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An Investigation of the Role of Corporate Social Responsibility Features in Attracting and Retaining Employees

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Abstract

Research on corporate social responsibility (CSR) has grown in parallel to organizations'

adoption of the triple bottom line (economic, environmental, social) approach to performance,

and stakeholders' expectations for organizations to contribute to a greater social good (Aguinis

& Glavas, 2012). As a burgeoning area of research, the CSR literature has mostly been

conducted from a macro-level (organization-level) perspective aiming to answer questions about

the implications of CSR for organizations and society. Micro-level (individual-level) research is

comparatively less common, but is beginning to grow as well (Rupp & Mallory, 2015).

While micro-level research has made significant progress toward answering some

important questions, it is limited by a lack of knowledge and guiding theory of the psychological

foundations of CSR that explain when and why it affects organizational stakeholders such as

employees or job-seekers (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013). The CSR literature is also highly-

fragmented and full of confusing parallels and inconsistencies. It is characterized by numerous

conceptual definitions (Dahlsrud, 2008) and measurement tools (Morgeson, Aguinis, Waldman,

& Siegel, 2013), making it challenging for researchers to agree on what actually constitutes CSR

and compare results.

The research presented here applies a new approach to conceptualizing and measuring

CSR in hopes of overcoming the limitations mentioned above. First, a theoretical model is

described that distinguishes between "CSR content" and "CSR features" and proposes four CSR

features that are likely to be of relevance to stakeholders: CSR-identity alignment, CSR

commitment, employee involvement in CSR, and CSR proactivity. The model also proposes

attributions as the primary psychological mechanism explaining how CSR features, in

combination, influence employees' organizational commitment and job-seekers' organizational attraction.

This model was tested through two studies. The first study involved the development of a self-report measure of CSR features and the distribution of a survey to a sample of 371 employees in a variety of organizations. Results revealed that CSR features and attributions significantly predicted employees' organizational commitment. The second study utilized an experimental methodology to examine the effects of different combinations of CSR features on organizational attractiveness. A sample of 397 students were randomly assigned to view the websites of two fictitious organizations – one that engaged in CSR and one that did not – across eight different conditions (plus a no-CSR control condition) that differed in terms of high/low combinations of three CSR features (i.e., alignment, employee involvement, and commitment). Participants were asked to play the role of job-seekers and rate the attractiveness of each organization. Results revealed that engaging in CSR significantly raised participants' ratings of organizational attractiveness, but the CSR feature manipulations did not have an effect. Directions for future research, limitations, and implications for theory and practice are discussed.

Keywords: Corporate social responsibility, organizational commitment, organizational attraction, latent profile analysis, attribution theory

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CHAPTER 1: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Background and Purpose

In recent years, many organizations have broadened their focus from the traditional financial bottom line to a "triple bottom line" emphasizing economic, environmental, and social performance (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012). Research on corporate social responsibility (CSR) has paralleled this shift and burgeoned to become a prominent area of research that seeks to answer many questions that are relevant in today's society (Morgeson et al., 2013). This transition to greater awareness of social responsibility is occurring in part because stakeholder groups such as governments, customers, and even some investors are increasingly demanding more of organizations in this area (Bertels & Peloza, 2008). For instance, a global survey conducted in 2012 found that 73% of consumers said they were more likely to buy products and services from a company that supports good causes over one that does not; a figure that has risen by 9% since 2010 (Edelman, 2012). Another survey of students from top business schools found that more than 50 percent said they would be willing to accept lower pay to work for a socially responsible organization (Barbian, 2001).

At the same time, organizations are becoming aware of the potential benefits associated with being socially responsible. For example, socially responsible organizations tend to enjoy greater competitiveness and legitimacy among stakeholders (Bansal & Roth, 2000). There is also meta-analytic evidence linking CSR to financial performance (Orlitzky, Schmidt, & Rynes, 2003), although the direction of causality of this relationship is debatable. To date, the vast majority of CSR research has been conducted from a macro-level (i.e., organization-level) perspective (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012). More recently, micro-level (i.e., individual-level) CSR research has started to become more common in the literature. This new area of research suggests that CSR is generally beneficial for employees and organizations. For instance, researchers have found evidence that organizations engaging in CSR tend to have employees who are more committed to their organization (Mueller, Hattrup, Spiess, & Lin-Hi,

2012; Rettab, Brik, & Mellahi, 2009; Stites & Michael, 2011), place greater trust in their organization (Hansen, Dunford, Boss, Boss, & Angermeier, 2011; Hillenbrand, Money, & Ghobadian, 2013), and engage in more organizational citizenship behaviours (Evans, Davis, & Frink, 2011; Fu, Li, & Duan, 2014). Furthermore, socially responsible organizations are perceived as more attractive places to work by job applicants (Evans & Davis, 2011; Greening & Turban, 2000; Turban & Greening, 1996).

While these results are encouraging, two issues are worthy of note: First, because of the nascent and highly fragmented state of micro-level CSR research, it is not clear when or why CSR is effective (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013; Bauman & Skitka, 2012). To answer the question of "when", some researchers have examined how individual differences moderate the relationship between CSR and relevant outcomes. Examples include: value orientation (Evans et al., 2011), moral identity, justice perceptions (Rupp, Shao, Thornton, & Skarlicki, 2013), and individualism (Rupp, Shao, Skarlicki, et al., 2013). Others have attempted to answer the question of "why" by developing or applying theories to improve our understanding of the psychological foundations of CSR perceptions (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013; Bauman & Skitka, 2012; D. A. Jones, Willness, & Madey, 2014; Rupp, 2011). Nonetheless, we are only beginning our journey towards understanding these issues.

The second issue relates to the measurement of CSR itself. As a whole, the CSR literature is the product of a diverse group of scholars who conduct research from a variety of perspectives. This has led to a stream of literature that is quite complex and full of confusing parallels and inconsistencies (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013). However, Basu and Palazzo (2008) observed that "if there is one broadly shared commonality in the highly pluralized field of CSR research, it is the endeavor to analyze CSR by examining CSR," (p. 122). Indeed, CSR research is presently dominated by researchers examining CSR in terms of the activities that organizations perform. Although studying CSR in terms of its "content" is a straightforward and intuitive approach, researchers are challenged by the boundless (and growing) number of potential CSR activities organizations may engage in (Rego, Leal, & Pina e Cunha, 2011).

Additionally, researchers seeking to assess the CSR activities of organizations based on company reports are challenged by the growing standardization, and consequently homogeneity, of CSR reporting (Basu & Palazzo, 2008). As the CSR reports of organizations continue to grow in similarity, it will become increasingly difficult to distinguish the activities of one organization from another. Consequently, it has been argued that "attempts to link the ill-defined amorphous, and plastic construct of CSR, or broad categories of CSR, to financial performance are unlikely to be fruitful" (Aldag, 2013, p. 376). This sentiment could also be quite easily expressed towards the relationship between categories of CSR and micro-level outcomes such as organizational commitment and organizational attraction.

While it is acknowledged that many important steps in the study of CSR have been made utilizing a content-based approach (Basu & Palazzo, 2008), my dissertation describes and tests a new approach to studying CSR that centers around configurations of CSR "features". These features do not pertain to the specific CSR initiatives organizations engage in, but instead characterize the *properties or attributes* of organizations' CSR. For example, charitable donations and employee volunteering initiatives are two forms of CSR content, whereas the degree to which these practices are enacted proactively or reactively is an example of a CSR feature. In the following chapter, I describe how CSR features are likely to affect individuals' attributions (i.e., causal explanations underlying an event) of an organization's CSR (Kelley & Michela, 1980; Vlachos, Epitropaki, Panagopoulos, & Rapp, 2013). I then argue that the nature of these attributions represent a psychological mechanism through which CSR features affect employees' commitment to their organization and potential job-seekers' attraction to a focal organization. I also propose that organizations' CSR initiatives can be simultaneously characterized by multiple features which may combine to form distinct "configurations" (A. D. Meyer, Tsui, & Hinings, 1993) or "profiles" (Zyphur, 2009) that will colour individuals' CSR attributions in disparate ways.

My research is a response to the calls for theory and research intended to deepen our understanding of CSR at the micro-level (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Bauman & Skitka, 2012; Morgeson et al., 2013). Additionally, as increasing attention is being devoted to methodological issues in CSR research (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Rahman & Post, 2012), it is argued here that studying CSR in terms of its features may yield unique advantages that can help us achieve a greater understanding of the role CSR plays in influencing the attitudes and behaviours of employees.

Research Question and Objectives

My general research question is as follows: how do CSR features influence: a) employees' commitment to their organization, and b) potential job-seekers' attraction to organizations? In order to address this question, the objectives of my research are:

i. To determine if CSR features combine to form distinct and meaningful "configurations" or "profiles."

ii. To explore how CSR features relate to employees' CSR attributions and organizational commitment.

iii. To determine if CSR features affect potential job-seekers' perceptions of organizational attractiveness.

Outline

The remainder of my dissertation is organized as follows:

i. Chapter 2 provides a comprehensive review of literature that is relevant to the current research. Literature relating to the content and features of CSR is described to aid in defining and distinguishing these two concepts for the purpose of building the theoretical framework described in Chapter 3. Relevant literature discussing attribution theories, organizational commitment, and organizational attraction is also evaluated as it relates to CSR.

ii.   Chapter 3 describes a theoretical framework developed to guide the two studies conducted as part of my dissertation. The feature-oriented approach to studying CSR and attribution theories are used as a framework for developing an integrated model proposing how four selected features of CSR are likely to influence employee and job-seeker causal attributions of CSR, and subsequently their commitment/attraction to an organization. Research propositions are provided throughout.

iii.   Chapter 4 describes Study 1 of my dissertation. Employees in a variety of organizations were surveyed to determine if CSR features combine to form profiles, and to explore how these profiles relate to attributions and organizational commitment.

iv.   Chapter 5 describes Study 2 of my dissertation. This study utilized an experimental methodology to explore how different combinations of CSR features affect potential job-seekers' perceptions of organizational attractiveness.

v.   Chapter 6 contains the General Discussion. The results of Studies 1 and 2 are summarized and discussed in terms of their implications for the proposed theoretical model. Additionally, this chapter discusses some general limitations of my research, as well as implications for future research and practice.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

In the following sections, a summary of scholarly literature that is relevant to my research is provided. The purpose of this review is to establish the current state of research as it relates to CSR and other relevant concepts such as causal attributions, organizational commitment, and organizational attraction. The review of the CSR literature will specifically facilitate distinguishing the concepts of CSR content and features.

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

Over 40 years ago, influential economist and statistician Milton M. Friedman (1970) argued that the only social responsibility of the organization is "to use its resources and engage in activities designed to increase profits so long as it stays within the rules of the game, which is to say, engages in open and free competition without deception or fraud," (p. 6). According to this view, the primary purpose of organizations is to maximize profit, and as long as they abide by the law of the land, organizations answer only to their shareholders. Law-biding organizations that provide investors with healthy returns, and provide employees with remuneration create economic growth in society and leave all parties better off (Bauman & Skitka, 2012). While it is likely that Friedman does acknowledge that organizations can have some responsibilities beyond profit-making (Carroll, 1998), his reasoning behind this argument was that government officials are better equipped than business managers to deal with social needs through implementing public policy (Moon & Vogel, 2008). During this time period, most organizations did not proactively invest resources into meeting broader societal needs, even though the "modern debate" for more socially responsible business began as early as the 1950s (Wartick & Cochran, 1985). Some have argued that a turning point for CSR in North America occurred in 1996 when President Clinton and Labor Secretary Robert Reich introduced the Ron Brown Award for good corporate citizenship (Carroll, 1998). This award was reserved for organizations with an exceptional array of policies that benefit employees such as permitting family leave and providing training and development.

Since then, there has been a pronounced shift towards more "responsible" or "sustainable" business practices. As of 2004, over half of the Fortune Global 500 multinational corporations produced a report dedicated solely to CSR each year (Williams, 2004), and most employed senior executives responsible for overseeing CSR efforts ("The good company: A survey of corporate social responsibility," 2005). More recent surveys indicate that these figures are rising (Becchetti & Trovato, 2011). Examples of CSR initiatives vary widely, ranging from disaster relief programs (P&G Corporate Newsroom, 2012), to donations toward education and sports in the local community (Royal Bank of Canada, 2013), and initiatives to help sustain a healthy environment (BHP Billiton, 2013). Some organizations even characterize paying a living wage to their employees as CSR (White, 2012).

Despite its widespread adoption by organizations, research on CSR remains highly fragmented (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012). This appears to be the case, in part, because CSR is relevant to a wide variety of management scholars specializing in finance, strategy, organizational behavior (OB) and so on. More recently, CSR has also begun to take hold in the discipline of industrial/organizational (I/O) psychology. These academic disciplines draw on different theories and take different approaches to conducting research, which has resulted in somewhat of a piecemeal understanding of what actually constitutes CSR, and how it relates to other constructs of interest. Aguinis and Glavas (2012) noted that CSR research is typically confined to a single level of analysis. Scholars in finance or strategy often take a macro-level approach to studying phenomena, choosing to examine the relationship between CSR and variables such as corporate financial performance (Orlitzky et al., 2003), firm mission (Marcus & Anderson, 2006), or firm capabilities (Sharma & Vredenberg, 1998). In contrast, many scholars in I/O psychology and OB conduct research at the micro-level, choosing to examine the relationship between CSR and variables such as firm attractiveness to prospective employees (Evans & Davis, 2011; Greening & Turban, 2000; Turban & Greening, 1996), organizational commitment (Peterson, 2004),

organizational citizenship behaviour (Evans et al., 2011), and counterproductive work behaviours (Viswesvaran, Deshpande, & Milman, 1998).

While researching CSR from a wide variety of perspectives is not necessarily bad practice per se, it is probably not surprising that a consequence of this has been the proliferation of several dozen definitions of CSR (Dahlsrud, 2008). To avoid any ambiguity in guiding the current literature review, CSR is defined here as "context-specific organizational actions and policies that take into account stakeholders' expectations and the triple bottom line of economic, social, and environmental performance" (Aguinis, 2011, p. 855). This definition was chosen because it captures several of the key elements of CSR and is consistent with how other researchers in I/O psychology and OB conceptualize this construct (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013; Bauman & Skitka, 2012; El Akremi, Gond, Swaen, De Roeck, & Igalens, 2015; Rupp, 2011). More specifically, the definition acknowledges the important role that context plays in determining what constitutes CSR and does not restrict the concept to a particular domain such as philanthropy or environmental sustainability. Furthermore, although this definition describes CSR as a type of organizational action, it does not rule out the notion that actors at all levels (i.e., institutional, organizational, and individual) can influence, or become involved in, the implementation of CSR (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012).

Carroll's (1979) thee-dimensional model of corporate social performance (CSP) has served as the foundation for much of the contemporary CSR literature. His framework describes four categories of social responsibility: economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary. He articulates that these categories are not mutually exclusive or additive, and that organizations have an obligation to meet these responsibilities simultaneously (e.g., businesses are obligated to meet economic responsibilities by providing value to society, but must do so within the framework of the law). Carroll subsequently states that each of these responsibilities could pertain to any number of social issues such as consumerism, the environment, discrimination, product safety, and so on. The model also incorporates the organization's

philosophy of social responsiveness, which ranges from "do nothing" to "do much." This philosophy is not an alternative to CSR, but rather represents management's orientation towards acting to address social issues.

Carroll's model is described here not only because of the seminal role it has played in the CSR literature, but also because it provides a helpful example of the distinction between CSR *content* and *features*. The first two dimensions of Carroll's model (i.e., social responsibility categories and social issues) are examples of what is referred to here as the "content" of CSR. They refer to potentially socially responsible actions that an organization could take in any particular domain. The third dimension of the model (i.e., social responsiveness) is an example of a "feature" of CSR. It characterizes or describes an attribute of a particular socially responsible behaviour. The research that has followed Carroll's work has primarily focused on the categories of social responsibility and relabeled them as dimensions of corporate citizenship (Maignan & Ferrell, 2000; Maignan, Ferrell, & Hult, 1999; Stites & Michael, 2011). As research on corporate citizenship has grown in prominence, so have the number of dimensions (El Akremi et al., 2015; Rego et al., 2011). Others have taken a different approach to CSR and chosen to focus on its social issues (Dahlsrud, 2008). Carroll's list of social issues was not intended to be exhaustive, and given the seemingly limitless possibilities of what could constitute "socially responsible" behaviour, it is not surprising that researchers have been divided on how to best define which actions constitute CSR and which do not (Bauman & Skitka, 2012).

In contrast to the commonly adopted content-focused approach to CSR, Basu and Palazzo (2008) propose a process model of organizational sensemaking intended to explain the internal (organizational) determinants of organizations' "CSR character" (i.e., the way an organization goes about making sense of the world in relation to CSR). In their model they describe three overarching factors that are likely to influence the nature of an organization's CSR character. The first dimension pertains to cognition or "what firms think." This involves the overall ideology or beliefs of the organization and the way in

which the organization seeks to achieve legitimacy among its stakeholders. The second dimension is linguistic and corresponds to "what firms say." This involves how the organization communicates to justify its actions and the degree to which the organization is transparent. The third dimension is conative and pertains to "how firms tend to behave." It involves the organization's posture towards stakeholder demands (i.e., defensive, tentative, or open), its consistency among its bundle of socially responsible initiatives and strategy, and its commitment to behaving in a socially responsible manner.

This theoretical model is noteworthy because the organizational determinants of CSR described are examples of features of the organization or of socially responsible behaviour. By taking a feature-oriented approach in my own research, I build on this model in a number of ways. First, I propose four features that are likely to be relevant to employees and job-seekers by surveying the literature and conducting a review of corporate webpages. Second, my research responds to Basu and Palazzo's (2008) call to define features of CSR in terms of their contextual configurations, which involves examining CSR features by considering them in combination as opposed to in isolation (A. D. Meyer et al., 1993). Studying CSR features in terms of their configurations is not unlike taking a "person-centered" approach to research. This approach contrasts the more traditionally used variable-centered approach because it treats the person as the unit of analysis rather than the variable (Bauer & Shanahan, 2007). For instance, techniques such as cluster analysis or latent profile analysis are often employed to determine the number of naturally occurring homogenous subgroups of individuals in a sample based on their scores on a number of variables, rather than examining relations among variables individually. The person-centered approach has recently made important contributions in the study of the three component model (TCM) of organizational commitment by showing that various configurations of the three components have differing implications for employee behaviour and well-being (Gellatly, Meyer, & Luchak, 2006; J. P. Meyer, Kam, Goldenberg, & Bremner, 2013; J. P. Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012; J. P. Meyer, Stanley, & Vandenberg, 2013). Applied to the current research, taking a person-centered approach to

researching CSR features would examine how these features combine to predict organizational attraction and commitment. Next, CSR content and features are formally defined and applied to the existing research on CSR.

CSR Content

The formal definition of CSR provided earlier contains elements of CSR content and features. Specifically, Aguinis's (2011) definition refers to "…organizational actions and policies intended to further the triple bottom line of economic, social, and environmental performance" (p.855). The definition further states that such actions are context-specific, which implies that the same action or policy may be considered socially responsible in some situations but not others. The features of CSR fall into the domain of providing context behind an organization's actions. Based on Aguinis's definition, CSR "content" is defined here as: **any specific organizational action or policy intended to further the triple bottom line, irrespective of context.** This definition highlights the content of CSR as actions or policies that are responsible, but explicitly omits any mention of their characteristics, or the conditions that precipitated them. As an example, consider organization A and organization B. In the same year, both of these organizations decide to donate $5000 to further the same social cause. In this case, both organizations are engaging in identical CSR behaviours in terms of content. However, the conditions that led these organizations to behave in this way could be quite different. For organization A, the CEO organized a company-wide survey to inquire as to where the employees would like to see the money sent. Alternatively, the CEO of organization B made the decision of how much, and where to donate, unilaterally based on his or her personal values or a perceived payoff of the donation (e.g., a better organizational reputation). Even though the actions of organizations A and B resulted in the same outcome (i.e., providing $5000 to a specific charity), it is likely that individuals privy to these conditions would perceive the donations differently based on how each organization came to the decision to donate. Differences in how organizations engage in CSR can play such an important role that a particular action

may be considered socially responsible in some situations but not others. As another example, consider a mining company that proactively lobbies for tighter industry-wide environmental restrictions on deforestation and emissions. At face value this easily falls under the purview of socially responsible behaviour because the actions taken by the organization will most likely help secure a clean environment for generations to come. However, if this environmental lobbying was used as a means of acquiring smaller competitors at a discounted price due to their inability to deal with tighter regulations, individuals aware of the motives behind these actions would be unlikely to view the mining company as modeling socially responsible behaviour (Devinney, 2009). Clearly, if the same behaviours can be viewed as responsible by some and not others depending on context, studying CSR in terms of content alone may not yield relationships that are particularly strong or meaningful (Basu & Palazzo, 2008). As explained later, studying CSR in terms of its features is more likely to provide useful information about what an organization's motives are likely to be.

As mentioned previously, the majority of CSR research currently examines socially responsible behaviour in terms of content only (Basu & Palazzo, 2008). For instance, studies commonly examine the extent to which organizations engage in a number of socially responsible behaviours such as community service, charitable donations, environmental protection programs, or ethical product innovations. These activities are often measured by using quasi-objective indicators, or social ratings, such as third-party audits of organizations' CSR (Orlitzky et al., 2003), or by surveying employees about their organization's CSR activities (Maignan & Ferrell, 2000; Rego et al., 2011). Researchers utilizing the former method frequently turn to proprietary databases such as the Kinder, Lydenburg, and Domini (KLD) database (Chatterji, Levine, & Toffel, 2009), now part of Morgan Stanley Capital International (Tang, Hull, & Rothenberg, 2012). The KLD database draws on several socially responsible investment indices and provides ratings for over 4000 organizations on 14 domains of CSR-related behaviour such as community, employee relations, and environment (Rahman & Post, 2012). Aside from the problems

associated with these indices such as their lack of transparency and high cost (Rahman & Post, 2012), they likely fail to account for many relevant features of organizations' CSR in their ratings. In addition, micro-level research commonly assesses organizations' CSR by asking employees to report on the areas of social responsibility where their organization is active (Evans et al., 2011; Maignan & Ferrell, 2000), or if their organization does enough in a certain area to be perceived as socially responsible (e.g., "Does our company do enough towards protecting the environment?"; "Our business gives adequate contributions to charities"; El Akremi et al., 2015; Mueller et al., 2012; Rego et al., 2011). Other researchers experimentally manipulate CSR by constructing vignettes or scenarios representing organizations intended to be good or bad corporate citizens (Evans & Davis, 2011; Rupp, Shao, Thornton, et al., 2013). Despite the differences among these methods of studying CSR, they all share a common focus on measuring the content of organizations' socially responsible behaviours.

CSR Features

The distinction made here between CSR features and content was inspired by the psychological contract literature, which has recently adopted a feature-oriented measurement approach that has shown substantial promise for overcoming some of the limitations of past research (McInnis, Meyer, & Feldman, 2009; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). Psychological contracts are an individual's beliefs about a mutual agreement or obligation between two parties; often between that individual and their employer (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). Psychological contracts can have formal and/or informal components and, similar to CSR initiatives, the content of these contracts can vary widely. For example, they could touch on aspects of job security, training, pay, benefits, support, or any other promise that could be made by an organization. This has made comparing the results of studies in the psychological contract literature quite challenging. In contrast, a feature-oriented approach focuses on characteristic properties or attributes of psychological contracts that could be used to differentiate contracts regardless of their content (McInnis et al., 2009). Examples of psychological contract features include tangibility, scope,

stability, time frame, and symmetry. While the features of CSR initiatives and psychological contracts are not likely to be directly transferrable, there is substantial opportunity for the distinction between content and features to be applied to CSR. Based on the discussion above, I define CSR features as: **the characteristics or attributes of organizations' actions and policies intended to further the triple bottom line**.

Supplementing the measurement of CSR content by considering its features can yield several advantages. First, the features of socially responsible behaviour can easily characterize any particular area of content (e.g., environmental conservation, philanthropy). This provides researchers with the flexibility to study any industry or organization without the need to survey a wide range of potential CSR activities or substantially customize the measurement of CSR content. Consequently, research taking a feature-oriented approach to CSR should yield more robust and generalizable results (Basu & Palazzo, 2008). Second, the feature-based approach described here is a testable and theory-driven effort to understand how CSR affects employees and job-seekers. For example, attribution theories (Kelley & Michela, 1980) suggest that CSR features would be highly important for individuals when forming judgments about an organization. Specifically, they suggest that individuals are more concerned with *why* people (and by association, organizations) do things, than *what* they do (Lange & Washburn, 2012; Vlachos, Tsamakos, Vrechopoulos, & Avramidis, 2009). It follows that employees and job-seekers are likely to attend to the features of CSR when perceiving and evaluating an organization's behaviour because they yield valuable information about the motives behind the organization's CSR activities (Basu & Palazzo, 2008). This enables these individuals to make predictions about how the organization is likely to behave in other situations (Ghoshal & Moran, 1996), which has implications for how they are likely to be treated by the organization as well (Rupp, 2011).

To apply this approach, it was first necessary to determine what kinds of attributes or features organizations' CSR activities possess that are most likely to affect the perceptions and attitudes of

employees and job-seekers. To do so, the scholarly CSR literature was reviewed for relevant theory and empirical research. In addition to reviewing this literature, the CSR and sustainability webpages of Canada's list of top 50 small to medium-sized employers were examined. Reviewing corporate webpages helped determine if the features identified in the literature could be identified elsewhere, and also helped establish an understanding of the language organizations used to communicate to the public about their CSR activities. The latter point was particularly important for studying the impact of CSR features on potential job-seekers' perceptions of the organization given that individuals outside of the organization (who do not know anyone employed at the organization) would typically only be aware of the CSR that was communicated by organizations through press releases or their website. The CSR website review is described in further detail after the literature review.

The core of my literature review focused on individual-level research on CSR features and spanned several groups of stakeholders including employees, job applicants, and consumers. Some organization-level studies were also examined because of their focus on CSR features, but often looked at outcome variables such as investor relations or stock-market performance, which would likely make it more difficult to apply the theory used to make predictions about how those features would affect employees and job-seekers. The review itself was not intended to be exhaustive – it sought to find a small number of CSR features that could be clearly used to demonstrate the utility of the feature-based approach. Reviewing the literature revealed several potential features of CSR, but only four of these features are summarized and discussed below. The four features are 1) the alignment of CSR with the organization's identity, 2) the commitment of the organization to CSR, 3) employee involvement in CSR, and 4) the degree to which the organization's CSR is proactive. Emphasis is placed on these features because they were the most commonly identified features in the literature, and were likely to be most salient to employees and job-seekers. This judgment was based on relevant research and theory, which is summarized in relation to the four CSR features in Table 1.

Table 1. *Summary of Conceptual and Empirical Research on CSR Features*

CSR Feature	Conceptual Papers	Empirical Papers
Alignment of CSR with Organizational Identity	• (Element of) Embedded vs. Peripheral CSR (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013) • Identity orientation and strategic consistency (Basu & Palazzo, 2008)	• Company-cause fit (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004; Ellen, Webb, & Mohr, 2006; Pérez & Rodríguez del Bosque, 2013; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006; Van Rekom, Go, & Calter, 2014) • Congruence of issue with organizational values (Bansal, 2003) • CSR alignment with organization's true identity (McShane & Cunningham, 2012) • Fit between corporate culture and CSR activities (Lee, Park, & Lee, 2013)
Commitment (of Organization) to CSR	• (Element of) Embedded vs. Peripheral CSR (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013) • Instrumental and normative commitment (Basu & Palazzo, 2008)	• Perceived effort (Parguel, Benoit-Moreau, & Larceneux, 2011) • Sustained commitment of resources (McShane & Cunningham, 2012) • Commitment to a cause (Ellen et al., 2006) • Scale of response (Bansal, 2003) • Consistency (Tang et al., 2012)
Employee Involvement in CSR	• (Element of) Embedded vs. Peripheral CSR (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013) • Need for control (Rupp, Ganapathi, Aguilera, & Williams, 2006)	• CSR participation (H.-R. Kim, Lee, Lee, & Kim, 2010; Liu, Liston-Heyes, & Ko, 2010) • Employee involvement in planning and implementing CSR (McShane & Cunningham, 2012) • CSR-related autonomy (Rupp, Shao, Skarlicki, et al., 2013) • Employee involvement in corporate philanthropy (Muller & Kräussl, 2011) • Company supported employee volunteerism (Basil, Runte, Easwaramoorthy, & Barr, 2009; Brockner, Senior, & Welch, 2014; Caligiuri, Mencin, & Jiang, 2013; Geroy, Wright, & Jacoby, 2000) • Scope of response (Bansal, 2003)
Proactivity of CSR	• Proactivity (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Tata & Prasad, 2015) • Social responsiveness (Carroll, 1979) • Posture (Basu & Palazzo, 2008)	• Proactivity (Becker-Olsen, Cudmore, & Hill, 2006; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004; Groza, Pronschinske, & Walker, 2011; Henriques & Sadorsky, 1999; Torugsa, O'Donohue, & Hecker, 2013) • Developmental/evolving CSR (Bertels & Peloza, 2008; McShane & Cunningham, 2012)

CSR Feature 1: CSR-Identity Alignment

In the literature, there were several papers on the topic of how an organization's CSR activities may or may not be aligned with its strategy, culture, or identity. Although the concepts of strategy, culture, and identity are distinguishable, they are highly related, partially because of how deeply rooted they are in the values of the organization (Bansal, 2003; Basu & Palazzo, 2008; Brickson, 2007). Examining the definitions and the degree of overlap among these concepts led me to decide that CSR-identity alignment was the most representative label to encompass this literature. The decision to discuss these concepts in concert was also motivated by the notion that individuals making judgments about an organization's CSR are unlikely to systematically process information about the organization at the level of depth where these distinctions would become particularly salient (Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005). Further, some individuals may be in a better position to evaluate the organization's culture than others (e.g., employees vs. job applicants). Similar to organizational culture, organizational identity still involves how employees perceive the distinct characteristics and shared experiences of their organization (Elsbach & Kramer, 1996), but is a broader concept because it also involves how the organization externally represents itself in society (Brickson, 2007).

Organizational identity is a complex construct that "reflects [an organization's] central and distinguishing attributes, including its core values, organizational culture, modes of performance, and products" (Elsbach & Kramer, 1996, p. 442). This identity serves as the basis for how the organization interacts with other entities, including stakeholders (Basu & Palazzo, 2008). Given that organizational identity focuses on how an organization differs from other organizations, what constitutes CSR-identity alignment will differ from organization to organization. The idiosyncratic nature of CSR-identity fit is captured in a recent framework by

Aguinis and Glavas (2013), who make the distinction between embedded and peripheral CSR. Embedded CSR stems from the organization's core competencies and is highly integrated into the organization's strategy, systems, routines, and operations such that it becomes a part of every employee's daily work life. Aguinis and Glavas argue that embedded CSR is context-specific in the sense that it relies on the organization's core competencies, which are different for every organization. In contrast, socially responsible actions that are unrelated to the defining characteristics of the organization and not integrated into the workday of employees are considered peripheral CSR. Peripheral CSR activities are much more generic in the sense that they can be any activity that does not align with the organization's core competencies or strategy. Embedded CSR is also characterized by other features such as the organization's commitment to CSR and the involvement of employees (which is also reflected in Table 1). Thus, the embedded/peripheral CSR distinction is a broader concept than the alignment between an organization's identity and its CSR activities. However, such an alignment is a prerequisite for CSR to be considered embedded (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013).

Basu and Palazzo (2008) also describe two dimensions of CSR that fit under the umbrella of CSR-identity alignment. First, they adopt Brickson's (2007) conceptualization of identity orientation to describe the role that an organization's identity orientation plays in defining the character of its CSR. Brickson divides identity orientation into three distinct ways in which companies define themselves in relation to their stakeholders: individualistic, relational, and collectivistic. Respectively, these orientations involve the organization defining itself as self-serving (through profit maximization), serving specific others, or serving a greater collective. Basu and Palazzo argue that an organization's identity orientation influences the relationships that managers develop with stakeholders, which then defines the nature of their CSR activities.

