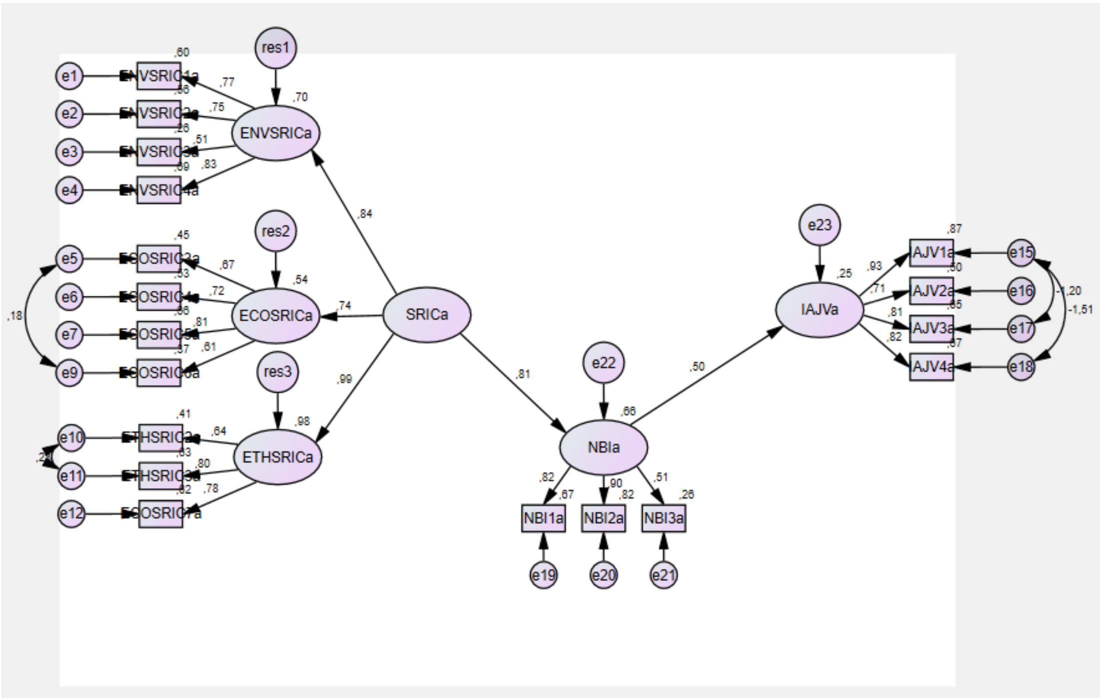


Fig. 6.3 CMB -Before marker variable. Auhtor's elaboration (2020).

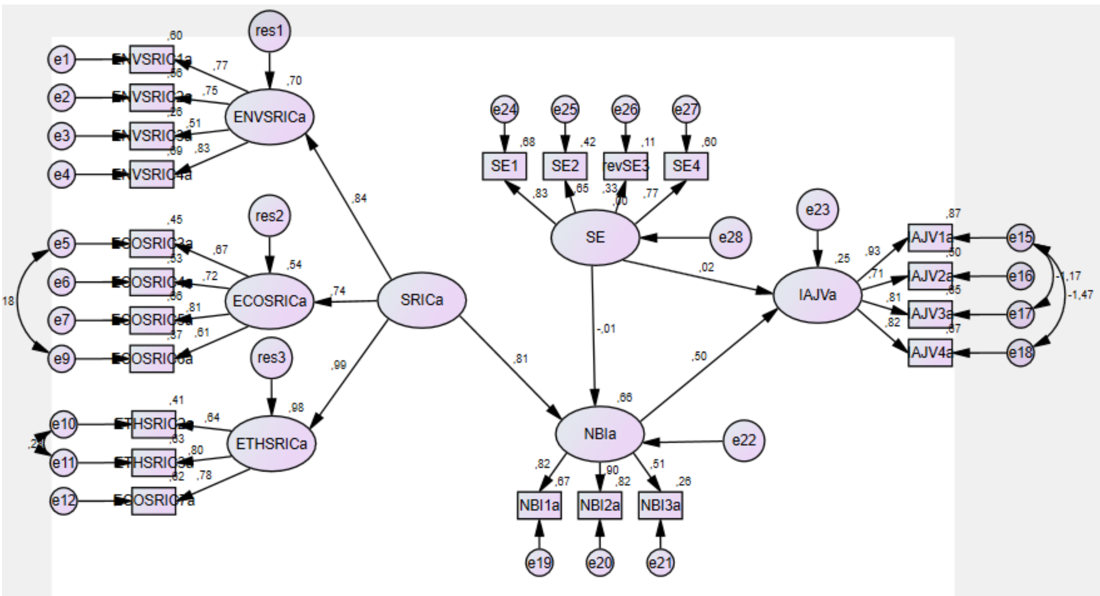


Fig. 6.4 CMB- After marker variable. Author's elaboration (2020).

