

# Corporate Social Responsibility and Job Choice Intentions: A Cross-Cultural Analysis

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## Abstract

A theory of planned behavior (TPB) framework was employed to investigate the impact of corporate social responsibility (CSR) perceptions on the job choice intentions of American, Chinese, and Lebanese college students. Attitudes toward CSR, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control explained moderate levels of the variance in job choice intention in all three countries. Attitudes toward CSR, which entailed individual evaluations of CSR, were positively related to job choice intentions among Lebanese and American respondents, but not Chinese respondents. Subjective norm, the importance accorded the views of significant others, was most strongly related to job choice intentions among Chinese respondents. Perceived behavioral control, the perceived degree of control over one's actions and outcomes, had the strongest relationship to job choice intentions among American respondents. The authors concluded that respondents in the three countries did not differ in the extent to which they intend to work for socially responsible firms but tended to derive their intentions in different ways. Implications for tailoring CSR and recruitment efforts across countries are derived based on the findings.

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Job seeking is an important aspect of people's work lives, and job search and attainment occurs in an increasingly global market context (Lopez-Kidwell, Grosser, Dineen, & Borgatti, 2013). Although a considerable body of research has investigated the impact of perceptions of corporate social responsibility (CSR)—actions directed toward some social good, beyond self-interest and what is required by law (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001)—on organizational attractiveness (Greening & Turban, 2000; Luce, Barber, & Hillman, 2001), few studies have investigated the relationship between perceptions of CSR and job choice intentions in an international context. Because more than 87% of the world's population lives in non-Western cultures (U.S. Census Bureau, 2009), understanding the impact of cultural differences on CSR perceptions and job choice is both timely and necessary.

Recent reviews of the cross-cultural management literature (Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007; Tsui, Nifadkar, & Ou, 2007) indicate that cultural differences may affect the success of business practices through their impact on job attitudes and behaviors. Company attempts to extrapolate their practices to different cultures hinge on an appropriate match between the assumptions, values, and beliefs inherent in those practices and the culturally based assumptions, values, and beliefs of the target audience (Robert, Probst, Martocchio, Drasgow, & Lawler, 2000). Briley, Morris, and Simonson (2000) suggested that culture is tied to decision principles that influence perception and decision making. Indeed, the notion of culture shaping decisions has been noted by cognitive anthropologists who have also suggested that some cultural beliefs and values tend to affect decisions and behavior strongly, whereas others remain relatively dormant (Shore, 1996; Strauss, 1992). Preferences in the weighting of particular antecedents to decision making may also reflect subtle cultural influences (Cosmides & Tooby, 1996; Gigerenzer, 1998). Furthermore, there is evidence that the structure of motivation constructs is constant across different cultures, but the relative strength of the underlying components varies (Borg & Braun, 1996; Sagie, Elizur, & Yamauchi, 1996).

Decisions related to CSR also require decision makers to draw on values, beliefs, and principles that may differ cross-culturally (Ahmed, Kung, & Eichenseher, 2003; Singhapakdi, Vitell, Rallapalli, & Kraft, 1996). Consequently, it may be that, although job seekers in different countries may prefer to work for

socially responsible companies, they can differ in how they derive those preferences and the drivers of their preferences can vary cross-culturally. This possibility suggests, therefore, that effort is needed to explore cross-cultural variations in the underlying antecedent components leading to specific types of decisions. The current article focuses on aspects of ethical decision making related to CSR in three national contexts: the United States, Lebanon, and China, and examines the key antecedents of job choice intentions, namely, beliefs, norms, and perceived behavioral control, espoused by the theory of planned behavior (TPB; Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Madden, 1986). These three countries were selected to provide a range of cultural perspectives and include the Confucian Asian, Arabic, and Anglo cultural clusters, respectively (Ronen & Shenkar, 1985). The TPB is highly specific and has strong predictive validity in a wide variety of behavioral domains (Ajzen, 2001; Armitage & Conner, 2001), and provides a framework with which to study the relationship between CSR and job choice intentions while also detailing the configuration of antecedent variables.

This article extends CSR research in two ways. First, it adds to the limited work on the relationship between perceptions of CSR and job choice by examining the contextual influence of national culture on CSR and job choice intentions. Second, although it has long been proposed that cultural norms affect perception and decision making (Hunt & Vitell, 1986), less is known about *how* the process occurs and the nature of the relationships and antecedents involved. This research focuses on the *how* question. Overall, therefore, two basic questions guide our research: preliminarily, does perception of CSR influence the job choice intentions of job seekers across cultures; and principally, are those job choice intentions derived differently across cultures.

In the sections that follow, the researchers (a) describe the TPB framework and test its impacts, (b) describe key constructs related to national culture and develop and test hypotheses regarding its impacts, and (c) end with a discussion of research findings.

## **The Theory of Planned Behavior**

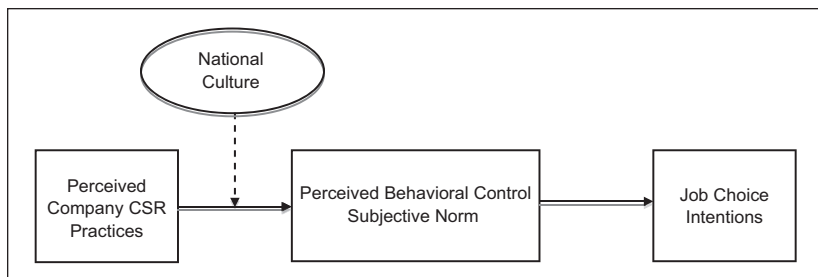
The TPB posits that behavioral intentions are the main determinants of behavior. Intentions are, in turn, determined independently by attitudes toward the behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control. Attitudes toward a behavior are global evaluations—positive or negative—about the target act and are derived from the individual's beliefs that behavior leads to certain outcomes and the evaluation of these outcomes (Ajzen, 1991). Subjective norm represents the perceived social pressure from significant others to engage in the target behavior and is a function of the individual's

normative beliefs about how important individuals or groups view the focal behavior and the individual's motivation to comply with these referents (Ajzen, 1991). Perceived behavioral control, an individual's perceived ease or difficulty of performing the particular behavior, is based on beliefs about the presence of factors that may facilitate or impede performance of the behavior (Ajzen, 2001). Thus ". . . people will have strong intentions to perform a given action if they evaluate it positively, believe that important others would want them to perform it, and think that it is easy to perform" (Sutton, 1998, p. 1318).