For example, organizations with an individualistic orientation likely engage in CSR designed to showcase its core competencies, whereas those with a collectivistic orientation would be more likely to engage in CSR intended to benefit as many stakeholders as possible. Second, Basu and Palazzo make the distinction between strategically consistent and strategically inconsistent CSR. They describe the former as a pre-meditated and intentional decision to embed social responsibility into the organization's strategy, whereas the latter is described as a reactive and unplanned orientation towards CSR. While these two concepts are distinguishable, the above discussion suggests that strategy stems from identity. Further, when it comes to individuals' evaluations of the alignment between an organization's CSR and identity, it is likely that observers would draw on characteristics of the organization in addition to strategy (including *their own* perceptions of the organization's identity orientation, reputation, and so on) to form their judgments.

Empirical research has been conducted using a number of concepts related to CSR-identity alignment. One commonly studied concept that touches on aspects of identity and strategy, is company-cause fit (Ellen et al., 2006; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006; Van Rekom et al., 2014), which has been defined as "the perceived link between a cause and the firm's product line, brand image, position and/or target market" (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006, p. 47). Others have studied concepts such as employees' perceived fit between their organization's CSR and culture (Lee et al., 2013), and true identity (McShane & Cunningham, 2012), as well as the degree of congruence between identified environmental issues and the values of the organization (Bansal, 2003).

Research and theory consistently suggest that greater perceived, or actual, alignment between CSR with the organization's identity is beneficial for the organization. Aguinis and

Glavas (2013) argue that embedded CSR is more likely than peripheral CSR to lead to positive outcomes because it has numerous positive psychological effects for employees and other stakeholder groups (e.g., fulfills needs, and fosters pride and identification with the organization). For instance, when the defining characteristics of the organization and its CSR activities are highly integrated, employees are likely to feel a sense of pride in what they do because they are directly contributing to bettering society through their daily work. Similarly, Basu and Palazzo (2008) propose that greater strategic consistency would lead to perceptions of high credibility and effectiveness. This notion is supported by research by Ellen et al. (2006), who demonstrated that greater company-cause fit resulted in potential customers making more values-driven and strategic attributions (i.e., positive causal explanations) and fewer egoistic attributions (i.e., negative causal explanations) about a cause-related marketing offer, which consequently influenced their intent to purchase the organization's product (in this case, gasoline). Similarly, Van Rekom et al. (2014) and Simmons and Becker-Olsen (2006) found that perceived company-cause fit was positively related to more favorable attitudes towards organizations' cause-related campaigns or sponsorships. Research by Lee et al. (2013) found that when employees perceived a fit between CSR and organizational culture, they had more favorable perceptions of their organization's CSR activities, which in turn led to greater attachment to the organization. McShane and Cunningham (2012) conducted a series of interviews and discovered that employees viewed their organization's CSR as more authentic when it was embedded in the way the organization did business and aligned closely with its identity. Finally, a qualitative study conducted by Bansal (2003) suggested that the most timely and comprehensive response to environmental issues would occur when there is an alignment

among the nature of the issue itself, the individual concerns of employees, and the values of the organization.

Based on the discussion above, the following conceptual description of CSR-identity alignment is provided: CSR that aligns with an organization's identity fits with the organization's characteristics (e.g., core values, culture, strategy), and reputation.

To summarize, it is clear that greater alignment between an organization's CSR and its identity is beneficial for both the organization and its employees. When CSR aligns with the identity of the organization, it is likely to be perceived as more authentic and values-driven by employees (and other stakeholders such as consumers), which could lead these individuals to experience greater pride and attachment towards the organization. CSR-identity alignment also appears to benefit the organization directly from a strategic perspective by enabling the organization to enact a given CSR initiative with greater effectiveness and speed, which is likely to foster more strategic attributions of CSR among stakeholders and enhance the credibility of the organization.

CSR Feature 2: Commitment to CSR

With roots in motivational theory, the concept of commitment has a long history in the I/O psychology, OB, and management literature. Perhaps not surprisingly, some scholars have taken different views on the concept based on their subject of study. For the purposes of this discussion, it is necessary to differentiate between the commitment of an individual and the commitment of an organization. In terms of the commitment of individuals, the TCM of commitment (J. P. Meyer & Allen, 1991; J. P. Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) is perhaps the most frequently cited theory in I/O psychology and OB. The TCM conceptualizes commitment as both attitudinal and motivational, and is made up of three distinct mindsets which bind the individual

experiencing them to a target or course of action (e.g., job, supervisor, organization), commonly known as foci. The three mindsets are characterized by desire (affective commitment; AC), obligation (normative commitment; NC), and perceived cost (continuance commitment; CC). The TCM will be discussed further when employees' commitment to the organization is addressed later in this review.

The commitment of an organization is somewhat different given that it cannot be measured directly and must be inferred by observers. Arguably, one effective way an individual can infer the motives of an organization is through its actions. If an organization is committed to achieving the goal of being (or becoming) socially responsible, such intentions should be, at minimum, signified by sustained determination and attachment to the goal (Locke, Latham, & Erez, 1988). Building on this notion of sustained determination, the literature on CSR revealed both commitment over time and effort as relevant characteristics of organizations' CSR activities. Accordingly, in order to infer an organization's level of commitment to a cause, employees could observe how consistent the organization's socially responsible actions are over time (Ellen et al., 2006; Vlachos, Epitropaki, et al., 2013), and the amount of resources the organization has dedicated towards social causes (Bansal, 2003; Basu & Palazzo, 2008; McShane & Cunningham, 2012; Parguel et al., 2011). These qualities correspond to the concepts of attachment and determination, respectively.

Relatedly, Basu and Palazzo (2008) discuss the distinction between organizations' normative and instrumental commitment to CSR. The former type of commitment is primarily motivated by moral considerations, whereas the latter is motivated by external incentives (e.g., financial, reputational). It is likely that organizations with a normative commitment to CSR would be driven at a much deeper level to engage in socially responsible behaviors, resulting in

greater consistency and effort. This would also be tantamount to embedded CSR, where social responsibility is fully integrated into many aspects of the organization (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013). Such behaviour would likely signify to employees and job-seekers that the organization is fully committed to being socially responsible. In contrast, organizations that are instrumentally committed to CSR are unlikely to fully integrate their CSR into the organization, particularly because this would make it easier to cease any socially responsible behaviour once it has stopped benefitting the organization. Accordingly, such a form of commitment is not likely to be sustained over time and the organization would likely be prepared to cut resources to its CSR once the incentives have been fully realized, or the CSR activities are no longer profitable.

Extant research suggests that when organizations consistently dedicate time and resources towards CSR, it results in favorable outcomes for the organization and employees. For example, Parguel et al. (2011) studied how individuals' perceptions of an organization's effort towards CSR activity mediated the relationship between a third-party sustainability rating of the organization and individuals' attributions. They found that when an organization received a high sustainability rating, individuals perceived that the organization exerted more effort towards CSR and subsequently attributed more intrinsic motives of the organization's activities. However, individuals also attributed high extrinsic motives to the organization's activities regardless of the organization's sustainability rating. Similarly, McShane and Cunningham (2012) found that interviewees whose organizations consistently dedicated valuable resources towards CSR initiatives were more likely to perceive the CSR as authentic. In an experimental study, Ellen et al. (2006) found that shorter commitment to a CSR initiative was significantly related to customers' stakeholder-driven attributions of the organization's CSR (i.e., due to external pressure), which consequently decreased purchase intent. Finally, Tang et al. (2012) found that

organizations that engaged in CSR at a consistent pace performed better financially. Perhaps ironically, this suggests that organizations with more of a normative commitment to CSR may perform better than organizations with a more superficial or instrumental commitment to CSR. Tang and colleagues posited that engaging in CSR activities consistently and reliably gives the organization the chance to fully absorb the information gained from CSR activities, making it easier to keep CSR in line with the organization's overall strategy and build stakeholder confidence.

In light of the theory and research that falls in line with the construct of CSR commitment, the following conceptual description is offered: Organizations that are committed to CSR put significant effort and resources towards socially responsible activities (e.g., through dedicating financial resources, human resources, and so on) consistently over time. Organizations that are highly committed to CSR would typically have a difficult time ceasing their CSR activities either due to a high amount of previously invested resources or resistance from internal stakeholders.

In sum, organizations that are committed to CSR are more likely to accrue both reputational and financial benefits. Consistent commitment to CSR is likely to lead stakeholders to perceive the organization's CSR as authentic and intrinsically motivated, whereas short-term commitments are more likely to lead stakeholders to perceive that the organization was pressured into its CSR activities. Consistent commitment to CSR can also benefit the organization by putting it in a position to gather performance feedback and develop competencies surrounding such activities.

CSR Feature 3: Employee Involvement in CSR

Considered as part of CSR best practice by Industry Canada (Strandberg, 2009), involving employees in the development and/or implementation of CSR is likely to affect stakeholders' perceptions of an organization's CSR activities. Theory and research also support the notion that offering employees a chance to get involved in CSR initiatives is likely beneficial for both the organization and its employees. Basil et al. (2009) argue that company support for employee volunteerism (through allowing paid days off, flexible work schedules, and so on) can benefit the organization by enhancing its reputation in the public eye, and can benefit employees by enhancing their self-view, offsetting any negative feelings about their day-to-day work, and helping them develop new skills and contacts outside of their organization. Furthermore, when such initiatives offer numerous benefits to employees, they are more likely to engage in proactive problem-solving (Geroy et al., 2000) and experience engagement in their work (Caligiuri et al., 2013).

Muller and Kräussl (2011) found that organizations reporting philanthropic donations in response to Hurricane Katrina had more positive stock returns when they emphasized employee involvement in the donation. They argue that this more positive market response was due to perceptions of the organization's donation as more genuine or authentic than organizations that made donations but did not mention employee involvement. The qualitative research study by McShane and Cunningham (2012) that was discussed earlier, also found that when organizations solicited suggestions and ideas from employees, or provided opportunities for employees to vote on which social causes to support, they reported that the organization's CSR was more personally meaningful and emotionally engaging for them. Involving employees in the CSR process may also help promote a sense of fairness in the organization and fulfill employees'

needs for control, belongingness, and meaningful existence (H.-R. Kim et al., 2010; Rupp et al., 2006). Indeed, Rupp, Shao, Skarlicki, et al. (2013) found that when employees experienced greater CSR-related self-determination (i.e., feeling a sense of volition about involving themselves in the company's CSR activities), their perceptions of their organization's CSR activities were associated with greater reports of work engagement. Relatedly, H.-R. Kim and colleagues found that employees who had opportunities to voice their opinions and work together on CSR initiatives reported greater identification with their organization. Affording employees the autonomy to choose how best to allocate the organization's resources on CSR could be perceived as a symbol of trust in employees by management (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). When employees feel trusted by management, they are more likely to feel personally responsible for the performance of their organization (Salamon & Robinson, 2008), and are also likely to reciprocate trust in management (Hansen et al., 2011; Hillenbrand et al., 2013; Lusher, Robins, Pattison, & Lomi, 2012).

Although involving employees in CSR has many benefits, it is important to recognize that these benefits will not be realized unless management is actively involved in the CSR process as well (and ideally, also expresses a high level of engagement; McShane & Cunningham, 2012). The importance of mutual involvement is perhaps best illustrated by the leadership literature which has shown charismatic or transformational leadership, which is quite participatory in nature, to be far superior to the hands off and disengaged laissez-faire leadership style (also known as 'nonleadership'; Barling, Christie, & Hoption, 2011). This is clearly demonstrated by Vlachos, Panagopoulos, and Rapp (2013) who found that employees' perceptions of their leader's charisma was positively related to intrinsic attributions of their organization's CSR. This notion is also supported by a number of other studies linking positive

leader characteristics and actions (e.g., CSR commitment and encouragement) to both macro-and micro-level CSR outcomes (for a review, see Christensen, Mackey, & Whetten, 2014). In contrast, employees working under the supervision of a laissez-faire manager are provided a substantial amount of autonomy, but laissez-faire managers often avoid leadership responsibility and can actually create problems such as role conflict or role ambiguity in the workplace (Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, & Hetland, 2007). While the most extreme laissez-faire managers would be unlikely to last long in their positions, it is actually not uncommon for management to take somewhat of a laissez-faire approach to their organization's CSR. Some organizations delegate all responsibility for its CSR to a select few individuals or a specific department (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013; McShane & Cunningham, 2012). This not only indicates that management is disengaged from the CSR process, but may also take any real responsibility or autonomy for CSR out of the hands of employees. Additionally, relegating an organization's CSR activities to the periphery takes them off the agenda of management (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013) and is unlikely to provide the organization with any legitimacy in the eyes of stakeholders or benefit employees. Indeed, based on research evidence from her longitudinal ethnographic study, Bansal (2003) argues that for organizations to respond to environmental issues quickly and effectively, they must be aligned with the values of the organization and the individual concerns of employees. If only one (or neither) of these aspects is present, then an organizational response is much less likely to occur. This illustrates the importance of mutual support of CSR from management and employees: a lack of involvement or concern from either of these groups likely undermines the efforts and interests of the other.

In light of this, the following conceptual description of employee involvement in CSR is provided: employee involvement in CSR possesses two main aspects: 1) involving employees in

the development of CSR, and 2) having employees participate in the implementation of CSR.

Employee involvement in CSR is tantamount to a participative approach to leadership such that

employees are provided with CSR-related autonomy, and their voices/suggestions are heard.

To summarize, giving employees the autonomy and support to develop and participate in

CSR is likely to lead to the most positive outcomes for both the organization and employees.

Doing so is likely to fulfill employees' needs, promote perceptions of trust and fairness in the

organization, make CSR more personally meaningful for employees, and lead to greater

employee work engagement. Participation and support from management is also an important

component of realizing the benefits of CSR activities. Effective CSR leadership is likely to foster

greater perceptions of intrinsic attributions of CSR whereas more of a dismissive or laissez-faire

approach would challenge the organization's legitimacy as a socially responsible entity.

CSR Feature 4: CSR Proactivity

The degree to which organizations have a proactive orientation towards CSR is a

commonly discussed concept in the literature and is likely to have significant implications for

how CSR is perceived by others. With its roots in motivation theory, proactive behavior can

apply to any domain, and is particularly germane to the study of CSR given that it is anticipatory

(i.e., involves acting in advance of a particular event), and is intended to have an impact or make

a difference of some kind (Grant & Ashford, 2008). Carroll (1979) addresses CSR proactivity

when he discusses organizations' philosophies of responsiveness, which refers to the willingness

and capacity of management to act in response to social pressures. As mentioned previously, he

briefly summarizes earlier work and conceptualizes corporate social *responsiveness* or "CSR$_2$"

as a continuum which ranges from "do nothing" to "do much". Organizations at the lower end of

the continuum are likely to react in a more negative way to social pressures by withdrawing or

adopting a defensive posture, choosing to resist or fight against the pressures, whereas organizations at the other end of the continuum are the most proactive, choosing to be progressive problem-solvers or striving to be industry leaders in their field. Organizations falling somewhere in the middle of these two poles quietly accommodate social pressures or do what is legally required of them. Contemporary research conceptualizes organizational responsiveness in a similar way, ranging from defensiveness or unwillingness to a more open, proactive stance (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Basu & Palazzo, 2008).

Empirical research commonly operationalizes reactive CSR as a response to a negative or unexpected economic, social, or environmental event (e.g., layoffs, natural disasters, regulatory requirements), and proactive CSR as preempting, or having no ties to, such events (Torugsa et al., 2013). Generally, extant research suggests that a proactive approach to CSR is superior to a reactive approach in the eyes of stakeholders. This research has primarily stemmed from the marketing literature where proactive CSR is considered to be an effective form of impression management if utilized correctly. Accordingly, consumers are the most frequently studied stakeholder group, although employees' reactions have been studied to some degree as well. Becker-Olsen et al. (2006) ran an experimental study and found that when organizations engage in CSR as a response to some negative event associated with the company, consumers were likely to generate more thoughts (i.e., engage in more detailed cognitive processing) about the issue and attribute the behavior of the organization to selfish and profit-driven motives. Consumers were also inclined to blame the organizations for the negative events and less likely to buy the organization's products. On the other hand, when the same organization engaged in the same CSR actions without any prior negative event, consumers engaged in less detailed cognitive processing, and their thoughts about the CSR were significantly more positive, leading

to an increase in purchase intentions. This is consistent with the notion that people tend to spend more time thinking about, and searching for the causes behind, negative behaviors than positive behaviors (Lange & Washburn, 2012), which suggests that reactive CSR is likely to be scrutinized closely, particularly after an occurrence of corporate irresponsibility. Groza and colleagues (2011) ran two very similar experiments to Becker-Olsen et al. and also found proactive CSR to result in more favorable consumer attitudes. Specifically, organizations that engaged in a CSR initiative as a response to an environmental issue caused by the company were more likely to be perceived by consumers as acting in response to stakeholder pressure. On the other hand, organizations that voluntarily donated money to remedy an environmental issue were perceived as engaging in CSR for values-driven and/or strategic motives (i.e., a win-win motive). These two attributions were found to be positively related to favorable attitudes about the organization and greater purchase intentions, whereas stakeholder-driven attributions were negatively related to these two variables.

The above research indicates that CSR is viewed favourably when it is not tied to (or at least preempts) a negative event, but it is important to recognize that maintaining a positive reputation is a continuous process. As stakeholder expectations and governmental regulations evolve over time, so must organizations' CSR activities. Qualitative studies by Bertels and Peloza (2008) and McShane and Cunningham (2012) address this issue directly. Based on a series of 16 interviews with senior executives in a variety of organizations, Bertels and Peloza outline a model of "CSR creep." They assert that CSR creep occurs when organizations (particularly in industries stigmatized as being socially irresponsible) continuously improve their CSR activities as a response to stakeholder scrutiny and increasing pressures from competitors who are also seeking legitimacy in their industry through CSR. This results in a cycle of

ratcheting (or continuously rising) CSR expectations from stakeholders and frequent shifts in which organization(s) holds the position of industry leader. While Bertels and Peloza's model pertains to a context where CSR is constantly improved purely as a reaction to increasing expectations, their model speaks to the need for continuous improvement in CSR if an organization wishes to consistently glean the reputational benefits of being socially responsible. Additionally, McShane and Cunningham found that the employees they interviewed viewed their organization as most authentic when they engaged in CSR initiatives that developed and grew over time, and pushed traditional boundaries of what it means to be socially responsible. This helps illustrate that for CSR to be truly proactive, organizations must also seek to achieve real social impact or change (Grant & Ashford, 2008), rather than simply defend itself against increasing expectations or competition.

Thus, the following conceptual description of proactive CSR is provided: proactive CSR is future-focused and anticipatory (i.e., involves planning ahead or acting in advance), and conscious or mindful. It is also change-oriented such that it is intended to have an impact or make a difference of some kind. Additionally, proactive CSR initiatives develop and grow over time and push traditional boundaries of what it means to be socially responsible. In contrast, reactive CSR occurs as a response to some form of pressure or event and changes or evolves only as needed.

To summarize, research on CSR proactivity indicates when CSR isn't tied to (or preempts) a negative event, it is more likely to lead stakeholders to perceive CSR as values-driven and strategic. On the other hand, engaging in CSR after a salient and relevant event is likely to be viewed as reactive and due to stakeholder pressure. However, proactive CSR constitutes more than simply acting first or preempting a negative event to buffer against

negative reputation. It involves consistently going beyond expectations to make a positive impact.

Website Review and Summary

In order to determine if the four CSR features described above could be identified outside of the literature, the CSR and sustainability webpages of Canada's list of top 50 SMEs (http://www.canadastop100.com/sme/) were examined. To qualify for the review, organizations were required to possess some form of CSR, community outreach, or sustainability webpage. Of the 50 firms on the list, 35 had CSR-related pages. The review used the four CSR features outlined above as an initial classification system. Each company website was coded in terms of the presence or absence of each CSR feature. Features were coded as *present* when the organization claimed that their CSR activities possessed that particular attribute. For example, proactivity was coded as present if an organization purported to be an industry leader of CSR, or if they claimed to constantly strive to improve/innovate in a particular area of CSR. Features were coded as *absent* if there was no clear indication that the feature was present. Even if a company possessed other features implying the presence of the feature in question, the feature was still coded as absent (e.g., industry leadership might imply a long-term commitment to CSR). This distinction was important to make because helped minimize the subjectivity of the coding scheme and avoided assumptions about the presence or absence of features based on other characteristics of the organization.

Of the 35 CSR pages reviewed, nine (26%) described CSR activities that aligned closely with the identity of the organization, 25 (71%) described the organization's commitment to CSR, 27 (77%) claimed to (or provided evidence of) employee CSR involvement, and six (17%) reported adopting a proactive stance towards CSR. Accordingly, the results of the review

revealed that all four CSR features identified in the literature were present on at least several webpages.

To summarize, my review of the academic CSR literature and of organizations' CSR webpages helped identify four features of CSR that likely play an important role in influencing the attitudes of stakeholders, particularly employees and job-seekers. While there are clearly more CSR features that could be relevant to the current research, the four identified above are most frequently mentioned in the literature and are sufficient to demonstrate the utility of a feature-based approach to studying CSR. Next, attribution theories are described and accompanied by a review of attributions research in the CSR literature to establish the groundwork for the hypotheses of my research.

CSR and Attributions

"People care less about what others do than why they do it." (Gilbert & Malone, 1995, p. 21)

Attribution theories have received a lot of attention in the psychological literature in general, but have only recently been applied to the CSR literature. Attributions are individuals' personal causal explanations, or lay theories, for why a target behaved in a particular way and are important because they are assumed to play a central role in influencing human behaviour (Kelley & Michela, 1980). The target of an attribution is typically an individual, but scholars have argued that the process of forming attributions is the same for social groups, provided that the group is perceived as high in "entitativity" or bonded together as a coherent unit (Lange & Washburn, 2012; Lickel et al., 2000). An organization is a distinct and unified entity comprised of individuals working towards a shared purpose or vision, and is likely to be treated the same way as an individual would in the attribution-making process (Lange & Washburn, 2012). Applied to the current research, it is likely that the attributions that employees and job-seekers

make about an organization's CSR will affect how they perceive, and behave in relation to, that organization.

Classic attribution theories make the distinction between internal and external attributions. Individuals who have made an internal attribution believe that their target acted in a particular way out of their own volition (or in the case of organizations, driven to act by management), whereas those making external attributions believe that the behavior was due to external causes outside of the target's control (Kelley & Michela, 1980). Another distinction has been made between extrinsic (i.e., motivated by environmental factors) and intrinsic attributions (i.e., motivated by internal factors). Despite the similarities of these labels, instead of focusing on the question of volition, extrinsic and intrinsic attributions focus on whether the target's behavior is considered opportunistic or genuine, respectively (Parguel et al., 2011). Attribution theories argue that the more socially desirable a particular behaviour is, the more likely individuals are to make extrinsic attributions about that behaviour (Parguel et al., 2011). Given that CSR is highly socially desirable in today's society, observers must have convincing information to draw on if they are to believe that an organization's CSR activities are truly genuine or authentic.

More recent research in the marketing literature has expanded on these classifications of attributions to suggest that four types of causal inferences or attributions can occur in relation to how consumers view companies' CSR (Ellen et al., 2006; Skarmeas & Leonidou, 2013; Vázquez, Lanero, Alves, Gutiérrez, & García, 2012; Vlachos et al., 2009). These attributions have been classified as values-driven (i.e., the organization genuinely cares about the cause), stakeholder-driven (i.e., the organization is helping in response to customer, employee, or societal expectations), egoistic (i.e., the organization is exploiting the cause for personal gain without intentions to help it), and strategic (i.e., the organization is seeking to achieve business

objectives by supporting the cause). Stakeholder-driven attributions are a form of external attribution, whereas values-driven, egoistic, and strategic attributions can all be classified as internal attributions because they are all volitional in nature. However, these three types of internal attributions are likely to have differing implications for the perceiver's evaluations of the target because they assign different *motives* behind the target's behavior. Specifically, values-driven attributions are intrinsic (i.e., motivated by an inherent desire to do good), egoistic attributions are extrinsic (i.e., motivated by tangible rewards; not to be confused with external attributions, which are non-volitional), and strategic attributions are a hybrid of both (i.e., win-win).

These four types of attributions about organizations' CSR activities have been found to be differentially related to important outcomes such as consumer trust in the organization (Vlachos et al., 2009), customer purchase intentions (Ellen et al., 2006) and CSR skepticism, which is subsequently related to customer word-of-mouth (Skarmeas & Leonidou, 2013). The research evidence so far suggests that values-driven attributions about CSR lead to the most favorable outcomes, followed by strategic attributions, which have a mix of positive and neutral relationships with such outcomes. In contrast, stakeholder-driven and egoistic attributions lead to more negative outcomes, with the latter type of attributions being the least favorable. Although these types of attributions have been primarily studied in consumers, it is reasonable to expect that employees and job-seekers would make similar attributions of an organization's CSR. Consumers and job-seekers are both external to the target organization (and an individual can hold both roles simultaneously), so their attribution processes are likely comparable; one exception is that job applicants may have somewhat more information to draw on about the organization from researching what it would be like to work there. In contrast, given that

employees are internal to the organization and hold more knowledge about it than the typical

consumer or job-seeker, it is reasonable to expect that their CSR attributions may be more

complex. Specifically, as internal stakeholders of the organization, employees may be motivated

to distinguish between internal and external stakeholder-driven attributions (e.g., employee-

driven vs. consumer-driven, respectively). Although current evidence suggests that stakeholder-

driven attributions are related to negative outcomes, it is possible that when organizations

respond to demands from internal stakeholders, employees would perceive such actions as a

form of support from the organization which employees may be inclined to reciprocate with

positive work behaviours (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001). In

contrast, when an organization makes concessions to external stakeholders such as customers or

social activists, employees may perceive that the organization is not genuinely interested in

furthering a social cause, and simply seeks to gain legitimacy, or minimize damage to its

reputation and profitability.

As mentioned previously, it is argued that CSR features are likely to possess more

explanatory value relating to the motives of the organization than CSR content would alone. This

argument is rooted in attribution theories. Specifically, Kelley and Michela (1980) indicate that

one of the major antecedents of the formation of attributions is information that assists in

identifying the disposition of the target and the underlying causes of their behavior. While classic

attribution theories have provided some suggestions for types of information that individuals

draw on (e.g., perceived power of target), my research argues that CSR features constitute a

useful source of information that individuals are likely to draw on to help them form attributions

about the precipitating causes of an organization's CSR behaviour (Kelley & Michela, 1980).

Although not specifically used in my research, it is noteworthy to mention Kelley's (1967) covariation model, which presents three relevant pieces of information that people are likely to use in concert to help them form attributions about a target. These pieces of information closely resemble what could be considered relevant features of CSR. Specifically, Kelley describes how consistent the target's action is with the actions of other individuals (consensus), how consistent the target's actions are over time in the same circumstances (consistency), and the degree to which the target's action is distinct from their behaviour in other situations (distinctiveness). In a recent commentary, Vlachos, Epitropaki, et al. (2013) briefly outline how these three pieces of information could lead to internal or external causal attributions about an organization's embedded CSR. Specifically, they outline two scenarios in which the focal organization performs responsibly across multiple domains such as sustainability and HR practices (low distinctiveness), and across time (high consistency). The two example scenarios differ only in terms of whether other organizations are performing equally well as the focal organization in terms of CSR (high consensus) or not performing equally responsibly (low consensus). Vlachos and colleagues argue that the former scenario would lead to causal attributions that are primarily external in nature (e.g., the organization's CSR has occurred because of the situation or competitive pressures), whereas the latter scenario would lead to internal attributions (e.g., the organization *wants* to engage in CSR). Although quite brief, this work helps illustrate the value of attribution theory for understanding the impact that the context surrounding CSR (rather than the activity itself) is likely to have on employees.

I argue that the CSR features identified in the previous section are useful pieces of information that could aid job applicants and employees in forming attributions, much like the concepts of consensus, consistency, and distinctiveness. In fact, some of the CSR features

identified in the literature overlap with these concepts to a degree. For example, the concept of

consensus as applied to CSR is likely one indicator of how proactive an organization is when it

comes to CSR. In situations of low consensus, the target organization is engaging in CSR,

whereas comparator organizations are not. This implies that (for at least one point in time) the

target organization has proactively engaged in a particular CSR activity that other organizations

have not yet emulated. Given that low consensus is one condition that can contribute to

observers' internal causal attributions (i.e., the individual or organization acted volitionally),

proactivity, when combined with other positive features of CSR, could be likely to lead to more

positive, values-driven attributions. This notion is consistent with Carroll's (1979)

conceptualization of highly responsive organizations that choose to be proactive in their

orientation towards social pressures. Reliable attributions are unlikely to be formed solely

through one instance of proactive CSR, however. In fact, if an organization is inconsistently

proactive about their CSR activity, it is possible they may be viewed as acting opportunistically

(which would result in more egoistic attributions). Another parallel can be drawn between

commitment to CSR and consistency. Engaging in CSR consistently over time, particularly

through challenging situations (e.g., an economic downturn), is a clear indicator of an

organization's commitment to a cause or activity and would likely result in individuals making

an internal attribution about the organization's behavior.

While the above paragraphs build a brief case for how CSR features are likely to lead to

certain kinds of attributions, a more comprehensive discussion is provided later on.

CSR, Organizational Commitment, and Organizational Attraction

The micro-level literature studying the relationship between CSR on the one hand, and

organizational commitment and attraction on the other hand is relatively young and limited in

scope, but has quickly gained momentum. Although organizational commitment and attraction are distinct concepts and are used when studying different populations (employees and job-seekers, respectively), I discuss them in the same section because both literatures possess a number of parallels in relation to CSR that can be most clearly seen when explained in tandem. Specifically, both streams of research: 1) consistently find that CSR is positively related to commitment or attraction; 2) frequently draw on the same theories to explain why CSR positively relates to their respective outcomes; and 3) suffer from the same limitations due to assumptions made about CSR. These parallels are discussed after organizational commitment and attraction are defined.

As touched on earlier, the organizational commitment of employees has been most commonly defined using the TCM of commitment (J. P. Meyer & Allen, 1991), which is comprised of affective commitment (AC), continuance commitment (CC), and normative commitment (NC). Meyer and Allen originally proposed different antecedents for each form of commitment. Specifically, AC was predicted by work experiences (which are anteceded by organizational characteristics) and personal characteristics, CC by investments or "side bets" (Becker, 1960) made by the individual that would be lost upon leaving the organization and a lack of job alternatives, and NC by the socialization process and organizational investments (e.g., paying for employee tuition or training). Since then, many more antecedents of the TCM have been identified, and it has been shown that the three forms of commitment share many of the same antecedents (J. P. Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Clearly, an organization's CSR activities fall within the purview of individuals' perceptions of the organization, which affects individuals' work experiences. CSR could also be perceived by employees as a form of organizational investment in employees, particularly when it meets

employees' psychological needs (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013; Rupp et al., 2006) or fosters the development of skills (Basil et al., 2009).

Organizational attraction can be broadly defined as a potential job-seeker's (or job applicant's) view of the organization as a positive place to work (Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005; Rynes, 1991). Numerous operationalizations of attraction fall under the umbrella of this definition such as the experience of positive affect and attitudes directed at the organization, intentions to apply or accept an interview with the organization, taking concrete steps to apply for a job with the organization, and the probability of, or the actual acceptance of a job offer (Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005). Ehrhart and Ziegert provide a helpful summary and integration of the theories explaining why people are attracted to organizations. Broadly speaking, attraction can be predicted by individuals' perceptions of the environment (e.g., organizational characteristics, recruiter characteristics, recruitment activities), and individuals' perceptions of their fit with the organization. Again, CSR fits into this framework as an organizational characteristic that affects individuals' perceptions of the organization.

