Attracting Altruistic Talents

A quantitative study on how ethnic diversity portrayals in advertising impact organizational attractiveness

Master Thesis

Stockholm School of Economics
Business and Management

Authors
Annie Johnson (41808)
Isabelle Bjärlestam (50461)

Submission
December 6th, 2021

Supervisor
Richard Wahlund

Abstract

This thesis examines the effects of consumer advertising on potential employees. More precisely, it investigates how consumer advertising portraying ethnic diversity impacts the advertising company's organizational attractiveness as an employer. The results from one experimental study show that ethnically diverse advertising signals third-party justice. Further, it does not affect perceived organizational attractiveness nor employer reputation among the general public. However, when dividing participants into groups of lower versus higher levels of altruistic values, it turns out that the former group reacts neutrally to ethnically diverse advertising in regard to employer reputation, third-party justice, and organizational attractiveness, while the latter group reacts positively to all three. Hence, the effects are contingent on altruistic values. Moreover, a mediation analysis being moderated by potential employees' levels of altruistic values reveals that employer reputation mediates the effect that ethnically diverse advertising has on organizational attractiveness among people with higher levels of altruistic values. The findings contribute to the literature on consumer advertising's effects on other stakeholders than consumers. Moreover, the results guide corporations and managers in how they can broaden their advertising goals from only focusing on consumer responses to also involving potential employees' responses.

Keywords: Ethnic diversity, organizational attractiveness, advertising, employer brand, corporate social responsibility, altruistic values

Foreword

We would like to express our sincere gratitude to:

Richard Wahlund

For your support and guidance throughout this writing process.

Alexander Mafael

For your highly appreciated help with interpreting the results.

Johan Båge

For setting aside time to share your SPSS expertise with us.

Simon Schuller

For helping with wording and giving constructive feedback.

PECR AB

For donating 15 SEK to WWF per complete answer in our main study.

Contents

1. Introduction

In this section, the background to the selected research subject is presented explaining the importance of examining the topic further. Subsequently, the purpose of this thesis is presented and the research question it aims to address. Lastly, expected contributions, delimitations and disposition of the thesis are outlined.

1.1. Background

An alarming 69% of global corporations in 2021 are experiencing challenges in terms of talent shortages - the highest number ever recorded in the annually conducted survey by ManpowerGroup (2021). "We are seeing the beginning of the shift in power away from companies toward the workers", was stated in an article in Forbes Magazine in the Spring of 2021 (Kelly, 2021). This was followed by referring to a survey claiming that 50% of employees in USA are planning to leave their current employers and search for new jobs in the coming year. However, fierce competition for employees is not a new challenge. In fact, the term *war for talent,* referring to the difficulties of attracting and retaining talented employees, was coined already back in 1998 by McKinsey & Company (Chambers et al., 1998). However, these challenges have increased since the 90s as a result of further globalization and a higher number of people relocating across boarders (Beechler & Woodward, 2009; Tung, 2007). With the increasing migration-flow, the previously locally fought war for talent is now battled on a global scale. Thus, it has become increasingly important for companies to excel in global talent management while also obtaining knowledge in how to handle different cultures effectively (Kim, S. & McLean, 2012; Scullion et al., 2010).

The importance of recruiting and retaining top talents has its roots in the transformation into today's *knowledge economy* in the advanced industrial nations (Powell & Snellman, 2004). In principle, this refers to an economy with "production and services based on knowledge-intensive activities that contribute to an accelerated pace of technical and scientific advance as well as rapid obsolescence" (Powell & Snellman, 2004, p. 201). Consequently, the term *knowledge workers* has emerged, referring to employees attaining extraordinary skills obtained via education and training, which has a substantial impact of the success of

companies (Jackson, Hitt & DeNisi, 2003, as cited in Tarique & Schuler, 2010). In fact, the knowledge obtained by employees is essentially a main driver of companies' profitability (Greening & Turban, 2000), which makes the act of attracting and retaining knowledgeable workers a core source of competitive advantage (Berthon et al., 2005) and in extension, crucial for business survival and success.

1.2. Problem Area

Due to increased challenges of attracting talents, companies and researchers have begun to show an amplified interest in how to build strong employer brands (Tavassoli et al., 2014). The reason is that strong employer brands have been demonstrated to increase organizational attractiveness and attract an enlarged number of potential employees (Younis & Hammad, 2021). Thus, the possession of strong employer brands is suggested to constitute a valuable asset in the war for talent.

Simultaneously as companies are facing challenges in attracting talents, there is an ever-higher demand on companies to engage in *Corporate Social Responsibility* (CSR) (Du & Vieira, 2012). A recently published report shows that 95% of Swedes consider sustainability to be important, and 53% state that they consider companies' sustainability work when applying for a job (Insight Intelligence, 2021). Moreover, 91% find it positive when companies take a stand on social issues, and 63% even expect companies to do so. With these numbers in mind, it is comprehensible that socially responsible employers have been shown to generate higher levels of perceived organizational attractiveness among potential employees (Turban & Greening, 1996). In turn, this explains why firms progressively engage in CSR to strengthen their employer brands and attract talents (Behrend et al., 2009; Bustamante et al., 2021).

The increasing trend among companies to take social responsibility is also reflected in their marketing. Advertising has long been criticized for being harmful to consumers and society. For example, a common criticism is that advertising simplifies humans into stereotypes by repeatedly conveying a narrow and non-diverse view of people (Pollay, 1986). In response to this criticism, an increasing number of companies have begun to take responsibility by counteracting stereotypes and instead bringing in different types of diversity into their

advertising (Dahlen, 2021). One example of such diversity is ethnic diversity, which has been incorporated in advertising more frequently in recent years. One well-known example that has gone viral on the internet is Dove's "Campaign for real beauty" featuring diverse women in terms of ethnicity, age, and body type to counteract the narrow and stereotyped view of beauty frequently conveyed in conventional advertising (Bissell & Rask, 2010). More, Coca-Cola's campaign "It's Beautiful" displaying ethnic diversity in America to promote inclusion and celebrate humanity (Poniewozik, 2014) and Airbnb's campaign "We accept" highlighting people with various ethnicities, ages, and religions with the message of embracing differences (USA Today, 2017).

Even though there is a growing body of literature supporting that advertising might have extended effects on other stakeholders beyond consumers (Rosengren & Bondesson, 2014), there is still little research on consumer advertising's ability to impact employer brands and by extension organizational attractiveness, that is potential employees' positive perceptions about the brand as an employer. Nevertheless, it is suggested that information shaping perceptions of employer brands partially stem from companies' advertisements and publicity (Terjesen et al., 2007).

Taken together, there is research suggesting that CSR can have a positive impact on organizational attractiveness (Turban & Greening, 1996). Moreover, there is a contemporary CSR-oriented advertising trend of taking responsibility by breaking stereotypes and inducing, for example, ethnic diversity into advertising (Dahlen, 2021). Yet, to our knowledge, there is no research exploring the potential impact that advertising featuring ethnic diversity may have on organizational attractiveness.

1.3. Purpose and Research Question

The purpose of the thesis is to better understand how consumer advertising portraying ethnic diversity effects employer brands. Building on signaling theory, the objective is to understand if such advertising portrayals send signals about the advertising brand as an employer and thereby impacts the employer brand, measured by organizational attractiveness. The mediating variables examined, i.e., the signals about the employer, are *employer reputation*

and *third-party justice.* Further, based upon the social identity theory and person-organization fit, the moderating variable investigated is *altruistic values* possessed by potential employees. In short, the research question that the thesis seeks to answer is the following:

How does consumer advertising portraying ethnic diversity affect organizational attractiveness?

1.4. Expected Research Contribution

This thesis is expected to contribute theoretically to several different literature areas by connecting literature on employer branding, corporate social responsibility (CSR) and advertising. To date, CSR initiatives have been shown to be capable of strengthening employer brands and organizational attractiveness among potential employees (Bustamante et al., 2021). This is especially true for employee-directed CSR initiatives like fairness and anti-discrimination as these function as signals of how potential employees can be expected to be treated themselves. Simultaneously, literature on advertising has to an increasing extent started to explore how advertising can contribute to positive social effects in society by challenging stereotypes portrayed in advertising and introducing inclusiveness and diversity (Dahlen, 2021). Moreover, consumer advertising has been demonstrated to have the ability to shape perceptions of companies as employers (Rosengren & Bondesson, 2014). Yet, it has not to our knowledge been explored whether consumer advertising portraying ethnic diversity has the capacity to increase perceived organizational attractiveness among potential employees and thus, be a useful tool in the ongoing war for talent. Therefore, this thesis aims to contribute by bridging these perspectives. Moreover, the thesis will contribute managerially by guiding managers and corporations in how they can broaden their advertising goals from only focusing on consumer responses to also involving potential employees' responses.

1.5. Delimitations

This thesis is delimited in multiple ways. These delimitations are important since they enable a concise and thorough analysis and further facilitates for the reader to fluently follow the

reasoning throughout the thesis. To begin with, the study is delimited to solely focus on CSR elements related to inclusion in the form of ethnic diversity, meaning that it does not take other CSR dimensions into consideration. Thereby, only portrayals of ethnic diversity in consumer advertising are studied. The reason why there is a focus on ethnic diversity is because corporations nowadays compete for talents on a global level (Kim & McLean, 2012; Scullion et al., 2010), which implies that there is a need for targeting potential employees with diverse ethnical backgrounds. Therefore, we considered ethnic diversity to be a highly relevant diversity dimension to investigate.

More, the main study in the thesis is delimited to last-year university students in Sweden, implying a relatively young participant group with a base in only one country. The war for talent is however not exclusively present in this age group nor country. However, the sample was chosen as Swedish legislation enables collecting e-mail addresses to students enrolled at Swedish universities free of charge. Thereby, students in geographically diverse locations within the national borders could both effectively and efficiently be reached through e-mails.

Finally, the study is delimited to consumer advertising within the insurance industry. The reason for choosing this specific industry is threefold: (1) insurance companies are generally targeting a broad group of people, and thus we consider the product to be rather gender neutral and relevant to most people and thereby also potential employees, (2) the insurance industry is dependent on competences to fill positions that belong to the hardest ones to fill, including positions within sales/marketing, operations and it/data (ManpowerGroup, 2021), and (3) the war for talent is especially present within the insurance industry as it is facing accelerated changes in business strategy, which requires highly skilled employees to remain competitive throughout the shift (Catlin et al., 2020).

1.6. Disposition

The thesis is organized in following order: first, relevant theory is presented, and hypotheses are formulated. Subsequently, the methodology is described and thereafter the results from the pretest and the main study are presented. Next, the results are discussed, and a

conclusion is derived, followed by an outline of practical implications and limitations of the thesis. Finally, suggestions for future research are proposed.

2. Theory and Hypotheses Formulation

In this chapter, theory and preceding empirical evidence that is relevant for the purpose of the thesis is presented. To begin with, theory regarding employer branding is outlined, followed by theory about corporate social responsibility (CSR) and advertising. In the last part of the chapter, the development of hypotheses based on the theory is presented.

2.1. Employer Branding

Based on increased competition for talents, i.e., individuals that have "intrinsic gifts, skills, knowledge, experience, intelligence, judgment, attitude, character and drive [...] also includes his or her ability to learn and grow" (Beechler & Woodward, 2009, p. 274), companies and academia have shown a larger interest in how to build strong employer brands in later years. Consequently, *employer branding* has augmented in popularity as a research field (Tavassoli et al., 2014) and is hence corresponding to the surge of the war for talent (Chambers et al., 1998). In essence, employer branding is about managing challenges of recruiting and retaining talents by "internally and externally promoting a clear view of what makes a firm different and desirable as an employer" (Lievens, 2007, p. 51). Thereby, employer branding can be seen as a process of building and promoting a "unique and attractive image" (Backhaus, 2004, p. 117) as an employer to differentiate oneself and attain a competitive advantage in attracting talents (Lievens & Highhouse, 2003). The goal of the employer branding process is to establish a strong employer brand, defined as "the package of functional, economic and psychological benefits provided by employment, and identified with the employing company" (Ambler & Barrow, 1996, p. 187). Strong employer brands are desirable because they have been suggested to enable companies to decrease their employee acquisition costs, improve employee retention, advance relationships between companies and their employees, and enable firms to offer lower wages to equally qualified employees in comparison to companies possessing weaker employer brands (Ritson, 2002). Therefore, obtaining a strong employer brand can function as a useful tool in the war for talent.

Moreover, strong employer brands have been shown to have a positive impact on *organizational attractiveness* (Younis & Hammad, 2021), defined as "an attitude or expressed general positive affect toward an organization and toward viewing the organization as a

desirable entity with which to initiate some relationship" (Aiman-Smith et al., 2001 p. 221). Besides, employer brands have also been demonstrated to have a positive impact on a very similar concept, namely *employer attractiveness*, defined as "the envisioned benefits that a potential employee sees in working for a specific organisation" (Berthon et al., 2005, p. 156). Throughout the employer branding literature, many terms related to the research area are used interchangeably without making clear distinctions, which has resulted in heterogenous conceptualizations and great confusion within the research area (Theurer et al., 2018). This confusion also applies to the aforementioned terms organizational attractiveness and employer attractiveness, which both have been used to assess the quantifiable degree of attractiveness possessed by employer brands (Rosengren & Bondesson, 2014; Theurer et al., 2018). In this thesis, the term *organizational attractiveness* will be used when referring to the general organizational attractiveness possessed by an employer brand.

Although the employer brand, technically speaking, simply is an identifier consisting of, e.g., a brand name and logo, all kind of firm-related information known as *employer brand knowledge* is covered under the employer brand umbrella term. Hence, the employer brand includes both tangible assets, like brand name and logo, as well as intangible assets, like all different kinds of knowledge associated with the brand. The employer knowledge for its part, can be divided into three components: (1) employer familiarity (or awareness), (2) employer reputation, and (3) employer image (Cable & Turban, 2001).

The first employer knowledge dimension, *employer familiarity*, defined as "the level of awareness that a job seeker has of an organization", functions as a precondition for all other knowledge to occur as it is impossible to possess perceptions about an employer's reputation or image without being aware of the employer's existence (Cable & Turban, 2001; Theurer et al., 2018). Research has shown that employer familiarity, by itself, positively effects employer attractiveness and intentions to apply for a job both directly and indirectly from being mediated by employer reputation and employer image (Theurer et al., 2018). That means that perceived attractiveness and the willingness to apply for a job increases by simply being aware of the employer. This is explained by the mechanism of people liking what is familiar to them (Cable & Turban, 2001). Further, the second knowledge dimension, *reputation*, defined as

"job seeker's beliefs about the public's affective evaluation of the organization", is proposed to influence employer familiarity and employer image (Cable & Turban, 2001). Moreover, a positive employer reputation has been shown to have a positive effect on employer attractiveness. The third and last dimension of employer knowledge consists of *employer image* and is defined as "a job seeker's own beliefs about the organization (in terms of information about the employer, job, and people in the organization)" (Cable & Turban, 2001). The employer image has been proved to influence organizational attractiveness in early recruitment stages (Cable & Turban, 2001).

As concluded above, empirical studies have shown that all three employer knowledge dimensions have the ability to impact perceived organizational attractiveness (Theurer et al., 2018), indicating that they do play a crucial role in building employer brands. The logic behind the importance of employer knowledge is that potential employees make use of accessible firm-related information, known as employer knowledge, to assess companies' attractiveness (Cable & Turban, 2001). The information partly stems from the corporate image and values communicated in companies' advertisements and publicity (Terjesen et al., 2007), making these channels important tools to convey information and attract talents.

Even though advertising is expected to have an impact on the employer brand knowledge, and in extension the employer brand (Terjesen et al., 2007), little research has explored the area. When looking at research examining how to strengthen employer brands, the main emphasis is on recruitment activities towards potential employees in terms of recruitment ads, employee endorsements, job posts or student sponsorship (Rosengren & Bondesson, 2014). When consumer advertising is mentioned, it mainly regards how employer branding efforts must "support and enhance the product or corporate brands" (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004, p. 502), instead of looking at how the advertising can strengthen the employer brand. Nevertheless, there are a few exceptions. For example, creative consumer advertising has been shown to strengthen the employer brand as the advertiser is perceived to possess a greater brand ability (Rosengren & Bondesson, 2014), and large investments in advertising have been shown to create a positive impact on the quality and quantity of the talent pool (Collins & Han, 2004). Thereby, there are indications towards advertising being a useful tool

not only to strengthen the corporate brand but also the employer brand, and in extension increase organizational attractiveness.

2.2. Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

Simultaneously as companies are struggling to attract talents, there is an ongoing societal trend of expecting companies to be socially responsible (Du & Vieira, 2012). These expectations are especially prevalent among people in the younger generations (Kumari & Saini, 2018), which explains why companies to an increasing extent are engaging in corporate social responsibility (CSR) to rise their organizational attractiveness among young, potential employees (Behrend et al., 2009; Bustamante et al., 2021).

Even though companies engaging in CSR have become increasingly prevalent and making CSR work somewhat of a standard, academia and practice are still not unified regarding the definition of the concept. Some scholars even claim that there is no universal definition to apply at all (van Marrewijk, 2003). To bring some clarity, Dahlsrud (2008) compiled a list with the most cited CSR definitions and identified five recurring dimensions being acknowledged; social, stakeholder, economic, voluntariness and environmental. Four out of five of these dimensions are covered in the most frequently cited CSR definition, being "a concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interaction with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis" (Commission of the European Communities, 2001).

The increasing engagement in CSR is not only a benevolent trend but has in fact been shown to be good for business as it can strengthen employers' organizational attractiveness (Turban & Greening, 1996), increase employers' reputation (Lin et al., 2016) and generate a higher number of job-applications from high-performing individuals (Tsai et al., 2014). Moreover, several studies support that potential employees are more probable of undertaking a career for socially responsible companies than companies with poor CSR reputation (Behrend et al., 2009; Greening & Turban, 2000; Tsai et al., 2014). Considering today's knowledge economy where companies' success is heavily dependent on their intellectual competences i.e., employees (Powell & Snellman, 2004), the capability of attracting talents is crucial. Thereby,

it is of interest to investigate what makes corporations that are engaging in CSR more prosperous in attracting talents. (Jones et al., 2009; Rupp et al., 2006).

There are various theoretical concepts that may explain the abovementioned positive effects of CSR. One such concept is *signaling theory*, implying that organizational attributes function as signals for other less observable attributes possessed by the employer which are unknown to potential employees (Rynes et al., 1991). As an illustration, companies' communication about their CSR engagement can function as a signal of good employer reputation (Behrend et al., 2009) and *third-party justice*, that is perceptions of how firms' employees are treated by the company (Jones et al., 2009; Rupp et al., 2006). Yet, another theory explaining the positive effects of CSR is *social identity theory*, coined by Tajfel and Turner in the 1980's (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). The essence of this theory is that people are claimed to sort themselves into categories based on social groups as they function as a foundation of their self-image and constitute an important part of people's identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1986, as cited in Bustamante et al., 2021). There are various social groups for people to identify with, whereof one important is the employer for whom they work. The reason is that the reputation and associations connected to the employer is expected to have spillover effects on employees' self-concepts. In essence, that means that organizations possessing good reputations enhance employees' self-concepts (Turban & Greening, 1996). A theory closely related to the social identity theory is the *person-organization fit*, which implies that potential employees are attracted to employers having characteristics similar to their own as it creates a match between the individuals' values and the corporations' (Chatman, 1989). Based on this, it is likely that people who consider social responsibility as an important part of their value system will be especially attracted to organizations that are committed to CSR (Bustamante et al., 2021).

As CSR commitment has been shown to be capable of increasing organizational attractiveness among potential employees (Turban & Greening, 1996), researchers have shown an interest in understanding which CSR dimensions are the main drivers of perceived organizational attractiveness (Bustamante et al., 2021; Turban & Greening, 1996). Results imply that CSR aspects being directly related to employees' personal well-being, so-called employee-

directed responsibilities, like fairness and anti-discrimination are more influential than socio-environmental dimensions like environmental-friendly products or engagement in social concerns. A potential explanation is that employee-directed responsibilities have a direct impact on the needs of employees themselves and is therefore perceived more important (Bustamante et al., 2021).

2.3. Advertising

Over the years, the purpose of advertising has been to "persuade them [people] to do or buy something" (Dahlen, 2021, p. 124). What is referred to as buying or doing something is linked to what is commonly known as *brand-related effects* within advertising research, which regards people's actions in terms of attitudes and behaviors linked to the sender or the persuasive message of the ad (Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016). Examples of such brand-related effects are purchase intentions and attitudes towards the ad and the advertising brand, which are among some of the most frequently investigated effects within marketing research (Kim et al., 2014).