The TPB has been effectively employed to predict applicant propensity to engage in ethical decision making (Ford & Richardson, 1994; Leonard, Cronan, & Jennifer, 2004), as well as job choice intentions and ultimately behavior (Arnold et al., 2006; Schreurs, Derous, Van Hooft, Proost, & De Witte, 2009; Van Hooft, Born, Taris, & Van der Flier, 2006). Applied to job choice, the TPB framework implies that the most proximal determinant of job search behavior is the individual's intention to engage in job seeking because intention provides the requisite motivation. The more an individual intends to seek employment with a socially responsible firm, the more likely it is that actual job search activities will be performed. Job search intention is predicted by the extent to which a person evaluates a firm's CSR positively or negatively (i.e., CSR attitude), by the individual's perception of social pressure to work for a socially responsible firm (i.e., subjective norm), and the individual's confidence in his or her ability to find work for a socially responsible firm (i.e., perceived behavioral control; Ajzen, 1991).

Figure 1 displays a general model of the relationship among (a) perception of company CSR practices, (b) attitude toward CSR and perceptions of behavioral control/subjective norm, and (c) job choice intentions. In short, individuals who regard working for a socially responsible firm as more beneficial and more sensible will be more likely to form job seeking intentions regarding a socially responsible firm than individuals who lack that characteristic. Also, individuals will be more likely to form job search intentions toward socially responsible firms as they perceive more social pressure from important others to do so. Last, persons will be more likely to make job search intentions if they are more confident about their ability to perform the activities necessary to find work with a socially responsible firm. Based on the TPB framework, the authors present the following hypothesis:

**Hypothesis 1:** (a) CSR attitude, (b) subjective norm, and (c) perceived behavioral control positively predict intention to seek employment with a socially responsible firm for all three groups of respondents.



**Figure 1.** Proposed General Model.

Note. CSR = corporate social responsibility.

## The Role of Culture

Adler (2002) described culture as a construct evinced by values; consciously and subconsciously held beliefs and norms—often anchored in the morals, laws, customs, and practices of a society—that define right and wrong and indicate general preferences. Societal and/or national-level culture has been captured in a number of ways, including most frequently, value-based conceptualizations (Bond, Leung, Au, Tong, & Chemonges-Nielson, 2004; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004; Schwartz, 2006). Exploration of cultural differences can take many directions often explicitly tied to the specific conceptualization of culture that the researcher adopts. In a review of culture as a construct, Chao (2000) highlighted the complexity of culture and suggested that researchers should consider different levels of culture and should choose a specific level of theory to ensure alignment among theory, measurement, and analysis. Hofstede's (1980/2001) cultural dimensions are prime examples of national-level values that have widely been used within cross-cultural organizational research and have particular relevance for decision making (Euwema, Hein, & van Emmerik, 2007; Gelfand et al., 2007). Therefore, attention in this article is focused on the two key national-level cultural dimensions that are present in Hofstede's (1980/2001) value model: individualism–collectivism and power distance.

Both individualism–collectivism and power distance, and the broader cultural model from which they are derived, have commonly been used as predictors of between-nation differences (Bond et al., 2004; House et al., 2004; Schwartz, 2006). Maintaining a nation-level focus in cross-cultural studies has raised concern among some researchers who suggest that this approach often ignores within-nation heterogeneity (e.g., Clark, 1990; Tung 2008). Indeed, there is no doubt that diversity exists within the three countries

examined in the current studies. In the case of China, for example, many researchers have documented demographic diversity, as well as the widening gap in economic, technological, and infrastructure development between regions (Koveos & Zhang 2012; Wan, Lu, & Chen, 2007; Yao & Zhang, 2001). Researchers focused on the United States (Chatman & Flynn, 2001; Ferner, Almond, & Colling, 2005; Kurowski, 2002) and Lebanon (Haddad, 2001; Henry & Hardin, 2006; Karam & Kwantes, 2011) have made similar arguments concerning within-nation heterogeneity.

Despite these arguments, and the supportive evidence for within-nation diversity, strong arguments can be made for retaining national-level value studies. Many of the arguments for retaining national-level value studies center on the inherent notion of “shared-ness” in cultural phenomena, which serves to distinguish one group of people from another (Hofstede, 1980/2001; Lehman, Chiu, & Schaller, 2004; Leung & van de Vijver, 2008). Research, implicitly or explicitly, based on notions of shared-ness has garnered substantial support in the business and management literature, suggesting that people in different countries share different cultural scripts, beliefs, and values and that these differences, in effect, lead to between-nation variations in decision making (Erez & Earley, 1993; Schneider & DeMeyer, 1991). Therefore, in the sections that follow, the authors’ aim is to propose how national-level cultural values may serve to shape the relationships among CSR perceptions, attitudes, and subsequent job choice intentions.

The first construct considered is the national-level value of individualism. Individualism is the degree to which individuals act independently based on their personal interests, whereas collectivism is characterized by the extent to which people view themselves as integrated with others and subordinate their personal desires to those of the group (Triandis, 1994). At the national level, individualism suggests that generally citizens value patterns of behavior that place individual interest above those of a group. Conversely, in collectivist nations people tend to value group members and look after them even at the expense of personal interests. Hofstede (1984) suggested that individualist societies will place more emphasis on “autonomy, variety, pleasure, and individual financial security” in contrast to collectivist societies that value “expertise, order, duty, security provided by organization or clan” (p. 171).

The second national-level value is power distance and is defined as “the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally” (Hofstede, 2001, p. 98). In general, this dimension represents societal preferences for hierarchy and suggests that people in low power distance societies strive for power equalization across the citizenry and demand justification for power inequalities when they occur (Hofstede, 2001). Table 1 provides world

**Table 1.** Comparison of Countries on Cultural Dimensions.

	World average	United States	China	Lebanon <sup>a</sup>
Individualism/ collectivism	50	91	20	38
Power distance	56	40	80	80

Source. Hofstede (2001, p. 83).

<sup>a</sup>Regional estimated values: *Arab World—Societal Cluster* = Egypt, Iraq, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Saudi Arabia, and United Arab Emirates (UAE).

averages and the country-specific scores on Hofstede's cultural dimensions of individualism–collectivism and power distance for the United States, China, and Lebanon.<sup>1</sup>

Before discussing the specific proposed hypotheses, it is important to point out a central limitation related to conceptualizing culture using Hofstede's dimensions. Although individualism–collectivism and power distance remain dominant as useful constructs in cross-cultural research (Oyserman, Coon, & Kimmelmeier, 2002; Sondergaard, 1994), there are criticisms surrounding his original handling of the data set. More specifically, in his early work, Hofstede (1980/2001) grouped certain nations into larger multination regions or clusters. Particularly relevant for the current study is that the Arab grouping included six other Arab states beyond Lebanon on which this article focuses. Aggregating the Lebanon data with other Arab nations to form a multicountry cluster is potentially problematic because it discounts specific national values and presumes cultural homogeneity across Arab nations that are likely to be quite different (Budhwar & Mellahi, 2006; Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002). Researchers are just beginning to tease apart between-nation differences in cultural constructs between Arab nations (Alkailani, Azzam, & Athamneh, 2012; Fischer & Al-Issa, 2012), but until they are able to form substantive conclusions, Hofstede's value scores remain the best approximation for Lebanon and other Arab nations. Despite its limitations, the predictive utility of its scores has been demonstrated in studies conducted with Lebanese samples (Kalliny, Cruthirds, & Minor, 2006; Karam & Kwantes, 2011).