As mentioned earlier, organizations engaging in CSR activities (versus those that do not) are more likely to have committed employees (e.g., Brockner et al., 2014; Choi & Yu, 2014; Fu et al., 2014; Mueller et al., 2012; Peterson, 2004; Turker, 2009), and more likely to be viewed as attractive to job-seekers or potential job applicants (e.g., Albinger & Freeman, 2000; Backhaus, Stone, & Heiner, 2002; Evans & Davis, 2011; Greening & Turban, 2000; Gully, Phillips, Castellano, Han, & Kim, 2013; Marin & Ruiz, 2007). However, researchers have sought to identify some boundary conditions for when the CSR-commitment/attraction relationship is less likely to hold. These factors primarily fall into two categories: 1) individual differences such as value orientations, moral identity (Evans & Davis, 2011; Mueller et al., 2012; Rupp, Shao,

Thornton, et al., 2013), and degree of job choice (Albinger & Freeman, 2000), and 2) the relative

importance of the domain or stakeholder group in which CSR activities are performed (e.g.,

environmental, employee-centered, government; Turker, 2009; Wong & Gao, 2014). Regarding

individual differences, findings generally support the notion that the employees and job-seekers

who are most likely to appreciate an organization's CSR tend to view helping others as part of

who they are, value collectivism and low power distance, aspire to be compassionate, honest, and

kind, view CSR as important, and have a high degree of job choice. The contribution of this

research makes it clear that individual differences are important to take into account when

studying the relationship between CSR and the organizationally-relevant attitudes of employees

and job-seekers. In contrast, research seeking to evaluate the relative importance of CSR in

different domains has found that both populations tend to value CSR in almost every domain

(e.g., CSR benefitting community stakeholders, employees, or customers), with the exception of

CSR targeted towards satisfying government stakeholders (Wong & Gao, 2014). The reason for

individuals' differing views of government CSR is perhaps most readily explained by

considering that CSR intended to comply with government regulations probably isn't considered

as voluntary, prosocial, or even as CSR at all. Overall, this supports the notion that CSR

activities targeted to benefit various domains or stakeholder groups are part of a higher-order

construct (El Akremi et al., 2015), and suggests that differentiating between specific CSR

activities may not be necessary in micro-level research focusing on employees or job-seekers.

Another similarity between the CSR literature on commitment and attraction is that they

are both dominated by two inextricably linked theories explaining why CSR is effective for

attracting and retaining employees. Signaling theory (Rynes, 1991; Spence, 1973) argues that in

the context of a job market, employers and job-seekers both operate with a limited amount of

information, and consequently rely on "signals" to gain an indirect understanding of the

unobservable characteristics (e.g., the applicant will work hard, the organization has a positive

culture), and the intentions or motives of the respective party (Dögl & Holtbrügge, 2014). Thus,

there is clear complementarity between signaling and attribution theories in explaining how

individuals determine the favorability of their potential options. When dealing with limited

information about employers, job-seekers make their decisions based on signals such as

company-specific wage statistics, word-of-mouth reviews, recruiter characteristics and

behaviors, or (most notably) the organization's CSR activities. Specifically, CSR functions as a

signal to job-seekers about the reputation of the organization (Albinger & Freeman, 2000), and

as an indication of how the organization treats its stakeholders, including employees (Backhaus

et al., 2002; Rupp, Shao, Thornton, et al., 2013). Signaling theory also applies to current

employees of an organization who, like job-seekers, operate with imperfect and/or incomplete

information about their employer and rely on signals to infer their employer's reputation and

intentions (Dögl & Holtbrügge, 2014). For instance, Dögl & Holtbrügge found that green CSR

activities of organizations in both developed and emerging economies functioned as signals of

organizations' environmental reputation (as perceived by employees) and consequently predicted

employee commitment.

     Social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel, 1982) is another dominant

theoretical perspective in the literature that is closely tied to the use of signals to assess an

organization's reputation and working conditions. In essence, this theory argues that individuals

derive a positive social identity through their association with a prestigious and salient in-group

(in this case, as an employee of an organization with a distinct identity). It follows that when an

organization engages in socially responsible behavior, individuals will experience pride working

for an entity that is well-respected (and in turn, respect themselves), which consequently results in greater commitment to the organization (Turker, 2009). This pride is likely to be greatest when the values of the organization also fit with the values of the employee (Mueller et al., 2012). Relatedly, when job applicants see that an organization engages in CSR, the feeling of *anticipated* pride they expect to experience working for such an organization is what drives their attraction (D. A. Jones et al., 2014).

The literature described so far provides a helpful explanation for why CSR activities and perceptions in general result in greater organizational commitment and attraction. It has also provided some guidance in terms of who CSR is likely to positively affect and who it is not (e.g., based on value congruence). However, with few exceptions, the micro-level literature has consistently assumed that social responsible activities will be universally perceived as "good", or in a worst-case scenario, of relatively little importance when the perceiver's values do not align with CSR. As has been made clear in the previous sections, not all CSR programs and activities are perceived equally (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004; Bhattacharya, Sen, & Korschun, 2008). In the following chapter, I argue that employees' and job-seekers' attributions of organizations' CSR activities are likely to be the missing link in determining the favorability of these perceptions, and the features of a CSR initiative are important pieces of information that these individuals are likely to drawn upon to assist them in forming attributions.

CHAPTER 3: INTEGRATED THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF CSR FEATURES AND

ATTRIBUTIONS

Having described the necessary literature to set the groundwork for my research, this

chapter describes an integrative theoretical framework that draws on research and theory from a

variety of disciplines (e.g., I/O psychology, OB, management, marketing) to explain how

combinations of CSR features are likely to influence employee commitment and job-seeker

attraction, as mediated by CSR attributions and moderated by individual values. The two studies

of my dissertation test portions of this framework using different populations (employees and

potential job-seekers). Accordingly, this chapter contains general propositions intended to guide

the studies in my dissertation as well as future micro-level CSR research.

My framework proposes that CSR features should be considered together as specific

configurations or profiles because individuals are likely to consider pieces of information in

concert rather than in isolation when making attributions (Kelley, 1967; Kelley & Michela,

1980). Next, it is proposed that, as observers of an organization's CSR, employees and job-

seekers are likely to draw on CSR features which function as signals of an organization's

characteristics and motives or intentions, and thus aid these individuals in forming attributions

about the organization's CSR. Positive CSR attributions are likely to lead to feelings of

organizational commitment and attraction for employees and job-seekers, respectively, whereas

negative attributions are likely to decrease commitment/attraction. Additionally, the differential

effects of positive and negative attributions on commitment/attraction are likely stronger when

the individual making the attribution possesses a stronger moral identity and/or communal

orientation (Evans & Davis, 2011; D. A. Jones et al., 2014; Rupp, Shao, Thornton, et al., 2013).

A summary of this theoretical framework is presented in Figure 1, while more specific

theoretical predictions about which CSR feature combinations are likely to lead to particular

attributions and their subsequent outcomes are provided in Figure 2.

The theoretical framework depicted in Figure 1 illustrates how CSR content and features

are expected to influence employee and job-seeker attributions and attitudes, but may be adjusted

to highlight or include features, attributions, and outcomes that are relevant to other stakeholder

groups. When interpreting this figure, there are some preliminary considerations that must be

explained. First, it has already been established in the literature that individuals attribute motives

to the actions of organizations, including their CSR activities (Ellen et al., 2006; Skarmeas &

Leonidou, 2013). Thus, because CSR content is not the main focus of the model, the link

between this construct and CSR attributions is important to include, but does not necessarily

merit specific propositions. Second, the figure depicts CSR features as directly influencing

individuals' attributions (as implied in the discussion above), but also as moderating the

relationship between CSR content and individuals' CSR attributions. While not formally

hypothesized or tested in my dissertation, the ways in which CSR content and features could

potentially interact are important to acknowledge. Perhaps most important is that the model

assumes the target organization is engaging in *some* form of CSR activity. Without CSR content,

it is not possible to characterize the organization's behaviour through the lens of CSR features.

Additionally, although not directly addressed in my dissertation, it is possible that different CSR

activities may be more likely to possess certain features than others (e.g., given that it is

increasingly common for organizations to make donations to charity, such donations may rarely

be characterized as proactive; employee volunteer initiatives would always involve employees to

some extent). The following sections of this chapter discuss the model in more detail.

CSR Content
(e.g., donations, volunteerism)

CSR Features
Alignment with Identity
Commitment
Employee Involvement
Proactivity

CSR Attributions
Values Driven
Strategic
Stakeholder Driven
Egoistic

Organizational Commitment and Attraction

Individual Differences
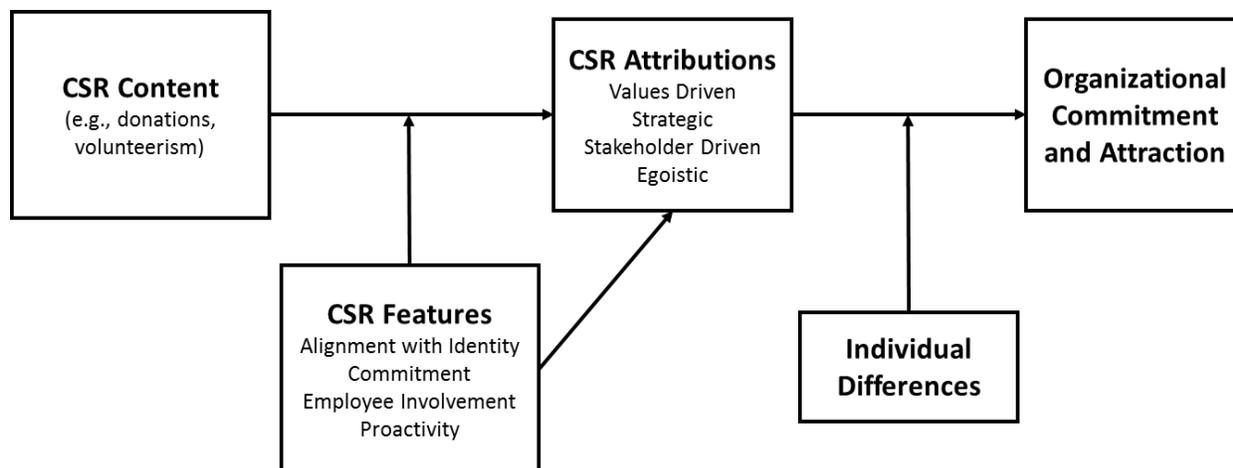
Figure 1. Integrated theoretical model of the influence of CSR content and features on organizational commitment and attraction, as mediated by CSR attributions, and moderated by individual differences.

Combining CSR Features

In a recent paper, Basu and Palazzo (2008) argued that future research should consider developing a taxonomy of "contextual configurations" of CSR dimensions, that would likely help form a rich context from which the character of an organization's CSR could be determined. Following this, I argue that the most meaningful relationships between CSR features and employee and job-seeker attributions (and commitment and attraction, by association) are likely to be found when CSR features are considered in combination, as opposed to in isolation. Accordingly, I utilize a theoretical mindset based on the "person-centered" approach described by Zyphur (2009) and found in the contemporary literature on organizational commitment (J. P. Meyer, Stanley, et al., 2013; Morin, Morizot, Boudrias, & Madore, 2010). While most CSR research takes a variable-centered approach to understanding how CSR relates to outcomes, applying a person-centered (or organization-centered) approach jointly considers how several variables combine to form what can be referred to as types, classes, or profiles (Zyphur, 2009).

This approach to theory-building is a suitable way of studying how CSR features influence employees and job-seekers because they arguably function as a coherent and interdependent system of variables that are likely to covary in meaningful ways (Zyphur, 2009).

When CSR features are evaluated on their own, their meaning may be somewhat ambiguous or unclear. However, when these features are considered in concert, a richer understanding of the causes of an organization's CSR behaviour (i.e., attributions) can be gleaned. For example, as briefly described in the previous chapter, short spurts of proactive CSR are likely to be perceived very differently than a sustained commitment to being an industry leader in CSR (i.e., a prolonged period of proactivity). Thus, considered on its own an organization's CSR proactivity holds less meaning. Similarly, the amount of employee involvement in an organization's CSR is not enough information on its own to help individuals form clear causal attributions. By definition, employee volunteer initiatives involve the participation of employees, but vary in terms of how much support or resource commitment they receive from the organization (e.g., paid volunteer time, training), may or may not align with the identity of the organization, and may or may not be characterized by proactivity. These other factors could easily change individuals' perceptions of the volunteer initiative as genuine and values-driven or as a result of pressure from internal stakeholders. This is consistent with Kelley's (1967) covariation model, as well as more recent applications of attribution theories to CSR (S. Kim & Lee, 2012; Vlachos, Epitropaki, et al., 2013), where a target behavior is evaluated by simultaneously assessing multiple contextual factors (e.g., consensus, consistency, and distinctiveness) in order to form attributions. Accordingly, it is proposed that:

Proposition 1. *Organizations' CSR features will combine to form distinct profiles.*

CSR Features and Attributions

The remainder of this chapter offers more detailed predictions of how these four CSR

features will combine to form distinct profiles or configurations (A. D. Meyer et al., 1993),

which are argued to influence individuals' CSR attributions, specifically: values-driven,

strategic, stakeholder-driven (internal and external), and egoistic attributions. It should be noted

that the language of the propositions are intended to be consistent with research by Ellen et al.

(2006), which found that individuals can hold multiple attributions of an organization's

behaviour simultaneously. As such, propositions refer to the *primary* attribution associated with

each combination of CSR features, rather than assuming individuals will make only one

attribution. Furthermore, the theoretical propositions are worded to reflect the attributions that

individuals *in general* are likely to make to explain organizations' CSR activities. Specific

predictions about any potential differences between employee and job-seeker CSR attributions

are not made. A summary of these propositions is provided in Figure 2.

Values-Driven Attributions

CSR that is perceived as values-driven is characterized by benevolently-motivated

activity that is in line with the "true feelings" of the organization (Vlachos et al., 2009).

Individuals making values-driven attributions of organizations' CSR believe that the

organization genuinely wants to contribute to society and help others, and may closely identify

with the groups they are supporting. Such CSR may also stem from a moral calling to do the

right thing (Ellen et al., 2006). Accordingly, I argue that attributions of values-driven CSR are

most likely to occur when an organization is: 1) engaging in CSR that is at least moderately

consistent with its identity (particularly in terms of core values), 2) highly committed to CSR, 3)

closely involves its employees in the development and implementation of CSR, and 4) seeks to proactively make a positive impact by continuously improving and developing its CSR activities.
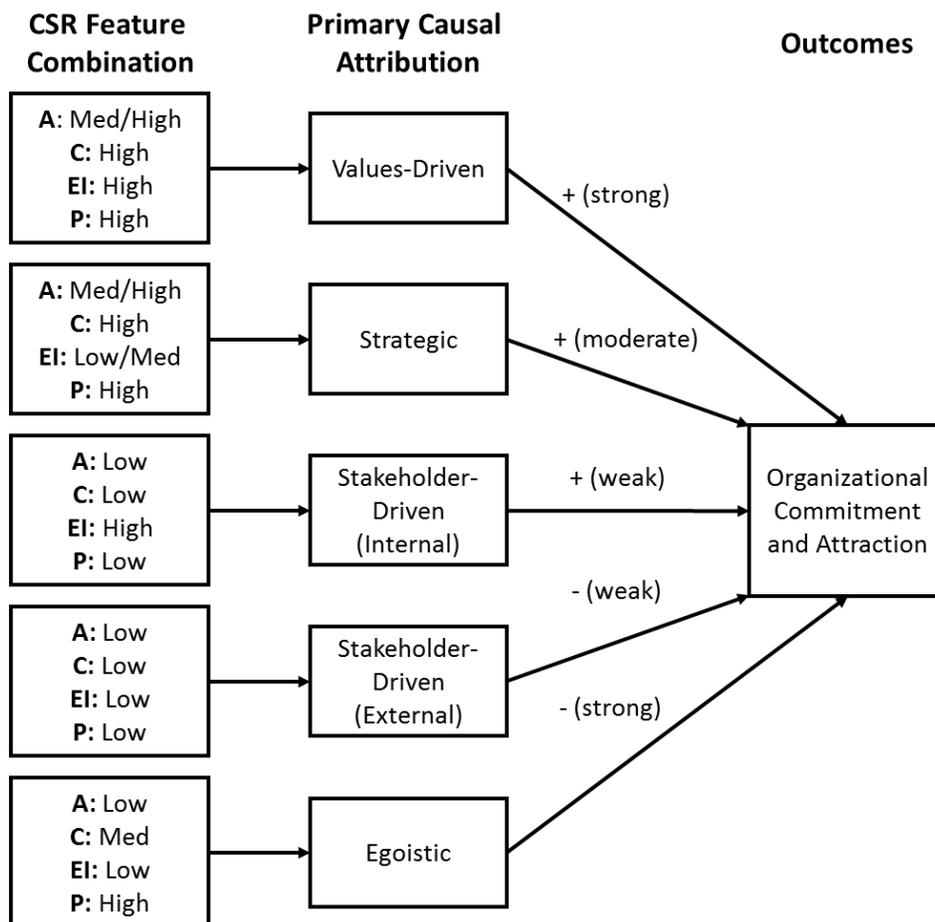
Figure 2. Summary of the proposed relationships among CSR feature profiles, individuals' causal attributions of CSR, and organizational commitment and attraction. Note. A=alignment with organizational identity; C=commitment; EI=employee involvement; P=proactivity.

Organizations that define their identities in terms of socially responsible behavior are most likely to be perceived as engaging in CSR that is values-driven. Such an organization may have a relational or collectivistic identity; both are highly aligned with the concept of CSR, although collectivistic identities are more closely aligned, because they are characterized by a

desire to "do good" and help others (Brickson, 2007). Such an identity would be less focused on profit maximization (although would recognize the necessity of revenue generation) and more focused on giving back to society in a way that is meaningful and sustainable. This identity could be reflected in the values publically espoused by the organization and in the workplace culture, but would also manifest itself through committing time and resources to CSR, and engaging in intentional and proactive behavior intended to have a positive impact on society. Organizations truly committed to social responsibility favour hiring employees who share the same vision, and would strive to give those employees a voice in the process and implementation of CSR.

Part of an organization's identity and how it differentiates itself may also come from its products and strategy (Brickson, 2007). However, CSR need not align with the strategic part of the organization's identity to be viewed as values-driven. For example, General Electric (GE) contributed between $250,000 and $1 million annually over five years to assist underperforming public schools near major GE offices. GE managers and employees actively participated in the program by working with administrators to assess needs and personally mentor students. Furthermore, rather than simply throwing money at the program, its effectiveness was evaluated and it was found that graduation rates doubled from an average of 30% to 60% (Porter & Kramer, 2006). This initiative was not directly aligned with GE's core business strategy of being an innovative provider of products and services, but was not out of character for the company (in terms of its values and culture) and constituted a concerted effort to provide a tangible contribution to the community that supports it. Furthermore, GE did not directly benefit from this initiative financially, which would likely further reinforce the perception that its CSR was values-driven. In fact, higher strategic alignment but a lack of identity alignment in terms of values and public reputation could work against the organization. For example, a study by

Szykman, Bloom, and Blazing (2004) found that individuals ascribed other-serving motives to an anti-drinking and driving advertisement when it was sponsored by a non-profit organization (i.e., Mothers Against Drunk Driving). However, participants ascribed self-serving motives to the same ad when they were told it was sponsored by a for-profit organization in the brewing industry (i.e., Budweiser).

Furthermore, for CSR to be viewed as values-driven the organization must also demonstrate a commitment signifying that it authentically seeks to create positive change, and will not withdraw its efforts during difficult times, or simply because it has "done enough" for a particular cause. This type of moral commitment by organizations has a suitable analog in the organizational commitment literature. Specifically, an individual who is simultaneously affectively (i.e., emotionally) and normatively (i.e., obligatorily) committed to a particular target (such as an organization-sponsored cause; Bingham, Mitchell, Bishop, & Allen, 2013) is called to action by a sense of duty or moral imperative, where the individual wants to do something and also believes it is the right thing to do (Gellatly et al., 2006; J. P. Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010). In employees, such a commitment is characterized by a very strong intention to remain with the organization (J. P. Meyer, Kam, et al., 2013), and effort that goes above and beyond what is required of them at work (Gellatly et al., 2006). By association, organizations morally committed to CSR would go beyond what is expected by stakeholders and remain committed to the cause for a long period of time. In support of this, exploratory research by Green and Peloza (2014) found that consumers expected large organizations to dedicate a significant amount of resources to CSR consistently over time, and articulated values-driven attributions of the organization's CSR when it did so (e.g., Tim Hortons' ongoing commitment to Camp Day each year).

Additionally, an organization that is truly committed to being socially responsible is likely to be run by individuals who actively champion such issues and would seek to involve others as much as possible. Such organizations would also attract and hire like-minded individuals who fit with its values (Cable & Judge, 1996; Schneider, 1987), making it easier to find people who have an interest in getting involved in the planning and implementation of CSR. In such an organization, CSR-related issues would be an important part of the agenda of executive and board meetings, and employees would be given the opportunity, and resources, to help devise plans to solve CSR issues. An organization's willingness to spare the time and effort of important personnel to help a cause (and compensate them for it) indicates that the cause is truly important to the organization and fits with its values (Bansal, 2003).

Finally, values-driven CSR would also be characterized by proactivity in the sense that the activities would be intended to make a positive impact on society and not occur as a reaction to pressure or negative events. For CSR to be perceived as values-driven, the organization need not be an industry leader or act before other organizations, but may end up in such a position as a byproduct of striving to improve its CSR programs and generate positive change based on an intrinsic motivation to find new and more effective ways of helping others.

Proposition 2. *Individuals will primarily make values-driven attributions of CSR when an organization (a) engages in CSR that is consistent with its identity (at least in terms of its core values and reputation), (b) displays a strong commitment to CSR, (c) closely involves its employees in the development and implementation of CSR, and (d) adopts a proactive orientation toward CSR.*

Strategic Attributions

When individuals make strategic attributions about CSR, they view the organization as having a win-win approach to socially responsible behavior. Such an approach frames the relationship between business and society as one of interdependence, not opposition (Porter & Kramer, 2006). This perspective recognizes that society benefits from the products and services that organizations provide, but also acknowledges that the health of organizations is closely tied to the communities they are a part of. Accordingly, although strategic CSR activities offer clear benefits to the organization, they are similar to values-driven CSR activities in the sense that they also offer clear and direct benefits for society. This is perhaps why consumers' strategic attributions of CSR are still associated with positive outcomes, even though the CSR activities are not perceived as completely altruistic (Ellen et al., 2006; Skarmeas & Leonidou, 2013). Organizations engaging in strategic CSR may also feel responsible to do so because they recognize that they are best equipped to tackle social issues that are in line with their core capabilities (Porter & Kramer, 2006). For example, a Canadian financial services organization may choose to donate money to help fund HIV/AIDS research, but pharmaceutical companies are arguably in a better position strategically to handle such an issue. I argue that attributions of strategic CSR are most likely to occur when an organization's CSR is highly consistent with how it defines its identity in terms of products and strategy (but not necessarily in terms of its core values and reputation), the organization is committed to the CSR, potentially involves employees in the implementation of CSR (but not in its development), and seeks to differentiate itself and make an impact through proactive and innovative CSR.

First, it is perhaps most obvious to note that individuals would be most likely to make strategic attributions about an organization's CSR when there is a significant alignment between

the organization's CSR activities and how it differentiates itself in terms of its products or strategy (which are components of identity). A deeply ingrained alignment among the organization's culture, values, and CSR is likely to be of secondary importance to the individual forming a strategic attribution, provided that they are not highly inconsistent with the organization's CSR activities. For example, Torelli, Monga, and Kaikati (2012) found that consumers experience a sense of unease or disfluency when an organization communicates about its CSR activities but possesses a brand associated with self-enhancement values (i.e., representing dominance over people and resources). This disfluency resulted in a negative evaluation of the organization's CSR. However, this negative evaluation did not occur when the organization's brand was associated with values that were unrelated to CSR (e.g., openness, conservation).

Individuals are also likely to make strategic CSR attributions when the organization demonstrates a significant commitment to its CSR activities. For CSR to be integrated with, and central to the organization's strategy, the organization must commit a substantial amount of resources to integrating CSR into the organization's core capabilities and operations (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013), or at the very least, leverage existing resources (e.g., equipment, industry connections, expertise) that are relevant to the intended CSR activities (Tang et al., 2012). This is a difficult process to reverse, which implies that the organization will remain committed to its CSR activities over time (at the very least, out of obligation).

When CSR is aligned with the strategy of the organization, it is also more likely to be an important issue on the agenda of top management. This ensures that CSR is integrated into the roles of the top management team, and potentially through the organization's performance appraisal, measurement, and compensation practices (Strandberg, 2009). As an example, for

CSR to be of strategic benefit to the firm, research by Tang et al. (2012) has demonstrated that management should devise a careful CSR engagement strategy that takes into account the pace and consistency of CSR, as well as pursue related CSR activities and leverage existing assets. In this case, CSR may be a part of the daily lives of employees, but would be more likely to be viewed as strategic when its development and planning were in the hands of management.

Finally, strategic CSR attributions are also likely linked to proactive CSR. The first-mover advantage is an oft-discussed concept in strategy research. Some firms differentiate themselves strategically through innovation, and when CSR and strategy are closely aligned, this "first to market" type of proactivity can apply to CSR. Indeed, organizations are more likely to reap the benefits of a CSR initiative (e.g., financial performance, reputation) and distinguish themselves from competitors if they are the first to act (Burke & Logsdon, 1996). Additionally, once an organization has raised the bar to become an industry leader, other organizations are expected to follow under potentially less-than-ideal circumstances (Bertels & Peloza, 2008). An example of a strategically-motivated CSR initiative can also be found by looking to GE. GE's "Ecomagination" program is a broad and comprehensive socially responsible initiative intended to foster the development of innovative solutions to meet environmental problems (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013). Ecomagination is highly congruent with GE's strategy and identity as an innovator, utilizes a great deal of resources, touches on the daily lives of employees (but is spearheaded by management), and is a unique and distinctive initiative that breaks new ground. Accordingly, the following proposition is put forward:

Proposition 3. *Individuals will primarily make strategic attributions of CSR when an organization (a) engages in CSR that is consistent with its identity (at least in terms of its*

products and strategy), (b) displays a strong commitment to CSR, (c) involves employees only in the implementation of CSR, and (d) adopts a proactive orientation toward CSR.

Stakeholder-Driven Attributions

Ellen et al. (2006) describe stakeholder-driven attributions of CSR as beliefs that an organization is engaging in socially responsible behaviour because various groups (e.g., shareholders, customers, employees, society in general) expect it. Given that Ellen and colleagues' focus is on consumers and my dissertation focuses on employees and job-seekers, I divided this category into two more specific attributions that I argue are likely to have different implications for how employees in particular may view and respond to an organization's CSR: internal and external stakeholder-driven CSR. Internal stakeholder-driven attributions of CSR occur when the observer views an organization as engaging in CSR due to pressures from actors inside of the organization – particularly employees. External stakeholder-driven attributions of CSR occur when such pressures stem from individuals or groups outside of the organization such as governmental organizations, activists, competitors, and so on. Consumers and shareholders are excluded from either categorization because they can simultaneously hold other roles either internal or external to the organization (e.g., consumers could also be employees or activists, employees could also be shareholders if they hold equity in their organization). A similar distinction was made by Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, and Ganapathi (2007), who argue that pressure for organizations to engage in CSR can originate from a variety of stakeholders who are either internal or external in relation to the organization. As mentioned previously, stakeholder-driven attributions are the only external attributions identified by Ellen et al. (2006). Accordingly, correspondent inference theory – a classic attribution theory that seeks to explain why individuals make internal or external attributions about an actor's behavior (E. E. Jones &

Davis, 1965) – can help explain when individuals are likely to make stakeholder-driven attributions of an organization's CSR. Applied to the current context, this theory would argue that individuals would make external attributions about an organization's CSR when the organization has little choice but to engage in CSR, when CSR is out of character for the organization, and when the consequences of not engaging in CSR are highly unfavourable. These factors tie in with some of the four CSR features. It is argued below that individuals will make either internal or external stakeholder-driven attributions of an organization's CSR when the organization's CSR does not align with its identity, and the organization is not committed or proactive about its CSR. On the other hand, individuals will make external stakeholder-driven attributions of CSR when there is low employee involvement, but internal stakeholder-driven attributions when employee involvement is high.

The core CSR feature that would lead to both internal and external stakeholder-driven attributions is reactivity (i.e., low proactivity). Stakeholder-driven attributions form when individuals believe that an organization is responding to the demands of a particular stakeholder group in the form of concessions and that the organization is in acting to avoid retribution from stakeholders (Vlachos et al., 2009). When an organization has little choice but to engage in CSR due to pressure, they would not be industry leaders of CSR, and may be so far behind competitors that they are forced to react to expectations to catch up. Additionally, the organization would do little to improve their CSR initiatives, seeking only to avoid a negative reputation (Bertels & Peloza, 2008).

Stakeholder-driven attributions would also be more likely to form when an organization fails to demonstrate a commitment to its CSR activities. More specifically, this lack of commitment would take the form of minimal resource dedication to CSR and an inconsistent

track record of behaving responsibly. When the organization expends little effort towards CSR, it is likely to reinforce individuals' views that the organization is acting out of necessity and not volition. Additionally, when an organization's CSR occurs due to stakeholder pressure, the CSR activities would not correspond with the true preferences and dispositions of the organization (Vlachos et al., 2009). When the preferences and actions of the organization are misaligned, any effort dedicated to CSR would be inconsistent and cease if stakeholder pressure subsided or the costs of engaging in CSR suddenly outweighed the consequences of abstaining (Sjovall & Talk, 2004).

As implied in the discussion above, stakeholder-driven attributions are also likely to form when the organization's CSR does not align with its identity. A combination of low proactivity and commitment to CSR imply a lack of correspondence between the organization's identity and behaviour. By taking a reactive stance to CSR, the organization would only respond to demands in areas where it is required and avoid integrating CSR into as many aspects of the business as possible. As an example, a qualitative study by Vallaster, Lindgreen, and Maon (2012) found that when organizations treated CSR as peripheral (i.e., an add-on to their core strategy, brand values, and culture), they tended to communicate about CSR only when required and did not view CSR as adding value to the company's brand. Additionally, organizations reacting to pressure from stakeholders may endeavor to produce a rapid and superficial response to satisfy demands without changing their products, values, or strategy at all. For example, Yum! Brands (the parent company of quick-serve restaurants such as Taco Bell, KFC, and Pizza Hut) has responded to North American stakeholder demands for healthier options by launching a campaign promoting nutritional awareness and transparency (Yum! Brands, 2014), but has made minimal changes to their food offerings. Kelley's (1967) covariance model also supports this

notion. For example, low levels of consistency and high levels of distinctiveness are associated with situational attributions of behaviour, which implies that the individual is reacting in a certain way due to their circumstances (Kelley & Michela, 1980). This may also be true of CSR: an organization that acts in an unpredictable way (e.g., launching a campaign for nutritional awareness) that is inconsistent with its identity (e.g., serving unhealthy foods intended to be "fun") is likely driven by the demands of the situation or stakeholders.