Even though the focus of advertising traditionally speaking has been on affecting brand-related effects positively (Eisend, 2016), advertising also generates what is known as *social effects*. Social effects, either positive or negative, impact consumers without necessarily having to do with the advertiser or the persuasive message of the advertising (Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016), and are therefore often referred to as extended (Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016) or unintended effects of advertising (Pollay, 1986). Despite social effects having the potential of being either positive or negative, advertising has long been considered to generate negative social effects and thereby being harmful to society (Dahlen, 2021). Already in the 1980's, Pollay (1986) wrote an article about various unintended effects of advertising that were described as "pollution of our psychological and social ecology" (Pollay, 1986, p.19), and thereby advertising was considered to constitute a moral alarm. For example, advertising was declared to be manipulative, aggregate racism, simplify humans into stereotypes, play with people's emotions and make people more materialistic (Pollay, 1986).

Stereotypes have, in line with earlier mentioned criticism, been frequently used within advertising over the years. Typically, stereotypes are defined as "a set of concepts pertaining to a social category" (Åkestam et al., 2017b, p. 796), leading to the perception of group members possessing generic attributes rather than individual attributes (Taylor & Stern, 1997). The concept is applicable to all kind of social groups based on aspects like ethnicity, age, gender, sexuality, profession, or religion (Eisend, 2010). The existence of stereotypes is due to a certain image of social groups being conveyed repeatedly, which over time results in generally accepted beliefs (Taylor & Stern, 1997). These stereotypes can be helpful to people as they function as a tool to make sense of the world by simplifying and organizing information. However, they can also result in negative outcomes when being oversimplified, which in extension may lead to false knowledge and incorrect conclusions (Eisend, 2010). In the long run, this may lead to individuals being incorrectly judged based on stereotypes and generic expectations rather than on their personal qualities (Taylor & Stern, 1997). Further, the frequent use of stereotypes in advertising has resulted in a very narrow group of people being repeatedly portrayed, known as *advertising stereotypes*, which has created a norm that does not accurately represent reality. These advertising stereotypes regard dimensions like attractiveness, ethnicity, or body type (Bissell & Rask, 2010; Richins, 1991). There is a large amount of literature mapping the use of advertising stereotypes and what kind of human features that have been overrepresented over the years. These features are for example skinniness, heterosexuality, successfulness, attractiveness, and whiteness (Åkestam, 2017).

As mentioned before, several intellectuals have been critical towards advertising over the years (Pollay, 1986). However, the criticism does not only adhere to academia, but society and consumers are critical too (Dahlen, 2021). In recent years, advertising has repetitively been declared to be dying as consumers are able to avoid it (Cassano, 2013) and do not need it (Kuntz, 2009). In fact, consumers are even said to hate it (Hsu, 2019). Derived from this criticism, it has been argued that advertising needs to become *truly good* to survive (Dahlen, 2021). In essence, that means that advertising needs to not only benefit companies but also consumers, society, and media. Therefore, it is argued that companies must broaden their advertising goals to focus beyond brand-related effects by also taking responsibility for extended social effects and making sure to benefit society (Dahlen, 2021). Thereby, the earlier

outlined demands on companies to take social responsibility and engage in CSR (Du & Vieira, 2012), can be argued to also involve companies' advertising.

In fact, advertising that intends to benefit society and consumers is increasingly prevalent (Dahlen, 2021). As an example of this, several well-established brands have in recent years launched advertising campaigns which induces ethnic diversity in contrast to portraying the advertising stereotype of whiteness. As previously mentioned, some famous advertising campaigns embracing ethnic diversity stem from globally well-known companies like Dove (Bissell & Rask, 2010), Coca-Cola (Poniewozik, 2014) and Airbnb (USA Today, 2017). Simultaneously, this trend of including ethnic diversity in ads has also emerged in Sweden (Osanami Törngren & Ulver, 2020).

Even though advertising portraying ethnic diversity has risen in popularity in recent years, research within the field dates to the 1960s. Back then, American advertisers started targeting both Caucasian and African American consumers at once, who earlier had been targeted separately. This trend developed into a research subject, named *integrated advertising*, which started off with a publication by Barban and Cundiff (1964) which investigated brand-related effects among both target groups after being exposed to integrated advertising. The results indicated that African Americans reacted more positively than Caucasians in terms of brand evaluations, however Caucasians still reacted rather neutrally which generated a positive net result (Barban & Cundiff, 1964).

Since the 1970s, integrated advertising has not been a major research topic. In fact, there is surprisingly little up-to-date research within the area of ethnically diverse portrayals in advertising. However, a recently published Ph.D. dissertation conducted an experiment on the topic. The results show that ad portrayals featuring ethnic diversity produce both higher brand-related effects in terms of ad and brand attitudes, and positive social effects in terms of increased social connectedness and empathy (Åkestam et al., 2017a). Yet, these effects are moderated by consumers' attitudes towards ethnic diversity resulting in social and brand-related effects going from neutral, among people with lower attitudes toward ethnic diversity, to significantly positive among people with higher attitudes (Åkestam, 2017). Thus,

positive net effects are achieved which resonates with the research on integrated marketing in the 1960s.

Based on the abovementioned stream of research, it seems to make commercial sense to produce responsible advertising featuring ethnic diversity as it generates both beneficial social and brand-related effects. Moreover, due to consumer advertisings' high visibility it is likely that these effects do not only adhere to consumers but could also have spillover effects on other stakeholders (Rosengren & Bondesson, 2014). In fact, it has earlier been demonstrated that consumer advertising can shape potential employees' perceptions about the company as an employer (Rosengren & Bondesson, 2014). Hence, there are indications that advertising embracing ethnic diversity could have an impact on potential employees too, and thus be a tool to strengthen employer brands.

2.4. System of Hypotheses

Taken together, employer branding research suggests that potential employees make use of accessible firm-related information, known as employer knowledge, to evaluate companies' attractiveness (Cable & Turban, 2001). Besides, in line with signaling theory, perceived information is suggested to function as signals for other less observable attributes possessed by the employer that are unknown to potential employees (Rynes et al., 1991). Looking at CSR, it has been shown to send signals of good employer reputation (Behrend et al., 2009; Turban & Greening, 1996), as well as increased third-party justice, that is perceptions of how the firm's employees are treated by the company (Jones et al., 2009; Rupp et al., 2006).

Looking back at the earlier outlined definition of CSR being "a concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interaction with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis" (Commission of the European Communities, 2001), we argue that advertising portraying ethnic diversity can be considered part of CSR. By portraying ethnic diversity in advertising, companies challenge the traditional advertising stereotype of whiteness and take responsibility for potential negative extended effects that their interactions with consumers may cause. Based on this, there are reasons to

believe that advertising featuring ethnic diversity may produce similar signals as perceptions of CSR.

Further, Bustaman et al. (2020) found that third-party justice is positively correlated with employer reputation in gaining attraction from future employees. Hillebrant and Barclay (2017) further found that third-party justice is of interest among people external to the organization, and Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara et al. (2013) reveal that the way an employer treat their employees significantly anticipates externals' perception of the organization. Considering that potential employees are indeed externals; third-party justice is expected to be of interest for jobseekers. Considering this information in combination the signaling theory, portraying ethnic diversity in the advertisement would likely signal responsible actions and inclusion which we argue to be closely connected to third-party justice. This, because inclusion of all ethnicities implies fairness, and thus it could signal how a potential future employee would be treated themselves, which is of interest for externals (Hillebrandt & Barclay, 2017; Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara et al., 2013). Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:(Commission of the European Communities, 2001)

H1: Advertising featuring ethnic diversity (vs ethnic non-diversity) generates higher levels of perceived **(a)** employer reputation and **(b)** third-party justice.

Previously mentioned research has shown that ethnic diversity portrayals in advertising have positive effects on ad and brand attitudes (Åkestam, 2017). Further, research has suggested that there might be spillover effects from consumer brands to the employer brands (Cable & Turban, 2001). In fact, it has even been shown that consumer advertising can shape perceptions of companies as employers, and even produce increased organizational attractiveness (Rosengren & Bondesson, 2014). Furthermore, CSR initiatives have been shown to be capable of increasing organizational attractiveness (Jones et al., 2014; Turban & Greening, 1996). Based on this, it is hypothesized:

H2: Advertising featuring ethnic diversity (vs ethnic non-diversity) generates increased organizational attractiveness.

Moreover, based on the social identity theory, potential employees are likely to interpret a good employer reputation as beneficial since it is expected to have spillover effects on their own self-concepts. Thence, a good reputation is anticipated to enhance employees' self-concepts (Turban & Greening, 1996), resulting in increased levels of organizational attractiveness (Theurer et al., 2018). Further, perceptions of third-party justice have been demonstrated to act as a signal for how current employees are treated, which in extension functions as a proxy of how potential employees can expect to be treated themselves. If the deemed treatment is on a respectable level, it has been shown to have a positive impact on organizational attractiveness (Jones et al., 2014). In conclusion, both employer reputation and third-party justice seem to constitute underlying mechanisms of the increased organizational attractiveness. Thus, it is hypothesized:

H3: Perceived **(a)** employer reputation and **(b)** third-party justice positively mediate the positive effect that advertising featuring ethnic diversity (vs ethnic non-diversity) has on organizational attractiveness.

As already mentioned, a theory closely related to the social identity theory is the person-organization fit theory which implies that employees are attracted to employers with similar characteristics and values as themselves (Chatman, 1989). Thereby, it can be expected that individuals who consider social responsibility important, will be particularly attracted to organizations committed to CSR. In fact, studies based on the person-organization fit framework have shown that people possessing *altruistic values*, i.e., people who act in ways that increase the wellbeing for others or society on the expense of oneself without any potential personal gains (Ferguson, 2015; Hartmann et al., 2017), are particularly attracted to companies being socially responsible (Mueller et al., 2012; Randy Evans & Davis, 2011). Based on this, it is hypothesized:

H4: The positive effect that advertising featuring ethnic diversity (vs ethnic non-diversity) has on organizational attractiveness through the mediators **(a)** employer reputation and **(b)** third-party justice is positively moderated by altruistic values possessed by potential employees.

17

All four hypotheses are summarized in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Theoretical model including hypotheses.
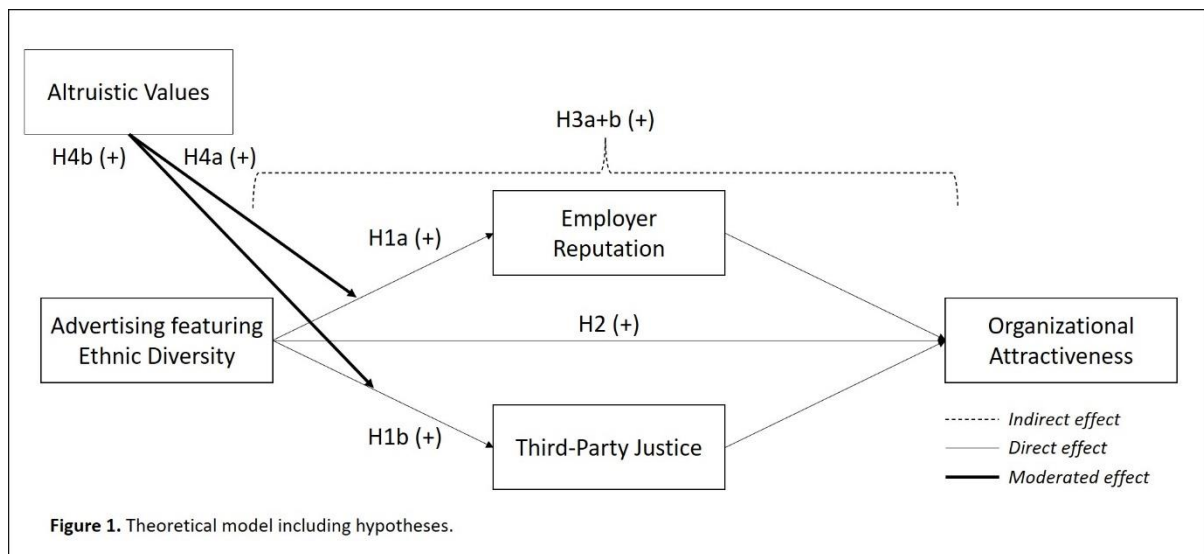
3. Methodology

This section describes the method used during the pretest and main study. To begin with, the choice of research subject is presented. Next, the research object which includes choice of industry, choice of stimuli and choice of images is introduced, followed by the research method and research approach. Thereafter, the pretest is presented leading to the main experiment including the study design, survey design, measures, sampling, data collection and analytics tools. Lastly, the study's validity and reliability are discussed.

3.1. Choice of the Research Subject

When studying different advertisements, we have noticed an increase in ethnically diverse portrayals. Therefore, we did more research on the topic and found that various newspapers have paid attention this trend and even praised it. For example, Forbes has suggested that "diversity in advertising is good marketing", and Entrepreneur has stated that "the time for diversity in advertising is now" (Miller, 2021). In combination with the prior learnings of the ongoing war for talent and the notion that ethnically diverse advertising seems to impact consumer brands positively, it made us wonder whether this trend could have extended effects on potential employees. To our surprise, no research was found on the topic. Consequently, a research subject had been identified that would contribute to both practitioners by guiding them in how to broaden their advertising goals to include potential employees' responses, and academics by extending the literature on the effects of ethnically diverse advertising.

3.2. Choice of the Research Object

In order to select suitable research objects for the experiment, the industry, images, and stimuli had to be decided upon which is discussed in the following section.

3.2.1. Choice of Industry

In order to investigate potential effects from advertising portraying ethnic diversity on organizational attractiveness, any industry could have been selected. However, we considered it to be important to choose an industry that is facing the war for talent. After

talking to an employee in one of Sweden's largest insurance companies, we learned that the insurance industry seems to be facing this fierce competition for talents. This is further confirmed in a recent study by McKinsey (Catlin et al., 2020), claiming that it is of high importance to perform strongly in the war for talent in the insurance industry due to an accelerated change in business strategy, requiring highly skilled employees to remain competitive through this shift. The insurance industry is further argued to be relevant based on the assumption of it being gender-neutral and is offering a broad variety of jobs, making it a potential employer to students in various fields of studies.

3.2.2. Choice of Stimuli

To test the formulated hypotheses, two sets of adverts (ethnic diversity vs. ethnic non-diversity) were used as stimuli. Two versions of each condition were included, i.e., two ethnic diverse and two ethnic non-diverse advertisements, to avoid model-specific effects (e.g., Mafael et al., 2021). However, the intention is that the ads within each set will be collapsed later for further analysis. More, the four simulated consumer ads were developed for a fictive insurance company named Hello Insurance. The reason for choosing a fictitious company rather than an established one was to prevent distortion of the results caused by any potential pre-existing perceptions of the brand (Aggarwal, 2004; de Vries et al., 2015; Wagner et al., 2009). However, the ads were created with inspiration from already existing ads (see Appendix 1), as this in accordance with Saunders et al. (2012) increases the ecological validity. More, still-image ads were the chosen type of advertisement for the experiment because they are relatively easy to manipulate (Åkestam, 2018), and because we find them to be frequently used in advertising for insurance companies. These four adverts are found in Appendix 2.

The ethnically diverse models consisted of four categories: models aligning with the image of ideal-typical Caucasians, models aligning with the image of ideal-typical African American image, models aligning with the ideal-typical East Asian image, and lastly, models aligning with the ideal-typical Hispanic image (e.g., Åkestam, 2017). The idea behind these four adverts was created in collaboration with a professor and researcher within marketing management and economic psychology at Stockholm School of Economics.

3.2.3. Choice of Images

The ethnically diverse people included in ads were selected based on the premise of them being signed to model agencies, in order to ensure that they are considered stereotypically good-looking according to societal norms. This was done to reduce "less attractive" persons to have a negative influence on the adverts (Brumbaugh, 1993), which otherwise could function as an external manipulation. To reduce the risks of participants (students at universities in Sweden) recognizing any models, which then could influence the perception of the ad due to prior experiences, the models were selected from American and British model agencies' websites. To avoid further potential external influences, all chosen photos portrayed models photographed from the front, looking into the camera with a neutral facial expression. Further, the adverts are featuring an equal distribution of males and females.

3.3. Research Method

In order to answer the purpose of the study, one pretest and one main study was carried out. The objective of the pretest was to test the manipulation check of more vs less ethnic diversity in the developed stimuli. Thereafter, a main study was conducted with the objective to test the hypotheses and examine the research question of the thesis.

Both the pretest and main study were following a quantitative method. Quantitative research allows researchers to study how widespread the explored relationships are within the selected group (Eliasson, 2013). More, using probability sampling allows for generalization among a smaller group of people. This was however only the case for the main study. The pretest, on the other hand, followed convenience sampling and thereby non-probability sampling, due to time constraint. However, the participants in the pretest were considered suitable due to their relevance (more details in section *3.5 Pretest*). Qualitative studies, in contrast to quantitative studies, are more useful when the researchers wish to go more in depth with few interviewees, for example by collecting data via semi-structured interviews. The qualitative method however is less suitable for generalization in comparison to a quantitative method (Eliasson, 2013), making the latter approach more suiting as the objective of the thesis is to generalize our findings since ethnic diversity portrayals in advertising is an emerging trend while there is lacking research on the topic. In addition, the

quantitative method allows for multiple relationships and attitudes to be examined whilst the qualitative, in contrast, is more appropriate when studying only one relationship (Eliasson, 2013). Since our belief was that multiple factors (employer reputation and third-party justice suggested as mediators, and altruistic values suggested as a moderator) impact the potential effect that advertisement featuring ethnic diversity has on organizational attractiveness, the quantitative approach was chosen due to its relevance. Using a qualitative method could have been beneficial as it would have provided more in-depth information and more advanced understandings of the investigated relationships. However, as the ability to generalize the results beyond the examined group was prioritized, the quantitative method was selected.

3.4. Research Approach

This study takes a deductive approach, which was selected as it is commonly related to scientific research (Saunders et al., 2012). Also, it is closely connected to quantitative studies (Bryman, 2011), which is aligning with the research method of this thesis. In this approach, the conclusion is derived based on a set of premises, i.e., hypotheses, that are logically deducted based on existing theory. According to this reasoning, the conclusion is true when the premises are confirmed (Saunders et al., 2012). In this thesis, hypotheses have been derived based on the literature discussed in the theory chapter, aligning with a deductive approach. In an inductive approach, in contrast, the data collection is conducted first to generate or build theory. This inductive approach could have been selected to investigate more in-depth information. However, the deductive approach was chosen due to its relevance when following a quantitative method and for generalization to be more appropriate.

3.5. Pretest

The aim of the pretest was primarily to carry out a manipulation check prior to the main study to ensure that the produced ads are perceived as more vs less ethnically diverse for the treatment vs control condition. One advantage of testing the manipulation in a separate test from the main study is that it offers early warnings signals if the treatments are not perceived as intended (Söderlund, 2018).

The pretest consisted of four different stimuli, two of which are intended to be ethnically diverse and two with the intention to be ethnically non-diverse. Each participant was randomly assigned to one out of the four stimuli. Thereafter questions followed, firstly about perceived ethnic diversity, and subsequently about perceived organizational attractiveness. Next, demographic questions were asked in terms of gender and age. The reason for including these questions was to get an idea of the characteristics of the sample. Lastly, a control question was inserted in the end of the survey to ensure that participants paid attention. This question was: "What industry was advertised in the ad you saw?", in which following answers were listed in a randomized order: "Insurance", "Medicine", "Grocery", Transportation", and "Education". The survey in its entireness is found in Appendix 3.

The measurements used to assess perceived ethnic diversity and organizational attractiveness consist of multi-item measures as it is generally recommended in academic research (Churchill, 1979). All items except for one measuring ethnic diversity have been adopted from earlier studies where they have been shown to possess high validity. These measures are further outlined in the section *3.6.3 Measures*.

The pretest was carried out at Stockholm School of Economics on November 5th, 2021. Students were recruited as participants via convenience sampling due to time constraints. However, students were still considered appropriate participants as the main study was intended to be tested on students. Moreover, business students at Stockholm School of Economics can be considered relevant potential employees for the insurance industry. Further, the main study was not intended to be carried out at Stockholm School of Economics, which guaranteed that participants in the pretest would not be included in the main study.