## Cultural Impacts on Perception of CSR and Job Choice Intentions

The TPB was hypothesized to be a valid framework for establishing positive relationships between attitudes and intentions. However, based on differences between individualism–collectivism and power distance for American,

Chinese, and Lebanese respondents, it may be that the relative weights of the predictors vary across the three cultural groups. Following below is discussion and hypotheses development regarding the likelihood of this proposition.

### *Attitudes Toward CSR*

Views on CSR can range broadly from those that believe firms are responsible to multiple constituencies and should address the public problems and negative externalities they create, and that these engagements can be profitable (Freeman, 1984), to those that argue that managers should focus on profitability and obligations to stockholders within legal and ethical constraints because CSR undermines the market mechanism, places managers in roles for which they are ill equipped, and constitutes a tax on stockholders (Friedman, 1970). Regardless of where an individual falls on that spectrum, TPB suggests that those views will influence later attitudes and intentions. However, it is also likely that cultural values will influence perceptions of CSR just as it influences other perceptions.

In a study examining the cultural antecedents of CSR across 15 countries, Waldman et al. (2006) found that one of the primary predictors of differences in CSR values was individualism–collectivism. For example, management decision making in individualistic countries was primarily focused on stockholder concerns and less inclined toward the welfare of the greater society. In the same way, Smith and Hume (2005) found that accountants in individualistic societies were more likely to adhere to personal principles even if the results were detrimental to their organizations. Individualism is also reflected in aspects of job preference. Although subjects revealed the same key facets of work values, job interest was the most important facet for subjects from Western countries (Elizur, Borg, Hunt, & Beck, 1991); it had relatively modest importance in the work-value hierarchies of Chinese subjects (Siu, Spector, Cooper, & Lu, 2005). Conversely, people from collectivist countries are thought to be more susceptible to group influence because they cannot easily distance themselves from the various groups to which they belong (Hofstede, 2001).

With respect to power distance, China and Lebanon are examples of collectivist countries that far exceed the world average in power distance. A characteristic of high power distance is that it discourages questioning, debate, and voicing of divergent views (Carl, Gupta, & Javidan, 2004). Discounting debate and divergent views has the impact of reducing the impact of the individual versus the group and popular convention. Conversely, in countries where dissent is more readily expected and tolerated, such as in the United States, it is reasonable to infer that individuals have a greater

disposition to take positions that challenge convention and differ from their peers and other societal groupings. Using a culturally diverse sample of temporary workers, Van Hooft and De Jong (2009) found that people low on collectivism were more strongly motivated by their personal attitudes about job seeking and less by perceptions of social pressure than people high on collectivism. Bagozzi, Wong, Abe, and Bergami (2000) also found different relationships between attitudes and intentions for those from cultures emphasizing interdependence than those that emphasize independence. Because American participants are more likely to value independence, less susceptible to group pressure, and more comfortable with divergent views, they are likely to accord greater weight to their individual attitudes and reflect this predisposition in greater consistency between CSR attitudes and job choice intentions.

**Hypothesis 2a:** Attitude toward CSR will be more strongly associated with job choice intentions among American respondents than Chinese and Lebanese respondents.

### *Normative Support*

In addition to the attitudinal component, TPB suggests that normative support is determinative because decision making is influenced by the views of business associates and personal and social contacts. Given the central place of group norms, collectivism is likely to influence the role of CSR in job choice intentions. CSR entails consideration of the *common good* that people address social challenges with a view toward the general welfare. Therefore, countries that are high in collectivism are prone to weight the impact of subjective norms more heavily in their decision making and place greater emphasis on the views of important individuals and groups regarding the role of CSR.

As shown in Table 1, Americans are very individualistic in contrast to the Chinese and Lebanese who are more collectivistic than the world norm. Asian cultures, in particular, are characterized by an interdependent self-concept that prizes group goals and commonalities with others (Aaker & Williams, 1998; Han & Shavitt, 1994). For example, Chen, Brockner, and Katz (1998) examined individual versus collective primacy and found that Chinese respondents had more collective primacy than those from the United States and identified heavily with their group even if they performed well as a member of a poor performing group. Price and Briley (2000) determined that the Chinese education system often encourages students to follow traditions and precedents rather than criticize them, whereas American schools generally advance critical assessments and questioning.

A number of researchers have documented the dominance of community notions of social exchange within Asian contexts such as *guanxi*, *wa*, and *inhwa* (Chen, Friedman, Yu, & Sun, 2011; Jiang, Chen, & Shi, 2013; Langenberg, 2013). These social-exchange notions and the general salience of relationships within China (Edfelt, 2010) place a great deal of emphasis on social and relational interactions constituting a relationship-centered world where social order and stability are largely dependent on properly differentiated relational roles (King, 1991). These differentiated relationships serve as a basis to guide one's actions and reactions (Tsui & Farh, 1997) and therefore it is reasonable to infer that subjective norms (and the opinions and norms of business associates and personal and social contacts) will have greater impact on decision making in the Chinese context. Consequently, there is evidence that subjective norm has a stronger association with job choice intentions among Chinese job applicants than either attitudes or perceived behavioral support (Song, Wanberg, Xiongying, & Xie, 2006).

Lebanese culture is becoming more individualistic but can still be characterized as primarily collectivistic (Ayyash-Abdo & Alamuddin, 2007; Faour, 1998). In view of greater social pressure to comply with norms and value the views of neighbors, friends, and coworkers among the Chinese and Lebanese respondents, the subjective norm is likely to have greater impact on behavioral intentions. As noted previously, Americans are highly independent relative to both Chinese and Lebanese and this independence is likely to be reflected in the importance accorded to subjective norm in their decision making.

**Hypothesis 2b:** Subjective norm will be more strongly associated with job choice intentions among Chinese and Lebanese respondents than American respondents.

### *Perceived Behavioral Control*

After a decision maker has developed an attitude toward a particular action and assessed the level of normative support, the last test is one of efficacy. Perceived behavioral control is confidence in one's ability to perform a task or a behavior (Ajzen & Madden, 1986), and is influenced by likely barriers and the ability to overcome those barriers. There are two key factors regarding perceived behavioral control to consider. The first is between perceived behavioral control and job pursuit intention. The second are the external factors that influence perceptions of control and the ability to influence job outcomes. There is evidence that, for the relationship between perceived behavioral control and job pursuit intention, intentions are stronger when *perceived behavioral control* over job pursuit outcomes is high and less when that perceived control is constrained

(Arnold et al., 2006; Krueger, Reilly, & Carsrud, 2000). For example, workers constrained by a tight job market may be inclined to take any job that is offered regardless of whether it comports with their values. The impact of perceived behavioral control on intentions and behavior has been consistent across cultures (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2006; Fu et al., 2004).