Appendix D – Figure 6.5 CFA Model (AMOS) – Main Study

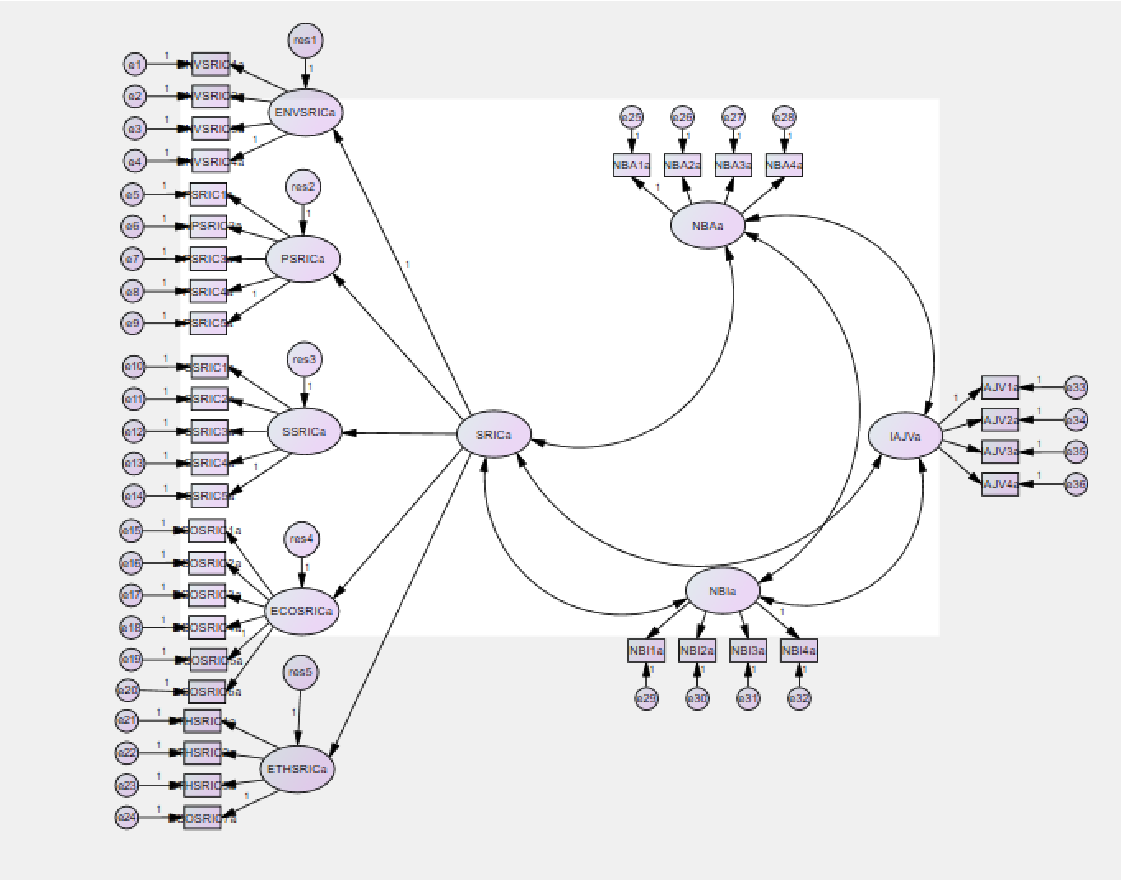


Figure 6.5 CFA Model – Main study. Author's elaboration (2020).