A total of 82 students answered the pretest (age 19 – 29, mean age 23.9, median age 24, 42 males, 39 females, 1 preferred not to say). Out of these, 20 failed to correctly answer the control question resulting in 62 remaining answers. Moreover, straight liners, referring to participants with a standard deviation equaling zero, was controlled for. However, no straight liners were found and hence the data analysis could proceed.

Initially the internal consistency of the measurements of ethnic diversity and organizational attractiveness was examined by testing Cronbach's Alpha. Results demonstrate that all three measures of ethnic diversity showed good reliability (Cronbach's alpha α 0.976). Thus, an ethnic diversity index was created. Further, all five measures of organizational attractiveness also showed good reliability (Cronbach's alpha α 0.864). Thereby an organizational attractiveness index was created too.

Firstly, potential differences in perceived ethnic diversity and organizational attractiveness between the two stimuli featuring non-diversity were tested by conducting independent samples t-tests. The tests reveal that there is no significant difference for perceived ethnic diversity ($t(27) = 0.082$, $p = .935$) between the two non-diversity stimuli ($M_{non-diversity1} = 1.644$, $SD = 0.73$ vs $M_{non-diversity2} = 1.62$, $SD = 0.93$). Moreover, no significant difference is found for organizational attractiveness ($t(27) = -0.033$, $p = .974$, $M_{non-diversity1} = 2.79$, $SD = 1.08$, vs $M_{non-diversity2} = 2.80$, $SD = 1.12$). Further, potential differences in perceived ethnic diversity and organizational attractiveness between the two stimuli featuring ethnic diversity were tested by conducting independent samples t-tests. The tests reveal that there is no significant difference for perceived ethnic diversity ($t(30) = 0.155$, $p = .878$) between the two ethnic diversity stimuli ($M_{diversity1} = 6.042$, $SD = 1.16$ vs $M_{diversity2} = 5.979$, $SD = 1.13$). Additionally, no significant difference is found for organizational attractiveness ($t(30) = -1.983$, $p = .057$, $M_{diversity1} = 3.813$, $SD = 1.25$, vs $M_{diversity2} = 4.550$, $SD = 0.81$).

Since no significant differences were found between the groups featuring ethnic non-diversity and ethnic diversity, the two groups were collapsed. This resulted in one group including people who got exposed to ethnically non-diverse ads, named *non-diversity*, and one group who got exposed to ethnically diverse ads, named *diversity*. To ensure that ethnic diversity is perceived significantly different between the groups, which would confirm that the manipulation is satisfactory, as well as assessing initial differences in perceived organizational attractiveness additional independent samples t-tests were performed. The tests reveal that there is a significant difference for perceived ethnic diversity ($t(60) = -17.460$, $p < .01$) between the two groups ($M_{non-diversity} = 1.644$, $SD = 0.81$ vs $M_{diversity} = 6.010$, $SD = 1.13$). Moreover, a significant difference is also found for organizational attractiveness ($t(60) = -$

5.143, $p < .01$, $M_{non-diversity}$ = 2.753, SD = 1.08, vs $M_{diversity}$ = 4.181, SD = 1.10). Thereby, the manipulation check can be considered successful and can therefore be used in the main study. Moreover, there are indications towards ethnic diversity portrayals in advertising having a positive impact on organizational attractiveness. Thus, there are motives to explore the topic further. The output from the analysis of the pretest is found in Appendix 4.

3.6. Main Study

This thesis' main study design, survey design and measures are explained below in this section.

3.6.1. Study Design

The main study used an experimental approach, which according to Söderlund (2018) is a rigorous approach to test causal claims. In an experiment, individuals are randomly allocated to different groups receiving different treatment, followed by a comparison of the results between the different groups after the treatments (Söderlund, 2010). With the ambition of testing the effects of ethnically diverse advertising on organizational attractiveness, an experiment was considered the best approach to investigate potential causal claims. Therefore, a two-group between-subject design was used to investigate the two treatment variants (Söderlund, 2018), meaning that participants were divided into two groups (treatment group vs control group) and each participant was only subject to one treatment (ethnic diversity vs ethnic non-diversity). The control group was presented with advertisements featuring ethnic non-diversity, henceforth referred to as *non-diversity*, including only Caucasian models. The treatment group was presented with advertisements featuring ethnic diversity, henceforth referred to as *diversity,* including models from the four ethnicity-groups: ideal-typical Caucasians, ideal-typical African American, ideal-typical East Asian and ideal-typical Hispanic models. All four adverts of the two different groups are, as previously mentioned, presented in Appendix 2.

Further, a survey questionnaire was used in the experiment to measure psychological reactions that is what happens in the mind of people (like attitudes, attention, or intentions) since these are only accessible to determine by asking the respondents (Söderlund, 2018). For

example, respondents' altruistic values and perceptions of organizational attractiveness were measured (see section *3.6.3. Measures*).

3.6.2. Survey Design

The survey consisted of five main blocks: (1) an introduction with instructions followed by the exposure to one out of four stimuli (non-diversity vs diversity), (2) questions regarding the advertisement and the advertising brand, (3) questions regarding the advertising brand as an employer, (4) questions regarding the participants' value orientation, and lastly (5) questions regarding participants' demography. In between the blocks, control questions were inserted to later be able to filter out the participants that did not pay attention throughout the survey. Before the survey was distributed it was tested on two people who were asked to give their feedback. Thereafter, the survey was improved appropriately by adding more explanatory text that guides respondents throughout the survey to make it more user friendly. The survey can be seen in more detail in Appendix 5.

3.6.3. Measures

Most of the questions were measured on seven-point Likert scales or seven-point Semantic differential scales. Moreover, single choice questions were used to measure gender and control questions, and an open question requiring text entry was used to measure age. Except for the latter question measuring age, all questions were closed to decrease the risk of misinterpretations when interpreting the data, as suggested by Eliasson (2013).

To safeguard reliability, multi-items were used as it is generally recommended in academic research (Churchill, 1979). Further, the items' Cronbach's alpha was calculated and considered acceptable if higher than 0.7 (Söderlund, 2018). As of validity, all variables except for the ones concerning demographics, the control questions and one of the questions regarding ethnic diversity have been adopted from earlier studies where they have been shown to possess high validity. Hence, they should measure what they are intended to measure.

In the next section, measures used in the survey and later analyzed in the results section will be presented together with their belonging Cronbach's alpha.

3.6.3.1. Used Measures

Organizational attractiveness was measured on seven-point Likert scales by asking respondents to do the following: "Please rate how well the following statements describe the advertising brand (Hello Insurance) as an employer on a scale from 1-7. 1 = Do not agree at all and 7 = Agree completely". Five items followed the instructions which consisted of "For me, this company would be a good place to work", "I would not be interested in this company except as a last resort", "This company is attractive to me as a place for employment", "I am interested in learning more about this company" and "A job at this company is very appealing to me". Regarding the negatively phrased item, i.e., "I would not be interested in this company except as a last resort", the question was reversed when analyzing the results. The measurement was adopted from Highhouse et al. (2003).

Employer reputation was measured on seven-point Likert scales by asking respondents to do the following: "Please rate how well the following statements describe the advertising brand as an employer on a scale from 1-7. 1 = Do not agree at all and 7 = Agree completely". Five items followed the instructions which consisted of "Employees are probably proud to say they work at this company", "This is a reputable company to work for", "This company probably has a reputation as being an excellent employer", "I would find this company a reputable place to work" and "There are probably many who would like to work at this company". The measurement was adopted from Bustaman et al. (2020). All five measures showed good reliability (Cronbach's alpha α 0.914).

Third-party justice was measured on seven-point Likert scales based on the following instructions: "The questions below relate to how the advertising brand treats employees. Please use the following scale to answer the questions: 1 = to a very small extent, 4 = neutral, 7 = to a very large extent. To what extent does the advertising brand:". Four items followed the instructions which consisted of "Treat employees with respect?", "Treat employees in a polite manner?", "Treat employees with dignity?" and "Refrain from making improper

remarks or comments to employees?". The measurement was adopted from Dunford et al. (2015). All four measures showed good reliability (Cronbach's alpha α 0.943).

Altruistic values were measured on seven-point Likert scales as a normative scale like the Likert Scale is desired when assessing people's value priorities (Randy Evans & Davis, 2011). Respondents were asked to: "Please rate each value stated below in terms of its importance to you on a scale from 1-7. 1= least important and 7=most important." The altruistic values measured were: "Helpful (working for the welfare of others)", "Compassion (feeling empathy for others)", "Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)" and "Loving (being affectionate, tender)". Moreover, self-centered values were also included for the respondents to have more values to choose from, consisting of: "A comfortable life (a prosperous life)", "Wealth (making money for myself and family)" and "Pleasure (an enjoyable life)". The measurement was adopted from Agle et al. (1999). All four measures showed good reliability (Cronbach's alpha α 0.785).

Ethnic diversity was measured on seven-point Likert scale with the following instructions: "Please rate how well the following statement describe the ad on a scale from 1–7. 1 = Do not agree at all and 7 = Agree completely." The measures for ethnic diversity were "the ad is ethnically diverse", "the ad features multiple ethnicities" and "the ad portrays ethnic diversity". The first two items were adopted from Åkestam (2017). The last one was added by us in order to increase the convergent validity (Aidley, 2019), but was created with inspiration from the other two. All measures showed good reliability (Cronbach's alpha α 0.973).

Demographic variables were measured in the end of the questionnaire to prevent negative feelings about sharing personal information that could influence the rest of the answers in the survey (Lietz, 2010). The two demographic questions asked were regarding gender and age. These questions consisted of (1) "To which gender identity do you most identify?" with the alternatives "Male", "Female", "Non-binary/third gender", "Not listed" and "Prefer not to say", (2) "How old are you?" followed by an open text entry.

Three *control questions* were inserted in the survey to ensure that survey participants were paying attention throughout the survey. These questions consisted of (1) "Please select the letter B as your answer choice" with alternatives "A", "B", "C", "D", "E" and "F", (2) "Which of these is not an animal?" with the alternatives "Cow", "Dog", "Bird", "Hamburger" and "Monkey", and (3) "In what industry was the advertising brand?" with the alternatives "Insurance", "Medicine", "Grocery", "Transportation" and "Education".

Lastly, a *manipulation check,* which was the same as the one in the pretest, was inserted in the end of the survey to secure a satisfactory manipulation in terms of the ads being perceived as more vs less ethnically diverse. The reason for including an additional manipulation check in the main study was to guarantee that the manipulation is perceived in the same way as in the pretest, which Söderlund (2018) argues cannot be completely assured otherwise.

3.6.4. Sampling

The sampling process consisted of a collection of 5,734 final-year bachelor and master students' e-mail addresses in programs that we considered relevant to jobs of highest demand of employees (ManpowerGroup, 2021) from eight universities in Sweden (Stockholms Universitet, Kungliga Tekniska Högskolan, Örebro Universitet, Linnéuniversitetet, Göteborgs Universitet, Umeå Universitet, Luleås Tekniska Universitet and Mittuniversitetet). With the ambition to add to earlier research, the participants' age and gender were selected to replicate the sample group of prior studies on similar topics (e.g., Rosengren & Bondesson, 2014). Moreover, this sample group is of relevance since the participants to a large extent are both Millennials (born approximately between 1980 and 2000, as per definition by Cone, 2006, as cited in Culiberg & Mihelič, 2016) as well as last-year university students close to entering the labor market (Berthon et al., 2005).

A total of 351 students answered the survey, resulting in a response rate of 6.1%. Out of these, 22 failed to correctly answer the control questions: five respondents answered the first control question incorrectly, three answered the second control question incorrectly, and 14 answered the third control question incorrectly. Further, there was one respondent removed from the data due to it being a straight liner, meaning that this participant's standard

deviation equals zero. Hence, this respondent answered consistently throughout the entire survey, including the contradictory questions. Thus, 328 valid survey responses remained (age 19–53, mean age 26.95, median age 25, 161 males, 156 females, 3 non-binary/third gender, 8 preferred not to say). Moreover, the participants were close to being equally distributed across the two groups ($N_{non-diversity}$ = 157, $N_{diversity}$ = 171). On average, it took the participants 7 minutes and 32 seconds to fill out the survey.

3.6.5. Data Collection

The survey was distributed to the participants via e-mails sent by us. The main study was conducted in Sweden between the 11th and 17th of November 2021. The email included a brief presentation of (1) the authors of the survey, (2) the purpose of the survey explained to be data collection for a master thesis on the topic of marketing at Stockholm School of Economics, (3) the GDPR compliance, (4) the donation of 15 SEK to the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) for each complete response, and (5) an explanation of how the participants' email addresses had been collected. Moreover, the e-mail contained a link to the survey that randomly assigned participants to one treatment, followed by an identical questionnaire for all respondents. No information regarding the purpose of the experiment was revealed. Moreover, the participants were not informed about the randomization or existence of several stimuli. The data was collected through the online survey tool Qualtrics, provided by Stockholm School of Economics.

3.6.6. Analytics Tools

The statistical analyzes were executed in SPSS version 27. The tests that were conducted are independent samples t-tests and Hayes PROCESS macro models 4 and 7. The level of significance chosen was 0.05, which is a frequently accepted level and standard practice (Söderlund, 2018).

3.6.7. Assessment of Validity and Reliability

In the following section, the validity and reliability of the measures are considered.

3.6.7.1. Validity

Internal validity refers to the degree to which the experimental treatment explains the reactions among participants. Basically, it regards whether the findings of an experiment are caused by the treatment (Bryman, 2011). To secure internal validity, several actions can be taken. To begin with, using statistical tests is a way of addressing internal validity as they specify at what risk null hypotheses can be rejected despite being true and vice versa (Söderlund, 2018). Therefore, statistical tests were conducted as a first step to secure internal validity in the current study. Moreover, there are other factors unrelated to the treatment that also can impact the internal validity. For example, selection effects might occur meaning that participants in different groups could be different already before they obtain a specific treatment. This can be avoided by making sure participants are randomly assigned the treatments (Söderlund, 2018), which was the case in the current study. Based on the actions taken, the internal validity of the study is considered acceptable.

External validity refers to the degree to which an experiment's result can be generalized and presumed to be valid beyond the experimental setting, meaning if there would be other versions of the treatment, other measurements and other people participating in the experiment (Söderlund, 2018). For the external validity to be acceptable, a first step is to ensure that the internal validity is in place. The reason is that if effects generated from an experiment cannot be traced back to the treatment, there is simply nothing to generalize. As earlier concluded, the internal validity of the current study is deemed acceptable. However, there are more factors impacting the external validity. For example, participants being exposed to several treatments might affect the results and thereby hurt the generalizability. To avoid this, participants were only exposed to one treatment each in the current study. Further, the pretest and the main study were not tested on the same sample. Moreover, the experiment's sample of participants also constitute a factor that impacts the external validity. A student sample was considered suitable for the current study as students are to be employed by companies soon (Berthon et al., 2005). This is especially true for last-year students that the sample for the main study consisted of. Moreover, the students originate from universities across Sweden, and thereby a geographical spread is assured. Based on this,

the sample is deemed to be rather representative. Based on the actions taken, the external validity of the study is considered acceptable.

Ecological validity is referring to applicability of the study's result to the everyday, natural social settings of people (Bryman, 2011). This is mainly for researchers to consider that the results produced are technically valid, which has little to do with the everyday life of people (Bryman, 2011). As this study is using a survey, such ecological validity is limited since it is considered unnatural to answer a questionnaire (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Further, the respondents were not able to go back in the questionnaire and look at the ad again after leaving that side of the survey, which is possible to do in real-life-settings. However, in order to increase ecological validity, the adverts were created based on real ads (like the Beauty Project found in Appendix 1). Thus, to the respondent's knowledge, the exposed ad could have been an actual ad. Further, internet is a natural setting to be exposed to still-image ads, making the online-based survey considered normal. Therefore, we argue that the experience of viewing the images was similar to the exposure to advertisements in real-life, e.g., via social media or on news-websites. Thus, there is a considered acceptable level of ecological validity in the experiment.

3.6.7.2. Reliability

Reliability regards whether the study is trustworthy and likely to produce the same results if repeated under similar conditions. Whether it is reliable or not depends on the measures used in the study and how they are being processed (Eliasson, 2013). Whether these are reliable or not depends on three dimensions, namely *stability*, *internal reliability,* and *inter-observer consistency* (Bryman, 2011). Stability considers whether measures are consistent over time. Due to the time constraint of this thesis, this has not been tested. However, almost only previously tested measures have been used in the study, which indicates that they are stable over time. Moreover, the questionnaire including the measures was also reviewed by two professors at Stockholm School of Economics and other students whose feedback was carefully considered before the survey was distributed. Next, internal reliability is a way of testing internal coherence among multi-item measures. This was tested, as earlier mentioned, by calculating Cronbach's alpha (measured on a scale between 0 and 1), where a

number above 0.7 is acceptable for reliability to be accepted (Söderlund, 2018). Lastly, inter-observer consistency concerns the lack of consistency that may occur when several observers interpret the same observations (Bryman, 2011). This risk was reduced by only using necessary open-ended questions (age). Thus, we consider the level of reliability of this study to be acceptable.

4. Results

In the following chapter, the results from the main study are presented. Firstly, potential differences between the two stimuli for the control group and the two stimuli for the treatment group are tested to investigate whether the stimuli in each respective group can be collapsed for further analysis. Secondly, the manipulation check is examined. Lastly, the hypotheses are addressed and tested, followed by a presentation of other results.

4.1. Test of Differences between Stimuli

As earlier mentioned, the experiment includes a total of four stimuli: two of which feature ads portraying ethnic non-diversity, and two that feature ads portraying ethnic diversity. This, in order to avoid model-specific effects. However, these stimuli should be collapsed for further analysis and therefore potential differences that prevent the merge are tested.

To explore potential differences between the two stimuli featuring non-diversity ads, independent samples t-tests were conducted. The tests reveal that there is no significant difference for perceived ethnic diversity ($t(155) = 0.536$, $p = .593$) between the two non-diversity stimuli ($M_{non-diversity1} = 2.663$, $SD = 1,8$ vs $M_{non-diversity2} = 2.510$, $SD = 1,8$). Moreover, no significant differences are found for employer reputation ($t(155) = -1.155$, $p = .250$, $M_{non-diversity1} = 3.197$, $SD = 1.1$, vs $M_{non-diversity2} = 3.405$, $SD = 1.1$), third-party justice ($t(155) = -0.132$, $p = .895$, $M_{non-diversity1} = 3.662$, $SD = 1.1$ vs $M_{non-diversity2} = 3.687$, $SD = 1.3$) or organizational attractiveness ($t(155) = -0.421$, $p = .674$, $M_{non-diversity1} = 2.719$, $SD = 1.2$ vs $M_{non-diversity2} = 2.802$, $SD = 1.3$). Since no significant differences are found, the two groups are collapsed for further analysis and hypotheses testing. This group will hereafter be referred to as *non-diversity* (N = 157). The output of the independent samples t-tests is found in Appendix 6.

Similarly, additional independent samples t-tests were conducted to explore potential differences between the two stimuli featuring ads portraying ethnic diversity. The tests show that there is a significant difference between the two stimuli regarding perceived ethnic diversity ($t(169) = 2.066$, $p = .040$), i.e., the manipulation check ($M_{diversity1} = 5.848$, $SD = 1.4$ vs $M_{diversity2} = 5.383$, $SD = 1.6$). However, there are no significant differences concerning

employer reputation ($t(169)$ = 1.675, p = .096, $M_{diversity1}$ = 3.722, SD = 1.4 vs $M_{diversity2}$ = 3.375, SD = 1.3), third-party justice ($t(169)$ = 1.928, p = .056, $M_{diversity1}$ = 4.144, SD = 1.3 vs $M_{diversity2}$ = 3.75, SD = 1.4) or organizational attractiveness ($t(169)$ = 1.321, p = .188, $M_{diversity1}$ = 3.136, SD = 1.4 vs $M_{diversity2}$ = 2.862, SD = 1.3). Since no significant differences are found for any of the variables except perceived ethnic diversity, which however are clearly different from the non-diversity ads, the two groups of stimuli are collapsed and treated as one group for further analysis. This group will hereafter be referred to as *diversity* (N = 171). The output of the independent samples t-tests is found in Appendix 7.