Because perceived behavioral control is influenced by the availability of resources (Ajzen, 1991), economic and political instability presents considerable challenges for Lebanese job seekers. Power distance could also have impact on levels of perceived behavioral control, and the United States markedly differs from China and Lebanon in this area (House et al., 2004). Those with high power distance orientations tend to accept their decision-making limitations while trusting that leaders will provide guidance (Javidan, Dorfman, de Luque, & House, 2006; Kim & Leung, 2007; Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009). Alternatively, those from low-power-distance countries tend to be more comfortable developing their own opinions. Worker empowerment has been received more favorably in low-power-distance societies (Eylon & Au, 1999; Robert et al., 2000) as it is consistent with the view that the individual has the capacity to make choices and transform those choices into desired actions and outcomes. Likewise, Van Hooft and De Jong (2009) found that sense of security was positively related to intention to seek employment.

Given the low power distance, American respondents may perceive fewer impediments to achieving their desired outcomes. In addition, Mann et al. (1998) found that students from individualistic cultures such as the United States and Australia were more confident of their decision-making ability than students from group-oriented cultures such as Japan and Hong Kong. That confidence is likely to be reflected in a stronger relationship between perceived behavioral control and job choice intentions than respondents from less individualistic countries. Thus, the combination of low power distance and high individualism make the U.S. respondents more likely to weight perceived behavioral control more prominently in their decision making.

**Hypothesis 2c:** Perceived behavioral control will be more strongly associated with job choice intentions among American respondents than Chinese and Lebanese respondents.

## Method

### *Participants and Procedure*

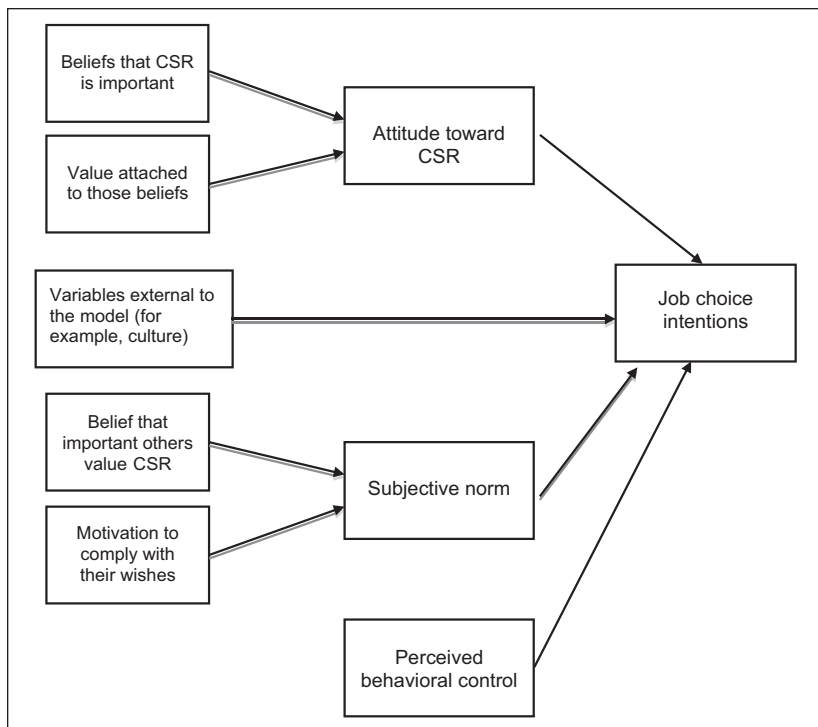
Senior-level students were recruited from universities in China, Lebanon, and the United States to participate in this study. Participation was voluntary,

students were enrolled in large introduction to business management courses, and no incentive was provided for participation. To reduce the likelihood of common method bias (Crampton & Wagner, 1994) data were collected for the independent and dependent variables at separate times. Data relating to the independent and control variables were collected at Time 1, and data supporting the dependent variable were collected 2 weeks later at Time 2. Participants were told that the data were being collected to help researchers better understand their attitudes and job preferences, and were promised confidentiality but not anonymity such that the surveys at Time 1 and Time 2 could be linked.

Of 1,000 questionnaires distributed, 949 completed questionnaires were received with usable data for the independent and dependent variables, representing an overall response rate of approximately 95%. The number of usable questionnaires from participants in the United States, China, and Lebanon were 342, 299, and 308, respectively.<sup>2</sup> Because the questionnaires were administered during classes, there was little difference in the response rate between the first and second administrations. The three samples were demographically similar, with an average age of between 20 and 25 years for all three countries and gender composition that favored males at 62%, 64%, and 52% for China, Lebanon, and the United States, respectively.

*Instruments.* The independent variables included items derived from the *Perceived Role of Ethics and Social Responsibility* (PRESOR) scale developed to measure the importance of ethics and social responsibility (Axinn, Blair, Heorhiadi, & Thach, 2004; Etheredge, 1999; Singhapakdi et al., 1996) and additional items designed to measure the subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and behavior intention constructs in the TPB. For all questionnaire items, participants indicated their agreement on a 5-point scale (*strongly disagree* = 1 to *strongly agree* = 5).

As illustrated in Figure 2, the variables were operationalized in a manner consistent with a TPB framework (Davis, Ajzen, Saunders, & Williams, 2002; Fishbein et al., 1995). Participants were first asked to indicate their beliefs about the degree to which CSR was likely to bring about six different outcomes (e.g., working for a socially responsible company can be ethical and profitable). Subsequently, they were asked to indicate how much they would value each of those six outcomes (e.g., working for company that is ethical and profitable would be very important to me). In keeping with traditional calculations of the TPB variables, the ratings on the belief and value scales were multiplied, and the products were summed to create a single index of expectancy-value attitudes.



**Figure 2.** The Theory of Planned Behavior, CSR, and Job Choice Intentions.  
 Note. CSR = corporate social responsibility.

*Subjective norm* was determined by asking respondents to rate the extent to which their referents thought they should work for a company that emphasized CSR and how motivated they were to comply with the opinions of those referents. The scale included statements such as “When making decisions, what my friends think I should do is important.” As is standard in TPB research, each normative belief rating was multiplied by the motivation to comply to create a measure of subjective norm.

*Perceived behavioral control* was assessed as the sum of two questionnaire items. The items relate to control over the necessary resources and were measured as self-efficacy for job search. A sample item is “it is mostly up to me whether I work for a socially responsible company when I graduate.” Finally, *job choice intentions* were determined as self-predicted likelihood by summing two items for each participant such as “I intend to work for a company that goes beyond the law to protect the environment.” The appendix provides the questionnaire items.