Up to this point, the CSR features associated with internal and external stakeholder-driven attributions have been the same. The feature that is likely to distinguish these two attributions is proposed to be employee involvement. In the case of internal stakeholder-driven attributions, employees are believed to be the primary group motivating their organization's CSR. Accordingly, although employees and job-seekers are both likely to be removed from CSR activities occurring as a response to external pressure, employees would most likely be quite involved in CSR that is a response to internal pressure (e.g., an employee-driven volunteering initiative). This is important because greater involvement would lead employees to view their organization's CSR in a more positive and personal light (Caligiuri et al., 2013). When the organization accommodates the expectations of a group of employees, this sends a message to other employees that the organization is receptive to its employees' needs and is willing to allocate the resources necessary to satisfy them. Such acts of accommodation, provided they are civil and not hard fought, should involve employees in the CSR process by allowing them to have a say in where company resources are going. This is likely to satisfy employees' needs for autonomy and help promote a view of the organization that is fair and just (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013). Signaling theory suggests that job-seekers may envision receiving the same positive treatment as employees of the organization when employee involvement in CSR is high

(Backhaus et al., 2002). On the other hand, external demands are likely to be handled exclusively by management or subject matter experts (e.g., consultants, a CSR department) in order to deal with the issue as quickly and efficiently as possible. This would leave employees out of the CSR process almost entirely, assisting observers in distinguishing between internal and external stakeholder-driven attributions. In light of the discussion above, the following propositions are provided:

Proposition 4. *Individuals will primarily make internal stakeholder-driven attributions of CSR when an organization (a) engages in CSR that is inconsistent with its identity, (b) displays a weak and inconsistent commitment to CSR, (c) closely involves its employees in the development and implementation of CSR, and (d) adopts a reactive orientation toward CSR.*

Proposition 5. *Individuals will primarily make external stakeholder-driven attributions of CSR when an organization (a) engages in CSR that is inconsistent with its identity, (b) displays a weak and inconsistent commitment to CSR, (c) does not involve employees in the development or implementation of CSR, and (d) adopts a reactive orientation toward CSR.*

Egoistic Attributions

Perhaps most readily comparable to the concepts of greenwashing or window-dressing (Laufer, 2003; McShane & Cunningham, 2012), individuals attribute the motives behind CSR as egoistic when an organization engages in socially responsible behaviour exclusively for the sake of taking advantage of a particular social movement to realize financial or reputational gain (Ellen et al., 2006). Applied to the context of organizations' CSR, attribution theories would suggest that an organization's CSR is likely to be perceived as volitional, but inauthentic or opportunistic (not as a stable disposition of the organization), when the organization has a high degree of choice about whether or not to engage in CSR, when CSR would greatly benefit the

organization (potentially by distinguishing it from competitors), and when the organization's behaviour is not consistent across situations or contexts (E. E. Jones & Davis, 1965; Kelley & Michela, 1980; Vlachos, Epitropaki, et al., 2013). Accordingly, I argue that egoistic attributions occur when an organization's CSR is proactive, but viewed as opportunistic because of its low identity alignment, a moderate amount of commitment, and minimal employee involvement.

Given that egoistic attributions are a form of internal attribution, high proactivity is a key feature for CSR to be perceived as egoistic. Organizations seeking to achieve economic or reputational benefits through CSR would need to anticipate stakeholder needs and act quickly to stand out amongst their competitors (Tata & Prasad, 2015). However, if an organization is not authentically interested in furthering a particular cause through CSR, it would adopt a form of proactivity that is decisive, albeit potentially transient and superficial. While opportunism could be viewed by some as reactive in the sense that the organization is technically "reacting" to an opportunity, it is argued here that egoistic CSR is proactive because the organization is behaving in a premeditative or anticipatory manner, which is a hallmark characteristic of proactivity (Grant & Ashford, 2008), in order to gain as much benefit from CSR as possible. This contrasts stakeholder-driven CSR where the organization has little choice but to yield to stakeholder expectations and simply seeks to avoid a negative outcome rather than get ahead.

Regarding identity alignment and commitment, egoistic attributions of CSR would be most likely to occur when an organization's CSR is inconsistent with its identity, but commits resources to CSR insofar as the organization receives significant returns for its investment. As mentioned previously, while integrating CSR into an organization's values, culture, and core capabilities requires an extensive amount of effort and cost (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013), egoistic attributions would most likely form in situations where an organization cannot integrate CSR

into its existing identity and must reestablish its identity to be consistent with social responsibility. To sidestep this, an organization seeking to benefit from CSR may exert a great deal of effort to engage in activities that are contradictory and peripheral to its identity. Supporting this notion, there is evidence that the more irresponsible an organization is, the more CSR they engage in to compensate (Ormiston & Wong, 2013; Strike, Gao, & Bansal, 2006). This suggests that socially irresponsible organizations seeking to restore their reputation with stakeholders believe they have much to gain from CSR, and may dedicate a significant amount of resources to do so. A prominent example illustrating low CSR-identity alignment and high commitment is the unique course of action taken by Philip Morris, a tobacco company. Philip Morris spent $75 million on socially responsible activities such as developing a line of "less harmful" cigarettes, and efforts to reduce environmental pollution associated with tobacco products (McDaniel & Malone, 2012). Although $75 million dollars is an immense commitment of resources in absolute terms, what made their CSR perceivably egoistic is that an additional $100 million that was spent on publicizing the campaign to enhance their reputation after the delegitimization of the tobacco industry (McDaniel, Smith, & Malone, 2006; Vlachos et al., 2009). Thus, individuals may base CSR attributions on the organization's relative investment in CSR as compared to other initiatives that benefit the organization. This is supported by an experiment conducted by Yoon, Gürhan-Canli, and Schwarz (2006), who found that when an organization has a preexisting bad reputation and the ratio of the organization's CSR contributions to CSR-related advertising is low, consumers tend to perceive the CSR as insincere and will evaluate the company even more negatively than when the company engages in no CSR at all.

Organizations engaging in CSR that is perceivably egoistic would also avoid involving their employees in terms of planning CSR activities, and would only involve their employees at a very superficial level in the implementation of CSR, if at all. Continuing with the example of Philip Morris, their CSR activities were spearheaded by external consultants and approved only by top management (McDaniel & Malone, 2012). Leaving a specific department or external consultants solely responsible for CSR likely fosters perceptions of insincerity from society and may leave employees feeling as though they cannot express prosocial values at work (Muller & Kräussl, 2011). This would likely leave employees' needs unfulfilled, potentially harming their perceptions of their organization (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013). Based on the discussion above, the following proposition is provided:

Proposition 6. *Individuals will primarily make egoistic attributions of CSR when an organization (a) engages in CSR that is inconsistent with its identity, (b) displays a moderate, but inconsistent, commitment to CSR, (c) does not involve employees in the development or implementation of CSR, and (d) adopts a proactive orientation toward CSR.*

Attributions and Organizational Commitment and Attraction

Having discussed how configurations of CSR features are likely to impact individuals' CSR attributions, the current section draws primarily on marketing and consumer psychology research to explain how these attributions are likely to influence the organizational commitment and attraction of employees and job-seekers, respectively.

Previous research has established that consumers' intrinsic and values-driven attributions of CSR are associated with many desirable outcomes such as positive brand evaluations, higher trust in the organization and lower CSR skepticism, stronger purchase intentions, and favorable word-of-mouth (Ellen et al., 2006; Groza et al., 2011; Parguel et al., 2011; Skarmeas &

Leonidou, 2013; Vlachos et al., 2009; Walker, Heere, Parent, & Drane, 2010). In these same studies, strategic attributions are also generally considered positive, but tend to have weaker or neutral relationships with these outcomes. Consumers and other stakeholders typically appear to be quite forgiving of organizations who adopt a win-win approach to CSR, likely because they acknowledge that the organization must remain economically viable to subsist. In support of this, Forehand and Grier (2003) found that when organizations are open and honest about how their CSR initiatives benefitted both the company and society (as opposed to only stating benefits to society), consumers evaluated them in a more positive light. On the other hand, stakeholder-driven and egoistic attributions are inversely related to the aforementioned outcomes, with the latter attribution resulting in the strongest negative associations. This is likely the case because the former attribution is associated with compliance to external pressure, whereas the latter is volitional and associated with ill intent.

One exception is a study by Walker et al. (2010) that surveyed attendees of the 2008 Beijing Olympics about their attributions of the CSR of the International Olympic Committee. They found consistent positive relationships between attendees' stakeholder-driven attributions of CSR and perceptions of the committee's reputation, reported merchandise consumption and patronage intentions (i.e., word of mouth, repeat purchase intentions, and merchandise consumption). However, Walker and colleagues explain that these findings are due to the unique position of the committee in managing expectations of a wide variety of stakeholders and acknowledge that the results may only generalize to similar organizations (e.g., FIFA, the United Nations). Additionally, I observed that the item wording for stakeholder-driven observations were revised in this study to sound somewhat more positive than the original operationalization

by Ellen et al. (2006). Specifically, the revised items implied that the committee was anticipating stakeholder expectations, rather than reacting to them.

Although CSR attribution research using employee samples is rare, there are two studies by Pavlos Vlachos and colleagues that use employee samples and report results that are generally consistent with the above. In one study, Vlachos, Theotokis, and Panagopoulos (2010) administered a survey to salespeople in a Fortune 500 company and found that values-driven attributions of CSR positively predicted trust in the organization, loyalty intentions, and positive word-of-mouth. On the other hand, egoistic attributions negatively predicted trust and word-of-mouth, but had no relationship with loyalty intentions. Stakeholder-driven and strategic attributions had a mix of positive and neutral relationships with these outcomes. Of note is that strategic attributions were positively related to loyalty intentions, which suggests they may also relate positively to organizational commitment. Subsequent research by Vlachos, Panagopoulos, et al. (2013) examined the impact of charismatic leadership on employees' CSR attributions and found that CSR-induced intrinsic attributions (which are essentially the same as values-driven attributions in terms of their operationalization) were positively related to employees' job satisfaction. Additionally, they found that CSR-induced extrinsic attributions (operationalized as a combination of strategic and stakeholder-driven attributions) were unrelated to job satisfaction.

Based on the studies above, it seems reasonable to expect that a similar pattern of results would generally be found among employees, job-seekers and even other stakeholder groups. Accordingly, the following proposition is offered:

Proposition 7. *CSR features will predict individual-level outcomes (e.g., organizational commitment and attraction) through CSR attributions. Specifically, these outcomes will have (a) a strong positive relationship with values-driven attributions, (b) a moderate positive*

relationship with strategic attributions, (c) a weak positive relationship with internal

stakeholder-driven attributions, (d) a weak negative relationship with external stakeholder-

driven attributions, and (e) a strong negative relationship with egoistic attributions.

The Moderating Role of Individual Differences

The final aspect of the model pertains to the role of individual differences as a moderator

of the relationship between CSR attributions on one hand, and organizational commitment and

attraction on the other. As mentioned in the previous chapter, several micro-level CSR studies

have been conducted that take into account the role of individual differences as a moderator,

typically of the relationship between CSR ratings or perceptions and a variety of variables

relevant to employees and job-seekers (e.g., organizational identification, commitment,

attraction, job pursuit intentions). These studies have consistent found that higher levels of

communal orientation towards relationships (D. A. Jones et al., 2014), other-oriented values

(Evans & Davis, 2011; Evans et al., 2011), cultural values such as collectivism (Mueller et al.,

2012), moral identity (Rupp, Shao, Thornton, et al., 2013), and the perceived importance of CSR

(Bhattacharya et al., 2008; Turker, 2009) strengthen the positive relationship between CSR and

these outcomes.

Applied to the current theoretical model, it is argued that these individual differences will

moderate the relationship between CSR attributions and organizational commitment and

attraction. This is likely because the motives that an individual ascribes to an organization's CSR

will likely matter more when the notion of CSR is valued by the individual and fits with their

values or identity (Rupp, Shao, Thornton, et al., 2013). To illustrate, consider an individual who

values helping others in the community and holds themselves to a high moral code. When this

individual perceives an organization's CSR as values-driven, they would be more likely to

strongly identify with that organization's CSR and express their approval in the form of commitment or attraction. However, if this individual attributed the organization's CSR to egoistic motives, they would see this as violating moral and ethical norms and express a significant amount of discontent (Rupp, Shao, Thornton, et al., 2013). In contrast, an individual with more of a self-centered value orientation would probably remain comparably indifferent to an organization's CSR, regardless of the motives they attribute to the activities. Accordingly, the following proposition is offered:

Proposition 8. *Individual differences (e.g., value orientation, moral identity) will moderate the relationship between CSR attributions and individual-level outcomes (e.g., organizational commitment and attraction) such that individuals who possess greater communal or other-oriented values, moral integrity will have stronger reactions to the attributions they ascribe to an organization's CSR.*

To test these propositions, I conducted two complimentary studies intended to establish the utility of taking a feature-based approach to studying CSR with employees and potential job-seekers. The first study is a field study that involved distributing a survey at one time point to employees in a variety of organizations. The purpose of the survey was to examine the relationships among CSR features, attributions, moral identity, and employee commitment. The second study utilized an experimental methodology to examine the effects of combinations of CSR features on potential job-seekers' attraction to organizations.

CHAPTER 4: CSR FEATURES, ATTRIBUTIONS, AND ORGANIZATIONAL

COMMITMENT (STUDY 1)

Two main research objectives guided the first study. First, I sought to determine if the four CSR features outlined in the previous chapters combined to form distinct profiles (and by association, determine the nature of these profiles). Second, provided the first research objective was met, I sought to determine how these profiles relate to employees' organizational committed, as mediated by CSR attributions and moderated by moral identity. In order to achieve these objectives, a measure of CSR features was developed and tested on two samples of employees from a variety of organizations.

This chapter is organized as follows: first, the study hypotheses are provided. Next, the process of developing the CSR features scale is described, which is followed by the methods and results of a pilot study conducted to evaluate this measure. The methods section of the main study is presented next, followed by a combined results and interpretation section. Finally, the discussion is presented, which focuses on the limitations and implications of the study.

Study Hypotheses

The theoretical model outlined in the previous chapter provided detailed explanations for the proposed relationships among CSR features, attributions, and commitment. Accordingly, given that most of the study hypotheses follow directly from these theoretical propositions, any additional rationale provided for these hypotheses (if any) is quite brief. However, some of the more specific predictions as related to employees' organizational commitment as conceptualized using the TCM (J. P. Meyer & Allen, 1991) are explained. A summary of the hypothesized model is provided below in Figure 3.
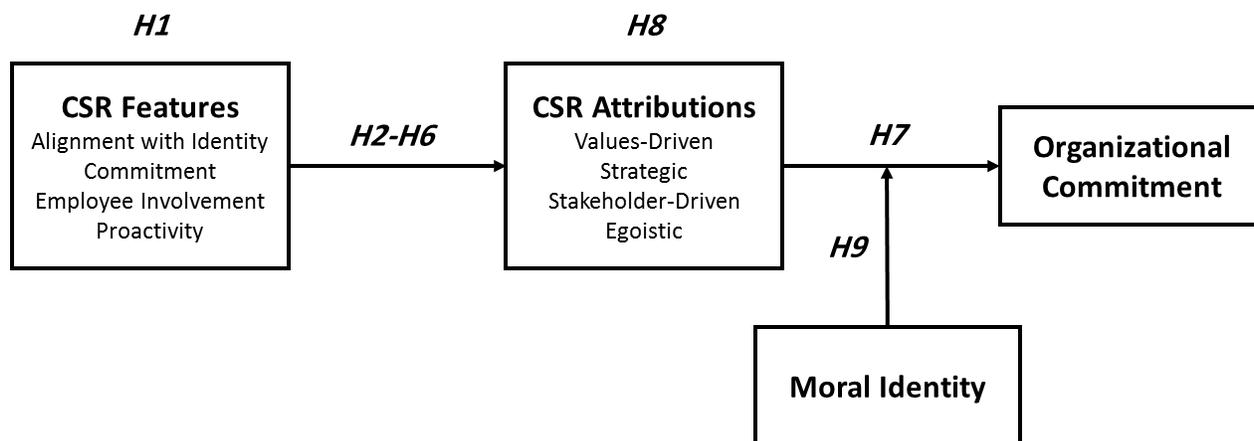
Figure 3. Summary of the hypothesized relationships in Study 1.

First, given that one of the main objectives of this study is to examine if, and how, CSR features combine to form profiles, the following hypothesis is provided:

Hypothesis 1. *Organizations' CSR features (alignment with identity, commitment, employee involvement, and proactivity), as reported by employees, will combine to form distinct groups or profiles.*

Provided that CSR features do combine to form distinct profiles, the nature of the emergent profiles (i.e., the mean levels of alignment, commitment, employee involvement, and proactivity) is expected to predict differences in employees' attributions. Accordingly, five hypotheses that follow directly from the theoretical propositions in the previous chapter are offered. These hypotheses only differ from the propositions such that they pertain specifically to employees and are worded in a way that is consistent with how CSR features are operationalized in the first study (i.e., self-report). Although each hypothesis pertains to a distinct combination of CSR features, the possibility of less (or more) than five profiles emerging is acknowledged:

Hypothesis 2. *Employees will primarily make values-driven attributions of CSR when they view their organization as having (a) medium to high CSR-identity alignment, (b) high*

commitment to CSR, (c) high employee involvement in CSR, and (d) medium to high CSR proactivity.

Hypothesis 3. *Employees will primarily make strategic attributions of CSR when they view their organization as having (a) medium to high CSR-identity alignment, (b) high commitment to CSR, (c) low to medium employee involvement in CSR, and (d) high CSR proactivity.*

Hypothesis 4. *Employees will primarily make internal stakeholder-driven attributions of CSR when they view their organization as having (a) low CSR-identity alignment, (b) low commitment to CSR, (c) high employee involvement in CSR, and (d) low CSR proactivity.*

Hypothesis 5. *Employees will primarily make external stakeholder-driven attributions of CSR when they view their organization as having (a) low CSR-identity alignment, (b) low commitment to CSR, (c) low employee involvement in CSR, and (d) low CSR proactivity.*

Hypothesis 6. *Employees will primarily make egoistic attributions of CSR when they view their organization as having (a) low CSR-identity alignment, (b) medium commitment to CSR, (c) low employee involvement in CSR, and (d) high CSR proactivity.*

Next, it is expected that the nature of employees' primary CSR attribution will predict their level of organizational commitment (specifically AC, CC, and NC). Unfortunately, most of the studies on CSR perceptions, attributions, and organizational commitment have excluded CC and NC, opting to include only AC (or an equivalent operationalization) as an outcome variable (e.g., Brockner et al., 2014; Mueller et al., 2012; Turker, 2009). One exception is a study by Hofman and Newman (2014) that measured both AC and NC as outcomes of perceived CSR in a Chinese context. They found that CSR towards employees significantly predicted both AC and NC, whereas CSR towards external stakeholders predicted only AC. In line with this, it is

expected that CSR features will predict AC and NC, but unlikely to predict CC. This was

discussed previously where CSR was classified as both a component of employees' work

experiences and potentially as a form of investment in employees, which would predict AC and

NC, respectively (J. P. Meyer & Allen, 1991). The findings of Hofman and Newman support this

such that CSR towards employees would likely be seen as an investment in their well-being,

whereas CSR towards external stakeholders would not. That being said, the combination of CSR

features is expected to either positively or negatively predict employees' AC and NC, which is

explained by the motives they ascribe to the organization's CSR. However, given that other

researchers have found that CSR exerts its influence on employees and other stakeholders

through other mediating variables (e.g., organizational identification, organizational prestige,

value fit; De Roeck, Marique, Stinglhamber, & Swaen, 2014; D. A. Jones et al., 2014), it is

expected that CSR attributions will only partially mediate these relationships. Accordingly, the

following hypotheses are provided:

Hypothesis 7. *(a) Values-driven attributions, (b) strategic attributions, and (c) internal*

stakeholder-driven attributions will be positively related to AC and NC. In contrast, (d) external

stakeholder-driven attributions and (e) egoistic attributions will be negatively related to AC and

NC.

Hypothesis 8. *The relationship between CSR feature profiles and (a) AC and (b) NC will*

be partially mediated by CSR attributions.

Finally, it is also expected that employees' sense of moral identity will moderate the

relationship between CSR attributions and organizational commitment. Following the

proposition put forth in the previous chapter, it is likely that employees with a stronger sense of

moral identity will have stronger reactions (in the form of commitment) to the attributions they make about their organization's CSR:

Hypothesis 9. *Moral identity will moderate the relationship between CSR attributions and (a) AC and (b) NC such that higher levels of moral identity will result in a stronger (i.e., more positive or more negative) relationship between attributions and organizational commitment among employees.*

The following section describes the process of developing the CSR features measure.

Scale Development Process

As mentioned previously, a review of the literature revealed that the majority of micro-level CSR research did not measure CSR in terms of features, but instead in terms of content. Accordingly, a scale measuring the four CSR features outlined in my theoretical model (i.e., alignment with identity, commitment, employee involvement, and proactivity) had to be developed. The scale was developed using a standard scale design process modeled after the recommendations of authors such as Bagozzi, Yi, and Philips (1991) and Hinkin (1995, 1998). A summary of the scale development process is outlined in Figure 4.

The first step in the scale development process involved writing definitions of the four CSR features to be measured. These definitions were based on a comprehensive review of the CSR literature and were used during the initial item generation process (Step 2) and the content validity assessment (Step 4). Additionally, a half page 'conceptual background' was written to provide colleagues and raters with a formal definition of CSR and an understanding of the distinction between CSR content and features.

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┌─────────────────────┐          ┌─────────────────────┐
│ 1. Development of   │          │ 5. Item reduction   │
│ construct definitions│          │                     │
└─────────────────────┘          └─────────────────────┘
          │                                │
          ▼                                ▼
┌─────────────────────┐          ┌─────────────────────┐
│ 2. Item generation  │          │ 6. Pilot survey     │
│ with colleagues     │          │ (n=93)              │
│ (n=7)               │          │                     │
└─────────────────────┘          └─────────────────────┘
          │                                │
          ▼                                ▼
┌─────────────────────┐          ┌─────────────────────┐
│ 3. Item refinement  │          │ 7. Item reduction   │
│ and reduction       │          │ based on feedback   │
│                     │          │ and factor analysis │
└─────────────────────┘          └─────────────────────┘
          │                                │
          ▼                                ▼
┌─────────────────────┐          ┌─────────────────────┐
│ 4. Content validity │          │ 8. Main surveys     │
│ assessment          │          │ (n=285)             │
│ (n=15)              │          │                     │
└─────────────────────┘          └─────────────────────┘
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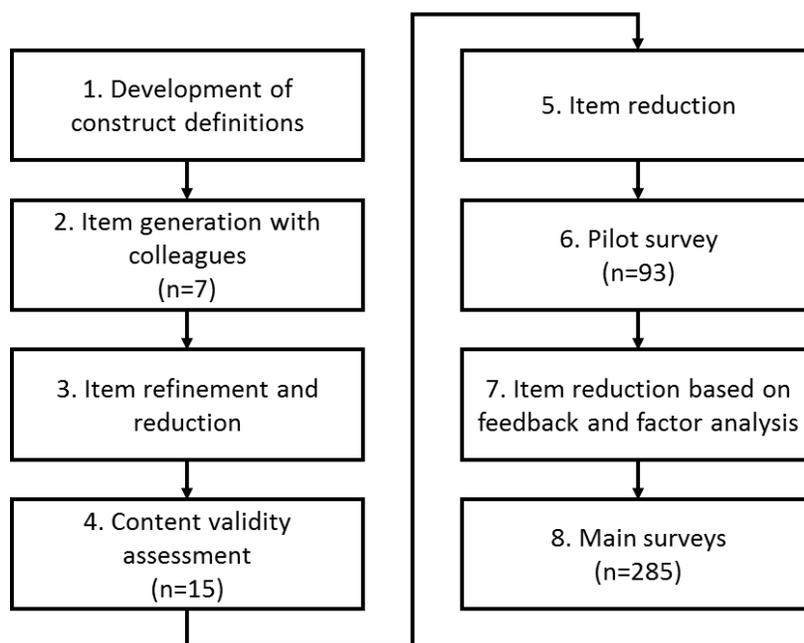
Figure 4. Design Process of CSR Features Scale.

The second step involved working with six colleagues (five graduate students and one professor; a total of seven participants including myself) to generate items for each CSR feature. Discussion surrounding the nature and format of the items took place, and each colleague was asked to read the conceptual background and definitions and generate 3-4 items per construct.

In the third step, I refined and reduced the number of items generated. Based on the construct definitions provided, it was noted that (at face value) the items generated tended to cluster around certain facets *within* each feature. Although this was not originally intended, effort was made to retain items representative of each of these facets to ensure the full breadth of each construct definition was operationalized. Specifically, items intended to measure the alignment of CSR with identity touched on alignment with more specific aspects of identity such as 1) values and culture, 2) public image, and 3) strategy and mission statement. Items intended to measure CSR commitment appeared to measure either 1) significant investment or 2) consistency over time. Items intended to measure employee involvement in CSR could be

separated into 1) involvement in the initiation and development of CSR and 2) participation in

CSR initiatives. Lastly, items intended to measure CSR proactivity contained content relating to

1) proactivity/reactivity or 2) growth and improvement of CSR activities[1]. After eliminating

items that were redundant or did not clearly fit the construct definition, a total of 53 items

remained (approximately 13-15 per construct). Many of these items were refined and worded to

fit an Agree/Disagree Likert response format. These items can be found in Table 2. Additionally,

based on suggestions from my thesis advisory committee and research suggesting the importance

of individual differences in perceptions of the value of CSR (Bhattacharya et al., 2008; Pérez &

Rodríguez del Bosque, 2013), five items intended to measure *CSR Importance* were generated.

These items are listed in the measures section of this chapter.

The fourth step involved conducting a content validity exercise outlined by Hinkin

(1998). This exercise involved presenting a group of graduate students (n=15)[2] with the same

conceptual background and definitions provided during the first item generation exercise. They

were then asked to provide a rating of how representative each item was of each CSR feature.

Specifically, respondents were presented with a definition of one CSR feature at the top of the

page followed by a randomized list of all 53 items. Participants were instructed to "*Please*

indicate the extent to which you think each item exemplifies the conceptual description of the

CSR feature provided above" using a 5-point Likert scale *(1=not at all; 3=somewhat;*

5=completely). This process was repeated for each CSR feature, resulting in a total of four

separate content similarity ratings per item from each participant. Rather than forcing

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[1]Although items touching on many of these facets were originally retained, it is recognized that some of these facets could be considered CSR features in their own right. This is dealt with later on in the scale design process as items are subsequently dropped from the measure due to poor psychometric properties or because of a clear departure from the construct of interest in terms of content.

[2] While this group did overlap with the group that assisted with item generation to an extent, the changes made to the newly generated items along with the amount of time that had elapsed between exercises (approximately one month) were expected to prevent any issues associated with item-construct familiarity.

participants to choose which CSR feature best aligned with a particular item, this technique allowed an assessment of cross-loadings for each item.

The fifth step involved further reducing the total number of items by analyzing the content ratings provided by each participant[3]. In order for an item to be retained it must have had: 1) an average content similarity rating of approximately four or higher on its intended (target) construct, 2) an average content similarity rating of approximately three or lower on all other (non-target) constructs, and 3) average target and non-target similarity ratings that differed by at least 1.5 points in magnitude (e.g., an item with a mean target rating of 4, but with a non-target rating of 3 would not be retained despite meeting the first two criteria). Some items met these criteria but were still eliminated in order to reduce the scale to a reasonable length. These decisions were made by eliminating items that were most similar to other items with better ratings in an effort to maintain as much construct breadth as possible in the measure. Additionally, some items that barely violated these criteria (e.g., cross-loading of 3.07) were retained to ensure enough items per construct were included in the scale. This process reduced the scale from 53 items to 29 items. Content similarity ratings for all retained and eliminated items are provided in Table 2.

The sixth and seventh steps involved conducting a pilot study to assess the reliability and validity of the CSR features measure and further reducing the number of items. This process is detailed in the next section. After the next section, the eighth step (main survey) is addressed.

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[3] As an additional measure to ensure participants in the item generation and content validity groups did not have any undue advantage, their content ratings were compared to the ratings of the remainder of the group to evaluate the relative accuracy of both groups. A visual inspection did not reveal a significant departure in rating accuracy between the two groups.

Table 2. *Mean Content Similarity Ratings of CSR Feature Items*

Item and Target CSR Feature		A	C	EI	P
1. The core values of my organization and its CSR activities are closely aligned.	A	**4.93**	1.60	1.21	1.73
2. My organization's CSR activities appear to contradict the company's values. (R)	A	**4.67**	1.40	1.40	1.60
3. My organization's CSR activities are consistent with who we are as a company.	A	**4.93**	1.80	1.67	1.73
4. My organization's CSR activities accurately reflect the company's culture.	A	**4.93**	1.53	1.64	1.47
5. There is a lack of fit between my organization's CSR activities and its culture. (R)	A	**4.80**	1.47	1.47	1.53
6. My organization's CSR activities are relevant to how things are done around here.	A	**4.0**	2.13	1.87	2.0
7. The CSR activities of my organization don't seem to fit with what we are known for. (R)	A	**4.67**	1.60	1.27	1.47
8. My organization's CSR activities are consistent with its public identity.	A	**4.53**	1.67	1.33	1.57
9. My organization's CSR activities don't fit with how it is viewed by the public. (R)	A	**4.33**	1.47	1.27	1.53
10. My organization's CSR activities are an excellent reflection of the company's image.	A	**4.60**	1.60	1.21	1.67
11. My organization's CSR activities align closely with its strategy.	A	**4.67**	1.80	1.53	1.87
12. My organization's CSR activities are not compatible with what we provide to our clients/customers. (R)	A	**4.33**	1.47	1.29	1.40
13. My organization's mission statement and its CSR activities are not really compatible. (R)	A	**4.80**	1.53	1.47	1.60
14. My organization's CSR activities are consistent with how we treat our stakeholders.	A	**4.00**	1.87	1.33	1.73
15. At my organization, significant effort has been put into its CSR activities.	C	2.27	**4.53**	1.33	2.53
16. My organization's CSR activities reflect very little investment of effort on the part of the organization. (R)	C	2.40	**4.87**	1.20	2.40
17. My organization has taken significant actions to support its CSR activities.	C	2.60	**4.47**	1.21	2.47
18. My organization does not dedicate enough resources to ensure its CSR activities are successful. (R)	C	2.07	**4.60**	1.33	2.07
19. My organization has dedicated a substantial amount of resources to its CSR activities.	C	2.00	**4.87**	1.47	2.27
20. Top management often makes time to discuss CSR initiatives with employees.	C	2.33	2.67	<u>4.67</u>	1.80
21. The actions of my organization indicate that CSR is important.	C	<u>3.14</u>	3.33	1.27	2.67
22. My organization's CSR activities have been implemented sporadically over time. (R)	C	2.47	3.60	1.40	<u>3.13</u>

Item and Target CSR Feature		A	C	EI	P
23. My organization always has ongoing CSR activities.	C	2.60	**4.47**	1.47	3.07
24. My organization's CSR activities are often put on hold. (R)	C	2.33	**4.40**	1.33	2.86
25. When trying to save money, my organization typically seeks to cut funding from its CSR activities first. (R)	C	2.47	**4.53**	1.21	2.13
26. My organization typically stops any CSR initiatives as soon as it is convenient to do so. (R)	C	2.60	**4.80**	1.36	2.07
27. My organization has a long history of dedication to our CSR activities.	C	3.08	**4.73**	1.36	2.53
28. It would be difficult to discontinue the CSR activities at my organization because so much has been invested.	C	2.33	**4.53**	1.33	2.13
29. My organization's CSR activities are often developed in consultation with employees.	EI	1.93	1.87	**4.80**	1.87
30. My organization typically leaves employees out of the CSR development process. (R)	EI	1.87	1.87	**4.80**	1.73
31. My organization's CSR activities are often initiated by employees.	EI	1.80	1.86	**4.27**	1.67
32. At my organization, employees often design CSR initiatives with the organization's support.	EI	1.80	2.13	**4.42**	2.07
33. Regular employees would not likely be permitted to champion CSR initiatives at my organization. (R)	EI	1.67	1.60	**4.80**	1.47
34. It is a mystery to me what CSR initiatives my organization is working on. (R)	EI	2.60	1.93	3.53	2.07
35. The ideas for CSR activities in my company often come from employees.	EI	2.00	1.73	**4.92**	1.73
36. My organization's CSR activities often involve the participation of employees.	EI	1.93	2.27	**5.00**	1.60
37. My organization's CSR activities are predominantly carried out by people inside the company.	EI	1.80	2.33	**4.67**	1.47
38. My organization rarely allows employees to help out in any meaningful way with its CSR activities. (R)	EI	1.73	1.80	**4.80**	1.47
39. Employee involvement in CSR activities are considered vital to their success.	EI	1.60	2.13	**4.29**	1.47
40. The CSR activities at my organization typically involve a large number of employees.	EI	1.93	2.93	**4.60**	1.47
41. Employees at my organization have a difficult time finding out how to get involved in the company's CSR activities. (R)	EI	1.73	2.20	**4.60**	1.73
42. My organization actively seeks out new ways to engage in CSR.	P	2.27	3.20	1.73	**4.73**
43. My organization's CSR activities are not any different from what other organizations do. (R)	P	3.20	1.33	1.33	**4.14**
44. My organization's CSR activities barely meet society's expectations. (R)	P	2.33	2.47	1.33	3.47
45. My organization typically follows the examples of other companies when it comes to CSR initiatives. (R)	P	2.67	1.60	1.80	**4.13**

Item and Target CSR Feature		A	C	EI	P
46. My organization carefully plans its CSR activities.	P	2.26	<u>3.53</u>	1.50	3.86
47. My organization's CSR activities often go beyond what is expected by society.	P	2.07	<u>3.07</u>	1.14	**4.20**
48. When it comes to CSR, my organization leads the way as an inspiration for other companies.	P	2.60	2.53	1.13	**4.78**
49. My organization's CSR activities barely keep pace with what other organizations are doing. (R)	P	2.07	2.00	1.14	**3.98**
50. My organization's CSR activities are unique and innovative.	P	2.60	1.60	1.27	**4.47**
51. My organization strives to be an industry leader in CSR.	P	2.87	<u>3.07</u>	1.33	**4.53**
52. My organization's CSR activities are always evolving.	P	2.07	2.73	1.40	**4.85**
53. At my organization, we are always looking for new and improved ways of being socially responsible.	P	2.87	<u>3.00</u>	2.40	**4.47**

Note. A=Alignment of CSR with identity; C=Commitment to CSR; EI=Employee involvement in CSR; P=Proactivity of CSR; (R)=Reverse-coded item.
Ratings: *1=Not at all; 3=Somewhat; 5=Completely*; **Bolded=**High loading (≥4) on target construct; <u>Underlined</u>=High cross-loading (≥3).
Bolded items were retained for the pilot study.