4.2. Manipulation Check

To ensure that the experiment's manipulation was successful, an independent sample t-test was conducted to assess differences in perceived ethnic diversity between the control and treatment group. Results show that participants perceived the ads featuring non-diversity to contain less ethnic diversity in comparison to the ads featuring ethnic diversity ($t(326)$ = -16.921, p < .01, $M_{non-diversity}$ = 2.582, SD = 1.8 vs $M_{diversity}$ = 5.628, SD = 1.5). Thereby, the manipulation check is considered successful and further analysis can proceed. The output of this independent sample t-test is found in its entirety in Appendix 8.

4.3. Hypotheses Testing

In the following section, the thesis' hypotheses will be assessed and tested.

4.3.1. Testing Hypothesis 1

H1 suggests that advertising featuring ethnic diversity (vs ethnic non-diversity) generates higher levels of perceived **(a)** employer reputation and **(b)** third-party justice. To test the hypothesis, independent sample t-tests were conducted to compare means between the control group (non-diversity) and the treatment group (diversity). The results show that there is no significant difference between the control and treatment group regarding perceived employer reputation ($t(326)$ = -1.812, p = .071, $M_{non-diversity}$ = 3.307, SD = 1.1 vs $M_{diversity}$ = 3.558, SD = 1.4). However, there is a significant difference regarding perceived third-party justice ($t(326)$ = -2.026, p = .044, $M_{non-diversity}$ = 3.675, SD = 1.2 vs $M_{diversity}$ = 3.958, SD = 1.4).

Thus, **H1a** is not supported while **H1b** is supported. The results are illustrated in Table 1. The independent samples t-tests are found in Appendix 9.

	Mean	SD	t	df	p
Employer Reputation					
Control group (non-diversity)	3.3070	1.12490	-1.812	326	.071*
Treatment group (diversity)	3.5579	1.35910			
Third-Party Justice					
Control group (non-diversity)	3.6752	1.1610	-2.026	326	.044**
Treatment group (diversity)	3.9576	1.34658			

* = p < .1, ** = p < .05, *** = p < .01

Table 1. Independent samples t-tests for mean comparisons of employer reputation and third-party justice between the control and treatment group. $N = 328$.

4.3.2. Testing Hypothesis 2

H2 suggests that advertising featuring ethnic diversity (vs ethnic non-diversity) generates increased organizational attractiveness. To test the hypothesis, an independent samples t-test was conducted, which reveals that there is no significant difference in perceived organizational attractiveness ($t(326) = -1.688$, $p = .092$) between the control and treatment group ($M_{non-diversity} = 2.763$, $SD = 1.2$ vs $M_{diversity} = 3.006$, $SD = 1.4$). Thereby, there is no support for H2. The results are illustrated in Table 2. The independent samples t-test are found in Appendix 10.

	Mean	SD	t	df	p
Organizational Attractiveness					
Control group (non-diversity)	2.7631	1.23741	-1.688	326	.092*
Treatment group (diversity)	3.0058	1.35689			

* = p < .1, ** = p < .05, *** = p < .01

Table 2. Independent samples t-test for mean comparison of organizational attractiveness between the control and treatment group. $N = 328$.

4.3.3. Testing Hypothesis 3

H3 suggests that perceived **(a)** employer reputation and **(b)** third-party justice positively mediate the positive effect that advertising featuring ethnic diversity (non-diversity) has on organizational attractiveness. To test **H3**, a mediation analysis was conducted by using Hayes PROCESS macro (Model 4, 5000 bootstrapping samples, 95% confidence interval, Hayes, 2018), which uses bootstrapping procedures to assess mediation. This is a commonly used approach for mediation analysis within marketing and has even become the recommended method (Zhao et al., 2010). The requirements for conducting a mediation analysis are that the independent variable is expected to have a direct effect on the dependent variable, as well as an indirect effect on the dependent variable through the mediator(s) (Hayes, 2018). Since all conditions are satisfied, the analysis is performed.

In the current analysis, advertising featuring ethnic diversity is used as the independent variable (represented as a dummy variable where 0 = non-diversity, 1 = diversity), employer reputation as the first mediator, third-party justice as the second mediator, and organizational attractiveness as the dependent variable. The test produces three separate regression sub-models. The first sub-model investigates the regression of ethnic diversity (the independent variable) on employer reputation (the first mediator), which constitutes path a_1. The second sub-model investigates the regression of ethnic diversity (the independent variable) on third-party justice (the second mediator), which comprises path a_2. The third sub-model examines the regression of ethnic diversity (the independent variable), employer reputation (the first mediator) and third-party justice (the second mediator) on organizational attractiveness (the dependent variable), that is path b_1, b_2 and c'. Lastly, the indirect effects in the model are calculated by multiplying the effects of path a_1 and b_1, as well as multiplying the effects of path a_2 and b_2. The effects of a_1b_1 and a_2b_2, together with the direct effect of path c' constitute the total effect that advertising portraying ethnic diversity has on organizational attractiveness, that is c. The model being investigated is illustrated in its entirety in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Mediation analysis – Hayes PROCESS model 4.
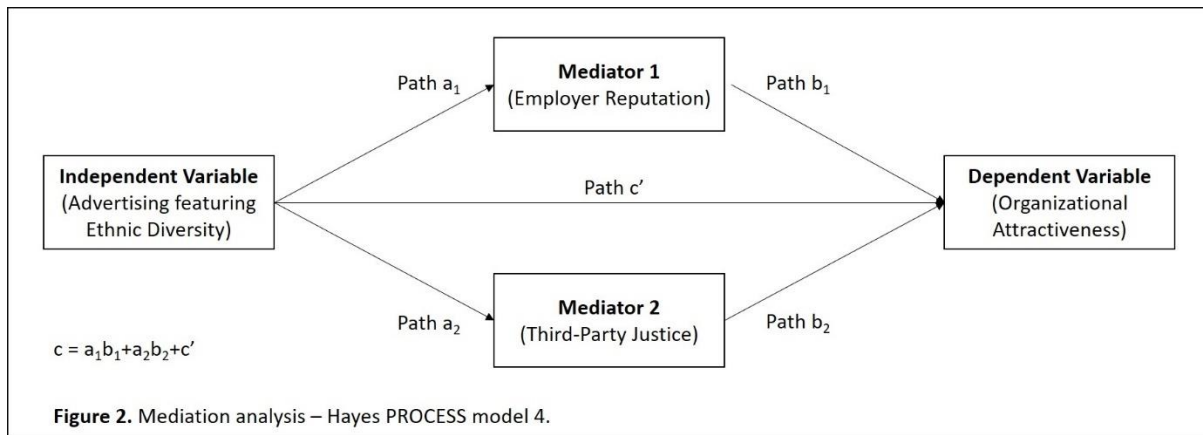
Regarding the first regression sub-model which investigates path a_1 (r^2 = 0.0100; $F(1,326)$ = 3.2842, p = .071), results reveal that ethnic diversity has no significant effect on employer reputation (B = 0.2509, 95% CI = -0.0215 – 0.5232, p = .071). Further, the second regression model which examines path a_2 (r^2 = 0.0124; $F(1,326)$ = 4.1049, p =.044), shows that ethnic diversity has a significant effect on third-party justice (B = 0.2824, 95% CI = 0.0082 – 0.5567, p = .044). Regarding the third regression sub-model which assesses path b_1, b_2 and c' (r^2 = 0.4561; $F(3,324)$ = 90.5549, p < .01), results show that both employer reputation (B = 0.5999, 95% CI = 0.4878 – 0.7120, p < .01) and third-party justice (B = 0.1357, 95% CI = 0.0244 – 0.2471, p < .01) have significant effects on organizational attractiveness, which represent path b_1 and b_2 . However, ethnic diversity (c') does not have a significant direct effect on organizational attractiveness (B = 0.0539, 95% CI = 0.1577 – 0.2656, p = .616).

Next, indirect effects from ethnic diversity on organizational attractiveness through the mediators (employer reputation and third-party justice) are assessed. Results reveal that there are no significant mediating effects for either employer reputation (B = 0.1505, 95% CI = -0.0093 – 0.3259) or third-party justice (B = 0.0383, 95% CI = -0.0004 – 0.1119), since both confidence intervals of the mediators include 0 (Zhao et al., 2010). Thus, there is no support for either **H3a** or **H3b**. Figure 3 summarizes all results in the mediation analysis. The output of the data is found in Appendix 11.

Figure 3. Test of mediation of employer reputation and third-party justice on organizational attractiveness. $N = 328$.
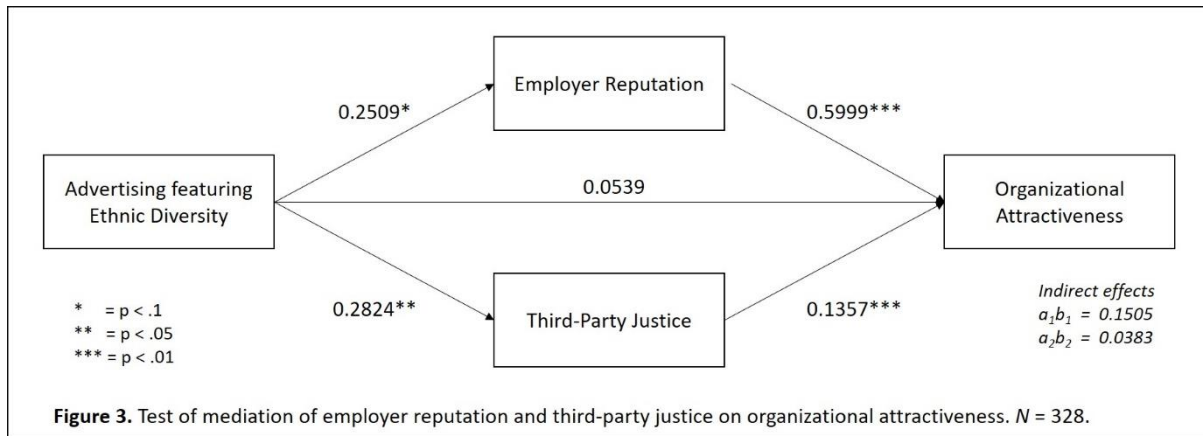
4.3.4. Testing Hypothesis 4

H4 suggests that the positive effect that advertising featuring ethnic diversity (vs ethnic non-diversity) has on organizational attractiveness through the mediators **(a)** employer reputation and **(b)** third-party justice is positively moderated by altruistic values possessed by potential employees. To test **H4**, a moderated mediation analysis was conducted by using Hayes PROCESS macro (Model 7, 5000 bootstrapping samples, 95% confidence interval), which similarly to the previous conducted mediation analysis (Model 4) uses bootstrapping procedures to assess moderated mediation (Hayes, 2018).

In the current analysis, advertising portraying ethnic diversity was used as the independent variable (represented as a dummy variable where 0 = non-diversity, 1 = diversity), employer reputation as the first mediator, third-party justice as the second mediator, organizational attractiveness as the dependent variable and altruistic values as the moderator. Similarly, to the previously conducted mediation analysis, the current moderated mediation test produces three separate regression sub-models.

The first sub-model investigates the regression of ethnic diversity (the independent variable) on employer reputation (the first mediator) and altruistic values (the moderator), which constitutes path a_1 ($r^2 = 0.0291$; $F_{(3,324)} = 3.2389$, $p = .022$). The second sub-model investigates the regression of ethnic diversity (the independent variable) on third-party justice (the second mediator) and altruistic values (the moderator), which comprises path a_2

(r^2 = 0.0257; $F_{(3,324)}$ = 2.8531, p = .037). The third sub-model investigates the regression of ethnic diversity (the independent variable), employer reputation (the first mediator) and third-party justice (the second mediator) on organizational attractiveness (the dependent variable), that is path b_1, b_2 and c' (r^2 = 0.4561; $F_{(3,324)}$ = 90.5549, p < .01). Lastly, indirect moderated effects are assessed by looking at the *Index of Moderated Mediation* (IMM) which is generated for each of the mediators, that is employer reputation and third-party justice. The IMM is used to test the significance of the moderated mediation, meaning the difference of the mediated effect across different levels of the moderator (Hayes, 2015). In this case, this refers to the expected positive effect that altruistic values (the moderator) have on the indirect effect of ethnic diversity (independent variable) on organizational attractiveness (dependent variable) via either employer reputation (the first mediator) or third-party justice (the second mediator). The model being investigated is illustrated in its entirety in Figure 4.

Figure 4. Moderated mediation analysis – Hayes PROCESS model 7.
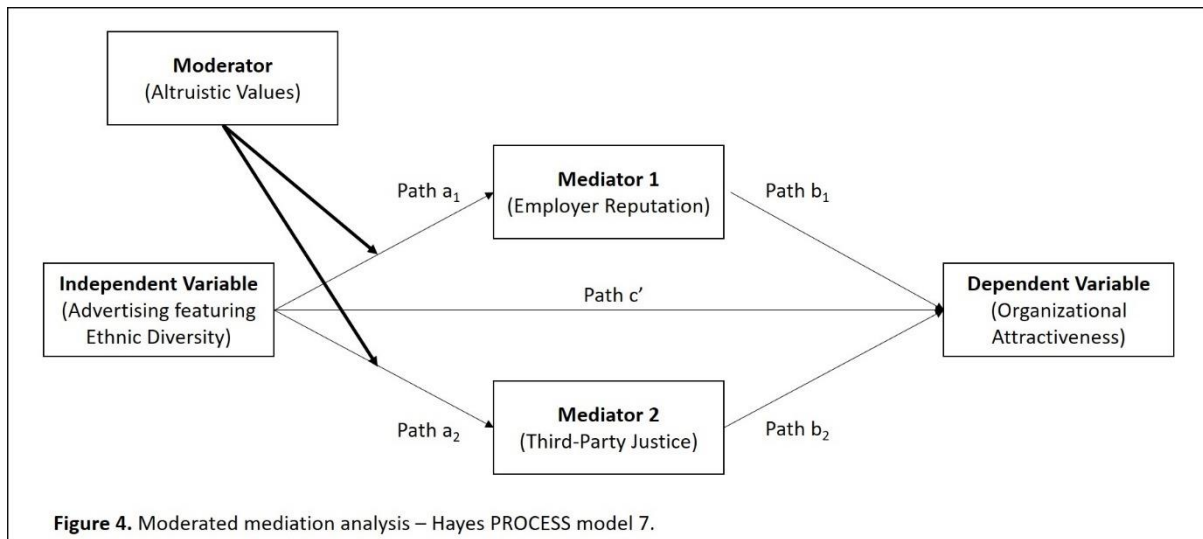
Regarding the first regression sub-model which investigates path a_1, results reveal that ethnic diversity has no significant effect on employer reputation (B = 0.2515, 95% CI = -0.0192 – 0.5221, p = .069) and that altruistic values have a significant positive moderating effect on path a_1 (B = 0.3329, 95% CI = 0.0687 – 0.5972, p = .014). Moreover, the second regression model examining path a_2, shows that ethnic diversity has a significant positive effect on third-party justice (B = 0.2828, 95% CI = 0.0094 – 0.5561, p = .043) and that altruistic values also have a significant positive moderating effect on path a_2 (B = 0.2807, 95% CI = 0.0139 – 0.5476, p = .039).

Regarding the third regression sub-model which assesses path b_1, b_2 and c', results show that employer reputation (b_1) has a significant positive effect on organizational attractiveness (B = 0.5999, 95% CI = 0.4878 – 0.7120, p < .01) as well as on third-party justice (b_2) (B = 0.1357, 95% CI = 0.0244 – 0.2471, p = .017). However, ethnic diversity (c') does not have a significant direct effect on organizational attractiveness (B = 0.0539, 95% CI = -0.1577– 0.2657, p = .616).

Next, moderated indirect effects of ethnic diversity on organizational attractiveness through the mediators (employer reputation and third-party justice) being moderated by altruistic values are assessed by looking at the IMM. Results reveal that there is a positive mediation through employer reputation being positively moderated by altruistic values (IMM = 0.1997, 95% CI = 0.0185 – 0.3842), which is significant as the confidence interval does not include 0 (Zhao et al., 2010). However, no significant moderated mediation is found through third-party justice (IMM = 0.0381, 95% CI = -0.0089 – 0.1106), since the confidence interval does include 0 (Zhao et al., 2010). In conclusion, there is support for **H4a** but not for **H4b**. All results from Hayes Model 7 are summarized in Figure 5. The output of the data is available in Appendix 12.

Figure 5. Test of moderated mediation of altruistic values on organizational attractiveness via employer reputation and third-party justice. $N = 328$.
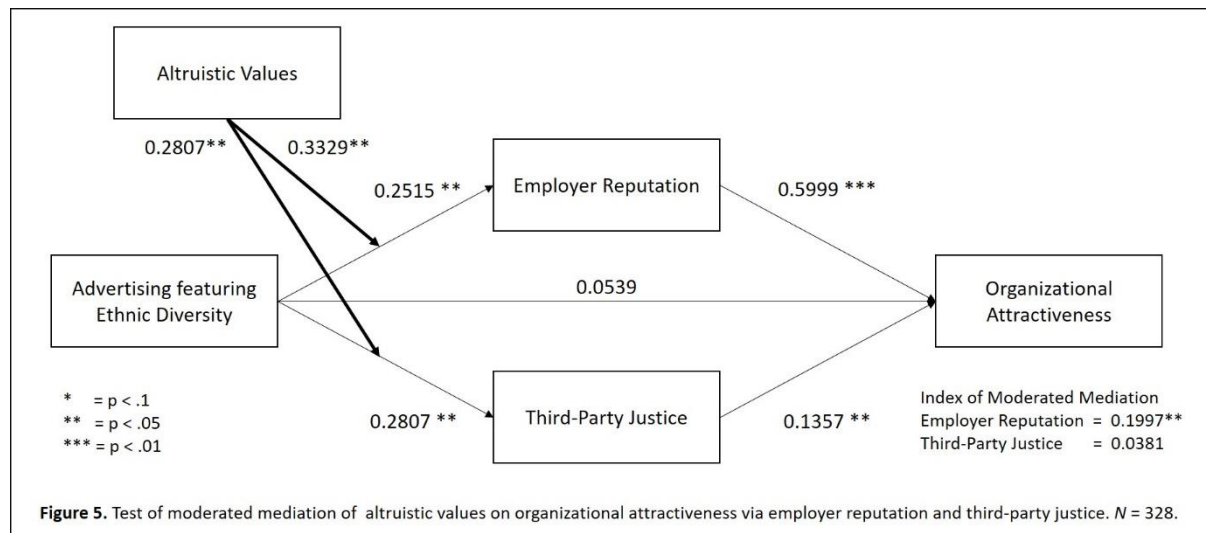
4.3.5. Summary of Hypotheses

Based on the above conducted tests, it can be concluded that there is support for hypotheses **H1b** and **H4a** but no support for hypotheses **H1a, H2, H3a**, **H3b** or **H4b**. These results are

summarized in Table 3 below. For further clarification, an overview of hypotheses and results are found in Figure 6.

|	
Hypothesis 1: Advertising featuring ethnic diversity (vs ethnic non-diversity) generates higher levels of perceived **(a)** employer reputation and **(b)** third-party justice.	**H1a:** Not supported **H1b:** Supported
Hypothesis 2: Advertising featuring ethnic diversity (vs ethnic non-diversity) generates increased organizational attractiveness.	**H2:** Not supported
Hypothesis 3: Perceived **(a)** employer reputation and **(b)** third-party justice positively mediate the positive effect that advertising featuring ethnic diversity (vs ethnic non-diversity) has on organizational attractiveness.	**H3a:** Not supported **H3b:** Not supported
Hypothesis 4: The positive effect that advertising featuring ethnic diversity (vs ethnic non-diversity) has on organizational attractiveness through the mediators **(a)** employer reputation and **(b)** third-party justice is positively moderated by altruistic values possessed by potential employees.	**H4a:** Supported **H4b:** Not supported

Table 3. Hypotheses results.