## Measurement and Translation Equivalence

To make empirical comparisons in cross-national studies, it is necessary to demonstrate measurement equivalence such that the relationship between the construct of interest and the observed measure is similar across groups (Bond & Smith, 1996; Raju & Ellis, 2002). Measurement equivalence is particularly important in this study because culture can cause both *meaningful* differences across groups and *spurious* differences attributable to how respondents interpret the survey instrument. Similarly, translation into different languages can influence the responses to questionnaire items in a way unrelated to participants' standing on the underlying construct (Roe, Zinovieva, Dienes, & Ten Horn, 2000).

Previous researchers have recommended structural analysis to establish measurement equivalence (Mullen, 1995; Vandenberg, 2002), and this study's use of confirmatory factor analysis comports with their advice. A procedure corresponding to that described by several authors (Little, 1997; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998) was employed. First, the researchers fitted separate measurement models for each of the three samples to show the extent to which the indicators represented the underlying latent constructs within each sample and to provide a baseline for cross-group comparisons. Second, the measurement model was reestimated across the three samples, with an equality constraint placed on the factor loadings. Determining that the factor loadings for the constructs are invariant across groups demonstrates the extent to which the specific indicators are similar across samples (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Marsh, 1995). In the final step, mean and covariance structure analysis were conducted by adding an equality constraint on the intercept parameters for the indicators.

Translation equivalence (Brislin, 1980; Malhotra, Agarwal, & Peterson, 1996) was addressed through a four-step process: (a) a bilingual native Mandarin speaker translated the survey from English into Mandarin, (b) Coauthor 1 (Lianlian Lin)<sup>3</sup> reviewed the items to determine whether the cross-translations held their original meanings and addressed discrepancies, (c) a bilingual native English speaker back-translated the items from Mandarin to English, and (d) Coauthor 1 reviewed the items to determine whether the translation retained its original meaning. On the basis of this process, discrepancies were addressed with a few minor adjustments in word choice. The process was repeated for the translation from English to Arabic and overseen by Coauthor 2 (Dima Jamali) for the Lebanese respondents.

## Analytic Approach

Structural equation modeling was employed to construct and test the model. Structural equation modeling has several advantages over regression analyses

in that it can simultaneously estimate all path coefficients, test the significance of each causal path, and evaluate the performance of the model as a whole (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). The hypothesized model and paths were tested using AMOS 5.0 (Arbuckle, 2003) and a two-stage analytic procedure proscribed by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). In the first step, a measurement model was fit to the data, and in the second step the structural model was tested. Following the recommendations of Schumacker and Lomax (2004), the following fit indices were employed: (a) chi-square goodness of fit–degrees of freedom ratio, (b) Tucker–Lewis index (TLI), (c) the comparative fit index (CFI), (d) root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and (e) standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). Standard convention suggests that good model fit is indicated by TLI and CFI values above 0.90, RMSEA values below 0.08, SRMR values below 0.10, and a chi-square goodness of fit to degrees of freedom ratio below 2.0 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). In addition, Hu and Bentler’s (1999) suggestion to assess model fit using a combination of SRMR, CFI, and TLI was followed.

## Results

Table 2 presents descriptive statistics. The *t* tests to ascertain differences in gender, age, and prior courses in ethics in the sample were not significant. Preliminarily, the data to locate ill-scaled items were screened for variances larger than 10 times the smallest variance, as this range can be problematic in structural equation modeling (Kline, 2005); and it was determined that all of the variances were within the acceptable range. Next, given the detrimental impact of nonnormality (kurtosis in particular) on maximum-likelihood estimates and their standard errors and model fit indices (Byrne, 2001), the data for skewed or kurtotic indicator variables were screened. Skewness values for all three samples ranged from  $-1.18$  to  $0.33$  (*aggregated Median* =  $-0.32$ ), and kurtosis values ranged from  $-0.02$  to  $1.40$  (*aggregated Median* =  $0.34$ ) falling within Schumacker and Lomax’s (2004) acceptable ranges of  $-/+ 1.5$ .

### Measurement Model and Preliminary Analyses

The model fit indices and standardized factor loadings are provided in Tables 3 and 4, respectively. Although the *chi-square/degrees of freedom* ( $\chi^2/df$ ) ratio exceeded 2.0 for the United States and China country samples; scores for the goodness-of-fit index (GFI) and CFI exceeded 0.95; RMSEA scores were 0.06 or lower, and SRMR scores were below 0.08. Chi-square/*df* ratio values lower than 2.0 are a widely used cutoff (Byrne, 2001), but researchers have

**Table 2.** Descriptive Statistics, Zero-Order Correlations, and Alphas.

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3
China					
1. Attitude	3.31	1.36			
2. Subjective norm	3.77	0.54	.39**		
3. Perceived behavioral control	3.81	0.42	.08**	.22**	
4. Intention	3.98	0.42	.29**	.39**	.28**
Lebanon					
1. Attitude	3.07	1.61			
2. Subjective norm	3.65	0.63	.30**		
3. Perceived behavioral control	3.76	0.52	.39**	.25**	
4. Intention	4.01	0.58	.50**	.53**	.35**
United States					
1. Attitude	3.19	1.64			
2. Subjective norm	3.71	0.64	.44**		
3. Perceived behavioral control	4.10	0.48	.28**	.25**	
4. Intention	4.02	0.57	.54**	.58**	.47**
Combined					
1. Attitude	3.19	1.54			
2. Subjective norm	3.71	0.61	.38**		
	3.90	0.48	.26**	.24**	
4. Intention	4.00	0.53	.46**	.51**	.37**

Note. *N* = 939.

\*\*Correlation is significant at the .01 level, two-tailed.

recommended using ratio as high as five to indicate a reasonable fit (Hinkin, 1995). The factor loadings for each group were moderate to strong (0.58-0.92) as well. These scores largely comport with conventional standards of fit and the combination cutoff approach. Thus, in considering chi-square/*df* ratio in conjunction with scores on fit indices, model fit was judged to be acceptable.

The multisample analysis provides an indication of overall fit for all models combined. If the factor loadings were invariant, the chi-square and degrees of freedom values for the combined model should be nearly identical to the sums of those values for the individual models. Then, because the model with invariant factor loadings was a nested submodel of the multisample analysis, the difference in chi-squares could be compared with a chi-square distribution (Jöreskog, 1971). A small ratio of change in chi-square to change in degrees of freedom ( $\Delta\chi^2/\Delta df$ ) indicates that the measurement properties are invariant across the two samples. For the multisample

**Table 3.** Standardized Factor Loadings Estimated Separately for Each Sample and Simultaneously Across Samples.

Construct	Loading of indicator on construct			
	China	Lebanon	United States	Combined
Attitude toward CSR	0.88	0.76	0.81	0.81
	0.68	0.70	0.73	0.71
	0.81	0.74	0.84	0.80
	0.86	0.83	0.87	0.85
	0.59	0.58	0.61	0.59
	0.82	0.76	0.79	0.64
Subjective norm	0.92	0.87	0.88	0.88
	0.91	0.86	0.92	0.91
Perceived behavioral control	0.62	0.68	0.64	0.66
	0.53	0.68	0.70	0.64
Job choice intention	0.83	0.80	0.69	0.78
	0.67	0.63	0.68	0.64

Note. CSR = corporate social responsibility.  
All loadings were significant at  $p < .01$ .