Appendix D – Tables 6.23-6.24 CFA - Modification Indices Reports

CFA -MI & EPC - US					
Item	**Errors**	**M.I.**	**EPC**	**Paths**	**M.I. & EPC**
PSRIC5a	e9 <--> res4	16.628*	0.198	PSRIC5a - NBI3a	10.113* (-0.111)
	e9 <--> res1	16.274*	-0.203		
	e9 <--> e20	8.144**	0.171		
	e9 <--> e36	14.175*	-0.284		
	e9 <--> e31	11.537*	-0.250	PSRIC5a - ETHSRIC1a	26.318* (0.191)
	e9 <--> e21	29.281*	0.404		
	e9 <-->e22	4.191**	0.138		
	e9 <--> e23	17.037*	-0.205		
	e9 <--> e15	14.284*	0.284	PSRIC5a- ECOSRIC1a	18.930* (0.154)
	e9 <--> e16	36.845*	0.394		
	e9 <--> e18	4.191**	-0.128		
	e9 <--> e10	5.867**	-0.156		
	e9 <--> e12	52.727*	0.496	PSRIC5a - ECOSRIC2a	39.230* (0.252)
	e9 <--> e13	23.507*	0.354		
	e9 <--> e14	5.037**	0.161		
	e9 <--> e5	11.153*	0.288		
	e9 <--> e6	8.498**	0.218	PSRIC5a - SSRIC3a	50.161* (0.297)
	e9 <--> e8	27.000*	-0.317		
				PSRIC5a - SSRIC4a	18.197* (0.149)
revPSRIC2a	e6 <--> res1	16.602*	0.220	revPSRIC2a - ENVSRICa	8.507** (0.156)
	e6 <--> e28	9.162**	-0.282		
	e6 <--> e24	7.564**	-0.164		
	e6 <--> e15	12.163*	0.281		
	e6 <--> e10	6.118**	-0.171	revPSRIC2a - NBA4a	9.252** (0.106)
	e6 <--> e13	9.726**	0.244		
	e6 <--> e5	19.642*	0.409		
				revPSRIC2a - PSRIC1a	12.191* (0.110)
				revPSRIC2a - PSRIC5a	6.991** (0.112)
				revPSRIC2a - ENVSRIC1a	7.712** (0.107)

				revPSRIC2a - ENVSRIC2a revPSRIC2a - ENVSRIC4a	8.572** (0.111) 10.565* (0.135)
SSRIC5a	e14 <--> res4 e14 <--> e31 e14 <--> e21 e14 <--> e23 e14 <--> e12 e14 <--> e13	4.019** 5.293** 6.012** 5.456** 10.056* 9.617**	0.100 -0.173 0.187 -0.119 0.222 0.232	SSRIC5a - SSRIC3a	9.200** (0.130)
SSRIC3a	e12<->NBIa e12<->NBAa e12 <--> res4 e12 <--> res1 e12 <--> e36 e12 <--> e33 e12 <--> e29 e12 <--> e31 e12 <--> e32 e12 <--> e27 e12 <--> e21 e12 <--> e22 e12 <--> e23 e12 <--> e15 e12 <--> e16 e12 <--> e10	24.506* 7.730** 31.314* 9.659** 38.713* 17.032* 11.526* 27.122* 4.994** 4.453** 24.397* 11.092* 15.562* 24.675* 73.179* 12.247*	-0.162 0.116 0.265 -0.153 -0.458 0.261 -0.178 -0.374 0.160 0.131 0.360 0.215 -0.191 0.364 0.543 -0.220	SSRIC3a <--- IAJVa SSRIC3a <--- ECOSRICa SSRIC3a <--- ECOSRIC6a SSRIC3a <--- IAJV1a SSRIC3a <--- NBI1a SSRIC3a <--- NBI3a SSRIC3a <--- ETHSRIC1a SSRIC3a <--- ECOSRIC1a SSRIC3a <--- ECOSRIC2a SSRIC3a <--- SSRIC5a	6.164** (0.108) 8.773** (0.155) 7.955** (0.106) 17.606* (0.132) 8.624** (0.101) 26.137* (0.174) 20.126* (0.163) 31.181* (0.193) 73.468* (0.337) 8.303** (0.108)