Figure 6. Theoretical model illustrating the hypotheses results.
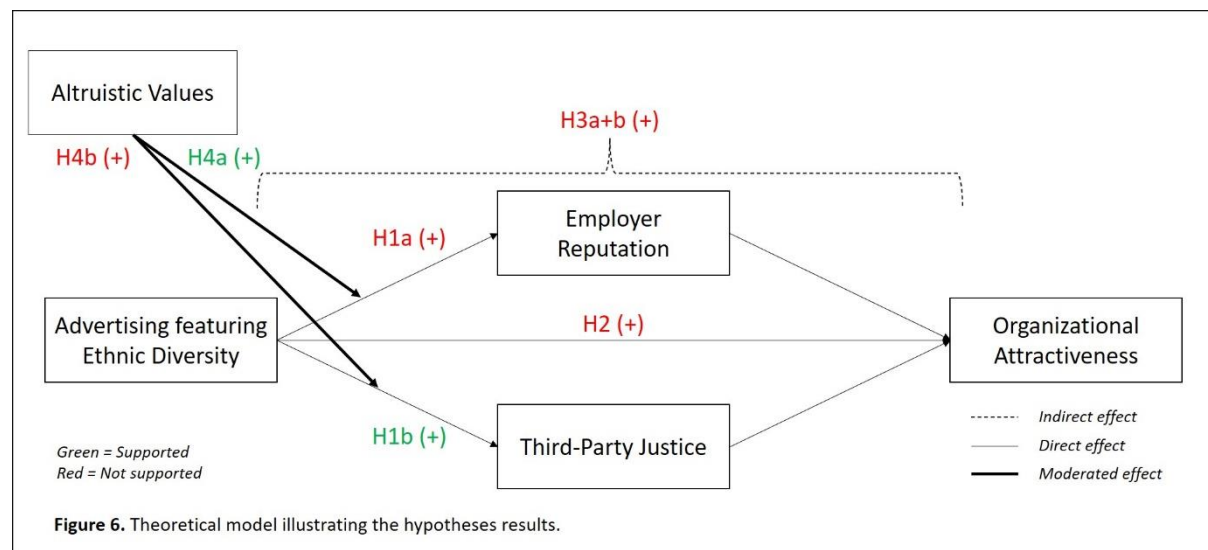
4.4. Other Results

Below follow some additional results from the main study that do not adhere to the hypotheses.

4.4.1. Moderation of Path a_1 and a_2

The moderated mediation analysis conducted by using Hayes PROCESS macro Model 7, yielded further interesting results. As previously stated, the first and second regression sub-models which investigate path a_1 and a_2, showed that altruistic values are significantly

moderating both paths positively. However, when looking closer at these moderations, results show when the moderation is taking place in more detail. Starting with path a_1, results show that at -1 SD of the mean of altruistic values (B = -0.0916, 95% CI = -0.4764 – 0.2932, SE = 0.1956, p = .640) and at the mean of altruistic values (B = 0.2515, 95% CI = -0.0192 – 0.5221, SE = 0.1376, p = .069) there are no significant moderations. However, there is significant moderating effect at +1 SD of the mean of altruistic values (B = 0.5945, 95% CI = 0.2115 – 0.9776, SE = 0.1947, p < .01).

Additionally, when looking at path a_2, there is no significant moderating effect at -1 SD of the mean of altruistic values (B = -0.0065, 95% CI = -0.3951 – 0.3821, SE = 0.1975, p = .974). However, there are significant moderating effects at the mean of altruistic values (B = 0.2828, 95% CI = 0.0094 – 0.5561, SE = 0.1390, p = .043) and at +1 SD of the mean of altruistic values (B = 0.5720, 95% CI = 0.1851 – 0.9589, SE = 0.1967, p < .01). Although there are significant effects both at the mean of altruistic values and at +1 SD, the effect is larger at +1 SD (B = 0.5720) than on the mean (B = 0.2828) on altruistic values. All results of the moderations for path a_1 and a_2 are summarized in Table 4.

	Levels of Altruistic Values	B	SE	t	p
	- 1 SD	- 0.0916	0.1956	- 0.4683	.6399
Path a_1	Mean	0.2515	0.1376	1.8276	.0685*
	+ 1 SD	0.5945	0.1947	3.0533	.0025***
	- 1 SD	- 0.0065	0.1975	- 0.0329	.9738
Path a_2	Mean	0.2828	0.1390	2.0349	.0427**
	+ 1 SD	0.5720	0.1967	2.9088	.0039***

* = p < .1, ** = p < .05, *** = p < .01

Table 4. Results based on levels of altruistic values.

4.4.2. Moderation of Indirect Effects

Further, when looking closer at the results of moderated indirect effects produced in Hayes PROCESS macro Model 7, more detailed results show when moderated mediations are significant and when they are not by comparing groups. In fact, the moderated mediation through employer reputation is only significant for people at +1 SD of the mean of altruistic

values (B = 0.3566, 95% CI = 0.0979 – 0.6244, SE = 0.1364) but not for people at -1 SD of the mean (B = -0.0549, 95% CI = -0.2948 – 0.1884, SE = 0.1208) or at the mean of altruistic values (B = 0.1509, 95% CI = -0.0096 – 0.3243, SE = 0.0853). The same logic applies to the moderated mediation through third-party justice, which turns out to be significant at +1 SD of the mean of altruistic values (B = 0.0776, 95% CI = 0.0019 – 0.2004, SE = 0.0512). However, no significant effects are found at -1 SD of the mean of altruistic values (B = -0.0009, 95% CI = -0.0637 – 0.0710, SE = 0.0321) or at the mean of altruistic values (B = 0.0384, 95% CI = -0.0030 – 0.1061, SE = 0.0286). However, the effect of the moderated mediation at +1 SD of the mean of altruistic values is rather small, which might explain why the overall moderated mediation through third-party justice is not significant. All detailed results from the moderated mediations between the groups with different levels of altruistic values (-1 SD, at the mean, or +1 SD) are summarized in Table 5.

	Levels of Altruistic Values	B	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Moderated Mediation through Employer Reputation	- 1 SD	- 0.0549	0.1208	- 0.2948	0.1884
	Mean	0.1509	0.0853	- 0.0096	0.3243
	+ 1 SD	0.3566	0.1364	0.0979	0.6244**
Moderated Mediation through Third-Party Justice	- 1 SD	- 0.0009	0.0321	- 0.0637	0.0710
	Mean	0.0384	0.0286	- 0.0030	0.1061
	+ 1 SD	0.0776	0.0512	0.0019	0.2004**

* = p < .1, ** = p < .05, *** = p < .01

Table 5. Results of moderated mediation based on levels of altruistic values.

4.4.3. Mean Comparisons between Altruistic Groups

Based on the detailed insights above, generated by comparing results between groups with different levels of altruistic values, the positive effect that ethnically diverse portrayals in advertising have on organizational attractiveness can be traced to individuals with higher levels of altruistic values. For illustrative purposes, we decided to divide participants into two groups where the first group, *non-altruistics (N = 164)*, consisted of people with altruistic values below or at the mean value of altruistic values ($M_{altruisticvalues}$ = 5.6944), while the second group, *altruistics (N = 164)*, consisted of people with altruistic values above the mean. Thereafter, the mean values of the variables belonging to **H1-H2** (employer reputation, third-

party justice, and organizational attractiveness) were compared between the control and treatment group for individuals belonging both to *non-altruistics* and *altruistics*.

Results reveal that there are no significant differences between the control and treatment group for non-altruistics concerning either employer reputation ($t(162)$ = 0.635, p = .526, $M_{non-diversity}$ = 3.530, SD = 1.1 vs $M_{diversity}$ = 3.414, SD = 1.2), third-party justice ($t(162)$ = 0.434, p = .665, $M_{non-diversity}$ = 3.948, SD = 1.1 vs $M_{diversity}$ = 3.871, SD = 1.2), or organizational attractiveness ($t(162)$ = 0.495, p = .621, $M_{non-diversity}$ = 2.925, SD = 1.3 vs $M_{diversity}$ = 2.828, SD = 1.2). However, there are significant differences between the control and treatment group for altruistics considering employer reputation ($t(162)$ = -2.996, p < .01, $M_{non-diversity}$ = 3.093, SD = 1.1 vs $M_{diversity}$ = 3.707, SD = 1.5), third-party justice ($t(162)$ = -3.008, p < .01, $M_{non-diversity}$ = 3.413, SD = 1.2 vs $M_{diversity}$ = 4.048, SD = 1.5), and organizational attractiveness ($t(162)$ = -2.799, p < .01, $M_{non-diversity}$ = 2.608, SD = 1.2 vs $M_{diversity}$ = 3.191, SD = 1.5). Thus, potential employees with lower levels of altruistic values do not get impacted by whether advertising contains ethnic diversity or not, while people with higher levels of altruistic values do get impacted. The results and comparisons between the two groups, as well as the accumulated results for all participants, are summarized in Table 6. The output is available in Appendix 13.

	Below or at mean of altruistic values		Above the mean of altruistic values		All	
	Ethnic non-diversity	Ethnic diversity	Ethnic non-diversity	Ethnic diversity	Ethnic non-diversity	Ethnic diversity
Employer reputation	3.5299	3.4138	3.0925	3.7071***	3.3070	3.5579*
Third-party justice	3.9481	3.8707	3.4125	4.0476***	3.6752	3.9576**
Organizational attractiveness	2.9247	2.8276	2.6075	3.1905***	2.7631	3.0058*

* = p < .1, ** = p < .05, *** = p < .01

Table 6. Independent sample t-tests for mean comparisons between the control and treatment group for different levels of altruistic values . N = 328.

5. Summary of Results

The results of the experiment reveal that advertising featuring ethnic diversity does not impact perceived levels of employer reputation but do in fact impact perceived levels of third-party justice among potential employees positively. Moreover, no effect on organizational attractiveness is recorded either. Further, no mediation through the increased levels of employer reputation or third-party justice can be demonstrated for participants overall, implying that these dimensions do not function as signals leading to increased perceptions of organizational attractiveness for the general public. Nevertheless, when adding the levels of altruistic values possessed by participants as a moderating variable into the mediation analysis, results reveal that there is a positive moderated mediation through employer reputation. Yet, there is no significant moderated mediation through third-party justice, suggesting that third-party does not invoke increased levels of organizational attractiveness for participants with altruistic values either. Further, when exploring the results in more detail, they reveal that advertising featuring ethnic diversity generates positive effects on employer reputation, third-party justice, and organizational attractiveness among potential employees with higher levels of altruistic values. Moreover, the effects among people with lower altruistic values are neutral.

In sum, the study reveals that consumer advertising featuring ethnic diversity does not impact perceptions of the advertising brand as an employer among potential employees on a general level. However, positive effects can be recorded for individuals with higher levels of altruistic values. Amongst the remaining potential employees, the perceptions are unchanged.

6. Discussion

The objective we set out to answer, phrased as the research question, was to understand how consumer advertising portraying ethnic diversity affects the organizational attractiveness. As concluded in the previous section, ethnically diverse advertising does not have a positive impact on organizational attractiveness for the general public. It does, however, have an impact for potential employees with higher levels of altruistic values.

In essence, the results indicate that consumer advertising featuring ethnic diversity does not impact the employer brand among the general public as organizational attractiveness does not increase, as shown in the results for **H2**. Thereby, it does not seem like ethnic diversity functions as a sort of information in advertising that potential employees make use of (Cable & Turban, 2001; Terjesen et al., 2007). However, ethnically diverse portrayals partly turn out to function as a signal for other less observable attributes of the employer, in line with the proposed signaling theory (Rynes et al., 1991). In fact, the results indicate that advertising featuring ethnic diversity signals higher levels of third-party justice as hypothesized in **H1b**. However, it does not signal higher levels of employer reputation in line with **H1a**. Thus, it can be concluded that even though we argue that ethnically diverse advertising share characteristics with CSR, as it takes responsibility for interactions with stakeholders by counteracting the stereotype of whiteness, it does not completely produce the same signals as CSR communication previously has been shown to do as only the levels of third-party justice increases and not employer reputation (Åkestam, 2017; Behrend et al., 2009; Jones et al., 2009; Rupp et al., 2006). Further, even though the current study shows that ethnically diverse advertising portrayals do increase perceptions of third-party justice, these perceptions do not in turn impact the organizational attractiveness.

One potential explanation for these results is that ethnically diverse advertising might not be considered to be something particular or special, as it is included in advertising to an increasing extent and thus is becoming somewhat of a standard (Osanami Törngren & Ulver, 2020). Based on this, people might not consider companies especially socially responsible when including ethnic diversity in their advertisements which would explain the neutral effects on organizational attractiveness. Further, another explanation might be, in line with

social identity theory, that people identify with different social groups. One such group might be the ethnicity to which they belong to. Since the sample group in this thesis consist of students at Swedish universities, which we assume to mostly belong to the ethnical majority in Sweden, i.e., Caucasians, it can be assumed that they identify with Caucasians. Since Caucasians were included in both ads featuring non-diversity and diversity, it is therefore likely that the participants identify with both ads. This could have been examined by adding questions regarding how the participants in the study related to the people in the adverts. However, we found this to be difficult to do since GDRP regulations by European Parliament and of the Council (2016) state that such questions would be collecting sensitive personal data which is not allowed.

Looking at **H3,** it was further hypothesized that the expected increased levels of employer reputation and third-party justice would mediate the effect that ethnic diversity in advertising has on organizational attractiveness. The argument for why such processes were expected to happen is that the signal of good employer reputation, in line with social identity theory, is likely to be considered beneficial among potential employees as an employer's reputation is anticipated to have spillover effects on its employees' self-concepts. Since a positive employer reputation is expected to enhance potential employees' self-concepts, employees are likely to feel attracted to employers with good reputations, and thus, organizational attractiveness should increase. Moreover, the reasoning behind the expected effect on organizational attractiveness through third-party justice is that communication about CSR has been shown to send signals about how employees working for the company are treated. Moreover, this function as a proxy for how potential employees can expect to be treated themselves if they would work for the company. As a result of this, increased perceptions of third-party justice lead to higher levels of organizational attractiveness (Jones et al., 2014). Since the study's experiment shows that ethnic diversity portrayals do not generate increased perceptions of employer reputation, it can be expected that the results does not show any significant mediating effect through employer reputation. However, even though ethnically diverse advertising increases the levels of third-party justice there is no significant mediation through third-party justice either. However, when testing **H4** which suggests that the levels of altruistic values possessed by the potential employees positively moderate the mediations

through employer reputation and third-party justice, the former mediation turns out to be significantly moderated while the latter mediation still is insignificant.

A potential explanation for why mediation through employer reputation only is significant for people with higher levels of altruistic values is that people with lower levels of altruistic values simply do not perceive signals of social responsibility to be reputational. Although literature suggests that demand on CSR initiatives is highly prevalent among employees nowadays (e.g., Du & Vieira, 2012), which proposes that CSR would be perceived reputational by potential employees overall, several reports and studies disapprove. For example, a recently published report by Stockholm School of Economics (Wahlund, 2020), with students at the school as participants, indicate that CSR work does not seem to be as significant as thought in the choice of employer. The importance of heavy investments in CSR and sustainability is ranked as number 16 when asked about important aspects of prospective employers (Wahlund, 2020). Aspects like opportunities for development, good trainings for one's future career, and a pleasant work atmosphere are considered more important and even ranked as the top three. This may also be potential explanation as to why this study does not find support for H1a.

Moreover, research suggests that potential employees' expectations on employers' CSR engagement depend on their beliefs about businesses' role in society where some people primarily expect companies to have a profit-making focus rather than social engagement (Klimkiewicz & Oltra, 2017). Hence, companies engaging in CSR is simply not expected from everyone. In fact, some prefer challenging jobs over corporate responsibility (Phillips, 2006, as cited in Klimkiewicz & Oltra, 2017) and some feel more attracted to general corporate values than values of CSR (Ohlrich, 2015). An explanation for these differences is to be found within the previously mentioned social identity theory, suggesting that people sort themselves into various social groups which impact their self-concepts (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). One such social group is the employer for whom they work, and since the employers' characteristics will impact employees' self-concepts it is of importance that there is a congruency between the two (Chatman, 1989). This reasoning is referred to as the person-organization fit theory, saying that people are attracted to organizations with similar values and characteristics as themselves. Based on this, the results of employer reputation only

mediating the effects that ethnic diversity has on perceived organizational attractiveness among people with higher levels of altruistic values are comprehensible. Since people possessing higher degrees of altruistic values care more about the wellbeing of other people and society (Ferguson, 2015; Hartmann et al., 2017), in line with the purpose of CSR, they are likely to perceive a better match between their values and the employers' engagement in CSR. As a result of being able to identify with the employer, potential employees tend to value the possibility of becoming part of the organization more (Backhaus, 2004). This explains the results of increased organizational attractiveness among people with higher altruistic values.

While the above reasoning also may serve to explain why perceived third-party justice does not mediate the relationship between ethnic diversity portrayals and organizational attractiveness for participants with lower levels of altruistic values, it does not explain why no mediation occurs once it is moderated by altruistic values. Based on that an altruistic value-orientation involves being concerned about other people's wellbeing (Ferguson, 2015; Hartmann et al., 2017), it is plausible to expect that perceptions of increased third-party justice would impact organizational attractiveness positively among potential employees with higher altruistic values. However, one potential explanation might be that perceptions of third-party justice is too loosely connected to potential employees' own welfare. As previously concluded in the theory section, CSR initiatives are employee-directed, meaning that they impact employees directly are perceived more important compared to other initiatives (Bustamante et al., 2021). Even though third-party justice, in line with literature, was expected to function as a proxy for how potential employees can be expected to be treated themselves (Jones et al., 2014), and thus be considered employee-directed, this might not have been the case. Thus, the loose connection between third-party justice and the impact on oneself may explain the absence of any effects.

The suggested importance of CSR aspects being perceived as employee-directed even when people possess higher levels of altruistic values, may further be explained from a cultural point of view. The participants in the experiment are based in Sweden, which is a largely individualistic country. According to Hofstede's (1983) groundbreaking research on the topic, Sweden scored 71 (out of 100) regarding individualism and is thereby ranked among the top

five individualistic countries worldwide. In an individualistic country, people stress their own, individual needs over the collectivistic group's, which resonates with the reasoning of employee-directed CSR aspects being considered more important. Thus, the cultural dimension could be an explanation for why perceived employer reputation seems to impact organizational attractiveness among people with higher altruistic values while third-party justice does not, as the former aligns more with an individualistic and self-focused culture.

Lastly, even though it can be seen that employer reputation, third-party justice and organizational attractiveness increase for people with higher levels of altruistic values when being exposed to ethnically diverse advertising, the increasement is only marginal as the scores for all three variables are below the mean value. Thus, this means that ethnically diverse portrayals do not make people perceive an organization to have good employer reputation, third-party justice, or organizational attractiveness. In contrast it rather makes the organization be seen as less unattractive in regard to these dimensions. Thereby, ethnic diversity is not the way to go in order to be perceived as really attractive.

7. Conclusion

In sum, this thesis sets out to answer the research question of how consumer advertising portraying ethnic diversity affects organizational attractiveness. It can be concluded that ethnically diverse advertising has no effect on organizational attractiveness among the general public. However, when dividing the participants into lower vs higher levels of altruistic values, results show that there is a positive effect on organizational attractiveness among people with higher levels of altruistic values. More precisely, people with lower altruistic values react rather neutrally to ethnically diverse advertising while people with higher altruistic values react positively. Further, the positive effect on organizational attractiveness among people with higher altruistic values is mediated through perceived employer reputation. Even though a positive effect on organizational attractiveness among people with higher levels of altruistic values is recorded, the effect is pretty small resulting in the advertising company still being perceived as a rather unattractive employer. Thus, featuring ethnic diversity in advertisement does not seem to be a significant predictor of organizational attractiveness solely on its own. Further, the positive effect on organizational attractiveness among people with higher altruistic values is mediated through perceived employer reputation.

8. Implications

From a managerial perspective, the results of the thesis suggest that portraying ethnic diversity in consumer advertising signals increased employer reputation and third-party justice to people possessing higher levels of altruistic values. Further, employer reputation seems to positively mediate the perceptions of the organizational attractiveness. These findings imply that ethnically diverse advertising can be a useful tool to attract potential employees with altruistic value-orientations. In turn, this can be valuable to companies having cultures of altruism as it will result in better person-organization fits when values are aligned (Chatman, 1989). However, it is important to keep in mind that the effect of ethnically diverse portrayals on organizational attractiveness is only mildly positive on its own. Thus, it is not sufficient to solely portray ethnic diversity in order to be perceived as an attractive employer. Therefore, we would suggest combining it with other advertising elements that have a positive impact on the organizational attractiveness, such as creativity (Rosengren & Bondesson, 2014), to become truly attractive.