For clarity, the *n* values listed in steps six and eight of Figure 4 refer to the usable number of cases for the analysis of the CSR features scale.

Method: Pilot Study

Participants

Because the target of the CSR features measure was the participant's organization, unemployed individuals would be unable to respond to the items. Thus, in order to properly evaluate the CSR features measure, participants had to have been employed at an organization at the time of the study. However, it was not a requirement for participants to be employed at an organization that engaged in CSR. This is because the data from other measures used in the study were useful for the purposes of comparing scores between those employed at organizations with CSR activities and those employed at organizations that did not. Participants for the pilot study came from three primary sources: a large hospital in Ontario, the Ontario office of an

international mining company, and responses from individuals recruited through social media (i.e., Facebook and LinkedIn). All participants resided in North America.

A total of 172 surveys were returned, of which 120 were usable after eliminating cases flagged for careless responding and excessive missing data. It was not possible to accurately determine response rates for each source of data, although responses from the hospital and mining company numbered less than five percent of the total workforce employed.

Of the 120 participants, 36 were male (30.0%), 82 were female (68.3%), and 2 did not report their gender. Participants' average age was 42.52 years (SD=12.28) and average organizational tenure was 11.69 years (SD=10.90). Participants' highest level of education was almost evenly split across college/technical diploma (32.5%), university undergraduate degree (27.5%), and postgraduate degree (28.3%). The remainder had a high school education (10.8%) or less (0.8%). Most participants did not hold a position where they were responsible for managing employees (77.5%), but 20.0% did report holding management positions. The remaining 2.5% of participants did not report this information. Additionally, most participants indicated that they worked for an organization with 500 or more employees (55.0%), followed by 100-249 (14.2%) and 250-499 (12.5%). Lastly, 85.8% of respondents reported that their organization currently engages, or has engaged, in some form of CSR activity, whereas 14.2% of respondents reported that their organization has never engaged in CSR. Descriptive statistics for all demographic variables included in the pilot survey are provided in Table 3.

Procedure

Participants were recruited through a variety of online methods. Participants were recruited from the hospital passively by means of an electronic posting on the company's intranet.

Table 3. *Frequencies and Descriptive Statistics for Demographic Variables*

Variable		Pilot (n=120)		Main (n=371)		Combined (n=479)	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Age (in years)		43.52	12.28	-	-	-	-
Org. Age		-	-	73.74	57.24	73.74	57.24
Org. Tenure*		11.69	10.90	5.60	5.11	7.50	7.92
Job Tenure*		-	-	11.04	9.99	11.04	9.99
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Age	18-24 years	7	5.8	29	7.8	36	7.3
(categorized)	25-34 years	31	25.8	146	39.5	177	36.0
	35-44 years	14	11.7	90	24.3	104	21.2
	45-54 years	40	33.3	61	16.5	101	20.6
	55-64 years	26	21.7	40	10.8	66	13.4
	65 years or older	1	0.8	4	1.1	5	1.0
Gender	Male	36	30.0	203	54.7	239	48.7
	Female	82	68.3	166	44.7	248	50.5
Education	Less than high school	1	0.8	0	0	1	0.2
	High school	13	10.8	84	22.6	97	19.8
	College/Technical Diploma	39	32.5	94	25.3	133	27.1
	Undergraduate Degree	33	27.5	124	33.4	157	32.0
	Postgraduate Degree	34	28.3	69	18.6	103	21.0
Manager	No	93	77.5	122	32.9	215	43.8
	Yes	24	20.0	199	53.6	233	45.4
Org. Size	1-9	4	3.3	26	7.0	30	6.1
(# of employees)	10-49	14	11.7	61	16.4	75	15.3
	50-99	2	1.7	27	7.3	29	5.9
	100-249	17	14.2	41	11.1	58	11.8
	250-499	15	12.5	29	7.8	44	9.0
	500 or more	66	55.0	187	50.4	253	51.5
Org. CSR	No	17	14.2	66	17.8	83	16.9
	Yes	103	85.8	305	82.2	408	83.1
CSR Participant	No	-	-	80	21.6	97	19.8
	Yes	-	-	198	53.4	226	46.0
	N/A	-	-	66	17.8	83	16.9

Note. *Data only collected from some respondents and not representative of full sample.
Percentages expressed in terms of full samples listed in header.
Some percentages/frequencies may not add up to the expected total due to missing data.

Permission to post the study link on the intranet was given by the director of human resources. The process of posting the link was handled internally by an employee of the hospital. Participants from the mining company were recruited via direct email from the office manager. Finally, social media participants were recruited via posting a link with the study description. No compensation was offered to participants for completing the survey.

All data were collected electronically using SurveyMonkey (www.surveymonkey.com/). The survey presented participants with a letter of information with details about the purpose of the study, followed by a series of demographic questions. Next, participants were provided with a definition of CSR to ensure that they would have a common understanding of the concept to work from. The description presented to participants is presented below:

Many of the questions in this survey will ask you about your organization's "corporate social responsibility" or CSR. CSR is defined as "context-specific organizational actions and policies that take into account stakeholders' expectations and the triple bottom line of economic, social, and environmental performance." Think carefully about what your organization does that may fit this description. There are numerous examples of CSR activities. Some of them include: supporting employee volunteerism, donating money or resources to further a social or environmental cause, or taking steps to reduce the organization's impact on the environment.

Next, participants were asked to respond to measures assessing their organization's CSR performance and features, attributions of their organization's CSR, organizational commitment, and moral identity. At the end of the survey, participants viewed a debriefing form containing details about the study (all study materials can be viewed in Appendix B).

Measures

The following is a list of all measures included in the pilot survey. All items used a 5-point Likert scale format[4]. Example items are provided for each construct, but the full list of items used can be found in Appendix B.

CSR performance. A measure of "general CSR" developed by Mueller et al. (2012) was used to assess participants' perceptions of their organizations' CSR in a variety of content areas. The 8-item scale consists of five items to measure organizations' performance in five domains based on Dahlsrud's (2008) dimensions of CSR, namely: environmental protection, treatment of stakeholders, public reputation, responsibility to employees, and support of social charitable activities (e.g., "*Does your company do enough to support cultural and charitable initiatives and campaigns?*"). It also consists of three items to measure organizations' overall CSR performance (e.g., "*Overall, how satisfied are you with the way your company manages social responsibility?*"), however one item asking respondents to place their organization in one of two categories (i.e., irresponsible or responsible) was excluded. All items used a 5-point Likert scale format, but differed in their response key (Items 1-4: *1=no; 5=yes;* items 5-7: *1=very unsatisfied; 5=very satisfied*).

CSR features. The CSR features measure described above was included in the pilot survey. The 29-item scale consisted of six items to measure the alignment of organizations' CSR with its identity (e.g., "*The core values of my organization and its CSR activities are closely aligned*"), seven items to measure the organization's commitment to CSR, (e.g., "*At my organization, significant effort has been put into its CSR activities*"), eight items to measure the

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[4] The numerical anchors viewed by participants for each question ranged from (-2) to (+2) rather than 1 to 5. The purpose was to create a more salient contrast between the poles of each question. Questions were still scored as 1 to 5 in the data.

organization's involvement of employees in CSR (e.g., "*My organization's CSR activities are often developed in consultation with employees*"), and eight items to measure the organization's CSR proactivity (e.g., "*My organization actively seeks out new ways to engage in CSR*"). All items used a 5-point Likert scale format (*1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree*).

CSR importance. A 5-item measure to assess participants' perceived importance of their organization's CSR (e.g., "*My organization's CSR addresses issues that are truly worthwhile*") was developed and included in this survey as per the recommendation of my advisory committee. The inclusion of CSR importance was warranted because it may represent a factor that affects the relationship between CSR features and organizational commitment. All items used a 5-point Likert scale format (*1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree*).

CSR attributions. Employees' causal attributions of their organization's CSR were assessed using a 16-item measure developed by Ellen et al. (2006), plus one additional item created for the purpose of this study. The question stem of the measure was modified for this study and reads: "*My organization engages in CSR because…*" The items were slightly reworded to refer to an organization's CSR in general, rather than a specific offer for consumers (the purpose for which the scale was originally designed). Items from this scale have also been repurposed for similar reasons by other authors (Vlachos, Panagopoulos, et al., 2013). The measure consists of five items intended to measure values-driven attributions (e.g., "*They feel morally obligated to help*"), four items (plus an additional item) for stakeholder-driven attributions (e.g., "*They feel their employees expect them to*"), another four items for egoistic attributions (e.g., "*They are taking advantage of the underlying cause(s) to help their own business*"), and three items for strategic attributions (e.g., "*They will get more customers by doing so*"). An additional item was created to build out the measurement of stakeholder-driven

attributions. Specifically the item "*They feel their employees want them to*" was added to help differentiate between external stakeholder attributions (customers, society) and internal stakeholder attributions (employees), which were measured by three and two items, respectively. All items used a 5-point Likert scale format (*1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree*).

Organizational commitment. Organizational commitment was assessed using a measure based on the TCM of commitment (i.e., AC, NC, and CC) that was developed by J. P. Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993). The measure contains three subscales, each containing six items, measuring AC (e.g., *"This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me"*), NC (e.g., *"I owe a great deal to my organization"*), and CC (e.g., *"I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization"*). All items used a 5-point Likert scale format (*1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree*).

Moral identity. Research has demonstrated that value-orientation and moral identity play an important role in individuals' reactions to CSR (Evans et al., 2011; Rupp, Shao, Thornton, et al., 2013). Therefore, a measure of moral identity developed by Aquino and Reed (2002) was included in this study to control for individual differences. This measure has been used in previous employee-level CSR research and has been shown to have good psychometric properties (Rupp, Shao, Thornton, et al., 2013). The measure provides participants with a list of nine positive moral traits (i.e., caring, compassionate, fair, friendly, generous, hardworking, helpful, honest, kind) and asks participants to indicate the degree of centrality of the traits to their self-concept (internalization) and the degree to which the traits are exhibited in participants' actions (symbolization). The question stem for the scale is as follows:

Listed below are some characteristics that may describe a person [list of nine traits]. The person with these characteristics could be you or it could be someone else. For a moment,

visualize in your mind the kind of person who has these characteristics. Imagine how that

person would think, feel, and act. When you have a clear image of what this person

would be like, answer the following questions. (Aquino & Reed, 2002, p. 1427)

Ten questions follow the question stem; five questions to measure internalization (e.g., "*It would*

make me feel good to be a person who has these characteristics"), and five to measure

symbolization (e.g., "*I am actively involved in activities that communicate to others that I have*

these characteristics"). All items used a 5-point Likert-type scale format (*1=strongly disagree;*

5=strongly agree).

Control variables. Demographic variables that have shown (or are likely) to possess

significant relationships with perceptions of CSR and/or organizational commitment were

included in the survey. Participants were asked about their gender because previous research has

provided evidence that women tend to be more concerned with CSR than men (Backhaus et al.,

2002; Peterson, 2004). Questions about participants' age, tenure, and education were also

included. Finally, participants were asked to report (to the best of their ability) the size of their

organization (as measured in number of employees), their organization's industry, and the age of

the organization. Rettab et al. (2009) explain that these variables are important to control for

because stakeholders have different expectations of organizations' CSR depending on their size,

industry, and age.

Careless response items. One of the potential disadvantages of using an online survey is

that respondents cannot be monitored and may respond to items carelessly. As a means of

screening out careless responses, Meade and Craig (2011) recommend employing several

techniques. One of which is including a small number of "bogus items" to ensure respondents are

paying attention to the questions asked. Bogus items have only one correct answer and the

endorsement of an incorrect response option suggests that the participant is either not paying attention or is not taking the study seriously. The pilot study included three items recommended by Meade and Craig, specifically: "*I am currently using a computer to answer this survey*", "*I am carefully reading the questions in this survey*", and "*I am rushing through this survey*". These items were mixed in with the measures of CSR features and organizational commitment because of their importance to the study. After filtering out participants flagged for careless responding, respondents who completed the study in an unrealistically short period of time were also removed because they likely responded carelessly to the study questions and passed the careless responding checks by chance.

Results: Pilot Study

Psychometric Evaluation and Item Reduction

The CSR features scale was the focus of psychometric evaluation for the pilot study. To evaluate internal consistency reliability, Cronbach's Alpha (α) was calculated for each of the four CSR features. The reliability of each scale was acceptable both before, and after, problematic items identified by SME feedback and the CFA (discussed below) were removed (i.e., $\alpha = \geq .78$; full details can be found in Table 6). In order to further reduce the number of items in the CSR features measure, feedback about the items was solicited from subject matter experts (SMEs) and the pilot data were analyzed using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

Feedback. While the pilot data were being collected, feedback was gathered from SMEs working in CSR departments at two major Canadian finance companies (n=5). The SMEs identified a small number of items as problematic. Their comments primarily focused on items that employees would not have knowledge of (e.g., "*When trying to save money, my organization typically seeks to cut funding from its CSR activities first*"). This feedback resulted in the

elimination of four items in total, specifically items 11, 12, 26, and 28 (the full list of items can be found in Table 6).

CFA. To further evaluate the psychometric properties of the CSR feature scale, Mplus 7.0 (L. K. Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2012) was used to conduct a CFA on the pilot data (n=92; after omitting participants whose organizations did not engage in CSR). CFA was chosen over an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) because a 4-factor model was hypothesized a priori. This reduces the possibility that the model results capitalize on chance (as can be the case with EFA). Additionally, CFA enables the researcher to pit the hypothesized factor structure against other possible models with tests of statistical significance (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). Thus, the hypothesized model was evaluated in terms of its absolute fit and its fit relative to other models. The hypothesized 4-factor model (alignment, commitment, employee involvement, and proactivity) was compared against several other models ranging from one to nine factors. These other models combined or split the CSR features in ways that were theoretically plausible as alternatives (e.g., combining commitment and proactivity or splitting commitment into consistency and effort).

The CFA was conducted using maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard errors (MLR). MLR is specific to Mplus and is effectively identical to full information maximum likelihood (FIML) estimation with the exception of how the standard errors of parameter estimates are calculated (B. O. Muthén, 2015). There is evidence that FIML estimation provides unbiased parameter estimates (relative to other techniques) in the presence of non-normal multivariate data and with missing data (Enders & Bandalos, 2001; Estabrook & Neale, 2013). This is because FIML uses as many data points as possible from cases with and without missing data to accurately calculate parameter estimates (but does not actually impute missing values).

One of the major assumptions behind FIML is that data are missing completely at random

(MCAR), meaning that all missing value patterns on a given variable are completely unrelated to

all other variables in the model and the variable with missing data itself (Enders & Bandalos,

2001). If the assumption of MCAR holds, it can be concluded that missing values have not

introduced any bias to the sample and have only reduced power, which can be partially recovered

by techniques such as FIML (T. D. Little, Jorgensen, Lang, & Moore, 2014). Thus, prior to

conducting the CFA, Little's MCAR test (R. J. A. Little, 1988) was conducted and it was found

that the data were indeed MCAR: $\chi^2(267)=267.73$, $p=.48$.

Several overall fit statistics were reported for the CFA model: the Chi-Square test (χ^2),

the χ^2/df ratio, the Steiger-Lind root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the Bentler

comparative fit index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and the standardized root mean

square residual (SRMR). Each index provides an indication of approximate overall model fit

from different perspectives (Kline, 2011). Rules of thumb have been provided for each index, but

Kline (2011) recommends that rules of thumb should be interpreted with caution and that these

indexes should be used *qualitatively* to provide a general sense of overall model fit, rather than

making strict quantitative comparisons. For χ^2, the χ^2/df ratio, RMSEA, and SRMR, lower values

are considered better. Values of .05 or lower are typically considered good for the RMSEA and

SRMR, but depend on the standard error of the estimates. Additionally, Kline recommends that

the correlation matrix residuals should be inspected instead of simply reporting the SRMR.

Finally, the possible range of values for the CFI and TLI are 0.0-1.0, with higher values being

better and values of .95 or greater typically considered as ideal (Kline, 2011). However, Kenny

(2015) points out that incremental fit indices such as the CFI and TLI are not particularly useful

when the baseline measurement model possesses an RMSEA less than 0.158. In the case of the

current analysis, the RMSEA of the baseline model was 0.219, indicating that incremental fit indices could be used.

In addition to examining overall fit statistics, the best-fitting model was determined by making comparisons between full and nested models using an adjusted form of Chi-Square difference testing (Bryant & Satorra, 2012). This is necessary because to the χ^2 values estimated by MLR are scaled to compensate for non-normality and do not follow a Chi-Square distribution (which the Chi-Square difference test relies on). The adjusted difference test follows the same principle as the original, but incorporates a scaling factor to adjust the χ^2 value of each model (for more details, see: "Satorra-Bentler Chi-square Test in Mplus," 2012).

The results of all CFA model comparisons (n=93) can be found in Table 4. When all 29 items were included, the results revealed that none of the models were a good fit in absolute terms. However, the hypothesized 4-factor model was either slightly better or on par with the other models. The fit statistics for the 4-factor model were as follows: $\chi^2(371)$=921.02, χ^2/df=2.48, *RMSEA*=.13, *CFI*=.69, *TLI*=.66, *SRMR*=.09, which was significantly better than the closest-fitting nested 2-factor model ($\chi^2_{difftest}$=137.70, *p*=.000). Although one of the 5-factor models had a slightly improved fit over the 4-factor model ($\chi^2_{difftest}$=20.73, *p*=.000), all models run with five factors or more were non-positive definite because there were more estimated parameters than sample size, which results in untrustworthy estimates and makes direct comparisons difficult (Wothke, 1993). The bivariate correlation matrix for the latent variables of the CSR feature measure can be found in Table 5.

Having evaluated the initial fit statistics, attention was turned to removing problematic items from the measure. In addition to the four items removed due to SME feedback, seven additional items were removed based on low factor loadings (items 3, 13, 16, 17, 19, 23, and 24).

Effort was made to remove an equal number of items from each CSR feature. All 29 items along with their factor loadings for both the full 29-item and reduced 18-item versions of the scale are presented in Table 6. Some of the higher-factor models for the 18-item version of the survey could not be run because too many items were eliminated from a particular CSR feature. For example, all of the items relating to the 'consistency over time' aspect of commitment to CSR were eliminated, leaving only items pertaining to 'effort'.

As shown in Table 4, removing these items improved the overall fit statistics of the 4-factor model markedly over the original model: $\chi^2(129)=233.01$, $\chi^2/df=1.81$, $RMSEA=.09$, $CFI=.90$, $TLI=.88$, $SRMR=.10$ ($\chi^2_{difftest}=688.01$, $p=.000$). This model was an equal or superior fit to all other models tested. Additionally, Table 6 shows that the factor loadings of all remaining items were acceptable (i.e., $\geq.67$). One concern was that the latent factor correlations markedly increased upon eliminating the items, raising questions about participants' distinction among the features – specifically alignment, commitment, and proactivity (see Table 5). That being said, given that most of the sample came from one organization, it is realistic to expect these three features could have been uniformly high in that organization. In light of this, these 18 items were retained for the main study.

Method: Main Study

Participants

Employed individuals were also sought out for the main study. Participants came from several sources: the resources and operations department of a large Canadian university[5], an online panel from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk; www.mturk.com), and a small number of

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[5] The primary purpose of this survey was to validate a new measure of leadership and was spearheaded by another researcher at the university who generously provided me with the opportunity to include my measures.

responses from individuals recruited via email through personal contacts. All participants resided

in North America.

Table 4. Pilot Results of CFA Model Fit for the 29- and 18-Item CSR Features Measures

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR
29-Item Measure							
1-factor	1107.02	377	2.94	0.14	0.59	0.56	0.10
2-factor (Combined A+EI and C+P)	1058.72	376	2.82	0.14	0.62	0.59	0.10
4-factor (Hypothesized)	921.02	371	2.48	0.13	0.69	0.66	0.09
5-factor (Split A)*	914.98	367	2.49	0.13	0.69	0.66	0.09
5-factor (Split C)*	914.11	367	2.49	0.13	0.69	0.66	0.09
5-factor (Split EI)*	918.93	367	2.50	0.13	0.69	0.66	0.09
5-factor (Split P)*	900.29	367	2.45	0.13	0.70	0.67	0.09
8-factor (Split all)*	866.61	349	2.48	0.13	0.71	0.66	0.09
18-Item Measure							
1-factor	352.32	135	2.61	0.13	0.79	0.76	0.11
2-factor (Combined A+EI and C+P)	293.22	134	2.19	0.11	0.85	0.82	0.10
4-factor (Hypothesized)	233.01	129	1.81	0.09	0.90	0.88	0.10
5-factor (Split A)*	228.90	125	1.83	0.10	0.90	0.88	0.10
5-factor (Split C)**	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5-factor (Split EI)*	229.30	125	1.83	0.10	0.90	0.88	0.10
5-factor (Split P)**	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8-factor (Split all)**	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Note. A=Alignment of CSR with identity; C=Commitment to CSR; EI=Employee involvement in CSR; P=Proactivity of CSR.
*PSI matrix non-positive definite due to larger number of parameters than sample size; **Not enough facet-level items to run model.

Table 5. *Pilot Survey Latent Variable Correlations for the 29- and 18-Item CSR Features Measures (Hypothesized Models)*

	29-Item Measure			18-Item Measure		
Variable	A	C	EI	A	C	EI
C	0.58	-		0.96	-	
EI	0.42	0.57	-	0.52	0.65	-
P	0.54	0.71	0.52	0.92	0.93	0.51

Note. A=Alignment of CSR with identity; C=Commitment to CSR; EI=Employee involvement in CSR; P=Proactivity of CSR.

Table 6. *Pilot Results of CFA Loadings for the 29- and 18-Item CSR Features Measures*

Item and target CSR feature		29-Item Measure		18-Item Measure	
		U	*S*	*U*	*S*
1. The core values of my organization and its CSR activities are closely aligned.	A	1.00	0.82	1.00	0.82
2. My organization's CSR activities are consistent with who we are as a company.	A	1.13	0.87	1.11	0.86
3. The CSR activities of my organization don't seem to fit with what we are known for. (R)	A	0.86	0.69	-	-
4. My organization's CSR activities are an excellent reflection of the company's image.	A	1.04	0.83	1.04	0.83
5. My organization's CSR activities align closely with its strategy.	A	1.15	0.91	1.14	0.91
6. My organization's mission statement and its CSR activities are not really compatible. (R)	A	1.07	0.77	1.07	0.77
Cronbach's Alpha – CSR-Identity Alignment	α	.91		.92	
7. At my organization, significant effort has been put into its CSR activities.	C	1.00	0.83	1.00	0.87
8. My organization's CSR activities reflect very little investment of effort on the part of the organization. (R)	C	0.93	0.76	0.92	0.78
9. My organization does not dedicate enough resources to ensure its CSR activities are successful. (R)	C	0.87	0.69	0.85	0.70
10. My organization has dedicated a substantial amount of resources to its CSR activities.	C	0.99	0.80	0.89	0.75
11. When trying to save money, my organization typically seeks to cut funding from its CSR activities first. (R)	C	0.45	0.44	-	-
12. My organization typically stops any CSR initiatives as soon as it is convenient to do so. (R)	C	0.84	0.72	-	-
13. It would be difficult to discontinue the CSR activities at my organization because so much has been invested.	C	0.67	0.54	-	-
Cronbach's Alpha – CSR Commitment	α	.84		.83	
14. My organization's CSR activities are often developed in consultation with employees.	EI	1.00	0.78	1.00	0.77
15. My organization typically leaves employees out of the CSR development process. (R)	EI	1.02	0.81	1.03	0.80
16. Regular employees would not likely be permitted to champion CSR initiatives at my organization. (R)	EI	0.82	0.59	-	-
17. The ideas for CSR activities in my company often come from employees.	EI	0.83	0.66	-	
18. My organization's CSR activities often involve the participation of employees.	EI	1.03	0.77	1.05	0.77

Item and target CSR feature		Pilot sample (n=93)			
		29-Item Measure		18-Item Measure	
		U	S	U	S
19. My organization's CSR activities are predominantly carried out by people inside the company.	EI	0.12	0.10	-	-
20. My organization rarely allows employees to help out in any meaningful way with its CSR activities. (R)	EI	1.01	0.82	1.02	0.81
21. Employees at my organization have a difficult time finding out how to get involved in the company's CSR activities. (R)	EI	0.94	0.71	0.94	0.71
Cronbach's Alpha – Employee Involvement in CSR	α	.83		.84	
22. My organization actively seeks out new ways to engage in CSR.	P	1.00	0.82	1.00	0.86
23. My organization typically follows the examples of other companies when it comes to CSR initiatives. (R)	P	0.23	0.21	-	-
24. My organization's CSR activities often go beyond what is expected by society.	P	0.84	0.66	-	-
25. When it comes to CSR, my organization leads the way as an inspiration for other companies.	P	0.93	0.75	0.86	0.73
26. My organization's CSR activities barely keep pace with what other organizations are doing. (R)	P	0.79	0.62	-	-
27. My organization's CSR activities are unique and innovative.	P	0.90	0.71	0.81	0.67
28. My organization strives to be an industry leader in CSR.	P	0.92	0.68	-	-
29. My organization's CSR activities are always evolving.	P	1.00	0.74	0.91	0.71
Cronbach's Alpha – CSR Proactivity	α	.83		.78	

Note. A=Alignment of CSR with identity; C=Commitment to CSR; EI=Employee involvement in CSR; P=Proactivity of CSR; (R)=Reverse-coded item; U=Unstandardized loading; S=Standardized loading.
Bolded items were retained for the main study.

Across all of these sources, a total of 464 surveys were returned, of which 371 were

usable after eliminating cases flagged for careless responding and excessive missing data. Of the

371 participants, 203 were male (54.7%), 166 were female (44.7%), and 2 did not report their

gender. The university survey asked participants to report their age as a categorical variable so

all data were converted to that format. As such, most participants fell into the range of 25-34

years of age (39.5%) followed by 35-44 (24.3%), 45-54 (16.5%), and 55-64 (10.8%).

Participants' highest level of education was reported most frequently as university undergraduate degree (33.4%) followed by college/technical diploma (25.3%), high school (22.6%) and postgraduate degree (18.6%). In contrast to the pilot survey, most participants held a position where they were responsible for managing employees (53.6%), whereas 32.9% reported not holding management positions. The remaining 13.5% of participants did not report this information. Organizational tenure was asked in all surveys except the university survey and had a mean of 5.60 years (SD=5.11). In the university survey, job tenure was asked instead of organizational tenure and had a mean of 11.04 years (SD=9.99). Additionally, most participants indicated that they worked for an organization with 500 or more employees (50.4%) followed by 10-49 (16.4%), 100-249 (11.1%), and 250-499 (7.8%). In terms of CSR, 82.2% of respondents reported that their organization currently engages, or has engaged, in some form of CSR activity, whereas 17.8% of respondents reported that their organization has never engaged in CSR. Lastly, of the 305 participants who reported working for organizations engaging in CSR, 198 (53.4% of total sample) indicated that they participate in their organization's CSR initiatives and 80 (21.6%) indicated that they did not. The remaining 27 participants (7.3%) did not provide information about their CSR participation. Descriptive statistics for all demographic variables included in the main study surveys are provided in Table 3.

Procedure

Participants were once again recruited through a variety of online methods. As mentioned previously, the university survey was part of a collaborative effort led by another researcher that was also intended to validate a measure of leadership using data from manager-subordinate dyads. Participants were first informed about the study in advance via email sent by the vice president of the department. A few weeks later, invitation emails were sent directly to managers

in the department asking them to participate in the survey. In the middle of the survey, managers were asked to email 3-10 of their employees with an invitation to participate in a different version of the survey intended for managers' subordinates. In terms of the scales relevant to this dissertation, both manager and subordinate surveys were identical and were of approximately equal length overall. Only the measures of CSR features, attributions, organizational commitment, and moral identity were included in this survey due to length considerations. This study went through a separate ethics approval process (see Appendix B for approval letter) and a donation of $1,000 was made to United Way by the lead researcher in lieu of traditional compensation a month after the completion of the study.

MTurk participants were recruited through Amazon's online posting platform. A description of the study was developed to advertise it to participants. Participants signed up voluntarily and were compensated $1 for completing the survey. Finally, the last group of participants were recruited via email and asked to share the survey their colleagues. These individuals were not offered compensation for participating in the study.

All data were collected electronically using either SurveyMonkey or Qualtrics (www.qualtrics.com). All surveys presented participants with a letter of information and the same definition of CSR used in the pilot study. Once again, participants viewed a debriefing form at the end of the survey with details about the study (all study materials can be viewed in Appendix B).

Measures

The following is a list of all measures included in the main study surveys. Measures used in the university, MTurk, and email surveys were the same as the pilot study unless otherwise noted. The full list of items used can be found in Appendix B.

CSR performance. This measure was included in the MTurk and email surveys, but was excluded from the university survey due to space considerations.

CSR features. The shortened 18-item CSR features measure was included in the main study surveys. After the item reduction process informed by the pilot study data, the measure contained five items to measure the alignment of the organization's CSR with its identity, four items to measure the organization's commitment to CSR, five items to measure the organization's involvement of employees in CSR, and four items to measure the organization's CSR proactivity. In addition, "*don't know*" was added to the end of the 5-point Likert scale as a sixth response option to account for the possibility that some participants might not be aware of certain aspects of their organization's CSR activities. A preliminary analysis of the CSR features scale revealed that a very small percentage of participants (<5%) responded "*don't know"* to each question. Consequently, these responses were treated as missing values, but assigned a special value to distinguish it from total lack of response. This enabled the aggregate analysis of the pilot and main study data.