**Table 4.** Fit Indices for Measurement Models and Measurement Equivalence Analysis.

Model	$\chi^2$	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	$\chi^2/df$	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	$\Delta\chi^2/\Delta df$
China	82.25**	32	—	2.57	.956	.969	.073	.046	—
Lebanon	34.64	32	—	1.08	.997	.998	.016	.027	—
United States	66.63**	32	—	2.08	.972	.980	.056	.036	—
Multisample	192.23**	102	—	1.88	.974	.980	.031	.050	—
One factor	2,197.87	140	—	15.70	.705	.770	.088	.069	—
Metric invariance— Factors constrained	230.23**	116	38.00	1.98	.971	.975	.032	.074	2.71
Scalar invariance— Means constrained	395.10*	136	202.86	2.90	.944	.943	.045	.072	5.96

Note.  $N = 299$  for Chinese sample, 308 for the Lebanese sample, and 342 for the U.S. sample. Dashes indicate that information was not applicable and therefore was not calculated. There are 12 items in this table as opposed to the 16 listed in the appendix. In keeping with traditional calculations of the TPB variables, the ratings on the belief and value scales were multiplied, and the products were summed to create a single index of expectancy-value attitudes; TLI = Tucker–Lewis index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual.  
\*\* $p < .01$ .

analysis, factor constraints increased the chi-square by 38.00 (230.23 – 192.23) for 14 degrees of freedom (116 – 102), which suggest a reasonably

**Table 5.** Fit Indices for Structural Model.

	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	$\chi^2/df$	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
China	97.47**	48	2.031	.961	.972	.059	.044
Lebanon	54.22	48	1.130	.994	.996	.021	.030
United States	104.39**	48	2.175	.962	.962	.059	.039
Multisample	256.09**	144	1.778	.970	.978	.029	.044

Note. TLI = Tucker–Lewis index (Tucker & Lewis, 1973); CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation (Steiger, 1990); SRMR = standardized root mean square residual.

\*\* $p < .01$ .

good fit ( $\Delta\chi^2/\Delta df$  ratio = 2.71). To complete the assessment of measurement invariance, each of the indicator intercepts was constrained to be equal to its counterpart in the other sample. When the model was estimated with the indicator intercept constraint in place, the difference in chi-square to difference in degrees of freedom ( $\Delta\chi^2/\Delta df$ ) ratio was 5.96, indicating a marginally acceptable level of invariance. Thus, the measurement model was judged to be invariant across the three samples.

To address common method variance, a second model was tested with all of the indicators loaded on a single factor. The logic underlying this procedure (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Jeong-Yeon, & Podsakoff, 2003) is that if common method variance is largely responsible for the covariation among the Time 1 and Time 2 data, confirmatory factor analysis should indicate that a single factor fit the data, but the one-factor model did not fit the data well. As demonstrated by the model fit indices, the hypothesized measurement model fit the data significantly better (TLI = 0.71, CFI = 0.77, RMSEA = 0.08, SMSR = 0.06,  $\chi^2/df = 15.70$ ) than the one-factor model, which indicates that the items converged as intended and supports the validity of the hypothesized constructs.

### *Structural Model and Hypothesis Tests*

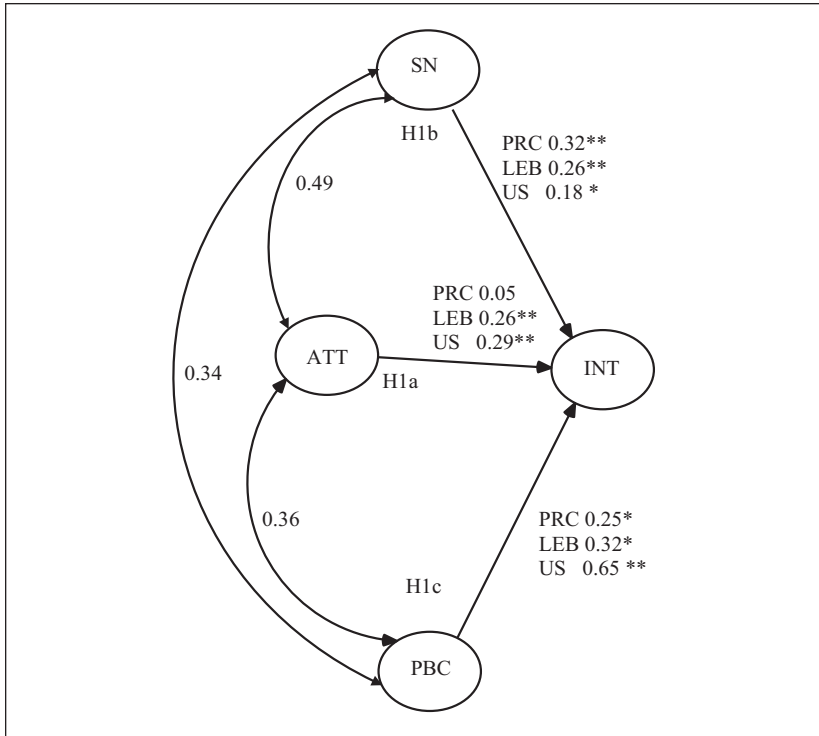
In view of the acceptable fit of the measurement model, the structural model was tested (see Figure 2). Table 5 displays the fit statistics for the structural models. Overall, the fit indices suggest that adequate fit was achieved both when the model was evaluated against the recommended cutoffs and when the combination cutoff approach was used (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The chi-square values suggest that the TPB model provides the best fit to the data of the Lebanese sample, but also provides good fit for the Chinese and American samples.

Attitude toward CSR, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control accounted for a large portion of variance in job choice intentions in the American sample ( $r^2 = .54$ ) and moderate portions of variance in the Chinese ( $r^2 = .25$ ) and Lebanese ( $r^2 = .46$ ) samples. The first set of hypotheses—1a, 1b, and 1c—tested the predictive validity of the TPB with respect to job choice intentions. To determine if these hypotheses were confirmed, the standardized regression weights in the structural models for significance were examined. The second set of hypotheses—2a, 2b, and 2c—tested the significance of between country differences in the relationships between attitude toward CSR, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control and job choice intentions across countries. To determine if these hypotheses were confirmed, a second model was run labeling each path in the three-country sample separately and examined the critical ratios for parameter differences across countries. If a  $z$  score was significant in that it exceeded  $\pm 1.96$ , the critical value of  $z$  for  $p < .05$ , then it was concluded that the parameters in question were significantly different.