				SSRIC3a <--- PSRIC4a SSRIC3a <--- PSRIC5a	17.807* (0.158) 44.663* (0.259)
ECOSRIC1	e15 <--> res2 e15 <--> e36 e15 <--> e33 e15 <--> e31 e15 <--> e28 e15 <--> e21 e15 <--> e22	20.125* 30.309* 17.738* 7.315** 6.868** 7.089** 4.969**	0.118 -0.446 0.293 -0.214 -0.245 0.213 0.158	ECOSRIC1a <--- PSRICa ECOSRIC1a <--- IAJV1a ECOSRIC1a <--- ETHSRIC1a ECOSRIC1a <--- ECOSRIC2a ECOSRIC1a <--- SSRIC1a ECOSRIC1a <--- SSRIC3a ECOSRIC1a <--- PSRIC1a ECOSRIC1a <--- revPSRIC2a ECOSRIC1a <--- PSRIC5a	6.573** (0.309) 11.223* (0.116) 8.030** (0.113) 31.012* (0.241) 9.523** (0.115) 25.052* (0.225) 14.860* (0.122) 16.769* (0.158) 18.774* (0.185)
ETHSRIC1	e21<-->NBAa e21 <--> res4 e21 <--> res1 e21 <--> e20 e21 <--> e36 e21 <--> e31 e21 <--> e25	7.413** 31.509* 16.419* 25.210* 7.382** 20.645* 5.521**	0.124 0.291 -0.218 0.321 -0.219 -0.357 0.158	ETHSRIC1a <--- ECOSRICa ETHSRIC1a <--- ENVSRICa ETHSRIC1a <--- ECOSRIC6a ETHSRIC1a <--- NBI3a ETHSRIC1a <--- ECOSRIC1a	8.976** (0.172) 4.059* (-0.108) 28.496* (0.220) 14.511 * (-0.142) 13.083* (0.137)

				ETHSRIC1a <--- ECOSRIC2a ETHSRIC1a <--- ECOSRIC5a ETHSRIC1a <--- SSRIC3a ETHSRIC1a <--- SSRIC4a ETHSRIC1a <--- PSRIC4a ETHSRIC1a <--- PSRIC5a ETHSRIC1a <--- ENVSRIC2a	47.572* (0.296) 8.352** (0.119) 22.355* (0.212) 8.293**(0.108) 15.824* (-0.162) 22.565* (0.201) 11.764* (-0.130)
NBA4	e28 <--> e31 e28 <--> e32	9.497** 10.402*	0.282 0.295	NBA4a <--- NBI3a NBA4a <--- NBI4a NBA4a <--- ECOSRIC1a NBA4a <--- SSRIC4a NBA4a <--- revPSRIC2a	7.232** (0.117) 7.397** (0.115) 6.791** (-0.115) 6.600** (-0.112) 8.911 ** (-0.133)

** Above 10 threshold (Byrne, 2016)*
*** Above 4 threshold (Hair et al., 2010)*

Table 6.23 Modification indices and EPC (US) - Main study. Author's elaboration (2020).

CFA -MI & EPC - Canada					
Item	**Errors**	**M.I.**	**EPC**	**Paths**	**M.I. & EPC**
PSRIC4b	e8 <--> res1 e8 <--> e33 e8 <--> e31 e8 <--> e20 e8 <--> e16 e8 <--> e10 e8 <--> e12 e8 <--> e13 e8<-->e9	10.711* 5.896** 12.228* 10.269* 10.982* 7.459** 7.179** 7.129** 17.911*	0.147 -0.122 0.253 -0.139 -0.150 0.117 -0.115 -0.112 -0.174	PSRIC4b <--- NBIb PSRIC4b <--- ENVSRICb PSRIC4b <--- NBI3b PSRIC4b <--- ECOSRIC6b PSRIC4b <--- ECOSRIC2b PSRIC4b <--- PSRIC5b PSRIC4b <--- ENVSRIC1b PSRIC4b <--- ENVSRIC4b	7.838** (0.203) 8.038** (0.134) 17.682* (0.116) 6.995** (-0.112) 8.229** (-0.120) 11.463* (-0.154) 9.191** (0.112) 8.845** (0.105)
revPSRIC2b	e6 <--> e31 e6 <--> e28 e6 <--> e20 e6 <--> e5	11.055* 13.976* 9.674** 4.848**	-0.246 -0.268 0.138 0.101	revPSRIC2b <--- NBA4b revPSRIC2b <--- ECOSRIC6b	15.334*(-0.117) 5.723** (0.103)
SSRIC5b	e14 <--> e15	7.718**	0.126	SSRIC4b <--- ECOSRIC6b	8.168** (0.100)
SSRIC3b	e12 <--> e36 e12 <--> e33 e12 <--> e15 e12 <--> e16 e12 <--> e10	11.200* 26.060* 16.156* 18.507* 9.422**	-0.186 0.217 0.165 0.165 -0.111	SSRIC3b <--- NBIb SSRIC3b <--- ECOSRIC1b SSRIC3b <--- ECOSRIC2b SSRIC3b <--- PSRIC5b	4.916** (-0.136) 17.529* (0.142) 18.854* (0.154) 9.329** (0.118)
ECOSRIC1b	e15 <--> e36 e15 <--> e33 e15 <--> e30	13.098* 10.704* 8.635**	-0.228 0.157 -0.112	ECOSRIC1b <--- ECOSRIC2b	10.935* (0.133) 6.426** (0.101)