Moreover, consumer advertising having the ability of impacting organizational attractiveness entails that companies shall broaden their advertising goals to not only focus on consumer responses but also involving potential employees' responses towards, for example, organizational attractiveness. In turn, this has several implications. Firstly, it becomes increasingly crucial to ensure that corporate consumer brand and employer brand efforts are aligned so that they do not harm one another. Thereby, consistent and aligned communication strategies for the consumer and employer brand is recommended as ignorance of how consumer advertising affects perceived organizational attractiveness among potential employees may hurt the employers' competitiveness in the war for talent. Secondly, the importance of aligning brand and employer brand-related efforts emphasizes the usefulness of closer collaboration between marketing and HR departments, suggesting cross-functional collaboration between the two. Thirdly, consumer advertising's potential effect on perceived organizational attractiveness can be used internally within firms to further proof the value of advertising. This is important as marketing departments' ability to measure performance previously has been shown to affect its corporate stature as well as influencing

both firm performance and profitability (O'Sullivan & Abela, 2007). For example, this can be done by adding organizational attractiveness as a KPI for measuring advertising performance.

From an educational perspective, there are additional implications. Even though both authors of the thesis have conducted almost five years of business studies, very limited employer brand-related courses or lectures have been included in the study plans. More, when looking back at assigned literature from advertising or marketing courses taken, the term "employer brand" is not mentioned a single time. The only content referring to employees is internal marketing, defined as "the development, training and motivation of employees designed to enhance their performance in providing customer satisfaction" (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013, p. 204). Based on talented employees being crucial to business success and the fierce ongoing war for talent, it would be valuable for business students to learn more about the management and creation of employer brands. Especially regarding potential spillover effects on employer brands resulting from other business activities such as consumer advertising.

9. Limitations

The thesis is not without limitations. Criticism towards the study's experiment can be directed in multiple ways. Firstly, the ads in the experiment were made up and have never been launched by any brand in real life. Thus, the ecological validity of the experiment can be questioned. The reason for choosing to create fake advertisements was that no real recent advertisements featuring ethnic diversity were found that looked similar to real advertisements featuring non-diversity. Thereby, we thought that there would be too many variables except for the intended treatment that could impact the effects of the experiment. Therefore, fake advertisements were created which only differed in terms of models being more (vs less) ethnically diverse. This way, the intent was to isolate the proposed effects of ethnic diversity. However, real ads were used as inspiration for when creating the fake ads as a way of making them as realistic as possible. The inspirational ads can be found in Appendix 1. Secondly, in order to produce ethnically diverse vs non-diverse advertising portrayals, the ads required different models. Thus, the different models could have an impact on the effects, meaning that ethnic diversity is not the only dimension that differs between the conditions. To cope for this, two advertisements for each condition (control vs treatment) were included in the experiment to reduce the risk of model-specific effects. Moreover, we made sure to use the same Caucasian models between conditions in order to minimize changes of models as much as possible. Thirdly, the experiment was not conducted in a natural real-life setting making, which further reduces the ecological validity. Consequently, contextual effects that may come into play in real-life consumption of advertising are not considered.

Further, criticism towards one of the measurements included in the experiment can be derived. Looking at the measurements for ethnic diversity, only two out of the three questions had previously been tested and thereby it is uncertain whether third item actually measures what it is intended to measure. However, the third measure was created with inspiration from the other two questions. Further, the three items showed an acceptable Cronbach's Alpha. Thereby, it should constitute an acceptable level of reliability.

Lastly, the purpose of the experiment was to explore how consumer advertising portraying ethnic diversity affects organizational attractiveness. However, the experimental setting

aiming at establishing cause and effect to effectively test the hypotheses entails some limitations. Most importantly it cannot capture long-term effects of repeated exposure to ethnically diverse advertising over time. Thereby, it is uncertain what effects that repeated exposures would yield. Yet, it would be plausible to think that the effects might become stronger with time as consistency is a well-known key to build strong brands (Batra & Keller, 2016; Šerić & Mikulić, 2020). However, this dimension needs to be examined further.

10. Future Research

Future research can develop the insights generated in this thesis further in a several ways. Firstly, the study is delimited to only investigate one type of diversity in advertising, namely ethnic diversity. However, there are several other kinds of diversity aspects that would be interesting to explore further, such age, sexuality, or body types, especially considering that this study does not show that ethnic diversity in advertising is causing significantly positive effects on the employer brand. Moreover, it would also be interesting to investigate effects of combined diversity, that is by portraying multiple different types of diversity at the same time. In that way, an intersectional perspective could be assessed.

Further, the current study is also delimited to only investigate advertising within the insurance industry. Yet, it would be interesting to investigate other industries and explore whether these would generate similar effects. For example, it could be interesting to look into industries perceived as more vs less responsible, as it would be plausible to imagine that a more responsible industry could reinforce the effects of ethnic diversity portrayals even further due to its alignment with the characteristics of the industry.

Moreover, the fact that increased perceptions of third-party justice do not seem to affect organizational attractiveness would be interesting to explore further. Firstly, it would be interesting to look into whether perceptions of third-party justice function as a proxy for expected treatment for oneself to be able to understand if it is a lack of connection to one's own needs that explains why third-party justice does not have an effect on organizational attractiveness. Moreover, it would be interesting to test whether perceptions of third-party justice in fact would have an influence on organizational attractiveness in a more collectivistic country, where the needs of the collectivistic group are emphasized.

References

Aggarwal, P. (2004). The Effects of Brand Relationship Norms on Consumer Attitudes and Behavior. *The Journal of Consumer Research, 31*(1), 87-101. 10.1086/383426

Agle, B. R., Mitchell, R. K., & Sonnenfeld, J. A. (1999). Who Matters to CEOs? An Investigation of Stakeholder Attributes and Salience, Corporate Performance, and CEO Values. *Academy of Management Journal, 42*(5), 507-525. 10.2307/256973

Aidley, D. (2019). *Introducing quantitative methods a practical guide*. Red Globe Press.

Aiman-Smith, L., Bauer, T. N., & Cable, D. M. (2001). Are You Attracted? Do You Intend to Pursue? A Recruiting Policy-Capturing Study. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 16*(2), 219-237. 10.1023/A:1011157116322

Åkestam, N. (2017). *Understanding advertising stereotypes : social and brand-related effects of stereotyped versus non-stereotyped portayals in advertising*

Åkestam, N. (2018). Caring for her: the influence of presumed influence on female consumers' attitudes towards advertising featuring gender-stereotyped portrayals. *International Journal of Advertising, 37*(6), 871-892. 10.1080/02650487.2017.1384198

Åkestam, N., Rosengren, S., & Dahlen, M. (2017a). Think about it – can portrayals of homosexuality in advertising prime consumer-perceived social connectedness and empathy? *European Journal of Marketing, 51*(1), 82-98. 10.1108/EJM-11-2015-0765

Åkestam, N., Rosengren, S., & Dahlen, M. (2017b). Advertising "like a girl": Toward a better understanding of "femvertising" and its effects. *Psychology and Marketing, 34*(8), 795-806. 10.1002/mar.21023

Ambler, T., & Barrow, S. (1996). The employer brand. *Journal of Brand Management, 4*(3), 185-206. 10.1057/bm.1996.42

Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social Identity Theory and the Organization. *The Academy of Management Review, 14*(1), 20. 10.2307/258189

Backhaus, K. (2004). An Exploration of Corporate Recruitment Descriptions on Monster.com. *The Journal of Business Communication (1973), 41*(2), 115-136. 10.1177/0021943603259585

Backhaus, K., & Tikoo, S. (2004). Conceptualizing and researching employer branding. *Career Development International, 9*(5), 501-517. 10.1108/13620430410550754

Barban, A. M., & Cundiff, E. W. (1964). Negro and White Response to Advertising Stimuli. *Journal of Marketing Research, 1*(4), 53-56. 10.1177/002224376400100409

Batra, R., & Keller, K. L. (2016). Integrating Marketing Communications: New Findings, New Lessons, and New Ideas. *Journal of Marketing, 80*(6), 122-145. 10.1509/jm.15.0419

Beechler, S., & Woodward, I. C. (2009). The global "war for talent". *Journal of International Management, 15*(3), 273-285. 10.1016/j.intman.2009.01.002

Behrend, T. S., Baker, B. A., & Thompson, L. F. (2009). Effects of pro-environmental recruiting messages: The role of organizational reputation. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 24*(3), 341-350. 10.1007/s10869-009-9112-6

Berthon, P., Ewing, M., & Hah, L. L. (2005). Captivating company: dimensions of attractiveness in employer branding. *International Journal of Advertising, 24*(2), 151-172. 10.1080/02650487.2005.11072912

Bissell, K., & Rask, A. (2010). Real women on real beauty: Self-discrepancy, internalisation of the thin ideal, and perceptions of attractiveness and thinness in Dove's Campaign for Real Beauty. *International Journal of Advertising, 29*(4), 643-668. 10.2501/S0265048710201385

Brumbaugh, A. M. (1993). Physical Attractiveness and Personality in Advertising: More than Just a Pretty Face? *Advances in Consumer Research, 20*, 159.

Bryman, A. (2011). *Samhällsvetenskapliga metoder* (2nd ed.). Liber.

Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2015). *Business research methods* (4th ed.). Oxford Univ. Press.

Bustaman, H. A., Mohd nor, M. N., Taha, A. Z., & Zakaria, M. (2020). Job seeker attraction to organizational justice mediated by organizational reputation. *Cogent Psychology, 7*(1), 1816255. 10.1080/23311908.2020.1816255

Bustamante, S., Ehlscheidt, R., Pelzeter, A., Deckmann, A., & Freudenberger, F. (2021). The Effect of Values on the Attractiveness of Responsible Employers for Young Job Seekers. *Journal of Human Values, 27*(1), 27-48. 10.1177/0971685820973522

Cable, D. M., & Turban, D. B. (2001). *Establishing the dimensions, sources and value of job seekers' employer knowledge during recruitment*10.1016/S0742-7301(01)20002-4 https://www.scopus.com/inward/record.uri?eid=2-s2.0-0000550138&doi=10.1016%2fS0742-7301%2801%2920002-4&partnerID=40&md5=d5a3e7fc87d9860b21d82aa7942850b9

Cassano, J. (2013). *Advertising Is Dead, And Advertising Killed It.* Fast Company. https://www.fastcompany.com/3016450/advertising-is-dead-and-advertising-killed-it

Catlin, T., Chester, A., Goran, J., McConnell, M., & Rutherfort, S. (2020, Transforming the talent model in the insurance industry. https://www.mckinsey.com/industries/financial-services/our-insights/transforming-the-talent-model-in-the-insurance-industry

Chambers, E. G., Foulon, M., Handfield-Jones, H., Hankin, S., & Michaels, E. (1998). The War for Talent. *The McKinsey Quarterly, 3*, 44-57.

Chatman, J. A. (1989). Improving Interactional Organizational Research: A Model of Person-Organization Fit. *The Academy of Management Review, 14*(3), 333-349. 10.5465/AMR.1989.4279063

Cho, H., & Abe, S. (2013). Is two-tailed testing for directional research hypotheses tests legitimate? *Journal of Business Research, 66*(9), 1261-1266. 10.1016/j.jbusres.2012.02.023

Churchill, G. A. (1979). A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research, 16*(1), 64-73. 10.1177/002224377901600110

Collins, C. J., & Han, J. (2004). Exploring Applicant Pool Quantity and Quality: The Effects of Early Recruitment Practice Strategies, Corporate Advertising, and Firm Reputation. *Personnel Psychology, 57*(3), 685-717. 10.1111/j.1744-6570.2004.00004.x

Commission of the European Communities. (2001). *Promoting a European framework for Corporate Social Responsibility.* ().European Commission. https://ec.europa.eu/commission/presscorner/detail/en/DOC_01_9

Culiberg, B., & Mihelič, K. K. (2016). Three ethical frames of reference: insights into Millennials' ethical judgements and intentions in the workplace. *Business Ethics (Oxford, England); Bus Ethics Eur Rev, 25*(1), 94-111. 10.1111/beer.12106

Dahlen, M. (2021). It's Time for TGA: Truly Good Advertising. *Journal of Current Issues and Research in Advertising, 42*(2), 123-131. 10.1080/10641734.2020.1780999

Dahlen, M., & Rosengren, S. (2016). If Advertising Won't Die, What Will It Be? Toward a Working Definition of Advertising. *Journal of Advertising, 45*(3), 334-345. 10.1080/00913367.2016.1172387

Dahlsrud, A. (2008). How corporate social responsibility is defined: An analysis of 37 definitions. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management, 15*(1), 1-13. 10.1002/csr.132

de Vries, G., Terwel, B. W., Ellemers, N., & Daamen, D. D. L. (2015). Sustainability or Profitability? How Communicated Motives for Environmental Policy Affect Public Perceptions of Corporate Greenwashing. *Corporate Social-Responsibility and Environmental Management; Corp.Soc.Responsib.Environ.Mgmt, 22*(3), 142-154. 10.1002/csr.1327

Du, S., & Vieira, E. T. (2012). Striving for Legitimacy Through Corporate Social Responsibility: Insights from Oil Companies. *Journal of Business Ethics, 110*(4), 413-427. 10.1007/s10551-012-1490-4

Dunford, B. B., Jackson, C. L., Boss, A. D., Tay, L., & Boss, R. W. (2015). Be Fair, Your Employees Are Watching: A Relational Response Model of External Third-Party Justice. *Personnel Psychology; Personnel Psychology, 68*(2), 319-352. 10.1111/peps.12081

Eisend, M. (2010). A meta-analysis of gender roles in advertising. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 38*(4), 418-440. 10.1007/s11747-009-0181-x

Eisend, M. (2016). Comment: Advertising, Communication, and Brands. *Journal of Advertising, 45*(3), 353-355. 10.1080/00913367.2016.1187579

Eliasson, A. (2013). *Kvantitativ metod från början* (3rd ed.). Studentlitteratur.

Ferguson, E. (2015). Mechanism of altruism approach to blood donor recruitment and retention: a review and future directions. *Transfusion Medicine (Oxford, England); Transfusion Med, 25*(4), 211-226. 10.1111/tme.12233

Greening, D. W., & Turban, D. B. (2000). Corporate Social Performance As a Competitive Advantage in Attracting a Quality Workforce. *Business & Society, 39*(3), 254-280. 10.1177/000765030003900302

Hartmann, P., Eisend, M., Apaolaza, V., & D'Souza, C. (2017). Warm glow vs. altruistic values: How important is intrinsic emotional reward in proenvironmental behavior? *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 52*, 43-55. 10.1016/j.jenvp.2017.05.006

Hayes, A. F. (2015). An Index and Test of Linear Moderated Mediation. *Multivariate Behavioral Research; Multivariate Behav Res, 50*(1), 1-22. 10.1080/00273171.2014.962683

Hayes, A. F. (2018). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis : a regression-based approach*. The Guilford Press.

Highhouse, S., Lievens, F., & Sinar, E. F. (2003). Measuring Attraction to Organizations. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 63*(6), 986-1001. 10.1177/0013164403258403

Hillebrandt, A., & Barclay, L. J. (2017). Observing Others' Anger and Guilt Can Make You Feel Unfairly Treated: The Interpersonal Effects of Emotions on Justice-Related Reactions. *Social Justice Research, 30*(3), 238-269. 10.1007/s11211-017-0290-5

Hofstede, G. (1983). National Cultures in Four Dimensions: A Research-Based Theory of Cultural Differences among Nations. *International Studies of Management & Organization, 13*(1-2), 46-74. 10.1080/00208825.1983.11656358

Hsu, T. (2019). *The advertising industry has a problem: people hate ads.* New York Times. https://www.nytimes.com/2019/10/28/business/media/advertising-industry-research.html

Insight Intelligence. (2021). *Svenskar och Hållbarhet. Svenska folkets attityder till hållbarhet 2021.* (). https://www.insightintelligence.se/wp-content/uploads/2021/06/SvenskarOchHallbarhet2021_Web_1-8A.pdf

Jobber, D., & Ellis-Chadwick, F. (2013). *Principles and practice of marketing* (7th ed.). McGraw-Hill.

Jones, D. A., Willness, C. R., & Madey, S. (2014). Why are job seekers attracted by corporate social performance? experimental and field tests of three signal-based mechanisms. *Academy of Management Journal, 57*(2), 383-404. 10.5465/amj.2011.0848

Jones, D. A., Willness, C., & MacNeil, S. (2009). Corporate social responsibility and recruitment: Testing person-organization fit and signaling mechanisms. Paper presented at the *Academy of Management 2009 Annual Meeting: Green Management Matters, AOM 2009,* 10.5465/ambpp.2009.44265576 https://www.scopus.com/inward/record.uri?eid=2-s2.0-85024069623&doi=10.5465%2fambpp.2009.44265576&partnerID=40&md5=b0f6ffd9cfdb8b6cd6fcdb4c6aaf3333

Kelly, J. (2021, A War For Talent Is Starting—Spoiler Alert: Workers Will Win. https://www.forbes.com/sites/jackkelly/2021/04/17/a-war-for-talent-is-starting-spoiler-alert-workers-will-win/?sh=61647b2049f2

Kim, K., Hayes, J. L., Avant, J. A., & Reid, L. N. (2014). Trends in Advertising Research: A Longitudinal Analysis of Leading Advertising, Marketing, and Communication Journals, 1980 to 2010. *Journal of Advertising, 43*(3), 296-316. 10.1080/00913367.2013.857620

Kim, S., & McLean, G. N. (2012). Global Talent Management: Necessity, Challenges, and the Roles of HRD. *Advances in Developing Human Resources, 14*(4), 566-585. 10.1177/1523422312455610

Klimkiewicz, K., & Oltra, V. (2017). Does CSR Enhance Employer Attractiveness? The Role of Millennial Job Seekers' Attitudes. *Corporate Social-Responsibility and Environmental Management, 24*(5), 449-463. 10.1002/csr.1419

Kumari, S., & Saini, G. K. (2018). Do instrumental and symbolic factors interact in influencing employer attractiveness and job pursuit intention? *Career Development International, 23*(4), 444-462. 10.1108/CDI-03-2018-0069

Kuntz, T. (2009). *News is dying because advertising is dying.* New York Times.

Lietz, P. (2010). Research into Questionnaire Design: A Summary of the Literature. *International Journal of Market Research, 52*(2), 249-272. 10.2501/S147078530920120X

Lievens, F. (2007). Employer branding in the Belgian army: The importance of instrumental and symbolic beliefs for potential applicants, actual applicants, and military employees. *Human Resource Management, 46*(1), 51-69. 10.1002/hrm.20145

Lievens, F., & Highhouse, S. (2003). The relation of instrumental and symbolic attributes to a company's attractiveness as an employer. *Personnel Psychology, 56*(1), 75-102. 10.1111/j.1744-6570.2003.tb00144.x

Lin, H., Zeng, S., Wang, L., Zou, H., & Ma, H. (2016). How Does Environmental Irresponsibility Impair Corporate Reputation? A Multi-Method Investigation. *Corporate Social-Responsibility and Environmental Management; Corp.Soc.Responsib.Environ.Mgmt, 23*(6), 413-423. 10.1002/csr.1387

Mafael, A., Raithel, S., Taylor, C. R., & Stewart, D. W. (2021). Measuring the Role of Uniqueness and Consistency to Develop Effective Advertising. *Journal of Advertising, 50*(4), 494-504. 10.1080/00913367.2021.1883488

ManpowerGroup. (2021). *ManpowerGroup Employment Outlook Survey Q3 2021.* (). https://go.manpowergroup.com/hubfs/Talent%20Shortage%202021/MPG_2021_Outlook_Survey-Global.pdf

Miller, L. (2021, February 17,). The Time for Diversity in Advertising Is Now. *Entrepreneur* https://www.entrepreneur.com/article/364376

Mueller, K., Hattrup, K., Spiess, S. -., & Lin-Hi, N. (2012). The effects of corporate social responsibility on employees' affective commitment: A cross-cultural investigation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 97*(6), 1186-1200. 10.1037/a0030204

Ohlrich, K. (2015). Exploring the Impact of CSR on Talent Management with Generation Y. *South Asian Journal of Business and Management Cases, 4*(1), 111-121. 10.1177/2277977915574044

Osanami Törngren, S., & Ulver, S. (2020). Who Is Marketised in Colour-Blind Sweden? Racial and Ethnic Representation in Swedish Commercials 2008–2017. *Genealogy (Basel), 4*(4), 100. 10.3390/genealogy4040100

O'Sullivan, D., & Abela, A. V. (2007). Marketing Performance Measurement Ability and Firm Performance. *Journal of Marketing, 71*(2), 79-93. 10.1509/jmkg.71.2.79

Pollay, R. W. (1986). The Distorted Mirror: Reflections on the Unintended Consequences of Advertising. *Journal of Marketing, 50*(2), 18-36. 10.1177/002224298605000202

Poniewozik, J. (2014). *Coca-Cola's "It's Beautiful" Super Bowl Ad Brings Out Some Ugly Americans.* Time. https://time.com/3773/coca-colas-its-beautiful-super-bowl-ad-brings-out-some-ugly-americans/

Powell, W. W., & Snellman, K. (2004). The Knowledge Economy. *Annual Review of Sociology, 30*(1), 199-220. 10.1146/annurev.soc.29.010202.100037

Randy Evans, W., & Davis, W. D. (2011). An Examination of Perceived Corporate Citizenship, Job Applicant Attraction, and CSR Work Role Definition. *Business & Society, 50*(3), 456-480. 10.1177/0007650308323517

Regulation(EU) 2016/679 of the European Parliament and of the Council, (2016). https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/HTML/?uri=CELEX:32016R0679&from=EN#d1e1489-1-1

Richins, M. L. (1991). Social Comparison and the Idealized Images of Advertising. *The Journal of Consumer Research, 18*(1), 71-83. 10.1086/209242

Ritson, M. (2002). Marketing and HR collaborate to harness employer brand power. *Marketing (London), ,* 18.