The results of hypothesis tests are presented in Figure 3. Hypothesis 1a predicted a positive relationship between participants' attitudes toward CSR and their job choice intentions. The U.S. and Lebanese samples each produced highly significant relationships between attitudes toward CSR and job choice intentions, with standardized path coefficients of 0.29 ( $p < .001$ ) and 0.26 ( $p < .001$ ), respectively. In the Chinese sample, the standardized coefficient of 0.05 ( $p = .43$ ) was not, however, significant. Thus, Hypothesis 1a was partially supported.

Hypothesis 2a predicted that subjective norm would be positively associated with job choice intentions and was fully supported. The standardized coefficients for the relationship between subjective norm and job choice intention for China, Lebanon, and the United States were 0.32 ( $p < .001$ ), 0.26 ( $p < .001$ ), and 0.18 ( $p = .014$ ), respectively. Hypothesis 3a predicted that perceived behavioral control would be positively associated with job choice intentions and was fully supported as well. The standardized coefficients for the relationship between perceived behavioral control and job choice intentions for the Chinese, Lebanese, and American respondents were 0.25 ( $p < .026$ ), 0.32 ( $p < .005$ ), and 0.65 ( $p < .001$ ), respectively.

Table 6 presents the critical ratios for differences between the parameter paths for the three samples. Hypothesis 2a predicted that attitude toward CSR would be more determinative among American respondents than Chinese and Lebanese respondents. In order for this hypothesis to be supported, the critical values for the difference in the attitude toward CSR to job choice intentions paths among the U.S. and Chinese and Lebanese country samples would have to exceed  $\pm 1.96$ . The critical values for China and Lebanon versus the



**Figure 3.** TPB and Job Choice Intentions—Coefficients by Country.

Note. Correlations between independent variables are for the combined sample. TPB = theory of planned behavior; SN = subjective norm; PRC = People’s Republic of China; LEB = Lebanon; US = United States; ATT = CSR attitude; INT = job intentions; PBC = perceived behavioral control; CSR = corporate social responsibility.

\*Significant at .05 level. \*\*Significant at .01 level.

United States were 0.921 and  $-1.564$ , respectively. Thus, Hypothesis 2a was not supported. The difference in the critical value for the attitude toward CSR to job choice intentions parameter for Lebanese and Chinese participants at critical ratio  $-2.28$  was, however, significant.

Hypothesis 2b predicted that subjective norm would be more determinative of job choice intentions for the Chinese and Lebanese students than the American students. In order for this hypothesis to be supported, the critical value for the difference in the subjective norm to job choice intentions path would have to be positive and exceed 1.96. The critical ratios for Lebanese and Chinese participants versus American participants were 1.819 and 1.996, respectively. Thus, subjective norm was more determinative of job choice

**Table 6.** Tests of Country Differences Between Parameters.

Critical ratios for differences between parameters	China	Lebanon
Lebanon		
Attitude—job choice intention	-2.28*	
Subjective norm—job choice intention	-0.14	
Perceived behavioral control—job choice intention	-0.12	
United States		
Attitude—Job choice intention	-1.56	0.92
Subjective norm—Job choice intention	1.82**	2.00*
Perceived behavioral control—Job choice intention	-2.65*	-2.73*

Significant at .10 level. \*Significant at .05 level.

intentions for Lebanese participants than American participants at the .05 level, and the difference between United States and Chinese participants was significant at the .10 level ( $\pm 1.645$ ). Hypothesis 2b was supported.

Hypothesis 2c predicted that perceived behavioral control would be more determinative of job choice intentions among American participants than Lebanese and Chinese participants. The critical ratios for the difference in the perceived behavioral control to job choice intention paths for American participants versus Lebanese and Chinese participants were  $-2.725$  and  $-2.651$ , respectively, and significant at  $p > .001$ . Thus, perceived behavioral control was more determinative of job choice intentions for American participants than Lebanese and Chinese participants. Hypothesis 2c was supported.

## Discussion

The present effort provides new insights regarding the role of culture in shaping perceptions of CSR in three culturally distinct countries, but the study's outcomes reinforce those of other researchers' that have examined job choice more broadly. The broad outcome was that, although the impact of CSR on job choice is similar in all three countries, the respondents tend to arrive at their intentions in different ways. That is, the individualism–collectivism and power distance cultural dimensions established in Hofstede's (1980/2001) work have possible moderating effects on how prospective workers form intentions regarding CSR in their job choices. Research in vocational and cross-cultural psychology has established similar outcomes (Van Hooft & De Jong, 2009; Van Hooft et al., 2006). Also, the relationship between attitudes toward CSR, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control and job choice intentions was greater for Americans than for the other groups, and

this outcome is consistent with previous research done by Bagozzi et al. (2000) indicating similar outcomes regarding American and Italian respondents relative to Chinese and Japanese respondents. It may be worthwhile to explore if, or to what extent, Western countries may differ in how they process information regarding CSR.

The most striking difference between cultures was that, although attitudes toward CSR had significant impact on job choice intentions with American and Lebanese students, it did not have significant influence on the Chinese respondents. The findings for the American subsample are not surprising given the value accorded independence in the United States, and the findings for Lebanon are consistent with recent research suggesting that CSR is taking gradual hold in Lebanon despite the difficult contextual environment (Jamali & Neville, 2011; Jamali, Zanhour, & Keshishian, 2009). The Chinese findings may be indicative of two factors: (a) the pervasive role of the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) in both social and business realms (Luo & Zhao, 2013) and (b) the less prevalent examples of CSR activities in some areas of China. Although over last few decades, there has been a strategic national move away from past socialist policies toward more powers to the business community and society through state-led capitalist development (Hsueh, 2011; Li, Liu, & Wang, 2012; Lin & Ho, 2005; Wu, Xu, & Yeh, 2007). This dichotomy of “private involvement under state control” suggests that even with national steps toward modernization and competitive open markets, remnants of the Leninist–Maoist socialist philosophy and control persist in China (Pearson, 2005). Consistent with this dichotomy, social responsibility—broadly speaking—may still be viewed as essentially within the purview of the public while CSR falls under the control of CCP. If such is the case, the individual perception of CSR may not be as relevant in job choice because individuals see themselves as relatively detached from that area.