				ECOSRIC1b <--- SSRIC5b ECOSRIC1b <--- SSRIC2b ECOSRIC1b <--- SSRIC3b	8.407** (0.105) 12.804* (0.156)
NBA4b	e28<--> IAJVb e28<--> SRICb e28<--> res2 e28 <--> e36 e28 <--> e31 e28 <--> e32	7.722** 10.027* 12.833* 5.301** 35.429* 26.985*	0.148 -0.116 -0.124 0.210 0.597 0.463	NBA4b <--- PSRICb NBA4b <--- NBI3b NBA4b <--- NBI4b NBA4b <--- ETHSRIC3b NBA4b <--- ECOSRIC6b NBA4b <--- SSRIC4b NBA4b <--- PSRIC1b NBA4b <--- revPSRIC2b NBA4b <--- PSRIC3b	7.326** (-0.330) 29.240* (0.206) 21.125* (0.194) 4.229** (-0.119) 9.701**(-0.182) 5.946** (-0.147) 9.988** (-0.184) 18.723* (-0.232) 5.063** (-0.127)
NBI4b	e32 <--> IAJVb e32<-- > NBAb e32 <--> e30 e32 <--> e31	6.035** 6.428** 11.799* 104.223	0.120 0.104 -0.172 0.937	NBI4b <--- IAJVb NBI4b <--- NBAb NBI4b <--- IAJV1b NBI4b <--- NBI3b NBI4b <--- NBA4b	11.909*(0.238) 6.255**(0.184) 9.796**(0.135) 84.900*(0.321) 31.495*(0.208)

				NBI4b <--- NBA3b NBI4b <--- ECOSRIC6b NBI4b <--- ECOSRIC4b	7.950**(0.116) 5.292**(-0.123) 6.253**(0.138)
NBI3b	e31 <-> SRICb e31 <- res2 e31 <-> res1 e31 <-> e36 e31 <-> e30	9.841** 9.311** 6.139** 5.951** 4.280**	-0.118 -0.109 0.160 0.229 -0.117	NBI3b <--- SSRICb NBI3b <--- PSRICb NBI3b <--- NBI4b NBI3b <--- NBA4b NBI3b <--- ETHSRIC1b NBI3b <--- ECOSRIC6b NBI3b <--- SSRIC3b NBI3b <--- SSRIC4b NBI3b <--- PSRIC5b NBI3b <--- PSRIC1b NBI3b <--- revPSRIC2b	1.589 ** (0.248) 6.118** (-0.311) 80.176* (0.389) 32.427* (0.237) 7.632** (-0.188) 20.513* (-0.273) 5.048** (-0.146) 12.462* (-0.219) 14.222* (-0.245) 15.661* (-0.237) 14.993* (-0.214)

** Above 10 threshold (Byrne, 2016)*
*** Above 4 threshold (Hair et al., 2010)*

Table 6.24 Modification indices and EPC (Canada) - Main study. Author's elaboration (2020).