CSR importance. The 5-item measure of CSR importance was included in the main study surveys, with the exception of the university survey which only included two of these items due to space considerations. The two items used were: "*My organization's CSR activities address issues that are truly worthwhile*" and "*My organization's CSR activities are focused on causes that really matter to me*".

CSR attributions. Employees' causal attributions of their organization's CSR were also assessed in the main study surveys, but with some small modifications. Given that some researchers have had difficulty with the factor structure of the Ellen et al. (2006) measure, the purpose of these modifications was to bring the attributions measure in line with the 6-item

intrinsic-extrinsic CSR attributions measure used by Vlachos and colleagues (2013) and simultaneously maintain enough items to operationalize attributions in line with the framework of Ellen et al. (2006) to test the original hypotheses of the study. The values-driven attribution item "*They want to make it easier for customers who care about the underlying cause(s) to support them*" was replaced with "*They are genuinely concerned about being socially responsible*". In addition, a new item intended to measure external attributions of CSR was added: "*They feel competitive pressures to engage in such activities*". This brought the measure to 18 items in total. Finally, the term "employees" was changed to "staff" for the university survey to put it in line with the common terminology used in that organization.

Organizational commitment. Organizational commitment was operationalized the same way as it was in the pilot survey for all surveys.

Moral identity. Moral identity was operationalized the same way as it was in the pilot study for all surveys.

Control variables. The same demographic variables that were asked in the pilot study were included in the MTurk and email surveys, but one question asking "*Do you participate in any of your organization's CSR activities?*" was added. The demographic questions differed somewhat for the university survey. Specifically, the lead researcher chose to operationalize age categorically (i.e., 18-24, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64, 65 and older), and operationalized education using slightly different categories. However, it was possible to create categorical variables for age and education that followed a consistent format across all surveys. Lastly, job tenure was measured instead of organizational tenure.

Careless response items. The careless response items were changed for the main surveys. Specifically, the new items were "*To ensure high quality data, please select Strongly*

Agree" and "*To ensure high quality data, please select Neither Agree nor Disagree*". These items were mixed in with the measures of CSR features and organizational commitment. Once again, participants who completed the survey too quickly were also filtered out for careless responding.

Analysis

The first objective of the study was to determine if CSR features would combine into distinct profiles using a person-centered approach. However, as detailed later, the results revealed that adopting a person-centered approach did not reveal distinct profiles and was not the best way to analyze the data. Accordingly, a variable-centered approach was adopted instead. To conserve space, the full description of the person-centered analysis and results for this study can be found in Appendix C.

First, the psychometric properties of each of the scales used in this study were evaluated, paying special attention to the CSR features scale. CFA models were evaluated in terms of factor loadings and overall fit (and compared to other theoretically plausible models when appropriate). Following this, bivariate correlations and descriptive statistics were calculated for all demographic and study variables.

Next, it was determined that an SPSS macro called PROCESS (Hayes, 2012-2016) was the most suitable for answering the research questions of the study from a variable-centered perspective. This macro allows SPSS users to estimate the direct and indirect effects in models with multiple mediators (it can accommodate up to 10 mediators operating in parallel). Just like standard multivariate regression, PROCESS runs separate regression equations for each mediator where the mediator is regressed on a series of predictor variables. Additional equations are run for each outcome variable where each outcome is regressed separately on all of the mediators.

The direct and indirect pathways from the focal predictor variable and the outcome are then calculated automatically. PROCESS can also accommodate the inclusion of one or more moderating variables in the model, where interactions can subsequently be probed for areas of significance (Hayes, 2013). The current model contains four CSR features as predictors (along with several covariates), five attributions as mediators, and the three components of commitment as outcome variables, which requires PROCESS to run a total of eight separate regressions.

Results and Interpretation: Main Study

In an effort to conserve space, this section provides both a description and interpretation of the main study results. The implications and limitations of the study are discussed in the following section.

Prior to conducting any analysis, variance inflation factors (VIF) and tolerance statistics were examined in SPSS among all predictor, mediator, and control variables to detect the presence of multicollinearity. The results did not reveal any issues with multicollinearity for any of the study variables. In addition, an examination of multivariate outliers was also conducted. This analysis revealed a small number of cases to be multivariate outliers, but these individuals responded correctly to the attention check questions and completed the survey in a reasonable amount of time. Thus, these cases were retained for future analysis because it was acknowledged that the responses of these individuals may reflect genuine differences in their organizational experiences that depart from the norm.

Psychometric Evaluation of Scales

CSR scales. First, the psychometric properties of the CSR features scale were evaluated using the main survey sample, and then subsequently reevaluated in concert with the other CSR

measures (i.e., CSR performance and CSR importance) using a combined sample of the pilot and main surveys.

The eighth and final step of the scale development process outlined in Figure 4 involved evaluating the psychometric properties of the CSR features scale with a different sample. Thus, prior to combining the pilot and main study surveys, Cronbach's alpha was calculated for each CSR feature using only the main survey. Once again, Cronbach's alpha was acceptable for all four CSR features (i.e., $\alpha=\geq.78$). Next, a CFA was run to reevaluate the fit of the hypothesized 4-factor structure of the measure. The purpose of this was to evaluate the factor loadings of each item and the overall fit of the model without capitalizing on sample-specific error variance in the pilot data that may have influenced the removal of items earlier (Kline, 2011).

The same procedure that was described in the pilot study was followed. To ensure using FIML was feasible, Little's MCAR test was conducted and revealed that the data were once again MCAR $\chi^2(913)=956.36$, $p=.16$. The CFA results ($n=285$) can be found below in Table 7. Results revealed that the hypothesized 4-factor model was not a particularly good overall fit to the data: $\chi^2(129)=518.44$, $\chi^2/df=4.02$, $RMSEA=.10$, $CFI=.81$, $TLI=.78$, $SRMR=.11$. Additionally, the latent variable correlation (PSI) matrix revealed very high correlations among some of the CSR features (see Table 8). These correlations were quite consistent with those found using the pilot data (see Table 5). In light of this, some additional 2- and 3- factor models combining the most highly correlated CSR features was tested. Likely because of the high correlations among latent variables, running models with five or more factors resulted in a non-positive definite PSI matrix; this made comparisons between the 4-factor, and the 5- and 6-factor models untrustworthy. As compared to the 2- and 3-factor models, the hypothesized 4-factor model was

either superior, or close to equal; as was the case when compared to the next best-fitting model

(3-factor model combining alignment and commitment to CSR: $\chi^2_{difftest}$=9.95, p=.019).

In an effort to improve the fit of the model further, an exploratory approach of modifying

the existing measurement model was taken (Byrne, 2012). Some of the model modification

indices (MIs) indicated that there were opportunities to improve the fit of the model. Estimating

additional parameters based on MIs is acceptable when it involves correlating the residuals

between two items intended to load on the same factor, but only when the researcher has reason

to believe that items have similar or overlapping content that is not entirely captured by the latent

variable (Byrne, 2012). In this case, the decision to incorporate the MIs was made because each

MI was between two reverse-coded items within the same factor (i.e., items 8 and 9, and items

15 and 21, as numbered in Table 6). The distinct methodological nature of these items likely

reduced their loadings on the intended latent factors and consequently overall model fit. When

these two MIs were modeled, overall fit improved significantly ($\chi^2_{difftest}$= 200.77, p=.000).

To supplement the analysis above, the MIs were removed from the model and a fifth

factor was created where all reverse-coded items possessed joint loadings on a "methods factor"

and their originally intended factor. Including a methods factor is an acceptable practice for

improving the accuracy of factor loadings by partialling out the variance associated with

methodological artifacts (Morin, Arens, & Marsh, 2016). Such an approach has also been used

with the TCM of commitment to provide evidence of the existence of a reverse coding factor

(Magazine, Williams, & Williams, 1996). The purpose of this was to extract any common

variance associated with the methodological similarity among the reverse-coded items. The fifth

factor was constrained to not correlate with the remaining factors. Running this 5-factor model

significantly improved overall fit over and above the hypothesized 4-factor model ($\chi^2_{difftest}$=

283.82, $p=.000$), and even indicated a significantly better fit than when the MIs were modeled ($\chi^2_{difftest}= 172.45$, $p=.000$). Additionally, latent variable correlations decreased and factor loadings for all indicators improved, supporting the existence of a reverse coding factor. In light of the analysis conducted, the decision was made to proceed with the hypothesized factor structure.

Following the evaluation of the CSR features measure using the main survey sample, the pilot and main survey samples were combined and all CSR scales used in the study were evaluated as part of the same model. The pilot and main survey samples were also combined for all subsequent analyses described for this study.

The decision to factor-analyze all CSR scales together was made to ensure the CSR features scale had discriminant validity in relation to other measures of CSR. A 6-factor solution was tested (performance, four features, and importance) and fit the data reasonably well: $\chi^2(390)=1184.61$, $\chi^2/df=3.03$, $RMSEA=.06$, $CFI=.85$, $TLI=.84$, $SRMR=.08$. This model also fit significantly better than any alternative models that involved combining the various scales into fewer factors (e.g., combining CSR features, combining performance and features). As expected, the correlations among latent factors were moderate to high, with the highest correlations generally found among the CSR features. All scales exhibited acceptable alpha levels.

CSR attributions. Several different models were compared for the attributions measure. Given that an additional item was added to differentiate between external and internal stakeholder-driven attributions, a 5-factor model (values-driven, internal stakeholder-driven, external stakeholder-driven, egoistic, strategic) was tested against a 4-factor model (with stakeholder-driven factors combined). The 5-factor model possessed acceptable fit statistics: $\chi^2(94)=346.09$, $\chi^2/df=3.03$, $RMSEA=.06$, $CFI=.85$, $TLI=.84$, $SRMR=.08$, and was a significantly

better fit to the data than the 4-factor model ($\chi^2_{difftest}$= 172.23, p=.000). All scales exhibited

acceptable alpha levels.

Table 7. *Main Survey Results of CFA Model Fit for the CSR Features Measure*

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR
1-factor	629.15	135	4.66	0.11	0.76	0.73	0.11
2-factor (Combined A+C+P)	544.97	134	4.07	0.10	0.80	0.78	0.11
2-factor (Combined A+P and C+EI)	619.81	134	4.63	0.11	0.77	0.74	0.10
3-factor (Combined A+C)	528.06	132	4.00	0.10	0.81	0.78	0.11
3-factor (Combined A+P)	534.51	132	4.05	0.10	0.81	0.78	0.12
3-factor (Combined C+P)	535.90	132	4.06	0.10	0.81	0.78	0.11
4-factor (Hypothesized)	518.44	129	4.02	0.10	0.81	0.78	0.11
5-factor (Split A)*	517.60	125	4.14	0.11	0.81	0.77	0.11
5-factor (Split EI)*	480.21	125	3.84	0.10	0.83	0.79	0.11
6-factor (Split A and EI)*	471.76	120	3.93	0.10	0.83	0.79	0.11
Exploratory Models							
4-factor (Hypothesized, with MIs)	421.91	127	3.32	0.09	0.86	0.83	0.09
5-factor (Reverse coding factor)	284.23	124	2.29	0.07	0.92	0.91	0.06

Note. A=Alignment of CSR with identity; C=Commitment to CSR; EI=Employee involvement in CSR; MIs=Modification indices; P=Proactivity of CSR.
*PSI matrix non-positive definite due to linear dependency among variables.

Table 8. *Main Survey Latent Variable Correlations for the CSR Features Measure (Hypothesized Model)*

Variable	A	C	EI
C	0.96	-	
EI	0.52	0.65	-
P	0.92	0.93	0.51

Note. A=Alignment of CSR with identity; C=Commitment to CSR; EI=Employee involvement in CSR; MIs=Modification indices; P=Proactivity of CSR.

Organizational commitment. The overall fit statistic for the 3-factor organizational

commitment model was not ideal: χ^2(132)= 649.53, χ^2/df=4.92, *RMSEA*=.10, *CFI*=.86, *TLI*=.83,

SRMR=.10. Additionally, this model was a significantly worse fit than the alternative 4-factor

model (i.e., splitting CC into high sacrifice and low alternatives; $\chi^2_{difftest}$= 110.35, p=.000).

However, given that the scale alphas were quite high (α=≥.81) and that the latent factor

correlations of the 3-factor model were in line with what would be expected based on past literature, the 3-factor model was retained for further analyses.

Moral identity. The 2-factor moral identity model was a reasonable fit to the data: $\chi^2(34)=141.72$, $\chi^2/df=4.17$, $RMSEA=.09$, $CFI=.85$, $TLI=.90$, $SRMR=.07$. Furthermore, it was superior to combining internalization and symbolization into a single factor ($\chi^2_{difftest}=110.07$, $p=.000$). The alphas of both scales were acceptable.

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations were calculated for all demographic and study variables and presented in Table 9.

Demographic variable correlations. Correlations among demographic variables were consistent with what would be expected. Age positively correlated with organizational ($r=.58$) and job tenure ($r=.54$), and organizational size correlated with organizational age ($r=.60$). A correlation could not be calculated for organizational and job tenure because they were included in separate surveys.

There are several correlations between demographic and study variables that are of note. First, age was positively related to external ($r=.15$) and internal stakeholder-driven attributions of CSR ($r=.16$), and negatively related to strategic attributions ($r=-.13$). Additionally, age was positively correlated with AC ($r=.16$), negatively correlated with NC ($r=-.16$), and positively correlated with MI ($r=.22$). The results for gender revealed fewer noteworthy correlations. Males tended to rate their organizations' CSR as more proactive ($r=.12$), but had lower MI ($r=-.15$) and MS ($r=.16$) than females. There were very few significant correlations for the tenure variables as well. Organizational tenure was negatively correlated with proactive CSR ($r=-.12$) and strategic

CSR attributions (*r*=-.19), and positively correlated with AC (*r*=.13), MI (*r*=.15), and MS (*r*=.13).

Organizational size had numerous significant correlations with study variables. It was positively correlated with three of the four CSR features – commitment (*r*=.13), employee involvement (*r*=.14), and proactivity (*r*=.16) – but uncorrelated with alignment. Interestingly, organizational size also had significant positive correlations with employees' external (*r*=.28) and internal stakeholder-driven attributions of CSR (*r*=.24). Furthermore, employees in larger organizations tended to report higher AC (*r*=.15) and lower NC (*r*=-.20). Finally, organizational size and MI were positively correlated (*r*=.10).

There are several correlations between demographic and study variables that are of note. First, age was positively related to external (*r*=.15) and internal stakeholder-driven attributions of CSR (*r*=.16), and negatively related to strategic attributions (*r*=-.13). Additionally, age was positively correlated with AC (*r*=.16), negatively correlated with NC (*r*=-.16), and positively correlated with MI (*r*=.22). The results for gender revealed fewer noteworthy correlations. Males tended to rate their organizations' CSR as more proactive (*r*=.12), but had lower MI (*r*=-.15) and MS (*r*=-.16) than females. There were very few significant correlations for the tenure variables as well. Organizational tenure was negatively correlated with proactive CSR (*r*=-.12) and strategic CSR attributions (*r*=-.19), and positively correlated with AC (*r*=.13), MI (*r*=.15), and MS (*r*=.13).

Organizational age also had numerous significant correlations. It was positively correlated with general CSR performance (*r*=.15), CSR commitment (*r*=.15), and CSR proactivity (*r*=.15). Employees of older organizations also tended to view the CSR issues addressed by the organization as more important (*r*=.12).

Table 9. *Descriptive Statistics and Correlations*[a]

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. G-CSR	3.60	0.86	(.90)								
2. A-CSR	3.74	0.82	.73**	(.86)							
3. C-CSR	3.47	0.90	.65**	.75**	(.79)						
4. EI-CSR	3.48	0.89	.48**	.57**	.64**	(.80)					
5. P-CSR	3.37	0.97	.67**	.75**	.70**	.54**	(.87)				
6. I-CSR	3.66	0.86	.68**	.71**	.69**	.63**	.61**	(.85)			
7. VD-Att	3.75	0.81	.70**	.72**	.69**	.53**	.63**	.64**	(.83)		
8. ESD-Att	3.52	0.87	.02	.01	.01	-.13*	.08	-.08	.02	(.84)	
9. ISD-Att	3.60	0.94	.38**	.32**	.29**	.30**	.36**	.26**	.35**	.48**	(.85)
10. E-Att	2.71	0.97	-.47**	-.38**	-.35**	-.45**	-.30**	-.40**	-.42**	.34**	-.10
11. ST-Att	3.11	1.05	-.16**	-.10	-.13*	-.27**	-.05	-.18**	-.19**	.35**	.04
12. AC	3.42	1.08	.64**	.53**	.49**	.50**	.52**	.50**	.60**	-.10	.23**
13. CC	3.10	0.87	-.20**	-.18**	-.14**	-.26**	-.16**	-.11*	-.18**	.05	-.01
14. NC	3.06	0.97	.54**	.47**	.40**	.37**	.51**	.48**	.51**	-.08	.24**
15. MI	4.49	0.61	.13*	.09	.18**	.19**	-.05	.21**	.27**	.02	.16**
16. MS	3.31	0.82	.17**	.14*	.16**	.06	.22**	.17**	.27**	.12*	.18**
17. Age[b]	3.00	1.22	-.05	-.11	-.00	.06	-.07	-.07	.01	.15**	.16**
18. Gender[c]	1.50	0.51	.043	.04	.01	.00	.12*	-.03	-.04	.01	.05
19. Org Tenure	7.50	7.92	-.03	-.03	.05	.05	-.12*	-.04	.06	.06	.08
20. Job Tenure	11.04	9.99	.	-.21	-.21	-.20	-.12	-.15	-.12	-.03	-.14
21. Org Size[d]	4.57	1.75	.06	.03	.13*	.14*	.16**	.04	.06	.28**	.24**
22. Org Age	71.58	55.85	.15*	.09	.15*	.09	.15*	.12*	.16**	.23**	.21**

Note. [a] *n*=0 to 487 due to missing data and/or differences in survey questions; [b] Age coded as 18-24 years old=1, 25-34=2, 35-44=3, 45-54=4, 55-64=5, 65 or older=6; [c] Gender coded as Female=1, Male=2; [d] Org Size coded as 1-9 employees=1, 10-49=2, 50-99=3, 100-249=4, 250-499=5, 500 or more=6.

G-CSR=General CSR performance; A-CSR=Alignment of CSR with Identity; C-CSR=Commitment to CSR; EI-CSR=Employee Involvement in CSR; P-CSR=Proactivity of CSR; I-CSR=Perceived Importance of CSR; VD-Att=Values-driven Attributions; ESD-Att=External Stakeholder-driven Attributions; ISD-Att=Internal Stakeholder-driven Attributions; E-Att=Egoistic Attributions; ST-Att=Strategic Attributions; AC=Affective Commitment; CC=Continuance Commitment; NC=Normative Commitment; MI=Moral Internalization; MS=Moral Symbolization.

*p<.05 **p<.01;* Cronbach's alpha values in diagonal where applicable.

Table 9 continued

Variable	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1. G-CSR												
2. A-CSR												
3. C-CSR												
4. EI-CSR												
5. P-CSR												
6. I-CSR												
7. VD-Att												
8. ESD-Att												
9. ISD-Att												
10. E-Att	(.84)											
11. ST-Att	.64**	(.87)										
12. AC	-.38**	-.19**	(.92)									
13. CC	.33**	.24**	-.26**	(.81)								
14. NC	-.33**	-.18**	.72**	-.09	(.89)							
15. MI	-.15**	-.08	.22**	-.09	.08	(.82)						
16. MS	-.05	-.05	.29**	-.02	.31**	.28**	(.84)					
17. Age[b]	-.06	-.13*	.16**	-.16**	.06	.22**	.01					
18. Gender	.06	.16**	.01	.01	-.01	-.15**	-.16**	-.01				
19. Org Tenure	-.05	-.19**	.13*	.01	.04	.15**	.13*	.58**	-.18**			
20. Job Tenure	-.05	-.09	.04	-.03	-.10	-.29**	.08	.54**	.01	.		
21. Org Size[b]	-.01	-.01	.15**	-.20**	.02	.10*	.02	.32**	.010	.24**	.	
22. Org Age	-.07	-.07	.23**	-.14**	.14**	.19**	.09	.33**	-.03	.15**	.	.60**

Note. [a] $n=0$ to 487 due to missing data and/or differences in survey questions; [b] Age coded as 18-24 years old=1, 25-34=2, 35-44=3, 45-54=4, 55-64=5, 65 or older=6; [c] Gender coded as Female=1, Male=2; [d] Org Size coded as 1-9 employees=1, 10-49=2, 50-99=3, 100-249=4, 250-499=5, 500 or more=6.
G-CSR=General CSR performance; A-CSR=Alignment of CSR with Identity; C-CSR=Commitment to CSR; EI-CSR=Employee Involvement in CSR; P-CSR=Proactivity of CSR; I-CSR=Perceived Importance of CSR; VD-Att=Values-driven Attributions; ESD-Att=External Stakeholder-driven Attributions; ISD-Att=Internal Stakeholder-driven Attributions; E-Att=Egoistic Attributions; ST-Att=Strategic Attributions; AC=Affective Commitment; CC=Continuance Commitment; NC=Normative Commitment; MI=Moral Internalization; MS=Moral Symbolization.
*p<.05 **p<.01;* Cronbach's alpha values in diagonal where applicable.

In terms of employees' attributions of CSR, organizational age was positively correlated with values-driven attributions ($r=.16$), as well as external ($r=.23$) and internal stakeholder-driven attributions ($r=.21$). Employees of older organizations also reported higher AC ($r=.23$) and CC ($r=.14$), and lower NC ($r=-.14$). Finally, organizational age and MI were positively correlated ($r=.19$).

To summarize, the correlations between demographic and study variables were in line with expectations. Employee age and gender, and organizational age and size had significant correlations with several CSR feature and attribution variables, which supports previous CSR

research emphasizing the relevance of these variables (Backhaus et al., 2002; Peterson, 2004; Rettab et al., 2009), and suggests that these variables should be included as covariates in subsequent analyses.

Study variable correlations. Correlations among study variables revealed some interesting patterns and were in line with expectations overall.

CSR variables. All four CSR features are positively correlated with one another, but not excessively so (r=.54 to r=.75). This provides some additional support for the distinctiveness of these features and indicates that participants differentiated among them. Furthermore, all four CSR features were positively correlated with general CSR performance (r=.48 to r=.73) and perceived importance of CSR (r=.61 to r=.71), as expected. This provides some preliminary evidence for the scale's convergent validity and reaffirms that the four CSR features are viewed as positive (at least individually).

With respect to attributions of CSR, all four CSR features generally showed the same pattern of correlations in relation to values-driven attributions (r=53. to r=.72), internal stakeholder-driven attributions (r=.29 to r=.36), and egoistic attributions (r=-.30 to r=-.45). The pattern of correlations was different for external stakeholder-driven attributions where employee involvement in CSR was the only feature with a significant correlation (r=-.13). Similarly, strategic attributions had significant negative correlations with CSR commitment (r=-.13) and employee involvement (r=-.27), but not with alignment or proactivity.

Finally, all four CSR features had a similar pattern of correlations with AC (r=.49 to r=.53), CC (r=-.14 to r=-.26), and NC (r=.37 to r=.51), further suggesting that higher levels of all four CSR features are viewed positively by employees.

Attributions. The correlations among CSR attributions are consistent with what has been found by other researchers (Skarmeas & Leonidou, 2013). Specifically, values-driven attributions were positively correlated with internal stakeholder-driven attributions ($r=.35$), uncorrelated with external stakeholder-driven attributions ($r=.02$), and negatively correlated with egoistic ($r=-.42$) and strategic attributions ($r=-.19$). External stakeholder-driven attributions had positive correlations with internal stakeholder-driven ($r=.48$), egoistic ($r=.34$), and strategic attributions ($r=.35$) whereas internal stakeholder-driven attributions did not have significant correlations with the latter two variables ($r=-.10$ and $r=.04$, respectively). Egoistic and strategic attributions had the highest correlation out of any of the attributions ($r=.64$).

Organizational commitment. Only one of the three correlations found among the three components of commitment were consistent with what was found by J. P. Meyer et al. (2002) in their meta-analysis for the 6-item measures. The size of the positive correlation between AC and NC ($r=.72$) was quite close to these meta-analytic findings ($\rho=.77$). On the other hand, the correlations between AC and CC ($r=-.26$), and NC and CC ($r=-.09$) differed from the meta-analytic findings ($\rho=-.04$ and $\rho=.11$, respectively).

Moral identity. Moral internalization and symbolization had modest, albeit significant, positive correlations with most of the CSR variables, the values-driven and stakeholder-driven attributions, and AC and NC.

CSR, CSR Participation, and Organizational Commitment

The data contained a large number of respondents who reported working for organizations that did not engage in CSR. Although not a main objective of the study, it was determined that the difference in organizational commitment between these two groups would be worth evaluating. An independent samples t-test was used to examine the difference in

organizational commitment between those who worked for organizations that engaged in CSR, and those who worked for organizations that did not.

Results revealed that employees reported significantly higher AC on average when their organization engaged in some form of CSR (M=3.56, SD=1.04) than when their organization did not (M=2.78, SD=1.05); t(432)=-6.05, p<.001. Similar results were found for NC, such that employees reported higher NC when their organization engaged in CSR (M=3.16, SD=0.94) than when it did not (M=2.60, SD=0.97); t(432)=-4.80, p<.001. In contrast, employees reported lower CC when their organization engaged in CSR (M=3.05, SD=0.89) as compared to when it did not (M=3.31, SD=0.75); t(432)=2.64, p=.01.

This is consistent with micro-level CSR studies that have found a positive relationship between employees' perceptions of CSR and AC (Mueller et al., 2012; Rayton, Brammer, & Millington, 2015), and when it is measured, NC (Hofman & Newman, 2014). It also supports the TCM of commitment (J. P. Meyer & Allen, 1991) where CSR is within the purview of positive organizational characteristics and could be potentially experienced by employees as a form of investment in activities supporting their values and well-being. Additionally, employees' NC may be fostered through third-party justice perceptions (i.e., the organization behaves fairly towards others) when CSR benefits other stakeholders (Rupp et al., 2006).

Of the employees who worked for organizations that engaged in CSR, t-tests were also conducted to determine if there were significant differences in organizational commitment between those who reported participating in CSR versus those who did not. For AC, results revealed that CSR participants (M=3.72, SD=0.99) reported significantly more emotional attachment to their organization than non-participants (M=3.30, SD=1.08); t(304)=-3.27, p=.001. CSR participants also reported more NC (M=3.34, SD=0.85) than non-participants (M=2.85,

SD=1.04); *t*(304)=-4.28, *p*<.001. Finally, there was not a statistically significant difference between CSR participants (*M*=3.06, *SD*=0.86) and non-participants (*M*=2.97, *SD*=0.95) in terms of CC; *t*(304)=-0.80, *p*=.427.

This is consistent with research that found that employees who participated in corporate volunteerism experienced more self-integrity (comprised of self-esteem, a clear sense of identity, and sense of control) and consequently reported greater organizational commitment than those who did not (Brockner et al., 2014). It may also be explained by theoretical work by Bingham et al. (2013), who argue that when employees take steps to support a socially responsible organization-sponsored cause, they are likely to express a sense of pride and commitment towards the organization because of how closely they associate the cause and organization.

Hypothesis Testing: Person-Centered Analysis

Although both person- and variable-centered analyses were conducted, only a brief summary and interpretation of the person-centered analysis is provided in this section (the full analysis is reported in Appendix C). LPA models ranging from 2 to 8 profiles were run in an effort to determine how the four proposed CSR features combined into latent profiles. It was determined that a 5-profile solution was optimal, but an inspection of the profile means revealed little within-profile variation among the features (meaning that all four CSR features possessed similar means within each profile), with the exception of one profile representing only 7% of the sample. Although this profile was qualitatively distinct, it was not originally hypothesized as a possible combination of CSR features and was somewhat challenging to interpret. Employees in this profile indicated that their organizations' CSR activities fit closely with its core values, image, and strategy (high CSR-identity alignment) and were evolving and innovative (high CSR proactivity). However, these organizations dedicated comparatively less resources to CSR than

organizations in other profiles (low CSR commitment), and did not involve their employees in the development or implementation of their CSR activities (low employee CSR involvement). It is possible that this profile represents a strategic form of CSR that is driven primarily by management and leverages existing resources and core competencies (which is efficient and requires perceivably little effort) to further a particular cause.

Unfortunately, this profile solution prevented H2-H6 from being tested using a person-centered approach. The most immediate explanation for the similar means within profiles is the high correlations among three of the four CSR features when expressed as the simple arithmetic mean of the items (r=.70 to .75) and as latent factors within the framework of CFA (r=.92 to .96). Employee involvement in CSR was the only feature with modest latent variable correlations with the three other CSR features (r=.51 to .65), suggesting that it was perceived by employees as distinct. In the absence of empirical research with which to compare these results, it cannot be confirmed nor denied that these four CSR features organize into qualitatively distinct profiles.

Hypothesis Testing: Variable-Centered Analysis

The variable-centered analysis was originally intended to supplement the latent profile analysis, but became more of a central focus of the study after the results of the profile analysis were evaluated. Although H2-H6 could not be tested, it was still possible to H7-H9, which involved evaluating the independent contributions of each CSR feature in predicting organizational commitment through CSR attributions, and determine if moral identity functioned as a moderating variable. H7-H9 are recounted just prior to the description of the relevant analysis.

To evaluate the relationships among study variables, a series of regressions were run using the PROCESS macro in SPSS. Given that data in the Social Sciences are often not

normally distributed (and can sometimes be extremely non-normal; as is the case with the moral identity variables), 95% bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals were calculated for each estimated parameter using PROCESS (Hayes, 2013). These confidence intervals are calculated based on an empirically-derived bootstrapped distribution of the estimated parameter that may (sometimes significantly) depart from the normal distribution and therefore provide greater accuracy in significance testing. The bias-corrected confidence intervals were calculated for all regression coefficients but only reported for the indirect paths from CSR features to organizational commitment. This is because the bias-corrected confidence intervals were consistent with the p values for each of the regression coefficients, but PROCESS does not calculate p values for indirect effects.

The results of these regressions can be found in Table 10 and Table 11. The regressions predicting CSR attributions and organizational commitment included CSR importance, employee age, gender, and organization size as additional covariates because of the results of past research suggesting that these variables may play an important role in CSR perceptions (Backhaus et al., 2002; Peterson, 2004; Rettab et al., 2009), and also because of their significant correlations with study variables. General CSR performance was excluded from the regressions because data on this variable were not collected for a sizeable portion of the sample and its inclusion would have reduced the usable sample size by 66 (PROCESS is only capable of handling missing data through listwise deletion). Additionally, organizational age was excluded from the regressions because its inclusion also resulted in a reduction in sample size by 30, but more importantly, it was not a significant predictor of CSR attributions or organizational commitment.

Prediction of CSR attributions. Table 10 presents the pathways from CSR features (and control variables) to CSR attributions. Overall, while zero-order correlations showed that all four

CSR features had similar relations to each of the five CSR attributions (e.g., all four features had strong positive correlations with values-driven attributions and strong negative correlations with egoistic attributions), the multivariate regressions showed that only certain CSR features significantly predicted certain attributions. Nonetheless, all five attributions were predicted by at least one CSR feature. The results indicate that the most variance was explained in values-driven attributions [R^2=.63, $F(8,297)$=62.64, p<.001], and the least variance was explained in strategic attributions [R^2=.13, $F(8,297)$=5.31, p<.001].