Rosengren, S., & Bondesson, N. (2014). Consumer advertising as a signal of employer attractiveness. *International Journal of Advertising, 33*(2)10.2501/IJA-33-2-253-269

Rupp, D., Ganapathi, J., Aguilera, R., & Williams, C. (2006). Employee reactions to corporate social responsibility: an organizational justice framework. *Journal of Organizational Behavior; J.Organiz.Behav, 27*(4), 537-543. 10.1002/job.380

Rynes, S. L., Bretz Jr, R. D., & Gerhart, B. (1991). The importance of recruitment in job choice: a different way of looking *Personnel Psychology, 44*(3), 487-521. 10.1111/j.1744-6570.1991.tb02402.x

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2012). *Research methods for business students* (6th ed.). Pearson.

Scullion, H., Collings, D. G., & Caligiuri, P. (2010). Global talent management. *Journal of World Business : JWB, 45*(2), 105-108. 10.1016/j.jwb.2009.09.011

Šerić, M., & Mikulić, J. (2020). Building brand equity through communication consistency in luxury hotels: an impact-asymmetry analysis. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights, 3*(4), 451-468. 10.1108/JHTI-11-2019-0119

Söderlund, M. (2010). *Experiment med människor*. Liber.

Söderlund, M. (2018). *Experiments in marketing*. Studentlitteratur.

Tarique, I., & Schuler, R. S. (2010). Global talent management: Literature review, integrative framework, and suggestions for further research. *Journal of World Business, 45*(2), 122-133. 10.1016/j.jwb.2009.09.019

Tavassoli, N. T., Sorescu, A., & Chandy, R. (2014). Employee-Based Brand Equity: Why Firms with Strong Brands Pay Their Executives Less. *Journal of Marketing Research, 51*(6), 676-690. 10.1509/jmr.13.0435

Taylor, C. R., & Stern, B. B. (1997). Asian-Americans: Television Advertising and the "Model Minority" Stereotype. *Journal of Advertising, 26*(2), 47-61. 10.1080/00913367.1997.10673522

Terjesen, S., Vinnicombe, S., & Freeman, C. (2007). Attracting Generation Y graduates: Organisational attributes, likelihood to apply and sex differences. *Career Development International, 12*(6), 504-522. 10.1108/13620430710821994

Theurer, C. P., Tumasjan, A., Welpe, I. M., & Lievens, F. (2018). Employer Branding: A Brand Equity-based Literature Review and Research Agenda. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 20*(1), 155-179. 10.1111/ijmr.12121

Tsai, Y., Joe, S., Lin, C., & Wang, R. (2014). Modeling Job Pursuit Intention: Moderating Mechanisms of Socio-Environmental Consciousness. *Journal of Business Ethics, 125*(2), 287-298. 10.1007/s10551-013-1919-4

Tung, R. L. (2007). The human resource challenge to outward foreign direct investment aspirations from emerging economies: the case of China. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 18*(5), 868-889. 10.1080/09585190701249198

Turban, D. B., & Greening, D. W. (1996). Corporate Social Performance and Organizational Attractiveness to Prospective Employees. *Academy of Management Journal, 40*(3), 658-672. 10.2307/257057

USA Today. (2017). *Airbnb aims #WeAccept Super Bowl ad at refugees, immigrants.* USA TODAY. https://www.usatoday.com/story/tech/talkingtech/2017/02/05/airbnb-aims-weaccept-super-bowl-ad-refugees-immigrants/97533188/

van Marrewijk, M. (2003). Concepts and Definitions of CSR and Corporate Sustainability: Between Agency and Communion. *Journal of Business Ethics, 44*(2), 95-105. 10.1023/A:1023331212247

Wagner, T., Lutz, R. J., & Weitz, B. A. (2009). Corporate Hypocrisy: Overcoming the Threat of Inconsistent Corporate Social Responsibility Perceptions. *Journal of Marketing, 73*(6), 77-91. 10.1509/jmkg.73.6.77

Wahlund, R. (2020). Stockholm School of Economics Employer Image Barometer 2020.

Younis, R. A. A., & Hammad, R. (2021). Employer image, corporate image and organizational attractiveness: the moderating role of social identity consciousness. *Personnel Review, 50*(1), 244-263. 10.1108/PR-02-2019-0058

Zhao, X., Lynch, J. G., & Chen, Q. (2010). Reconsidering Baron and Kenny: Myths and Truths about Mediation Analysis. *The Journal of Consumer Research, 37*(2), 197-206. 10.1086/651257

Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara, P., Aguiar-Quintana, T., & Suárez-Acosta, M.,A. (2013). A justice framework for understanding how guests react to hotel employee (mis)treatment. *Tourism Management (1982), 36*, 143-152. 10.1016/j.tourman.2012.11.010

Appendix

Appendix 1: Real ads by Beauty Project, AirBnB and GAP used for inspiration
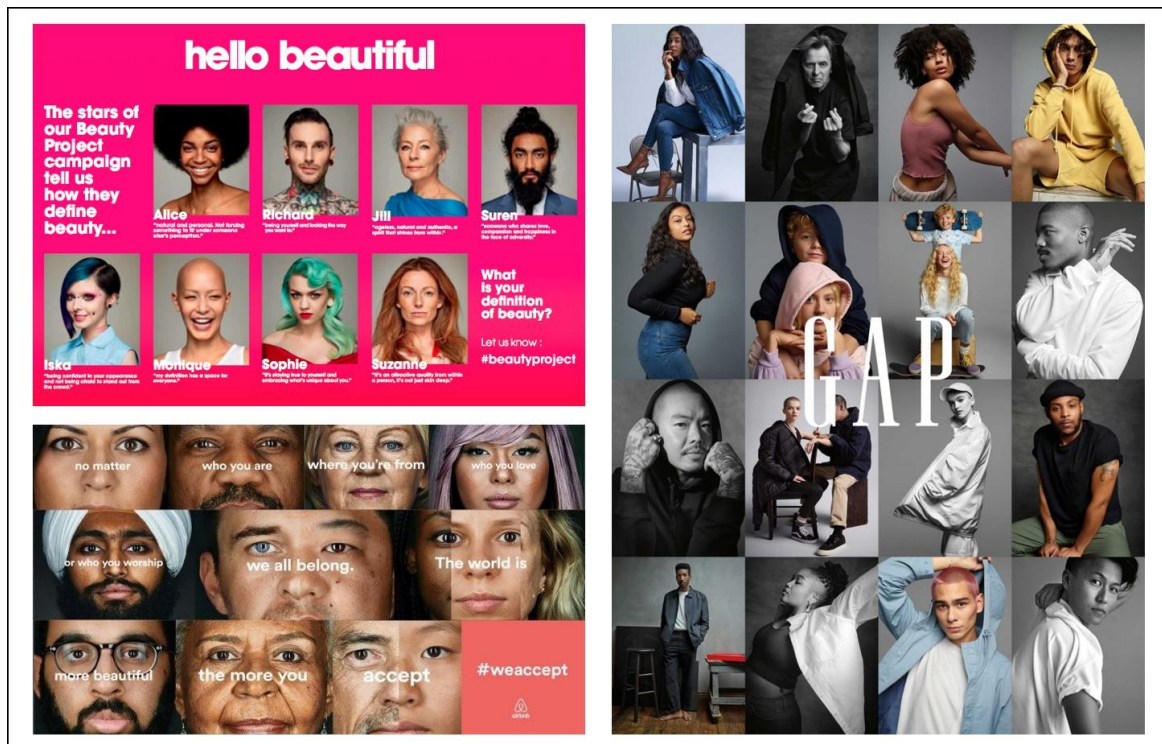
Appendix 2: The ads shown for the treatment group and the control group

Appendix 3: Pretest survey

Hello!

This survey has been developed by two students at Stockholm School of Economics for our master thesis about advertisement. By proceeding to the next page you give us permission to use your response in our research. The survey is anonymous and follows the GDPR regulation.

You will be exposed to one ad followed by some questions which takes 2-3 minutes.

Thank you in advance for your participation!

All the best,
Annie Johnson and Isabelle Bjärlestam

Questions? Contact us here:
50461@student.hhs.se

Please rate how well the following statements describe the ad on a scale from 1-7.

1 = Do not agree at all and 7 = Agree completely.

The ad is ethnically diverse (1)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)
The ad features multiple ethnicities (2)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)
The ad portrays ethnic diversity (3)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)

Please rate how well the following statements describe the advertising brand as an employer on a scale from 1-7.

1 = Do not agree at all and 7 = Agree completely.

For me, this company would be a good place to work. (1)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)
I would not be interested in this company except as a last resort. (2)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)
This company is attractive to me as a place for employment. (3)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)
I am interested in learning more about this company. (4)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)
A job at this company is very appealing to me. (5)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)

To which gender identity do you most identify?

○ Male (1)

○ Female (2)

○ Non-binary / third gender (3)

○ Not listed (4)

○ Prefer not to say (5)

How old are you?

(Please write the number of years and not the year you were born).

_____

What industry was advertised in the ad you saw?

○ Insurance (1)

○ Medicine (2)

○ Grocery (3)

○ Transportation (4)

○ Education (5)

Appendix 4: Independent sample t-tests for the pretest

T-Test

Group Statistics

	Nondiversity_groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Ethnic_diversity_index	1,00	15	1,6444	,72885	,18819
	2,00	14	1,6190	,93239	,24919
Org_attr_index	1,00	15	2,7867	1,08356	,27977
	2,00	14	2,8000	1,11769	,29872

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means
		F	Sig.	t
Ethnic_diversity_index	Equal variances assumed	,071	,792	,082
	Equal variances not assumed			,081
Org_attr_index	Equal variances assumed	,077	,783	-,033
	Equal variances not assumed			-,033

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Ethnic_diversity_index	Equal variances assumed	27	,935	,02540
	Equal variances not assumed	24,620	,936	,02540
Org_attr_index	Equal variances assumed	27	,974	-,01333
	Equal variances not assumed	26,719	,974	-,01333

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means		
			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Ethnic_diversity_index	Equal variances assumed	,30958	-,60981	,66061
	Equal variances not assumed	,31227	-,61823	,66903
Org_attr_index	Equal variances assumed	,40882	-,85216	,82549
	Equal variances not assumed	,40927	-,85350	,82684

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

				95% Confidence Interval
		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	Lower
Ethnic_diversity_index	Cohen's d	,83308	,030	-,698
	Hedges' correction	,85715	,030	-,679
	Glass's delta	,93239	,027	-,702
Org_attr_index	Cohen's d	1,10012	-,012	-,740
	Hedges' correction	1,13191	-,012	-,720
	Glass's delta	1,11769	-,012	-,740

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		95% Confidence Interval[a]
		Upper
Ethnic_diversity_index	Cohen's d	,759
	Hedges' correction	,737
	Glass's delta	,755
Org_attr_index	Cohen's d	,716
	Hedges' correction	,696
	Glass's delta	,717

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.

Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.

Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.

Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

T-Test

Group Statistics

	Bland_groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Ethnic_diversity_index	1,00	16	6,0417	1,16030	,29008
	2,00	16	5,9792	1,12526	,28131
Org_attr_index	1,00	16	3,8125	1,24680	,31170
	2,00	16	4,5500	,81158	,20290

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means
		F	Sig.	t
Ethnic_diversity_index	Equal variances assumed	,092	,764	,155
	Equal variances not assumed			,155
Org_attr_index	Equal variances assumed	2,918	,098	-1,983
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,983

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Ethnic_diversity_index	Equal variances assumed	30	,878	,06250
	Equal variances not assumed	29,972	,878	,06250
Org_attr_index	Equal variances assumed	30	,057	-,73750
	Equal variances not assumed	25,777	,058	-,73750

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means		
			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Ethnic_diversity_index	Equal variances assumed	,40408	-,76274	,88774
	Equal variances not assumed	,40408	-,76278	,88778
Org_attr_index	Equal variances assumed	,37192	-1,49706	,02206
	Equal variances not assumed	,37192	-1,50231	,02731

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval Lower
Ethnic_diversity_index	Cohen's d	1,14291	,055	-,639
	Hedges' correction	1,17251	,053	-,623
	Glass's delta	1,12526	,056	-,639
Org_attr_index	Cohen's d	1,05194	-,701	-1,411
	Hedges' correction	1,07919	-,683	-1,375
	Glass's delta	,81158	-,909	-1,661

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		95% Confidence Interval[a] Upper
Ethnic_diversity_index	Cohen's d	,747
	Hedges' correction	,728
	Glass's delta	,748
Org_attr_index	Cohen's d	,020
	Hedges' correction	,019
	Glass's delta	-,132

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.

Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.

Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.

Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

T-Test

Group Statistics

	Diversity_groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Ethnic_diversity_index	1,00	30	1,6444	,80674	,14729
	2,00	32	6,0104	1,12478	,19883
Org_attr_index	1,00	30	2,7533	1,08365	,19785
	2,00	32	4,1812	1,10057	,19455

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means
		F	Sig.	t
Ethnic_diversity_index	Equal variances assumed	3,715	,059	-17,460
	Equal variances not assumed			-17,644
Org_attr_index	Equal variances assumed	,089	,766	-5,143
	Equal variances not assumed			-5,146

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Ethnic_diversity_index	Equal variances assumed	60	,000	-4,36597
	Equal variances not assumed	56,250	,000	-4,36597
Org_attr_index	Equal variances assumed	60	,000	-1,42792
	Equal variances not assumed	59,850	,000	-1,42792

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means		
			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Ethnic_diversity_index	Equal variances assumed	,25006	-4,86617	-3,86578
	Equal variances not assumed	,24745	-4,86162	-3,87033
Org_attr_index	Equal variances assumed	,27762	-1,98324	-,87259
	Equal variances not assumed	,27748	-1,98299	-,87285

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval Lower
Ethnic_diversity_index	Cohen's d	,98398	-4,437	-5,367
	Hedges' correction	,99650	-4,381	-5,299
	Glass's delta	1,12478	-3,882	-4,957
Org_attr_index	Cohen's d	1,09242	-1,307	-1,853
	Hedges' correction	1,10632	-1,291	-1,829
	Glass's delta	1,10057	-1,297	-1,883

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		95% Confidence Interval[a] Upper
Ethnic_diversity_index	Cohen's d	-3,496
	Hedges' correction	-3,452
	Glass's delta	-2,791
Org_attr_index	Cohen's d	-,753
	Hedges' correction	-,743
	Glass's delta	-,697

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.

Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.

Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.

Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

Appendix 5: Main study survey

Hello!

This survey has been developed by two students at Stockholm School of Economics for our master thesis about marketing. By proceeding to the next page you give us permission to use your response in our thesis. The survey is anonymous and follows the GDPR regulation.

You will be exposed to one advertisement followed by some questions which takes approximately 5 minutes to answer. Please make sure to take some time to look at the ad before you continue.

Thank you in advance for your participation. For each complete answer 15 SEK will be donated to WWF (The World Wide Fund for Nature)*. Thereby, you will contribute to a greener world by completing the survey.

All the best,
Annie Johnson and Isabelle Bjärlestam

Questions? Contact us here:
Annie: 41808@student.hhs.se
Isabelle: 50461@student.hhs.se

*The survey will close once the maximum donation of 7,500 SEK has been reached.

We will start the survey by letting you see an ad. Please take some time to look at it as questions regarding the ad will follow.

We will first ask you some questions about the advertising and the advertising brand (Hello Insurance).

What is your opinion on the brand?

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Bad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Good
Dislike	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Like
Negative opinion	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Positive opinion

What is your opinion on the ad?

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Bad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Good
Dislike	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Like
Negative opinion	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Positive opinion

Please select the letter B as your answer choice.

○ A (1)

○ B (2)

○ C (3)

○ D (4)

○ E (5)

○ F (6)

Thank you for your participation so far. Now we would like to continue by asking some questions about the advertising brand (Hello Insurance) as an employer.

Please rate how well the following statements describe the advertising brand (Hello Insurance) as an employer on a scale from 1-7.

1 = Do not agree at all and 7 = Agree completely.

For me, this company would be a good place to work. (1)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)
I would not be interested in this company except as a last resort. (2)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)
This company is attractive to me as a place for employment. (3)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)
I am interested in learning more about this company. (4)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)
A job at this company is very appealing to me. (5)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)

Please rate how well the following statements describe the advertising brand as an employer on a scale from 1-7.

1 = Do not agree at all and 7 = Agree completely.

Employees are probably proud to say they work at this company (1)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)
This is a reputable company to work for (2)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)
This company probably has a reputation as being an excellent employer (3)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)
I would find this company a reputable place to work (4)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)
There are probably many who would like to work at this company (5)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)

The questions below relate to how the advertising brand treats employees. Please use the following scale to answer the questions:

1 = to a very small extent, 4 = neutral, 7 = to a very large extent

To what extent does the advertising brand:

Treat employees with respect? (1)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)
Treat employees in a polite manner? (2)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)
Treat employees with dignity? (3)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)
Refrain from making improper remarks or comments to employees? (4)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)

83

Which of these is not an animal?

○ Cow (1)

○ Dog (2)

○ Bird (3)

○ Hamburger (4)

○ Monkey (5)

Dear participant. We will now ask you some questions about values and their importance to you.

Please rate each value stated below in terms of its importance to you on a scale from 1-7.

1= least important and 7=most important.

Think about each value in terms of its importance to you, as a guiding principle in your life. Is it of greater importance to you, or of lesser importance, or somewhere in between? As you work, consider each value in relation to all the other values listed on the page.

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)
A comfortable life (a prosperous life) (1)	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Helpful (working for the welfare of others) (2)	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Compassion (feeling empathy for others) (3)	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Wealth (making money for myself and family) (4)	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all) (5)	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Loving (being affectionate, tender) (6)	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Pleasure (an enjoyable life) (7)	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

In what industry was the advertising brand?

○ Insurance (1)

○ Medicine (2)

○ Grocery (3)

○ Transportation (4)

○ Education (5)

Lastly, we will ask you some questions about you and the study.

To which gender identity do you most identify?

○ Male (1)

○ Female (2)

○ Non-binary / third gender (3)

○ Not listed (4)

○ Prefer not to say (5)

How old are you?

(Please write the number of years and not the year you were born).

_____

⤭

Please rate how well the following statements describe the ad on a scale from 1-7.

1 = Do not agree at all and 7 = Agree completely.