Appendix D – Figure 6.6 Model after respecification

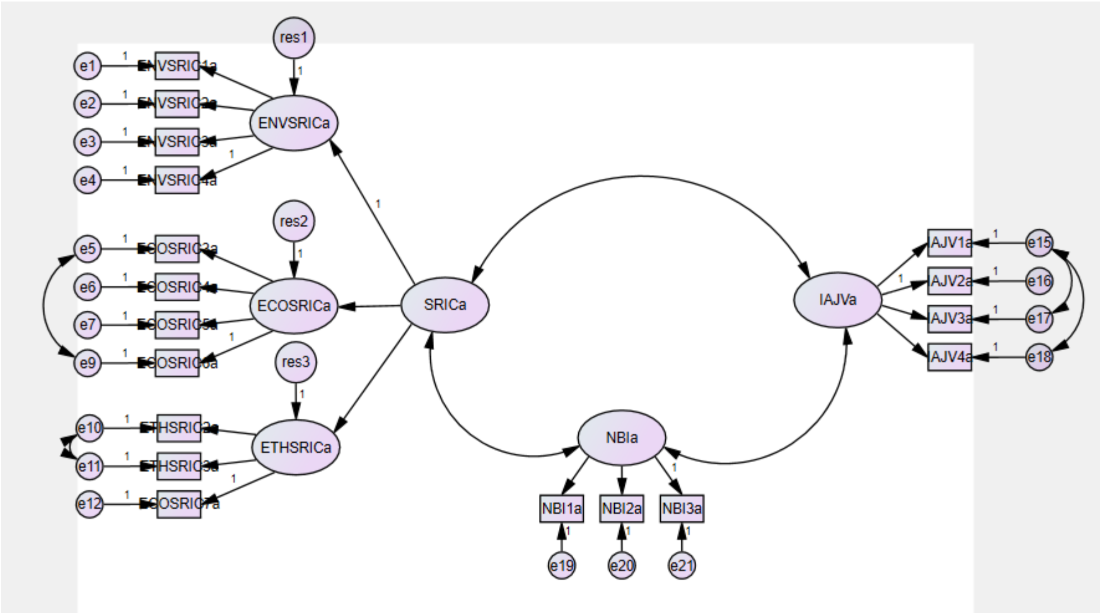


Fig. 6.6 Model after respecification – Main study. Author's elaboration (2020).

Appendix D – Table 6.30 Discriminant Validity –Main Study

	CR	AVE	IAJVa	NBIa	SRICa
IAJVa	0.891	0.674	**0.821**		
NBIa	0.803	0.589	0.479	**0.768***	
SRICa	0.896	0.744	0.500	0.801	**0.862**

	CR	AVE	IAJVb	NBIb	SRICb
IAJVb	0.801	0.503	**0.709**		
NBIb	0.872	0.699	0.475	**0.836***	
SRICb	0.745	0.517	0.452	0.723	**0.719**

Table 6.30 Discriminant validity – Respecified model. Author's elaboration (2020).

Appendix D – Figure 6.7 SEM Path Diagram – Main Study

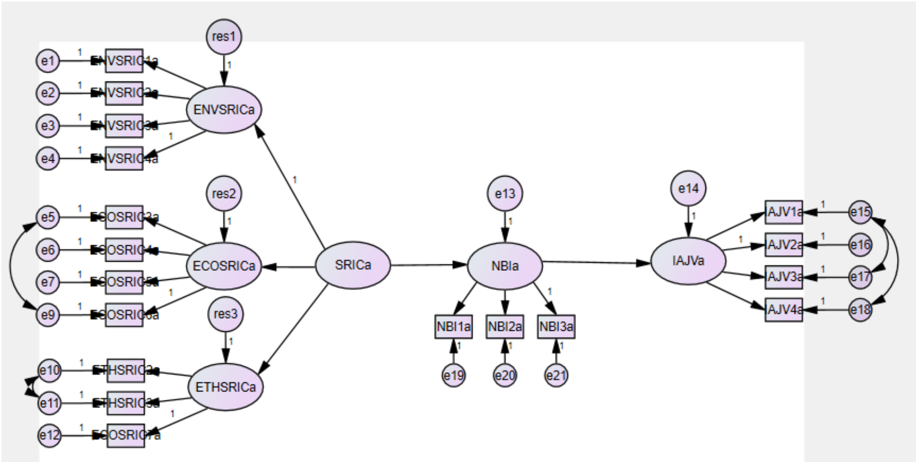


Fig. 6.7 SEM Path Diagram – Main Study. Author's elaboration (2020).