Specifically, it was found that CSR alignment and CSR commitment positively predicted values-driven attributions (b=.37 and b=.16, respectively). Consistent with qualitative research by McShane and Cunningham (2012), this suggests that employees are more likely to view their organization's CSR as authentic, altruistic, and volitional when the organization's CSR initiatives fit with its overall identity (in terms of its core values, image, strategy, and mission statement), and when the organization puts significant effort and resources into CSR[6]. This is also consistent with the consumer attributions literature where greater company-cause fit was positively related to values-driven attributions (Ellen et al., 2006), and retailers' CSR effort was related to more positive CSR evaluations (Ellen, Mohr, & Webb, 2000) and perceptions of intrinsic CSR motives (Parguel et al., 2011).

Employee involvement in CSR negatively predicted external stakeholder-driven (b=-.29), egoistic (b=-.32), and strategic attributions (b=-.33). This suggests that when employees are not involved in the development and implementation of their organization's CSR, they are more likely to perceive the organization's motives as insincere and instrumental. Given that involving employees requires the organization to relinquish a degree of control over its CSR activities, it is

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[6] Recall that items intended to measure consistent commitment to CSR over time were removed due to poor psychometric performance.

reasonable to expect that employees would associate their exclusion from CSR with a lack of interest by the organization in their values and needs (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013). This is consistent with qualitative research suggesting that when organizations exclude their employees from CSR, employees are more likely to perceive it as inauthentic (McShane & Cunningham, 2012) and less likely to view it as legitimate (Liu et al., 2010). Surprisingly, employee involvement did not predict internal stakeholder-driven attributions, but did reach significance as a positive predictor when the other three CSR features were removed from the regression. Thus, although preliminary analysis did not reveal any issues with multicollinearity among the four CSR features, the regressions along with the correlations among the CSR features suggest that they do share a common thread that predicts attributions.

CSR proactivity positively predicted both external (b=.17) and internal stakeholder-driven attributions (b=.22). This was unexpected given that by definition, proactivity should not be associated with stakeholder pressure. While this stands in contrast to results of a lab study by Groza et al. (2011) that found CSR proactivity to be associated with more values-driven and strategic attributions, Groza and colleagues utilized a different operationalization of proactivity/reactivity (i.e., providing a voluntary donation versus providing a donation after a negative environmental issue occurred) and a sample of consumers (i.e., students). Since proactivity was operationalized in my study in terms of seeking out new ways to engage in CSR, industry leadership, and unique and innovative CSR, these results could be interpreted in terms of Bertels and Peloza's (2008) model of ratcheting CSR expectations. Specifically, it is possible that when organizations are working to constantly innovate and stand out in its CSR activities, employees would perceive this as a form of reacting to stakeholder expectations and pressure in

order to maintain a positive reputation. An additional explanation for these results is provided in Chapter 6.

Finally, there were a few noteworthy relationships between other variables and attributions. Employees' perceptions of CSR importance positively predicted values-driven attributions (b=.28) and negatively predicted egoistic attributions (b=-.31). This suggests that individuals' personal and subjective evaluations of the value of a social or environmental issue can affect their perceptions of an organization's motives for engaging in CSR. Additionally, gender had a relatively strong positive relationship with strategic attributions (b=.34), indicating that males were more likely to perceive their organization's CSR as strategic.

Prediction of organizational commitment. H7-H9 relate to the prediction of organizational commitment. Specifically, H7 predicted that (a) values-driven, (b) strategic, and (c) internal stakeholder-driven attributions would be positively related to AC and NC, and that (d) external stakeholder-driven, and (e) egoistic attributions would be negatively related to AC and NC. H8 predicted that the relationship between CSR feature profiles and (a) AC and (b) NC would be partially mediated by CSR attributions. To bring this hypothesis in line with the variable-centered analysis conducted, it was refined as follows:

Hypothesis 8R: *The relationship between each CSR feature and (a) AC and (b) NC will be partially mediated by CSR attributions.*

Lastly, H9 predicted that moral identity would moderate the relationship between CSR attributions and (a) AC, and (b) NC, such that higher levels of moral identity would results in stronger relationships between these variables.

Table 10. *Regression and Model Summary Results for the Prediction of CSR Attributions by CSR Features*

Antecedent	VD-Att (M₁)			ESD-Att (M₂)			ISD-Att (M₃)			E-Att (M₄)			ST-Att (M₅)		
	Coeff	SE	p	Coeff	SE	p	Coeff	SE	P	Coeff	SE	p	Coeff	SE	p
A-CSR (X_1)	**0.37**	0.06	<.001	0.05	0.10	.63	0.14	0.11	.21	-0.18	0.11	.11	0.04	0.13	.77
C-CSR (X_2)	**0.16**	0.06	.01	0.08	0.09	.38	-0.06	0.09	.52	0.10	0.09	.28	0.12	0.11	.26
EI-CSR (X_3)	-0.03	0.05	.46	**-0.29**	0.07	<.001	0.09	0.08	.22	**-0.32**	0.08	<.001	**-0.33**	0.09	<.001
P-CSR (X_4)	0.07	0.05	.15	**0.17**	0.08	.03	**0.22**	0.08	.01	0.06	0.08	.45	0.05	0.10	.63
I-CSR (X_5)	**0.28**	0.06	<.001	-0.09	0.09	.35	0.07	0.09	.44	**-0.31**	0.10	.001	-0.19	0.11	.09
Age[a] (X_6)	0.03	0.03	.20	0.04	0.04	.39	**0.09**	0.04	.04	**-0.10**	0.04	.02	**-0.10**	0.05	.04
Gender[b] (X_7)	-0.04	0.06	.44	-0.05	0.09	.60	0.02	0.10	.81	0.06	0.10	.52	**0.34**	0.11	.003
Org Size[c] (X_8)	0.003	0.02	.86	**0.14**	0.03	<.001	**0.10**	0.03	.001	0.03	0.03	.30	-.001	0.04	.99
Constant	**-3.11**	.19	<.001	-0.37	0.31	.24	**-2.42**	0.32	<.001	**2.40**	0.33	<.001	**0.91**	0.39	.02
	R^2=0.63			R^2=0.15			R^2=0.22			R^2=0.26			R^2=0.13		
	$F_{(8,297)}$=62.64, p<.001			$F_{(8,297)}$=5.14, p<.001			$F_{(8,297)}$=10.68, p<.001			$F_{(8,297)}$=13.00, p<.001			$F_{(8,297)}$=5.31, p<.001		

Note. [a] Age coded as 18-24 years old=1, 25-34=2, 35-44=3, 45-54=4, 55-64=5, 65 or older=6; [b] Gender coded as Female=1, Male=2; [c] Org Size coded as 1-9 employees=1, 10-49=2, 50-99=3, 100-249=4, 250-499=5, 500 or more=6.

A-CSR=Alignment of CSR with Identity; C-CSR=Commitment to CSR; EI-CSR=Employee Involvement in CSR; P-CSR=Proactivity of CSR; I-CSR=Perceived Importance of CSR; VD-Att=Values-driven Attributions; ESD-Att=External Stakeholder-driven Attributions; ISD-Att=Internal Stakeholder-driven Attributions; E-Att=Egoistic Attributions; ST-Att=Strategic Attributions; All coefficients reported are unstandardized and **bolded** when p≤.05 for ease of interpretation.

Table 11 summarizes the pathways between study variables that correspond to H7-H9. Specifically, the pathways from CSR attributions to organizational commitment correspond to H7 and are presented in the table under the second subheading, entitled "*Mediators (M$_n$).*" The direct and indirect pathways from CSR features to organizational commitment correspond to H8 and are presented under the first and third subheadings, which are entitled "*Direct Paths (C$_n$)*" and "*Indirect Paths (X$_n$ × M$_n$),*" respectively. Finally, the estimates for the interactions between CSR attributions and moral identity as predictors of organizational commitment correspond to H9 and are presented under the final subheading, entitled "*Interactions.*"

The results indicate that the most variance was explained in AC [R^2=.53, $F(25,280)$=12.37, p<.001], and the least variance was explained in CC [R^2=.25, $F(25,280)$=3.78, p<.001]. Overall, the relationships between CSR attributions and organizational commitment were partially consistent with what was hypothesized.

There were some significant paths from CSR attributions to organizational commitment. Specifically, AC was positively predicted by values-driven attributions (b=.35) and negatively predicted by external stakeholder-driven attributions (b=-.23), providing support for H7a and H7d, respectively. NC was only predicted by external stakeholder-driven attributions, but the relationship was in the expected direction (b=-.17), providing further support for H7d. Although the remaining attributions were not significant predictors of AC or NC, most of the zero-order correlations among these variables were exactly in line with expectations (e.g., weak positive correlations with internal stakeholder-driven attributions, strongest negative correlations with egoistic attributions), with the exception of strategic attributions, had weak albeit significant negative correlations with AC and NC. Overall, these results are consistent with what has been found in the consumer attributions literature (Ellen et al., 2006; Skarmeas & Leonidou, 2013).

Additionally, although no hypotheses were provided for CC, it was positively predicted by internal-stakeholder driven attributions (b=.14) and egoistic attributions of CSR (b=.20).

Consistent with H8$_R$, CSR features significantly predicted AC and NC both directly and indirectly through attributions, albeit results were somewhat mixed. The indirect pathways from CSR features to organizational commitment were calculated by multiplying the paths from CSR features to attributions with the paths from attributions to commitment.

AC was either directly or indirectly predicted by three of the four CSR features. Specifically, CSR-identity alignment had a positive indirect relationship with AC only through values-driven attributions (b=.13), whereas employee CSR involvement (b=.18) and CSR proactivity (b=.21) had positive direct relationships with AC. This suggests that the characteristics of an organization's CSR play a significant role in promoting the emotional attachment of employees to their organization.

NC was also positively predicted by the same three CSR features. CSR proactivity directly predicted NC (b=.32), whereas CSR-identity alignment and employee CSR involvement indirectly predicted NC through values-driven (b=.06) and external-stakeholder driven attributions (b=.05), respectively. This suggests that employees view CSR with these characteristics as a form of investment (either in them or other stakeholders), which would lead to a sense of loyalty and obligation towards the organization.

Lastly, CC had very few significant relationships with the CSR features, but had a negative direct relationship with employee CSR involvement (b=-.19). This means that when employees are more involved in their organization's CSR activities, they are less likely to feel stuck in the organization because of a lack of alternatives or a fear of losing what they have invested in the organization. Interestingly, CSR commitment did not have significant

relationships with any form of organizational commitment. This suggests that the amount of

resources that organizations dedicate towards their CSR activities does not have any bearing on

the commitment of their employees.

Table 11. *Regression and Model Summary Results for the Prediction of Organizational Commitment by CSR Features, as Mediated by CSR Attributions and Moderated by Moral Identity*

Antecedent	AC			CC			NC		
Direct Paths (C_n)	Coeff	SE	p	Coeff	SE	p	Coeff	SE	p
A-CSR (C_1)	0.15	0.11	.15	-0.09	0.12	.46	0.07	0.10	.51
C-CSR (C_2)	-0.15	0.09	.09	0.14	0.10	.15	-0.15	0.09	.09
EI-CSR (C_3)	**0.18**	0.07	.02	**-0.19**	0.08	.02	-0.003	0.07	.96
P-CSR (C_4)	**0.21**	0.08	.001	-0.06	0.09	.51	**0.32**	0.08	<.001
I-CSR (C_5)	0.05	0.09	.54	0.12	0.10	.21	0.14	0.09	.11
Age[a] (C_6)	**0.17**	0.04	<.001	**-0.09**	0.04	.04	**0.09**	0.04	.02
Gender[b] (C_7)	0.13	0.09	.16	-0.01	0.10	.95	0.05	0.09	.57
Org Size[c] (C_8)	0.01	0.03	.86	**-0.07**	0.03	.04	-0.05	0.03	.06
Mediators (M_n)	Coeff	SE	p	Coeff	SE	p	Coeff	SE	p
VD-Att (M_1)	**0.35**	0.10	<.001	-0.13	0.11	.24	0.17	0.10	.09
ESD-Att (M_2)	**-0.23**	0.07	.001	-0.10	0.08	.20	**-0.17**	0.07	.01
ISD-Att (M_3)	-0.02	0.06	.75	**0.14**	0.07	.04	0.08	0.06	.17
E-Att (M_4)	-0.06	0.07	.36	**0.20**	0.08	.01	-0.03	0.07	.65
ST-Att (M_5)	0.02	0.06	.76	0.12	0.07	.08	-0.01	0.06	.91
Indirect Paths ($X_n \times M_n$)	Coeff	SE	95% CI	Coeff	SE	95% CI	Coeff	SE	95% CI
A-CSR (Total)	**0.13**	0.06	.02 to .24	-0.06	0.06	-.18 to .06	**0.07**	0.04	.05 to .21
$X_1 \times M_1$	**0.13**	0.05	.05 to .25	-0.05	0.04	-.13 to .02	**0.06**	0.05	.01 to .20
$X_1 \times M_2$	-0.01	0.03	-.08 to .04	-0.004	0.02	-.05 to .02	-0.01	0.02	-.07 to .03
$X_1 \times M_3$	0.001	0.01	-.04 to .01	0.02	0.02	-.01 to .08	0.01	0.02	-.01 to .06
$X_1 \times M_4$	0.01	0.02	-.01 to .07	-0.03	0.03	-.12 to .01	0.01	0.02	-.02 to .06
$X_1 \times M_5$	0.001	0.01	-0.02 to .03	0.001	0.02	-.03 to .06	-0.001	0.01	-.03 to .02
C-CSR (Total)	0.03	0.04	-.05 to .11	0.001	0.04	-.08 to .08	0.01	0.03	-.06 to .07
$X_2 \times M_1$	**0.06**	0.03	.01 to .14	-0.02	0.02	-.07 to .01	0.03	0.02	-.01 to .08
$X_2 \times M_2$	-0.02	0.03	-.08 to .03	-0.01	0.01	-.06 to .01	-0.01	0.02	-.07 to .02
$X_2 \times M_3$	0.001	0.01	-.01 to .03	-0.01	0.02	-.06 to .01	-0.01	0.01	-.04 to .01
$X_2 \times M_4$	-0.01	0.01	-.06 to .01	0.02	0.03	-.02 to .10	-0.003	0.01	-.05 to .01
$X_2 \times M_5$	0.002	0.01	-.01 to .04	0.01	0.02	-.01 to .07	-0.001	0.01	-.03 to .02
EI-CSR (Total)	0.07	0.04	-.01 to .15	-0.06	0.04	-.15 to .03	**0.06**	0.01	.05 to .08
$X_3 \times M_1$	-0.01	0.02	-.05 to .02	0.004	0.01	-.01 to .03	-0.01	0.01	-.03 to .01
$X_3 \times M_2$	**0.07**	0.03	.02 to .14	0.03	0.02	-.01 to .09	**0.05**	0.03	.01 to .13
$X_3 \times M_3$	-0.002	0.01	-.03 to .01	0.01	0.01	-.01 to .06	0.01	0.01	-.01 to .04
$X_3 \times M_4$	0.02	0.03	-.02 to .09	**-0.06**	0.03	-.14 to -.01	0.01	0.02	-.03 to .06
$X_3 \times M_5$	-0.01	0.02	-.06 to .04	-0.04	0.03	-.11 to .01	0.002	0.02	-.05 to .04
P-CSR (Total)	-0.02	0.03	-.09 to .05	0.02	0.03	-.04 to .08	-0.002	0.01	-.03 to .02

Antecedent	AC			CC			NC		
$X_4 \times M_1$	0.02	0.02	-.01 to .08	-0.01	0.01	-.05 to .01	0.01	0.01	-.01 to .05
$X_4 \times M_2$	-0.04	0.02	-.10 to .01	-0.02	0.02	-.07 to .01	**-0.03**	0.02	-.09 to -.01
$X_4 \times M_3$	-0.001	0.02	-.04 to .03	**0.03**	0.02	.01 to .09	0.02	0.02	-.01 to .06
$X_4 \times M_4$	-0.004	0.01	-.04 to .01	0.01	0.02	-.01 to .06	-0.001	0.01	-.03 to .01
$X_4 \times M_5$	0.001	0.001	-.01 to .03	0.01	0.01	-.01 to .05	-0.001	0.01	-.02 to .01
Moderators	Coeff	SE	p	Coeff	SE	p	Coeff	SE	p
MI (V)	0.13	0.09	.15	-0.09	0.10	.37	0.03	0.09	.74
MS (Q)	**0.24**	0.06	<.001	0.09	0.07	.17	**0.24**	0.06	<.001
Interactions	Coeff	SE	p	Coeff	SE	p	Coeff	SE	p
VD-Att × MI	0.14	0.12	.26	-0.11	0.13	.41	-0.04	0.12	.75
VD-Att × MS	0.02	0.08	.81	0.13	0.08	.13	0.11	0.07	.15
ESD-Att × MI	**0.29**	0.13	.03	-0.17	0.14	.23	-0.08	0.13	.55
ESD-Att × MS	-0.10	0.08	.24	0.03	0.09	.76	0.14	0.08	.10
ISD-Att × MI	-0.16	0.11	.13	0.10	0.11	.38	0.07	0.10	.47
ISD-Att × MS	**0.14**	0.07	.03	-0.08	0.07	.29	-0.03	0.07	.64
E-Att × MI	0.21	0.13	.12	0.11	0.14	.46	0.03	0.13	.82
E-Att × MS	-0.09	0.08	.24	**-0.18**	0.08	.03	-0.08	0.07	.27
ST-Att × MI	-0.10	0.12	.40	-0.13	0.13	.31	0.04	0.12	.73
ST-Att × MS	0.09	0.07	.20	**0.20**	0.07	0.01	-0.10	0.06	.11
Constant	**1.24**	0.43	.004	**3.89**	0.46	<.001	**1.71**	0.42	<.001
	$R^2=0.53$			$R^2=0.25$			$R^2=0.44$		
	$F(25,280)=12.37, p<.001$			$F(25,280)=3.78, p<.001$			$F(25,280)=8.76, p<.001$		

Note. [a] Age coded as 18-24 years old=1, 25-34=2, 35-44=3, 45-54=4, 55-64=5, 65 or older=6; [b] Gender coded as Female=1, Male=2; [c] Org Size coded as 1-9 employees=1, 10-49=2, 50-99=3, 100-249=4, 250-499=5, 500 or more=6. A-CSR=Alignment of CSR with Identity; C-CSR=Commitment to CSR; EI-CSR=Employee Involvement in CSR; P-CSR=Proactivity of CSR; I-CSR=Perceived Importance of CSR; VD-Att=Values-driven Attributions; ESD-Att=External Stakeholder-driven Attributions; ISD-Att=Internal Stakeholder-driven Attributions; E-Att=Egoistic Attributions; ST-Att=Strategic Attributions; AC=Affective Commitment; CC=Continuance Commitment; NC=Normative Commitment; MI=Moral Internalization; MS=Moral Symbolization.
All coefficients reported are unstandardized and **bolded** when $p \leq .05$ for ease of interpretation.

Moral internalization and moral symbolization were also included in the model as moderators of the relationships between CSR attributions and organizational commitment. Moral internalization did not predict any of the commitment variables, but moral symbolization was a significant predictor of AC (*b*=.24) and NC (*b*=.24), which suggests that individuals who strive to live up to values representative of compassion, honesty, and generosity are more likely to experience an emotional attachment and moral obligation to their organization. Testing the interaction between attributions and moral internalization/symbolization on the three forms of organizational commitment resulted in a total of 30 tests (10 per regression), of which four were

significant when α=.05 was used as the criteria for significance. However, in the case of testing for all possible interactions, it is important to take into account the increased probability of finding a false positive (i.e., increased Type I error). Using the Bonferroni method, the adjusted α can be calculated as $\alpha_i=\alpha/k$, where k was calculated by taking into account the total number of interactions tested per regression (i.e., 10) and thus calculated as $\alpha_i=0.05/10=0.005$. Using this adjusted cutoff, it was determined that none of the interactions between CSR attributions and moral identity on organizational commitment were significant. Accordingly, H9 was not supported.

Discussion

The purpose of the current study was to explore the relationships among four proposed CSR features, employees' attributions of CSR, and organizational commitment. To do so, I designed and pilot tested a measure of CSR features intended to be distributed to employees. Additionally, I applied LPA in an effort to determine if these CSR features combined in meaningful ways that could be used to predict attributions and commitment. Although the results of the profile analysis prevented the examination of mean differences of attributions and commitment across CSR feature profiles, I was still able to examine these relationships using a variable-centered approach. Specifically, I conducted a series of regressions to evaluate the relationships among CSR features and the three mindsets of organizational commitment, as mediated by CSR attributions and moderated by moral identity. In this section, I discuss this study's implications and limitations. A more general discussion of the findings, implications, and limitations is presented in the General Discussion in Chapter 6.

CSR Research and Theory

The current study adopted a novel approach to conceptualizing and analyzing CSR, and has implications for future research and theory in this area. The results indicated that studying CSR in terms of its characteristics or features was a viable approach for predicting CSR attributions and organizational commitment. Although there are clearly more than just four possible CSR features, the measure developed in this study can serve as a reasonable starting point for researchers seeking to study organizations' CSR activities in terms of its overall character (Basu & Palazzo, 2008). As argued in the opening chapter, given that any CSR activity can be characterized by CSR features, it is argued that supplementing CSR research by measuring its features will lead to more comparable results across studies and a deeper understanding of the relationship between CSR and employee-related outcomes. Future research could investigate other potential CSR features such as the presence or absence of strategic CSR branding (Kumar & Christodoulopoulou, 2014; Vallaster et al., 2012), the degree of formality of an organization's CSR (Russo & Tencati, 2009), and the degree to which the organization's CSR activities are closely related to one another (Tang et al., 2012).

The results of this study also provided support for the importance of attributions in the CSR perception process. Although attribution theory is frequently used in the marketing literature, very few studies have used attributions as a mechanism to explain the relationship between organizations' CSR and positive employee outcomes. Additionally, this study built upon the consumer attributions literature by introducing internal stakeholder-driven attributions and demonstrating that they are distinct (in the eyes of employees) from the original four attributions enumerated by Ellen et al. (2006).

This study also has implications for theory and research on the TCM of commitment. Most obviously, the results reinforce that CSR and CSR features are perceived as positive characteristics of the organization and as investment in employees, which fosters both affective and obligation-based attachments to the organization. Given that more recent commitment research has adopted the person-centered approach to studying these three mindsets in concert (J. P. Meyer, Kam, et al., 2013; J. P. Meyer, Stanley, et al., 2013), future research may seek to determine what kinds of commitment profiles are likely to form based on the content and features of organizations' CSR activities. Future research may also seek to understand how employees' commitment to socially responsible causes that are supported by the organization affect their experience at work and commitment to the organization as a whole (Bingham et al., 2013).

One limitation of operationalizing CSR in terms of features relates to the scale development process. A large number of items were eliminated based on the results of a small pilot study that was conducted using participants primarily from one large organization in the healthcare industry. Given the importance of contextual factors such as organizational size, age, and industry in influencing perceptions and expectations of organizations' CSR activities (Rettab et al., 2009), it is acknowledged that some of the poorly performing items may have performed differently using a different sample. As a next step, it would be beneficial to collect additional data with the full scale to further evaluate the performance of all items in the measure and reevaluate the distinctiveness of the four CSR features.

The Person-Centered Approach to CSR

In addition to this study's novel operationalization of CSR, a person-centered approach to analyzing CSR features was adopted. A review of the literature indicated that this approach has

not been applied to the CSR literature, making my research the first to analyze CSR in terms of configurations or profiles. Although the LPA of CSR features did not produce the anticipated solution, the small profile that likely represents a strategic form of CSR does suggest that there are certain situations where CSR features do combine in distinct ways, albeit potentially at a low base rate. Alternatively, it is possible that the lack of distinct profiles was because of the features chosen. The high correlations among CSR-identity alignment, CSR commitment, and CSR proactivity clearly worked against the distinctiveness of the profiles. Conceptually, all four CSR features could fall within the purview of embedded CSR (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013). Recall that Aguinis and Glavas describe embedded CSR as closely integrated with an organization's strategy, routines, and operations (whereas peripheral CSR is not). Their description of embedded CSR touches on elements of CSR-identity alignment, normative CSR commitment, and CSR as a part of employees' daily work activities. Additionally, they use GE and IBM as prototypical examples of organizations that have embedded CSR. Although proactivity is not explicitly mentioned, these examples describe the activities of GE and IBM as unique and innovative. Although the embedded versus peripheral CSR distinction has been criticized as potentially oversimplifying the complexities of CSR (Niekerk, 2013; K. V. Smith & Bartunek, 2013), it is possible that the CSR features studied in my research load on a higher-order factor that is conceptually similar to embedded CSR. In an effort to find more distinct profiles of CSR features, future research could identify and measure other CSR features that are highly distinct and less likely to covary.

Another possible reason for the results of the profile analysis is that employees could typically hold more generalized or global perceptions of their organization's CSR activities. Although I reasoned that employees would be in a good position to accurately evaluate their

organizations' CSR, there is reason to believe that they may not be motivated (or able) to do so. The heuristic-systematic model of cognitive processing argues that when individuals regard information as personally irrelevant, they are likely to process this information in a heuristic manner, relying on limited information and exerting very little cognitive effort (Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005). Building on this further, N. C. Smith, Read, and Lopez-Rodriguez (2010) propose that consumer CSR evaluations may be subject to a "CSR halo effect," where generalized perceptions about the organization's responsible activities across multiple domains are formed based on very little information. While the employees in my study have been motivated to answer questions about their organization's CSR accurately, the issue may have been a lack of information. For instance, Bhattacharya et al. (2008) found that most of the employees they interviewed were not closely involved with their organization's CSR and possessed only a vague understanding of these activities. A follow-up survey yielding 481 responses confirmed these findings: 50% of respondents admitted they did not have a clear understanding of the nature of their organization's CSR engagements.

Accordingly, it is possible that the lack of differentiation among CSR features in my study occurred because most employees did not have sufficient information about their organization's CSR to make accurate judgments of their features. Even though a very low number of participants endorsed the *"Don't know"* response option for items of the CSR features measure, the theory and research cited above indicates that these ratings may have been based on limited information. Indeed, it is possible that employee involvement in CSR was distinct from the other CSR features measured in my study because employees were able to readily assess their own CSR involvement, and the involvement of their colleagues (regardless of their ability or motivation to systematically process CSR-related information).

One factor that may buffer this halo effect is CSR education. For example, individuals who are educated about the concept of CSR have a greater understanding of its dimensions and implications, and would likely be more willing and capable of accurately evaluating CSR-related information at a more granular level (Evans & Davis, 2011). Additionally, Bhattacharya and colleagues (2008) indicate that despite how adept organizations have become at communicating about their CSR activities to the public, internal CSR communication to employee needs to be improved. They recommend improving this internal communication by providing employees with more concrete, detailed, and consistent information about CSR. They also recommend that organizations include information about the rationale behind their CSR involvement, specific details about the activities, and their outcomes.

Accordingly, future research should seek to determine how much knowledge employees typically possess about the features of their organizations' CSR activities and understand the contextual factors affecting this level of knowledge. Relevant contextual factors could include the size of the organization, an employee's position in the organizational hierarchy, and the employee's degree of involvement in CSR. For example, it is reasonable to expect that employees of large organizations engaging in numerous CSR activities would have limited CSR information and have a harder time distinguishing between specific CSR features. Relatedly, given that specific CSR activities could be characterized by different CSR features, employees of large organizations may have a difficult time responding to questions about CSR features when CSR "in general" is used as a reference point. This is a potential limitation of the current study. Future research could ask participants to identify and describe a specific CSR activity conducted by their organization and subsequently answer questions about its attributes or features.

Lastly, a more general limitation of the study was the collection data using a cross-sectional survey from a single source. This means that any firm conclusions about the direction of causality among the study variables cannot be made. Employees are clearly the best option for collecting data about their CSR attributions and organizational commitment, but information about CSR features could be collected via other means such as organizational press releases or websites. That being said, these sources of information are developed by teams of experts, heavily subject to impression management, and may not necessarily reflect the true orientation or actions of the organization. Ideally, future research could adopt a quasi-experimental methodology and follow several CSR initiatives conducted by a variety of organizations. These CSR initiatives could be coded in terms of content (e.g., environmental sustainability initiative) and features (e.g., proactive, driven by employees) by a team of expert raters. A survey asking employees to indicate the motives they ascribed to the CSR initiative and their organizational commitment could then be distributed at different time points.

Conclusion

The current study sought to study CSR features using a sample of employees to determine how they would combine and predict attributions and organizational commitment. The results provide support for the value of CSR features in predicting attributions and commitment, but less support was found for their potential to combine in unique ways. The following chapter describes the second study that builds on the first and seeks to establish causation between CSR features and organizational attraction. This is then followed by a general discussion where CSR features are discussed in the broader context of the micro-level CSR literature.

CHAPTER 5: CSR FEATURES AND JOB APPLICANT ATTRACTION

The purpose of the second study was to examine how different combinations of CSR features depicted on an organization's website (specifically CSR-identity alignment, CSR commitment, and employee CSR involvement) would affect the perceived attractiveness and prestige of the organization to potential job applicants, as well as their intentions to pursue employment there. Given that a direction of causality could not be established in the first study, this study utilized an experimental methodology to overcome that particular limitation.

This chapter is organized as follows: first, hypotheses are provided that are based on the theoretical model and the results of the first study. Second, the design of the study is described. Third, the process of developing the necessary study materials (i.e., CSR vignettes and company websites) is explained. This is followed by a methods section describing the participants, procedure, and measures used in the study. Next, the results of the study are described. Finally, a brief discussion is included where the results are interpreted and the implications/limitations of the study are explained.

Study Hypotheses

A significant portion of the theoretical model described in Chapter 3 described the relationships between CSR combinations and CSR attributions. Although this study does not measure attributions, predictions about CSR features (and job-seekers' expected level of attraction to the organization) can be made based on the discussion throughout the previous two chapters. Furthermore, some support for the mediating role of CSR attributions was provided by the first study, which, along with previous CSR attributions research (Ellen et al., 2006; Vlachos et al., 2009), suggests that potential job-seekers will still privately make attributions of the organization's CSR, which is expected to influence their attraction to the organization. The

second study also differs from the first such that an experimental methodology is used to manipulate only three of the four proposed CSR features (high versus low) in the context of an organizational website. CSR proactivity was excluded from this study primarily to ensure the parsimony of the experiment, but there were additional reasons for this that are discussed in greater detail in the methods section. Accordingly, the hypotheses of this study predict the effects of combinations of CSR-identity alignment, CSR commitment, and employee CSR involvement on organizational attraction.

The literature has clearly established that stakeholders generally regard organizations that engage in CSR more favorably than those that do not. The current study exposed all participants to two separate organizational websites – one that engaged in CSR, and one that did not. However, in an effort to maintain a consistent word count, the second website contains a webpage describing the organization's design process and customer service philosophy. Although the combination of CSR features is expected to affect attractiveness ratings, it is expected that in general, an organization engaging in CSR will be perceived as more attractive by potential job-seekers than a referent organization that is not.

Hypothesis 1. *Job-seekers will perceive an organization that engages in CSR as more attractive than a referent organization that does not.*

Additionally, a control condition was included where the websites of both the CSR organization and non-CSR organization were displayed to participants, but the CSR information from the first website was completely removed. In the absence of a CSR webpage, it is expected that potential job-seekers will find the website displayed in the control condition significantly less attractive than when CSR information is displayed.

Hypothesis 2. *Job-seekers will perceive the same organization as more attractive when it engages in CSR than when it does not.*

The theoretical propositions and results of the first study support the notion that the most favorable combination of CSR features is high identity alignment, high commitment, and high employee involvement, whereas the opposite combination would be the least favorable (low-low-low). On the other hand, although my theoretical model made predictions about how specific combinations of CSR features would influence commitment and attraction, the results of the first study suggest that employees may not be motivated (or able) to differentiate among the finer characteristics of their organization's CSR. This supports the existence of a halo effect that has been proposed to characterize consumers' CSR perceptions (N. C. Smith et al., 2010), and may also hold true for job-seekers, given that they are external to the organization and are forced to draw on limited information to make general assumptions about what it would be like to work for an organization (Rynes, 1991). Accordingly, it is hypothesized that the general number of high versus low CSR features will affect job-seekers' attractiveness ratings.