A second reason why attitudes toward CSR did not have significant impact on job choice intentions among the Chinese respondents may be linked to the relatively new emergence of CSR in China, and in Asia more broadly (Welford, 2004). Chapple and Moon (2005) suggested that CSR may vary considerably within and between Asian nations such that a specific type or pattern of CSR is ultimately difficult to discern. In their article examining CSR in seven Asian countries, these authors found evidence to suggest that CSR activities not only varied in terms of waves of CSR activities (i.e., from basic community engagement, to socially responsible production, to socially responsible employee relations) but also in terms of company CSR reporting. This variability leaves open the possibility that, with time, attitudes toward CSR may become more personally salient within China and ultimately have greater impact on job choice intentions.

Last, it is noteworthy that despite the considerable political and economic challenges in Lebanon (Gardner & Schimmelpfennig, 2008), each of the independent variables had a significant impact on job choice intentions. According to Axinn et al. (2004), the level of instability and financial stress fostered a more pragmatic ethical orientation in Lebanon, but the Lebanese sample was similar to the Chinese and U.S. samples regarding the role of CSR in job choice intentions. Integrative social contacts theory (Donaldson & Dunfee, 1994) is useful in explaining the value similarities in that as global hypernorms become more prevalent and moral free space is restricted across cultures, there will be greater similarity on how global issues like CSR are perceived.

### *Implications for Theory and Practice*

Theoretically, there are two general approaches to addressing international aspects of business operation. The adaptation premise points to cultural differences in the cognitive processes that support decision making (Aaker & Maheswaran, 1997; Han & Shavitt, 1994). The standardization premise presupposes that people working around the globe are essentially similar (Hong, Morris, Chiu, & Benet-Martinez, 2000; Peng, Nisbett, & Wong, 1997). These findings support cultural adaptation that rather than treating all prospective applicants as essentially similar, companies should tailor their practices to fit the cultural profiles of the countries within which they operate (Javidan et al., 2006). Thus, companies will also need to be aware of prospective workers' cultural values and emphasize how their CSR practices comport with those values. While managers recognize cultural differences on the national level, this recognition does not discount the importance of individual-level values and characteristics (Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994; Klein & Kozlowski, 2000).

In terms of future research, it is notable that this study did not consider if, or to what extent, cultural influences also operated at the individual level. Future research may include examination of the impact of cultural values at multiple levels of analysis on job choice intentions. Given the variations among *and* within countries, more research is needed to address level of analysis issues in cross-cultural studies. Indeed, it may be interesting to examine within-nation differences in future research such as variations between rural Chinese samples versus samples drawn from urban centers in China such as Danlian or Shanghai. Ralston, Yu, Wang, Terpstra, and He (1996) found significant value differences between six urban regions of China. Similar variations are possible in the United States as well as in Lebanon. For example, researchers may explore the relationship between behavioral intentions and the individual-level cultural value constructs of allocentrism and idiocentrism within a multicountry study design. Researchers would do well to take this into account in future research.

Perceived behavioral control component was the strongest predictor of behavioral intention overall. Recent research has demonstrated that increasing employee awareness of opportunities and managing attitudes toward those opportunities increase participation in voluntary activities (Hurtz & Williams, 2009). The practical impact for recruiting efforts is that it may be particularly useful for companies to emphasize the personal benefits of CSR in their recruiting efforts in countries with high individualism so that workers know that viable jobs with socially responsible firms are available. For example, TNT, a large logistics company headquartered in Amsterdam, the Netherlands, maintains a rapid-response team to intervene in food crises anywhere in the world. Seventy-five percent of TNT's job applicants mention the World Food Program connection as a reason for joining the firm ("Special Report on Corporate," 2008). Conversely, efforts to recruit Chinese and Lebanese workers might focus more heavily on the normative view of CSR in their respective societies, rather than emphasizing the individual disposition toward CSR and employment.

### *Limitations and Conclusion*

As Hofstede (2001) aptly stated, "the practical problems involved in getting access to matched samples in different cultures can be enormous, and researchers have to accept compromises in order to obtain data at all" (p. 30). Accordingly, there are shortcomings of this study that limit the scope of its conclusions. First, because intentions are not an ideal proxy for behavior (Armitage & Conner, 2001), it is best to employ prospective designs that include measures of behavior. In the present study, however, obtaining a more objective measure of prospective behavior (using lagged variables) would have resulted in very small sample sizes. Second, there are methodological limitations that should be acknowledged. For example, there is considerable discord among researchers as to how the TPB is operationalized. In seeking to employ a TPB framework, this article does not operationalize the TPB optimally. Because the framework of variables are posed and tested in a plausible manner based on the TPB, these differences are not considered to be fatal flaws. Finally, due to the fact that China, Lebanon, and the United States are complex countries, the limited sample sizes drawn from each should not be taken as broadly representative.

Thinking globally implies seeing commonalities, as well as understanding cultural differences, and there were considerable commonalities in this study. It has been demonstrated that culture has a nuanced effect on the role of CSR in determining job choice intentions, but that effect should not be overestimated. Additional research is warranted to further understand the role of culture in employees' reactions to CSR, particularly given the continued tide of globalization of business.

## Appendix

### *Attitude Toward Corporate Social Responsibility*

#### *Beliefs*

1. The overall effectiveness of a business can be determined to a great extent by the degree to which it is ethical and socially responsible.
2. Social responsibility and profitability can be compatible.
3. A firm's first priority should be employee morale.
4. Business has a social responsibility beyond making a profit.
5. Good ethics is often good business.
6. Efficiency is much more important to a firm than whether or not the firm is seen as ethical or socially responsible (reverse scored).

#### *Evaluations*

1. Being ethical and socially responsible is the most important thing a firm can do.
2. Business ethics and social responsibility are critical to the survival of a business enterprise.

#### *Subjective norm*

##### *Normative beliefs*

1. Many people like me think that corporate social responsibility is important.
2. My friends think that corporate social responsibility is important.

##### *Motivation to comply*

1. Most people who are important to me think that corporate social responsibility is important.
2. The people in my life whose opinions I value think that corporate social responsibility is important.

#### *Perceived behavioral control*

1. It is mostly up to me whether I work for a socially responsible company when I graduate.
2. If I want to, I can work for a socially responsible company.

### *Job choice intentions*

1. I intend to work for a company that goes beyond the law to protect the environment.
2. I intend to work for a company that has a record of being socially responsible.

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### **Notes**

1. Hofstede frameworks do not provide specific cultural ratings for Lebanon but include Lebanon in a grouping of Arab countries that comprises also Egypt, Iraq, Kuwait, Libya, Saudi Arabia, and United Arab Emirates.
2. The U.S. cohort yielded 342 of 360 usable questionnaires and the response rate was 95%. The Chinese cohort yielded 299 of 320 usable questionnaires and the response rate was 93%. The Lebanese cohort yielded 308 of 320 usable questionnaires and the response rate was 96%.
3. Coauthor Lianlian Lin and coauthor Dima Jamali are bilingual and bicultural. Coauthor Lin has lived and worked in the United States and China. Coauthor Jamali has lived and worked in the United States and Lebanon.

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