Appendix D – Figure 6.9 Testing Hypothesis 5 (SRIC<->CI)

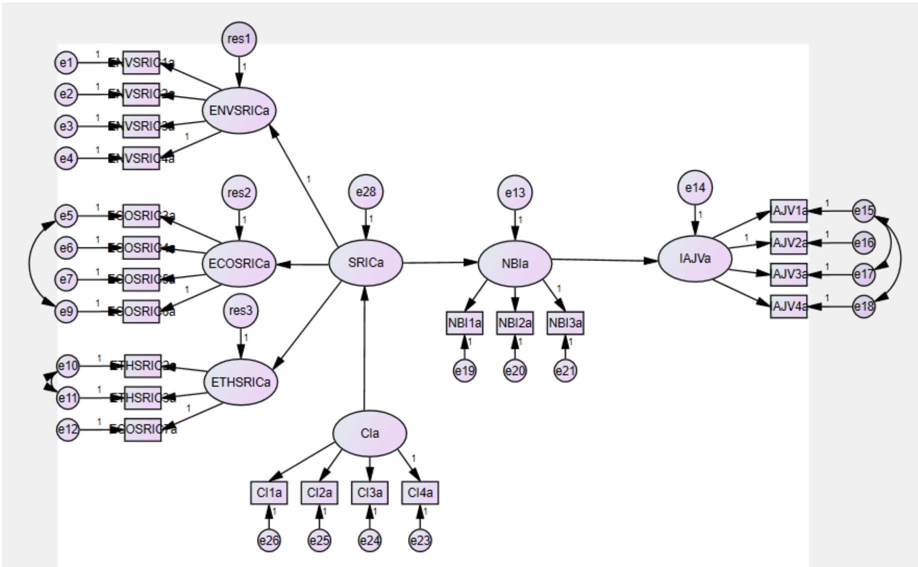


Figure 6.9 – Testing Hypothesis 5. Author'elaboration (2020)

Appendix D – Figures 6.10-6.12 Mediation models – Main Study

1. Full mediation model

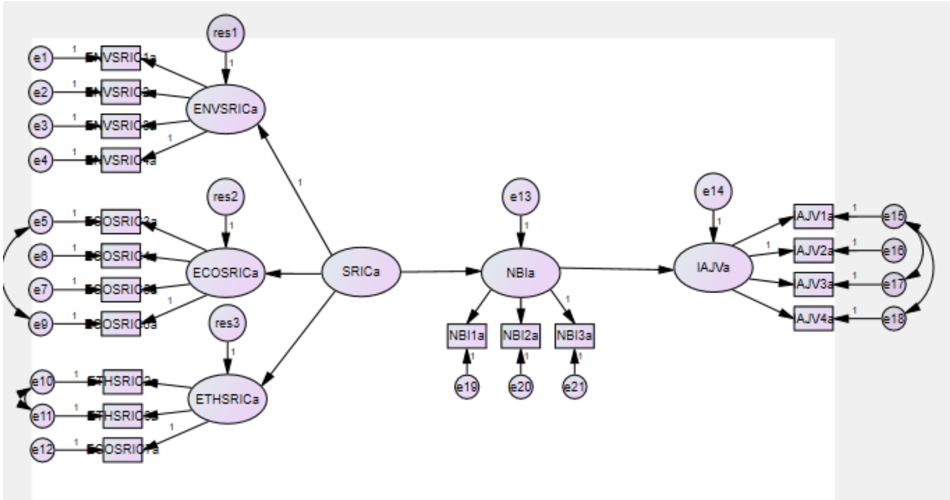


Fig. 6.10 Full mediation model. Author's elaboration (2020).