The ad is ethnically diverse (1)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)
The ad features multiple ethnicities (2)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)
The ad portrays ethnic diversity (3)	○ 1 (1)	○ 2 (2)	○ 3 (3)	○ 4 (4)	○ 5 (5)	○ 6 (6)	○ 7 (7)

Appendix 6: Independent samples t-tests – differences between non-diversity stimuli

T-Test

Group Statistics

	Groups_nondiversity	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Etdiv	1,00	74	2,6622	1,79759	,20897
	2,00	83	2,5100	1,75640	,19279
Emprep	1,00	74	3,1973	1,12870	,13121
	2,00	83	3,4048	1,11922	,12285
Thirdjus	1,00	74	3,6622	1,05859	,12306
	2,00	83	3,6867	1,25173	,13740
Orgattr	1,00	74	2,7189	1,16991	,13600
	2,00	83	2,8024	1,30047	,14274

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Etdiv	Equal variances assumed	1,225	,270	,536	155
	Equal variances not assumed			,535	152,075
Emprep	Equal variances assumed	,342	,560	-1,155	155
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,155	152,653
Thirdjus	Equal variances assumed	1,231	,269	-,132	155
	Equal variances not assumed			-,133	154,585
Orgattr	Equal variances assumed	,410	,523	-,421	155
	Equal variances not assumed			-,423	154,985

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Etdiv	Equal variances assumed	,593	,15212	,28393
	Equal variances not assumed	,593	,15212	,28431
Emprep	Equal variances assumed	,250	-,20752	,17966
	Equal variances not assumed	,250	-,20752	,17974
Thirdjus	Equal variances assumed	,895	-,02458	,18622
	Equal variances not assumed	,894	-,02458	,18445
Orgattr	Equal variances assumed	,674	-,08349	,19836
	Equal variances not assumed	,673	-,08349	,19716

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means	
		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		Lower	Upper
Etdiv	Equal variances assumed	-,40876	,71300
	Equal variances not assumed	-,40959	,71384
Emprep	Equal variances assumed	-,56241	,14737
	Equal variances not assumed	-,56263	,14759
Thirdjus	Equal variances assumed	-,39245	,34328
	Equal variances not assumed	-,38895	,33978
Orgattr	Equal variances assumed	-,47533	,30835
	Equal variances not assumed	-,47296	,30598

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Etdiv	Cohen's d	1,77592	,086	-,228	,399
	Hedges' correction	1,78457	,085	-,227	,397
	Glass's delta	1,75640	,087	-,227	,400
Emprep	Cohen's d	1,12370	-,185	-,498	,130
	Hedges' correction	1,12917	-,184	-,496	,129
	Glass's delta	1,11922	-,185	-,499	,130
Thirdjus	Cohen's d	1,16476	-,021	-,334	,292
	Hedges' correction	1,17044	-,021	-,333	,291
	Glass's delta	1,25173	-,020	-,333	,294
Orgattr	Cohen's d	1,24069	-,067	-,381	,246
	Hedges' correction	1,24673	-,067	-,379	,245
	Glass's delta	1,30047	-,064	-,378	,250

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.

Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.

Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.

Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

Appendix 7: Independent samples t-tests – differences between diversity stimuli

T-Test

Group Statistics

	Groups_diversity	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Etdiv	1,00	90	5,8481	1,36220	,14359
	2,00	81	5,3827	1,58299	,17589
Emprep	1,00	90	3,7222	1,35934	,14329
	2,00	81	3,3753	1,34365	,14929
Thirdjus	1,00	90	4,1444	1,31808	,13894
	2,00	81	3,7500	1,35554	,15062
Orgattr	1,00	90	3,1356	1,37091	,14451
	2,00	81	2,8617	1,33478	,14831

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Etdiv	Equal variances assumed	1,763	,186	2,066	169
	Equal variances not assumed			2,050	158,775
Emprep	Equal variances assumed	,224	,637	1,675	169
	Equal variances not assumed			1,676	167,506
Thirdjus	Equal variances assumed	,135	,713	1,928	169
	Equal variances not assumed			1,925	166,020
Orgattr	Equal variances assumed	,029	,865	1,321	169
	Equal variances not assumed			1,322	167,943

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Etdiv	Equal variances assumed	,040	,46543	,22527
	Equal variances not assumed	,042	,46543	,22706
Emprep	Equal variances assumed	,096	,34691	,20706
	Equal variances not assumed	,096	,34691	,20693
Thirdjus	Equal variances assumed	,056	,39444	,20461
	Equal variances not assumed	,056	,39444	,20491
Orgattr	Equal variances assumed	,188	,27383	,20736
	Equal variances not assumed	,188	,27383	,20707

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means	
		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		Lower	Upper
Etdiv	Equal variances assumed	,02073	,91014
	Equal variances not assumed	,01699	,91387
Emprep	Equal variances assumed	-,06184	,75567
	Equal variances not assumed	-,06161	,75544
Thirdjus	Equal variances assumed	-,00947	,79836
	Equal variances not assumed	-,01012	,79901
Orgattr	Equal variances assumed	-,13553	,68318
	Equal variances not assumed	-,13497	,68262

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Etdiv	Cohen's d	1,47085	,316	,014	,618
	Hedges' correction	1,47742	,315	,014	,615
	Glass's delta	1,58299	,294	-,010	,597
Emprep	Cohen's d	1,35194	,257	-,045	,558
	Hedges' correction	1,35797	,255	-,045	,555
	Glass's delta	1,34365	,258	-,045	,560
Thirdjus	Cohen's d	1,33594	,295	-,007	,597
	Hedges' correction	1,34191	,294	-,007	,594
	Glass's delta	1,35554	,291	-,013	,594
Orgattr	Cohen's d	1,35393	,202	-,099	,503
	Hedges' correction	1,35997	,201	-,099	,501
	Glass's delta	1,33478	,205	-,097	,506

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.

Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.

Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.

Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

Appendix 8: Independent samples t-tests – manipulation check

T-Test

Group Statistics

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Etdiv	1,00	157	2,5817	1,77185	,14141
	2,00	171	5,6277	1,48493	,11356

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Etdiv	Equal variances assumed	11,998	,001	-16,921	326
	Equal variances not assumed			-16,795	305,491

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower
Etdiv	Equal variances assumed	,000	-3,04594	,18001	-3,40006
	Equal variances not assumed	,000	-3,04594	,18136	-3,40281

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
		Upper
Etdiv	Equal variances assumed	-2,69182
	Equal variances not assumed	-2,68907

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Etdiv	Cohen's d	1,62855	-1,870	-2,129	-1,609
	Hedges' correction	1,63231	-1,866	-2,124	-1,606
	Glass's delta	1,48493	-2,051	-2,357	-1,742

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.

Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.

Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.

Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

Appendix 9: Independent Samples t-tests for H1

T-Test

Group Statistics

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Emprep	1,00	157	3,3070	1,12490	,08978
	2,00	171	3,5579	1,35910	,10393
Thirdjus	1,00	157	3,6752	1,16109	,09267
	2,00	171	3,9576	1,34658	,10298

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Emprep	Equal variances assumed	4,697	,031	-1,812	326
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,827	322,608
Thirdjus	Equal variances assumed	1,630	,203	-2,026	326
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,039	324,743

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Emprep	Equal variances assumed	,071	-,25089	,13844
	Equal variances not assumed	,069	-,25089	,13734
Thirdjus	Equal variances assumed	,044	-,28244	,13941
	Equal variances not assumed	,042	-,28244	,13853

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means	
		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		Lower	Upper
Emprep	Equal variances assumed	-,52324	,02146
	Equal variances not assumed	-,52108	,01930
Thirdjus	Equal variances assumed	-,55669	-,00819
	Equal variances not assumed	-,55497	-,00991

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval Lower	95% Confidence Interval Upper
Emprep	Cohen's d	1,25251	-,200	-,417	,017
	Hedges' correction	1,25540	-,200	-,416	,017
	Glass's delta	1,35910	-,185	-,402	,033
Thirdjus	Cohen's d	1,26122	-,224	-,441	-,006
	Hedges' correction	1,26413	-,223	-,440	-,006
	Glass's delta	1,34658	-,210	-,427	,008

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.

Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.

Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.

Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

Appendix 10: Independent samples t-test for H2

T-Test

Group Statistics

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Orgattr	1,00	157	2,7631	1,23741	,09876
	2,00	171	3,0058	1,35689	,10376

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Orgattr	Equal variances assumed	1,836	,176	-1,688	326
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,695	325,986

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower
Orgattr	Equal variances assumed	,092	-,24279	,14381	-,52571
	Equal variances not assumed	,091	-,24279	,14325	-,52460

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
		Upper
Orgattr	Equal variances assumed	,04013
	Equal variances not assumed	,03901

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Orgattr	Cohen's d	1,30108	-,187	-,404	,031
	Hedges' correction	1,30409	-,186	-,403	,031
	Glass's delta	1,35689	-,179	-,396	,039

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.

Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.

Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.

Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

Appendix 11: Hayes' Model 4 for H3

Matrix

```
Run MATRIX procedure:

***************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version
4.0 *****************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.
www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2022).
www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

****************************************************
********************
Model  : 4
    Y  : Orgattr
    X  : Div_du
  M1  : Emprep
  M2  : Justice

Sample
Size:  328

****************************************************
********************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Emprep

Model Summary
          R         R-sq        MSE            F
df1        df2         p
     .0999      .0100     1.5688      3.2842
1.0000  326.0000       .0709

Model
            coeff        se          t          p
LLCI       ULCI
constant    3.3070      .1000     33.0830       .0000
3.1104     3.5037
Div_du       .2509      .1384      1.8122       .0709
-.0215      .5232

****************************************************
```

```
*********************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Justice

Model Summary
          R        R-sq       MSE            F
df1       df2          p
     .1115      .0124     1.5907      4.1049
1.0000   326.0000       .0436

Model
            coeff       se          t           p
LLCI      ULCI
constant    3.6752     .1007    36.5119       .0000
3.4771     3.8732
Div_du       .2824     .1394     2.0260       .0436
.0082       .5567

********************************************************
*********************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Orgattr

Model Summary
          R        R-sq       MSE            F
df1       df2          p
     .6753      .4561      .9346     90.5549
3.0000   324.0000       .0000

Model
            coeff       se          t           p
LLCI      ULCI
constant     .2803     .1814     1.5456       .1232
-.0765      .6371
Div_du       .0539     .1076      .5014       .6164
-.1577      .2656
Emprep       .5999     .0570    10.5282       .0000
.4878       .7120
Justice      .1357     .0566     2.3988       .0170
.0244       .2471

************************* TOTAL EFFECT MODEL
*************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
```

```
 Orgattr

Model Summary
          R        R-sq        MSE          F
df1        df2        p
     .0931      .0087     1.6928     2.8502
1.0000   326.0000        .0923

Model
              coeff        se          t          p
LLCI       ULCI
constant    2.7631      .1038     26.6093       .0000
2.5588      2.9673
Div_du       .2428      .1438      1.6883       .0923
-.0401       .5257

************** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF
X ON Y **************

Total effect of X on Y
    Effect         se          t          p
LLCI       ULCI
     .2428      .1438     1.6883       .0923      -
.0401       .5257

Direct effect of X on Y
    Effect         se          t          p
LLCI       ULCI
     .0539      .1076      .5014       .6164      -
.1577      .2656

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
            Effect      BootSE    BootLLCI    BootULCI
TOTAL        .1888      .0987       .0053       .3954
Emprep       .1505      .0848      -.0093       .3259
Justice      .0383      .0292      -.0004       .1119
(C1)         .1122      .0796      -.0336       .2801

Specific indirect effect contrast definition(s):
(C1)          Emprep    minus    Justice

********************* 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 -----
```

Appendix 12: Hayes' Model 7 for H4

Matrix

```
Run MATRIX procedure:

***************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.0
*****************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.       www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2022).
www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

****************************************************************
********
Model : 7
    Y : Orgattr
    X : Div_du
   M1 : Emprep
   M2 : Justice
    W : Altval

Sample
Size: 328

****************************************************************
********
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Emprep

Model Summary
         R        R-sq       MSE          F        df1        df2
p
     .1706      .0291     1.5479     3.2389     3.0000   324.0000
.0224

Model
            coeff         se          t          p       LLCI
ULCI
constant    3.3120      .0994    33.3368      .0000     3.1166
3.5075
Div_du       .2515      .1376     1.8276      .0685     -.0192
.5221
Altval      -.1505      .0997    -1.5091      .1323     -.3467
.0457
Int_1        .3329      .1343     2.4787      .0137      .0687
.5972

Product terms key:
```

```
    Int_1    :          Div_du    x          Altval

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):
        R2-chng          F         df1        df2          p
X*W       .0184      6.1441     1.0000    324.0000        .0137
----------
    Focal predict: Div_du   (X)
         Mod var: Altval    (W)

Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the
moderator(s):

      Altval     Effect         se          t          p        LLCI
ULCI
    -1.0304     -.0916       .1956     -.4683       .6399      -.4764
.2932
      .0000      .2515       .1376     1.8276       .0685      -.0192
.5221
     1.0304      .5945       .1947     3.0533       .0025       .2115
.9776

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal
predictor:
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce
plot.

DATA LIST FREE/
   Div_du     Altval     Emprep     .
BEGIN DATA.
      .0000    -1.0304     3.4671
     1.0000    -1.0304     3.3755
      .0000      .0000     3.3120
     1.0000      .0000     3.5635
      .0000     1.0304     3.1570
     1.0000     1.0304     3.7515
END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=
 Altval     WITH     Emprep    BY        Div_du    .

****************************************************************
********
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Justice

Model Summary
         R       R-sq        MSE          F         df1         df2
p
      .1604      .0257     1.5789     2.8531      3.0000    324.0000
.0374
```

```
Model
                 coeff         se          t          p        LLCI
ULCI
constant    3.6795        .1003     36.6698      .0000      3.4821
3.8769
Div_du       .2828        .1390      2.0349      .0427      .0094
.5561
Altval      -.1294        .1007     -1.2844      .1999     -.3275
.0688
Int_1        .2807        .1357      2.0694      .0393      .0139
.5476

Product terms key:
 Int_1    :          Div_du    x        Altval

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):
      R2-chng         F          df1        df2          p
X*W      .0129      4.2825     1.0000   324.0000       .0393
----------
    Focal predict: Div_du   (X)
         Mod var: Altval    (W)

Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the
moderator(s):

     Altval      Effect        se          t          p        LLCI
ULCI
    -1.0304     -.0065       .1975      -.0329      .9738     -.3951
.3821
      .0000      .2828       .1390      2.0349      .0427      .0094
.5561
     1.0304      .5720       .1967      2.9088      .0039      .1851
.9589

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal
predictor:
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce
plot.

DATA LIST FREE/
   Div_du     Altval     Justice    .
BEGIN DATA.
     .0000    -1.0304      3.8128
    1.0000    -1.0304      3.8063
     .0000      .0000      3.6795
    1.0000      .0000      3.9622
     .0000     1.0304      3.5462
    1.0000     1.0304      4.1182
```

```
END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=
 Altval    WITH      Justice  BY        Div_du  .

******************************************************************
********
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Orgattr

Model Summary
          R        R-sq       MSE          F         df1        df2
p
      .6753      .4561      .9346     90.5549     3.0000    324.0000
.0000

Model
              coeff        se          t          p        LLCI
ULCI
constant     .2803      .1814     1.5456      .1232     -.0765
.6371
Div_du       .0539      .1076      .5014      .6164     -.1577
.2656
Emprep       .5999      .0570    10.5282      .0000      .4878
.7120
Justice      .1357      .0566     2.3988      .0170      .0244
.2471

****************** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y
*****************

Direct effect of X on Y
     Effect        se          t          p        LLCI        ULCI
      .0539      .1076      .5014      .6164     -.1577       .2656

Conditional indirect effects of X on Y:

INDIRECT EFFECT:
 Div_du       ->     Emprep       ->     Orgattr

     Altval     Effect     BootSE    BootLLCI    BootULCI
    -1.0304     -.0549      .1208     -.2948       .1884
      .0000      .1509      .0853     -.0096       .3243
     1.0304      .3566      .1364      .0979       .6244

      Index of moderated mediation:
             Index     BootSE    BootLLCI    BootULCI
Altval       .1997      .0937      .0185       .3842

 Pairwise contrasts between conditional indirect effects (Effect1
```

minus Effect2)

Effect1	Effect2	Contrast	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
.1509	-.0549	.2058	.0966	.0190	.3959
.3566	-.0549	.4116	.1932	.0381	.7918
.3566	.1509	.2058	.0966	.0190	.3959

INDIRECT EFFECT:

Div_du   ->   Justice   ->   Orgattr

Altval	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
-1.0304	-.0009	.0321	-.0637	.0710
.0000	.0384	.0286	-.0030	.1061
1.0304	.0776	.0512	.0019	.2004

Index of moderated mediation:

	Index	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Altval	.0381	.0308	-.0089	.1106

Pairwise contrasts between conditional indirect effects (Effect1
minus Effect2)

Effect1	Effect2	Contrast	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
.0384	-.0009	.0393	.0317	-.0092	.1140
.0776	-.0009	.0785	.0635	-.0184	.2279
.0776	.0384	.0393	.0317	-.0092	.1140

*********************** 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

W values in conditional tables are the mean and +/- SD from the
mean.

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to
analysis:
        Altval

------ END MATRIX -----

Appendix 13: Independent samples t-tests – altruistic groups

T-Test

Group Statistics

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Emprep	1,00	77	3,5299	1,09485	,12477
	2,00	87	3,4138	1,22827	,13168
Thirdjus	1,00	77	3,9481	1,10794	,12626
	2,00	87	3,8707	1,16506	,12491
Orgattr	1,00	77	2,9247	1,30990	,14928
	2,00	87	2,8276	1,20045	,12870

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Emprep	Equal variances assumed	1,613	,206	,635	162
	Equal variances not assumed			,640	161,990
Thirdjus	Equal variances assumed	1,361	,245	,434	162
	Equal variances not assumed			,436	161,149
Orgattr	Equal variances assumed	,262	,609	,495	162
	Equal variances not assumed			,493	155,198

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Emprep	Equal variances assumed	,526	,11608	,18269
	Equal variances not assumed	,523	,11608	,18141
Thirdjus	Equal variances assumed	,665	,07736	,17815
	Equal variances not assumed	,664	,07736	,17761
Orgattr	Equal variances assumed	,621	,09709	,19605
	Equal variances not assumed	,623	,09709	,19710

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means	
		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		Lower	Upper
Emprep	Equal variances assumed	-,24467	,47683
	Equal variances not assumed	-,24215	,47430
Thirdjus	Equal variances assumed	-,27444	,42917
	Equal variances not assumed	-,27337	,42810
Orgattr	Equal variances assumed	-,29005	,48423
	Equal variances not assumed	-,29225	,48643

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Emprep	Cohen's d	1,16758	,099	-,208	,406
	Hedges' correction	1,17302	,099	-,207	,404
	Glass's delta	1,22827	,095	-,213	,401
Thirdjus	Cohen's d	1,13862	,068	-,239	,375
	Hedges' correction	1,14392	,068	-,238	,373
	Glass's delta	1,16506	,066	-,241	,373
Orgattr	Cohen's d	1,25299	,077	-,229	,384
	Hedges' correction	1,25883	,077	-,228	,382
	Glass's delta	1,20045	,081	-,226	,388

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.

Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.

Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.

Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

T-Test

Group Statistics

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Emprep	1,00	80	3,0925	1,11829	,12503
	2,00	84	3,7071	1,47508	,16094
Thirdjus	1,00	80	3,4125	1,15705	,12936
	2,00	84	4,0476	1,51373	,16516
Orgattr	1,00	80	2,6075	1,15021	,12860
	2,00	84	3,1905	1,48662	,16220

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Emprep	Equal variances assumed	3,299	,071	-2,996	162
	Equal variances not assumed			-3,016	154,348
Thirdjus	Equal variances assumed	2,164	,143	-3,008	162
	Equal variances not assumed			-3,027	154,847
Orgattr	Equal variances assumed	5,871	,016	-2,799	162
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,816	155,561

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Emprep	Equal variances assumed	,003	-,61464	,20516
	Equal variances not assumed	,003	-,61464	,20380
Thirdjus	Equal variances assumed	,003	-,63512	,21115
	Equal variances not assumed	,003	-,63512	,20979
Orgattr	Equal variances assumed	,006	-,58298	,20827
	Equal variances not assumed	,005	-,58298	,20700

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means	
		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		Lower	Upper
Emprep	Equal variances assumed	-1,01977	-,20952
	Equal variances not assumed	-1,01724	-,21204
Thirdjus	Equal variances assumed	-1,05208	-,21816
	Equal variances not assumed	-1,04954	-,22069
Orgattr	Equal variances assumed	-,99426	-,17169
	Equal variances not assumed	-,99186	-,17409

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Emprep	Cohen's d	1,31325	-,468	-,778	-,157
	Hedges' correction	1,31937	-,466	-,774	-,156
	Glass's delta	1,47508	-,417	-,728	-,103
Thirdjus	Cohen's d	1,35160	-,470	-,780	-,159
	Hedges' correction	1,35790	-,468	-,776	-,158
	Glass's delta	1,51373	-,420	-,731	-,106
Orgattr	Cohen's d	1,33321	-,437	-,746	-,127
	Hedges' correction	1,33942	-,435	-,743	-,126
	Glass's delta	1,48662	-,392	-,703	-,079

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.

Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.

Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.

Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.