2. Partial mediation model

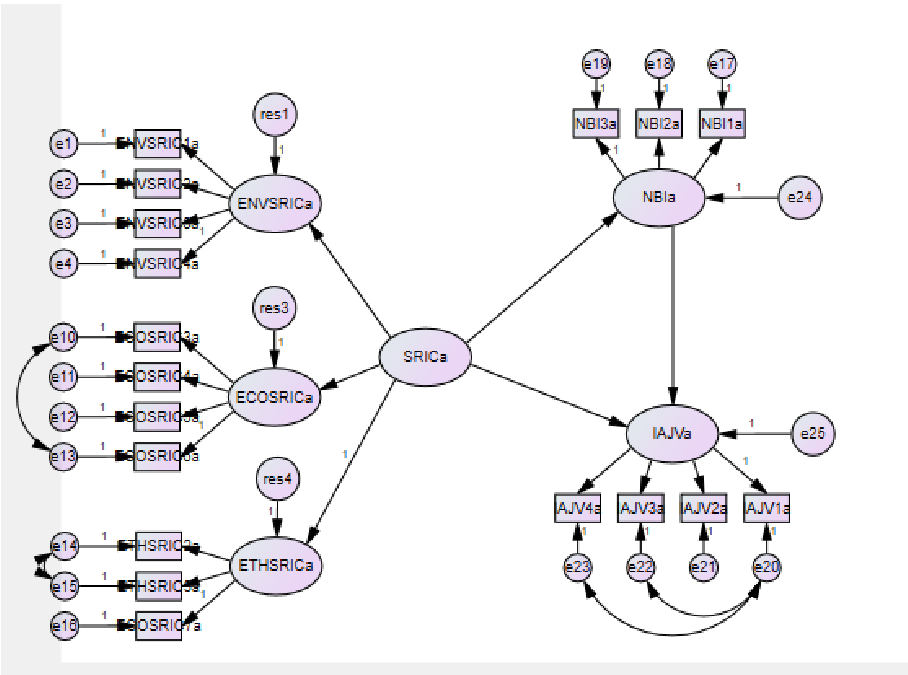


Fig. 6.11 Partial mediation model. Author's elaboration (2020).

3. Direct effect model

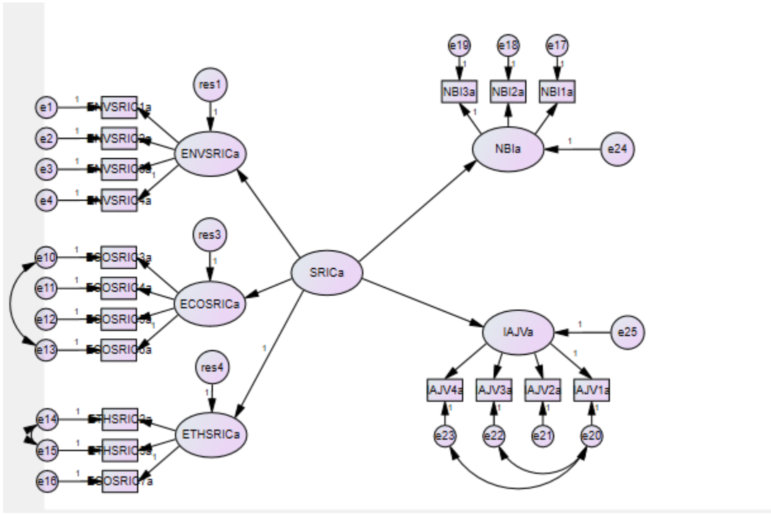


Fig. 6.12 Direct effect model. Author's elaboration (2020).

4. Results of bootstrapping using PROCESS

US

```
 TNBIaAm

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,6435      ,4141     8,8613   392,2803     1,0000   555,0000      ,0000

Model
              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     -,6607      ,4472    -1,4775      ,1401    -1,5391      ,2177
TSRICaAm      ,2270      ,0115    19,8061      ,0000      ,2045      ,2496

**************************************************************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 TIAJVa

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,5126      ,2628    26,3368    98,7234     2,0000   554,0000      ,0000

Model
              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     6,1246      ,7725     7,9288      ,0000     4,6073     7,6419
TSRICaAm      ,1957      ,0258     7,5806      ,0000      ,1450      ,2464
TNBIaAm       ,3057      ,0732     4,1779      ,0000      ,1620      ,4495

 ***************** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y ****************

 Direct effect of X on Y
     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
      ,1957      ,0258     7,5806      ,0000      ,1450      ,2464

 Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
            Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
 TNBIaAm      ,0694      ,0175      ,0347      ,1033

 ********************** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS ************************

 Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
   95,0000

 Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
   5000

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

```
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 TNBIbAm

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,5333      ,2844     8,3090   220,5845     1,0000   555,0000      ,0000

Model
              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     -,1387      ,8337     -,1663      ,8680    -1,7762     1,4989
TSRICbAm      ,2277      ,0153    14,8521      ,0000      ,1976      ,2578

***************************************************************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 TIAJVb

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,4205      ,1768    22,3290    59,4892     2,0000   554,0000      ,0000

Model
              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     4,7106     1,3667     3,4467      ,0006     2,0261     7,3951
TSRICbAm      ,1690      ,0297     5,6890      ,0000      ,1107      ,2274
TNBIbAm       ,3367      ,0696     4,8388      ,0000      ,2000      ,4734

****************** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y *****************

Direct effect of X on Y
     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
      ,1690      ,0297     5,6890      ,0000      ,1107      ,2274

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
            Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
TNBIbAm      ,0767      ,0190      ,0403      ,1156

*********************** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS ************************

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
  95,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
  5000

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

Fig. 6.14 Results of bootstrapping using PROCESS – Main study