Hypothesis 3. *Job-seekers will perceive an organization as (a) most attractive when the organization's CSR is characterized by high identity alignment, high commitment, and high employee involvement, and (b) as least attractive when the organization's CSR is characterized by low levels of all three features.*

In addition to CSR features, it is expected that individual differences will affect job-seekers' reactions to CSR and their ratings of organizational attractiveness. This study measures moral identity (also measured in the first study) and communal orientation as individual difference variables. As highlighted in previous chapters, individuals with a strong moral identity are likely to have strong expectations of organizations' responsibility to society and the

environment and would be more likely to express a stronger sense of (dis)approval when the organization does/does not engage in CSR activities. Individuals with a communal orientation towards relationships feel responsible for helping others and are more likely to provide assistance to those in need. On the other hand, individuals who do not have a communal orientation are presumed to have a more exchange-based orientation towards relationships where they do not feel a special responsibility for the needs of others (Clark, Oulette, Powell, & Milberg, 1987). Organizations that engage in CSR activities are likely to appeal more to job-seekers with a communal orientation because, as employees of the organization they will expect to have opportunities to help. Accordingly, based on the rationale above and previous research that has found similar results (D. A. Jones et al., 2014; Rupp, Shao, Thornton, et al., 2013), it is expected that individuals with higher levels of moral identity and communal orientation be more affected by the features of organization's CSR activities than those who are lower on these variables.

Hypothesis 4. *(a) Moral identity and (b) communal orientation will moderate the effects of the CSR features on job-seekers' ratings of organizational attractiveness such that the relationship between CSR features and organizational attractiveness will be stronger among job-seekers who have high (versus low) moral identity and communal orientation.*

Given that a significant portion of this study involved developing and pilot testing experimental materials (i.e., experimental vignettes and websites), the study design and process of developing these materials are described next, followed by the methods and results of the study.

Study Design

      To test the research question for this study, an experimental vignette methodology was used. The overall design of this study was inspired by the work of D. A. Jones et al. (2014), who developed experimental CSR vignettes and displayed them on organizational websites for participants. The design of the vignettes was guided by Aguinis and Bradley (2014), who provide guidelines and best practice recommendations for developing a vignette study. Experimental vignettes involve providing participants with carefully constructed and realistic scenarios intended to have an effect on dependent variables of interest. Vignettes have most commonly taken the form of written descriptions of a person or situation in psychological and organizational research (also known as "paper people studies"), but can also be developed using a variety of media (e.g., images, audio, video). Experimental vignettes are a powerful methodology because they provide control over independent variables and confounding factors, but can also maintain a higher level of realism than most other experimental methodologies, which may help facilitate the engagement and immersion of participants in the study (Aguinis & Bradley). Aguinis and Bradley indicate that while increasing the realism of a study is "likely to provide a greater amount of 'natural noise' in each scenario" (p. 361), steps can be taken to control such noise and prevent the internal validity of the experiment from being compromised.

      My study sought to test the decisions of potential job-seekers in a more natural setting to maximize participant immersion and external validity, all while controlling for natural noise to the greatest extent possible. To do so, the vignettes were included on organizational websites designed specifically for the purpose of this study. The main study had participants view PDF documents that were supposedly downloaded from the websites of two small Canadian clothing companies: Blue Grove Clothing Co. (BG) and OpenLoft Apparel (OL). The decision to use

fictitious clothing companies was made in an effort to minimize any confounds associated with preexisting reputation or attitudes about the organizations (Groza et al., 2011). Both websites contained similar content but BG's website had a page entitled 'Responsibility' (containing information about the company's CSR activities) whereas OL had a page entitled 'Philosophy' (containing information about the company's emphasis on performance, clothing design process, and customer service).

The vignettes developed for this study were displayed on BG's responsibility (or CSR) page and were written to represent different combinations of high or low levels of three CSR features. Specifically, the study followed a fully-crossed 2 (identity alignment) x 2 (employee involvement) x 2 (commitment) between-subjects factorial design with a control condition, resulting in a total of nine experimental conditions to which each participant was randomly assigned. The control condition was different from the other conditions such that BG's website did not have a CSR page. The details of each condition are provided in Table 12.

As mentioned previously, the decision to incorporate only three of the four proposed CSR features was primarily based on maintaining a parsimonious experiment, but was also based on challenges associated with operationalizing and manipulating proactivity, and the results of Study 1. Regarding parsimony, including all four CSR features and a control condition would have resulted in 17 conditions (requiring 714 participants based on a power analysis) and a total of 136 mean comparisons between conditions for each variable of interest. Removing one CSR feature cut these values approximately in half, making the experiment significantly more manageable. The decision to exclude proactivity also based on a review of organizations' CSR webpages and the results of the pilot survey from Study 1. The initial review of corporate webpages described in the literature review indicated that relatively few organizations reported

being proactive about their CSR activities (six out of 35), but more importantly, it was difficult

to find evidence of low proactivity on organizations' webpages. Of the webpages reviewed, there

was no mention of reactivity or compliance to stakeholder pressure (which is unsurprising given

that websites are an opportunity for organizations to manage their public reputation and put forth

positive signals to external stakeholders). This made proactivity the most difficult feature to

incorporate into the CSR vignettes for this study in a realistic manner. Additionally, the results of

the Study 1 pilot survey revealed that proactivity was most highly correlated with the other three

CSR features (r=.69 to .81) and contributed the least amount of incremental variance beyond the

other three features to attributions and organizational commitment[7].

Table 12. *List of Experimental Conditions*

Condition Number - Code	CSR Feature Levels		
	Alignment with Identity	Employee Involvement	Commitment
1 – HHH	High	High	High
2 – HHL	High	High	Low
3 – HLH	High	Low	High
4 – HLL	High	Low	Low
5 – LHH	Low	High	High
6 – LHL	Low	High	Low
7 – LLH	Low	Low	High
8 – LLL	Low	Low	Low
9 – Control	Absent	Absent	Absent

The content of the BG website was identical across all nine conditions with the exception

of the CSR page, which described a corporate volunteering initiative. The volunteering initiative

was described using a combination of high or low levels of alignment, employee involvement,

and commitment depending on the condition. Describing the volunteering initiative using all

possible combinations of the three CSR features resulted in the creation of eight different

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[7] It is acknowledged that basing this decision off of preliminary results was not ideal. However, both studies 1 and 2 had to be developed in parallel due to difficulty recruiting participating organizations. At the time, the pilot study results were the only source of empirical evidence available to draw on to inform this decision.

vignettes. The content of the OL website was identical across all conditions with the exception of the control condition, where the 'Philosophy' page (described later) was removed to keep the word count between the BG and OL websites the same.

Participants in all conditions viewed both the BG and OL websites, but the order in which the websites were presented was counterbalanced to control for order effects (Jackson, 2012). Furthermore, the decision to have participants view two webpages was made in order to provide a context in which participants could ground their responses (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014), and to enhance the realism of the study because job-seekers typically consider multiple employment options (D. A. Jones et al., 2014). Having an additional website also added more natural noise to the study, which encouraged participants to evaluate the two organizations in a more natural manner. The development and the content of the websites and vignettes are described in more detail in the next section.

Development of Study Materials

This section describes the development process of the experimental materials used in the study. A series of eight CSR vignettes and two company websites were developed.

CSR Vignettes

Eight versions of a CSR vignette were designed to be included on BG's website. All vignettes described a corporate volunteering initiative intended to benefit the local community, but each vignette differed in terms of high or low levels of: 1) the initiative's alignment with BG's identity, 2) the involvement of BG's employees in the initiative, and 3) BG's commitment to the initiative. When designing the vignettes, special attention was paid to how the three CSR features were conceptualized and to what was realistic in terms of the operationalization of high/low levels of each feature. Effort was also made to ensure that the relative strength of each

manipulation was as close to equivalent as possible so that any tests of comparative effects were fair (Cooper & Richardson, 1986). Designing the vignettes was an iterative process of developing content, gathering feedback, and making revisions.

The CSR vignettes were modeled after content primarily found on the websites of SMEs because these organizations are more likely to have simple and concise descriptions of their CSR activities. In contrast, large organizations often release lengthy annual CSR reports: as of 2008, KPMG has reported that 80% of the Global Fortune 250 release independent CSR reports, or include CSR information as part of their financial statements (Becchetti & Trovato, 2011). Such comprehensive accounts of CSR activities would be extremely difficult to reproduce, and would most likely overwhelm participants. Participants are also less likely to have heard of small organizations in their community in comparison to large organizations, making it easier to produce fictitious company materials without drawing undue skepticism.

Prior to developing the vignettes, a brief review of CSR/sustainability webpages of Canadian clothing companies was conducted. This review supplemented the review of Canadian SMEs described in Chapter 2, and was intended to identify realistic norms of high and low levels of each CSR feature. The websites of 30 small to medium-sized clothing companies were identified, but only one third (33%) of the companies had pages dedicated to CSR. In addition to establishing realistic boundaries for each manipulation, these websites were used as inspiration for the content of the vignettes.

In terms of alignment between the organization's CSR and its identity, initiatives found in the review varied widely. Examples of high alignment initiatives are donating clothing and reusing leftover raw materials to sew clothing for the less fortunate. Examples of low alignment initiatives are sponsoring unrelated causes such as homelessness, addiction, or at-risk groups,

organizing trips for employees to plant trees, and working with the government to detect/prevent crime, terrorism, and contraband smuggling. Employee involvement in CSR also varied widely. In the case of high involvement, some organizations indicated that their CSR initiatives were developed exclusively by proactive employees, while others profiled exceptional employee volunteers on their websites and indicated that they provide employees with substantial autonomy to volunteer in a way of their choosing. Companies with low involvement made no mention of their employees on their CSR page and often indicated that CSR initiatives were developed and/or implemented by the founder or a dedicated CSR department. Lastly, commitment to CSR varied both in terms of longevity and the amount of resources dedicated to CSR initiatives. Companies with high commitment reported consistently engaging in CSR activity for decades or longer, and some reported making CSR a priority at the time the organization was founded. Companies with lower commitment had more nascent CSR initiatives (e.g., a few years old or less) despite having been in existence for a long time or listed a timeline of specific CSR initiatives with sizeable gaps between them. High and low levels of resource dedication were more difficult to evaluate. Companies reported resource expenditure in a wide variety of ways – many of which were incomparable. Examples include: percentage of pre-tax profits, number of volunteer hours, and quantity of products donated. The metric chosen for the commitment manipulation was the percentage of profits donated because it could be held constant regardless of the other feature manipulations (e.g., number of volunteer hours could not be provided as an indicator of resource expenditure when employee involvement was low) and was also informed by organizational surveys indicating the upper and lower bounds of what small to medium sized organizations typically dedicate to CSR ("New survey shows small business philanthropy on the rise," 2015; Preston, 2008).

Following the review, a first draft of the vignettes was developed. After receiving and incorporating feedback from my supervisor and another professor of I-O psychology who specialized in micro-level CSR research, a survey to assess the realism and strength of each of the manipulations was developed and sent out to 13 graduate students majoring in I-O psychology. Participants were provided with definitions of the three CSR features followed by portions of the vignettes containing the high and low manipulations of one CSR feature at a time. Additional sentences were provided for context, but the content specifically related to the manipulation was bolded so that participants could clearly evaluate the manipulation. Participants were then asked to evaluate the strength and realism of the manipulation (*1=very weak; 5=moderate; 10=very strong*) and to provide any written feedback about the manipulation that they thought would be helpful.

The strength and realism results for the survey can be found in Table 13. Respondents rated all three manipulations as high in realism (*M*=8.00 to 8.85), but the commitment manipulation was rated as lower in strength relative to the other two manipulations (*M*=6.54 vs. *M*=8.08 and 8.31). To strengthen this manipulation, the language pertaining to CSR commitment was altered to produce a clearer contrast between the high and low conditions. The open-ended feedback collected was also helpful for revising the vignettes and identified potential confounding factors that may have affected the results (e.g., the perceived importance of the human need or cause addressed by the company's CSR initiative). After the relevant revisions were made, the vignettes were sent for another round of feedback from two SMEs before being finalized and incorporated into the BG website. The general content of the final CSR feature manipulations can be found in Table 14 and examples of the finalized vignettes can be found in

Appendix D. The word count of the vignettes varied from 215 to 231 and the number of

statements in each vignette was held constant at 11.

Table 13. *Results of CSR Manipulation Strength Feedback Survey*

Feature	Strength		Realism	
	M	SD	M	SD
Alignment with Identity	8.08	1.80	8.62	1.98
Employee Involvement	8.31	1.44	8.85	1.14
Commitment	6.54	2.15	8.00	1.58

Table 14. *CSR Vignette Manipulation Levels and Content*

Feature	Manipulation Level	
	High	Low
Alignment with Identity	Initiative involves distributing clothing to individuals who cannot afford to clothe themselves. Initiative called "**Blue Grove Clothe the Community**" program.	Initiative involves distributing food to individuals who cannot afford to feed themselves. Initiative called "**Blue Grove Feed the Community**" program.
Employee Involvement	Initiative was developed and carried out by employees of Blue Grove. Blue Grove encourages employees to get involved in a way that is personally meaningful.	Initiative was developed and carried out by an external charity called Community Rescue Canada. Blue Grove works with this organization and no mention is made of employee involvement.
Commitment	Initiative began in 2005, shortly after Blue Grove was founded. Blue Grove consistently dedicates 10% of profits each year to support the initiative.	Initiative set to begin in current year (2015-16) despite Blue Grove's founding date of 2005. No previous CSR initiatives reported. Blue Grove intends to dedicate almost 1% of profits to trial the initiative.

Company Websites

Two websites were designed for the purpose of this study using Squarespace

(www.squarespace.com), which provides a user-friendly platform for making professional-

looking websites. Free public domain stock photography from Unsplash (www.unsplash.com)

was used for both websites. The images chosen contained inanimate objects (e.g., a canoe,

wooden desk, or windows) or landscapes. Although the images used for both websites were

distinct and followed separate themes (i.e., BG had a rustic theme, whereas OL had more of a modern urban theme), they were carefully selected to be equally attractive and minimize any noise in the study that could have an effect on the results (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). Specifically, it was important to prevent the websites from giving the participants any extraneous signals that would influence their perceptions of what it would be like to work for the organization (Rynes, 1991). For example, images of people could signal participants about the characteristics of the organization's current employees or desirable job candidates[8]. Additionally, images of clothing would clearly signal participants about the characteristics of the products sold by the organization.

In terms of written content, each website contained five pages. Four of the five pages contained similar content, word count, and level of language complexity (i.e., Home, About, Careers, Contact). The BG CSR page and the OL philosophy page differed in content, but contained a similar number of words and positive statements about the organization to minimize any potential confounding effects on participants' attractiveness ratings (Sansone, Morf, & Panter, 2004). The content of the OL philosophy page was positive, but was written to be unremarkable such that that it would not be perceived by participants as a signal for how OL treats their employees (Rynes, 1991), or significantly bolster their self-image if they worked for the company (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Specifically, the page emphasized that OL strives for performance and consistency (as most companies do), discussed the company's design process, and described the company's emphasis on good customer service.

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[8] While an image of a person jumping was displayed on the Blue Grove website, the individual was depicted as a silhouette and no characteristics of the individual, or his clothing, were discernible (aside from the individual's gender).

Prior to conducting the main experiment, the BG and OL websites (excluding their CSR and philosophy pages) were pilot tested to ensure they were perceived as equally attractive to avoid unfair comparisons in the main study (Cooper & Richardson, 1986). A sample of 57 participants viewed both websites but the viewing order was counterbalanced. Thirty-three of the participants were second year undergraduate students in a marketing class and the remaining 24 participants were working professionals in a variety of industries. After viewing each website, participants were presented with five questions from a measure developed by Highhouse, Lievens, and Sinar (2003) about the general attractiveness of the organization (e.g., *"For me, this company would be a good place to work"*). Participants responded to these items using a 5-point Likert-type scale (*1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree*). Once participants had viewed both websites, they were asked to indicate which was more attractive (*1=they are equally attractive; 2=Blue Grove's website is more attractive; 3=OpenLoft's website is more attractive*). Participants were then asked: *"If you received the same job offer from both companies (i.e., same salary, job title, location), which company would you prefer to work for?"* (*1=no preference; 2=Blue Grove; 3=OpenLoft*). Lastly, participants were asked to rate the realism of each website on a 10-point scale (*1=very unrealistic; 5=somewhat realistic; 10=very realistic*) and given the opportunity to provide open-ended feedback about the reasoning behind their choice of organization and what could be done to improve the realism of the websites.

In terms of general attractiveness ratings, a paired t-test revealed that Blue Grove's mean attractiveness ratings (*M*=3.64, *SD*=0.73) were similar to OpenLoft's (*M*=3.59, *SD*=0.83). A paired t-test revealed that the means did not differ at a statistically significant level: $t(56)=0.58$, $p=.56$. In terms of the nominal attractiveness ratings, the results revealed that 16 participants rated the two organizations as equally attractive, 25 rated Blue Grove as more attractive, and 15

rated OpenLoft as more attractive. In terms of job choice, 17 participants indicated they had no preference toward which company to work for, 24 indicated they would rather work at Blue Grove, whereas 15 indicated that they would rather work for OpenLoft. The majority of the qualitative data indicated that the bulk of participants who chose one organization over the other did so due to personal preference towards a particular aesthetic of the website. Finally, participants' ratings of company realism were acceptably high for both Blue Grove (M=7.01, SD=2.48) and OpenLoft (M=7.11, SD=2.43).

However, in an effort to improve the realism of the websites and make them as equally attractive as possible, minor changes to the websites' images and content were made based on some of the feedback received. Once the websites and vignettes were finalized, the survey for the main experiment was developed and administered. The details of the experiment are described in the following section.

Method

Participants

All participants were students at a large Canadian university in the province of Ontario. While the legitimacy of using undergraduate student samples in psychological and organizational research has been subject to criticism (Dobbins, Lane, & Steiner, 1988; Wintre, North, & Sugar, 2001), there are situations where student samples are warranted such as when studies are based on strong theoretical predictions (Bello, Leung, Radebaugh, Tung, & Van Witteloostuijn, 2009). In addition to the well-grounded theoretical predictions made in this study, a student population is suitable because participants are asked to play the role of job-seekers, not employees or managers. As noted below, the majority of respondents had prior work experience and are arguably representative of young job-seekers who would typically apply to entry-level positions

in organizations. Thus, although generalizability is not the primary strength (or purpose) of lab studies (Scandura & Williams, 2000), the current sample is arguably representative of young, university-educated Canadian job-seekers.

A total of 507 surveys were returned, of which 397 were usable after eliminating cases flagged for careless responding and excessive missing data. It was not possible to determine a response rate because of the sampling method (i.e., students were asked to sign up for a limited number of timeslots on a first-come, first-served basis). Of the 397 participants, 142 were male (35.8%), 254 were female (64.0%), and 1 did not specify a gender. The participants' average age was 18.57 years (SD=1.40). As expected, the vast majority of participants' reported high school as their highest level of education (96.0%), whereas a small number of participants reported holding a college diploma (0.5%) or a university undergraduate degree (3.0%). The remaining 0.5% of participants did not indicate their highest level of education. Participants' average amount of work experience was 2.38 years (SD=1.95). To get a more specific breakdown of participants' work experience, the variable was recoded into five categories: no experience (11.8%), less than one year (2.3%), one to two years (45.3%), three to four years (27.7%), and five or more years (12.1%). In terms of current employment, only 76 participants (19.1%) indicated that they were currently working. Of these individuals, 73 participants (18.4% of full sample) held part time employment (i.e., working less than 30 hours per week), 2 participants (0.5%) held full time employment, and one individual did not indicate whether they worked full or part time. Lastly, the top five occupations held by participants were 1) sales (6.3% of full sample), 2) food preparation or serving-related (4.0%), 3) arts, design, entertainment, sports, or media (2.8%), 4) community or social services (1.3%), and 5) education, training, or library

(1.0%). Descriptive statistics for all demographic variables included in this study are provided in

Table 15.

Table 15. *Frequencies and Descriptive Statistics for Demographic Variables*

Variable		Statistic	
		Mean	*SD*
Age (in years)		18.57	1.40
Work experience (in years)		2.38	1.95
		N	*%*
Gender	Male	142	35.8
	Female	254	64.0
Education	High school	381	96.0
(highest level achieved)	College diploma	2	0.5
	Undergraduate degree	12	3.0
Work experience	No experience	47	11.8
	Less than 1 year	9	2.3
	1-2 years	180	45.3
	3-4 years	110	27.7
	5 or more years	48	12.1
Employed (currently)	Total	76	19.1
	Full Time	2	0.5
	Part Time	73	18.4
Occupational category	Sales or related occupations	25	6.3
	Food preparation or serving-related	16	4.0
	Arts, design, entertainment, sports, or media	11	2.8
	Community and social services	5	1.3
	Education, training, or library	4	1.0
	Health care support	4	1.0
	Other occupations	11	2.8

Note. Percentages expressed in terms of full sample of *n=397*.
Some percentages/frequencies may not add up to the expected total due to missing data.

Procedure

As mentioned previously, participants were sampled from a population of university

undergraduate students and were recruited through a research participation pool run by the

psychology department. Minor deception was used such that participants were told in the study

description and letter of information that the purpose of the study was to understand how website

characteristics affect organizations' attractiveness as an employer. They were also told that the fictitious websites were from real organizations. This deception was revealed at the end of the survey, where the true purpose was explained in detail in the debriefing form. This deception was judged as reasonable by the university ethics review board that approved the study (to view the study letter of information, debriefing form, and ethics approval, see Appendix D).

Each participant was required to answer a series of demographic questions and then view the webpages of BG and OL. To ensure participants were responding from a consistent perspective, they received instructions similar to what was provided in an experimental study by D. A. Jones et al. (2014, p. 388): When reading the content on the websites, "pretend as though you are currently looking for a job and that you are suitable for at least one of the jobs advertised by each company." After viewing the website of each organization, participants were presented with questions about the characteristics of the website and the attractiveness of the organization as a potential employer. After both websites had been viewed, participants were asked to choose which organization they found more attractive and explain why, and answer a series of questions about their values. Next, the deception was revealed and a few questions were asked about the study's realism and participants' level of engagement in the study. Participants were subsequently presented with a debriefing form explaining the true purpose of the study. All materials and measures were housed within an online survey using Qualtrics. All participants completed the study electronically, but some completed the study remotely (on their personal computer) whereas others completed the study by coming in person to a computer lab on campus. The decision to collect data in lab was made after the first wave of participants were tested remotely and it was observed that there was a large number of cases flagged for careless responding. This limitation will be addressed further in the discussion section.

Measures

   The following is a list of all measures included in this study. The full list of items used can be found in Appendix D.

   Organizational attractiveness. Participants' level of attraction to each organization was assessed using a 15-item measure developed by Highhouse et al. (2003). The measure consisted of the same five items used in the website pilot study intended to measure general attractiveness (e.g., "*[Blue Grove/OpenLoft] is attractive to me as a place for employment*"), as well as five items to measure intentions to pursue a job with the organization (e.g., "*If [Blue Grove/OpenLoft] invited me for a job interview, I would go*"), and five items to measure participants' perceived prestige of the organization (e.g., "*[Blue Grove/OpenLoft] probably has a reputation as being an excellent employer*"). Responses to all items were made on a 5-point Likert scale (*1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree*).

   In addition, participants were presented with two items asking them to compare the two organizations directly: *"Now that you have had a chance to look at both websites, which company is more attractive as a potential employer?"* and *"If you received the same job offer from both companies (i.e., same salary, job title, responsibilities, geographic location, etc.), which company would you prefer to work for?"* Participants provided responses to the first item using a 5-point Likert scale (*1=much more [Blue Grove], 3=equal, 5=much more [OpenLoft]*). The second item followed a dichotomous format, forcing participants to choose between either Blue Grove or OpenLoft. The order in which the company names were displayed was randomized for both questions to control any impact the order of presentation might have had. Finally, participants were provided with the opportunity to justify their choice of employer in the form of an open-ended response ("*Why did you choose this company?*").

Manipulation check items. To determine the effectiveness of the experimental

manipulations in BG's CSR page, four manipulation check items were included in the survey:

one item for alignment (*"Blue Grove's socially responsible activities are consistent with who*

they are as a company"), one item for employee involvement (*"Blue Grove closely involves its*

employees in its social responsibility initiatives"), and two items for commitment since it

contained aspects of long-term dedication (*"Blue Grove has been consistently committed to*

social responsibility for a long time") and significant expenditure of resources (*"Blue Grove*

dedicates a substantial amount of resources to their socially responsible activities"). These

items were based on the CSR features measure used in the first study. In addition, four items

intended to evaluate participants' perceptions of OL's philosophy page were included to ensure

consistency between the items asked for each organization (e.g., *"OpenLoft's company*

philosophy appeals to me"). Responses to all items were made on a 5-point Likert scale

(*1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree*). These items were scrambled among the organizational

attractiveness items and some of the distractor items, which are described below.

Distractor items. Several distractor items were included in the survey to enhance the

realism of the study and conceal the salience of the CSR manipulation check items. These items

were not used in any of the analyses. The first set of distractor items were displayed on their own

page along with the BG and OL logos. They asked participants about their familiarity with each

company (*1=not familiar at all; 3=very familiar*) and if they had ever worn clothing from either

company (*1=no; 2=yes; 3=unsure*).

In addition, two distractor items were embedded among the organizational attractiveness

and manipulation check items for each organization to reduce the salience of the manipulation

checks: *"[Blue Grove/OpenLoft] appears to be a successful organization"* and *"[Blue*

Grove/OpenLoft] has been in existence for a long time". These items used a 5-point Likert-type scale format (*1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree*).

Moral identity. Moral identity was operationalized using the same measure described in study one (Aquino & Reed, 2002). However, only the five items intended to capture internalization were included. Responses to all items were made on a 5-point Likert scale (*1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree*).

Communal orientation. In addition to the moral identity measure, a 14-item measure of communal orientation developed by Clark et al. (1987) and modified by D. A. Jones et al. (2014) was included in the study (*e.g., "I often go out of my way to help another person"*). Communal orientation was considered to be a relevant individual differences variable to include in this study because a community-volunteer initiative was the target of the CSR manipulations. Additionally, D. A. Jones et al. (2014) found that communal orientation indirectly predicted attraction to an organization engaging in a community involvement initiative through greater perceived value fit. Responses to all items were made on a 5-point Likert scale (*1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree*).

Demographic variables. Participants were asked to indicate their age, gender, education, years of work experience, and whether or not they currently held full or part time employment. If participants indicated that they were currently employed, they were also asked to list their occupational category.

Careless response items. A total of two items intended to assess participants' level of attentiveness were included in the survey (one for each organization): *"To ensure quality data, please select 'Strongly Disagree'"* and *"To ensure quality data, please select 'Neither Agree nor*

Disagree'". These items were mixed in with the attractiveness and manipulation check items. Participants were removed if they responded to either of these questions incorrectly.

As recommended by Meade and Craig (2011), at the end of the survey participants were also asked: *"In your honest opinion, should we use your data in our analyses in this study?"* Participants were removed if they responded 'No' to this question. Finally, participants who completed the survey too quickly (i.e., under 5 minutes) were also filtered out for careless responding.

Participant engagement and study realism. After it was revealed to participants that the organizations in the study were not real, they were asked questions about their engagement in the study (*"I really tried to imagine I was looking for a job"*), the realism of the websites (*"The information on the companies' web pages looked like it was from real web pages"*), and the content of the websites (*"If I were actually looking for a job, I'd like to read information from company websites like I did in this study"*). All three items were drawn from D. A. Jones et al. (2014) and used a 5-point Likert-type scale format (*1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree*).

Analysis

First, the psychometric properties of each of the scales used in this study were evaluated. As in the first study, CFAs were run when appropriate and scale alphas were calculated. Following this, bivariate correlations and descriptive statistics were calculated for all demographic and study variables. To test the study hypotheses, a combination of paired- and independent-samples t-tests, and MANOVAs were run. Post hoc comparisons were made using either Sidak or Tukey's HSD corrections to correct for family-wise error rates (Kirk, 2013; Westfall, Tobias, & Wolfinger, 2011).

Prior to testing the hypotheses, boxplots were inspected for outliers within each condition. Several outliers were found but were not removed because it was determined that they were not due to inattentiveness or measurement error, but were likely genuinely unusual values reported by the participants based on their subjective perceptions of the website content. Additionally, an inspection of the data revealed that many of the dependent variables were nonnormal (which violates one of the statistical assumptions required to conduct a MANOVA). However, a transformation was not applied to the data because MANOVA is robust to deviations from normality provided that the group sizes in each condition are close to equal (Lix, Keselman, & Keselman, 1996).

Results

Psychometric Evaluation of Scales

The psychometric properties of each measure were evaluated in a similar manner to the first study (internal consistency reliability and factor structure/loadings where appropriate).

Organizational attractiveness. The organizational attractiveness measure developed by Highhouse et al. (2003) is intended to have three factors representing general attractiveness, intentions to pursue (employment at the company), and prestige. Highhouse and colleagues emphasized that some items contained aspects of more than one factor and permitted these items to cross-load on an additional factor in their CFA and SEM analyses. For example, they allowed the fourth prestige item (*"I would find [Blue Grove/OpenLoft] a prestigious place to work"*) to have a nonzero factor loading on the intentions factor because of the connotation that the wording "I would" has for behavioral intentions. Additionally, they allowed the fifth intentions item (*"I would recommend [Blue Grove/OpenLoft] to a friend looking for a job"*) to have a

nonzero loading on the prestige factor because the prestige of an organization is likely associated with the spread of the organization's fame throughout individuals' social circles.

Given that the measure was administered twice for each participant (once for BG and once for OL), two separate CFAs were conducted. The 3-factor models for BG and OL both produced reasonable fit statistics: BG: $\chi^2(87)=193.20$, $\chi^2/df=2.22$, *RMSEA*=.06, *CFI*=.95, *TLI*=.94, *SRMR*=.05; OL: $\chi^2(87)=159.49$, $\chi^2/df=1.83$, *RMSEA*=.05, *CFI*=.96, *TLI*=.96, *SRMR*=.04. However, modeling the cross-loadings detailed above significantly improved the fit of both models ($\chi^2_{difftest}=32.70$, *p*<.001 and $\chi^2_{difftest}=8.64$, *p*=.013, respectively). An inspection of the modification indices for both models also indicated that modeling cross-loadings for an additional item would have improved fit further. Given that latent variables were not used in the primary analysis for this study, cross-loadings could not be incorporated into the calculation of the composite variables in SPSS. In light of this, and because differential predictions were not hypothesized for the three factors, the decision was made to combine all three dimensions into a single composite variable in SPSS, producing a score of overall attractiveness for each organization. The overall attractiveness scale exhibited acceptable alpha levels for BG (α=.91) and OL (α=.90). Furthermore, the removal of any one item did not result in increases to the internal consistency of either scale.

Moral identity. This study only included the five moral internalization items, which had an acceptable level of internal consistency reliability (α=.84).

Communal orientation. The communal orientation measure was intended to represent only a single factor and had an acceptable level of internal consistency reliability (α=.78).

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

The descriptive statistics, internal consistency estimates, and bivariate correlations among the demographic and study variables are presented in Table 16.

Demographic variable correlations. Age positively correlated with gender ($r=.17$) and years of work experience ($r=.50$), but negatively correlated with current employment status such that younger individuals were more likely to currently hold employment ($r=-.16$). Additionally, years of work experience was negatively correlated with the employment variable ($r=-.17$). Gender was the only demographic variable that had significant correlations with any of the study variables. Specifically, gender correlated negatively with organizational attractiveness ratings for BG ($r=-.16$) and OL ($r=-.22$), indicating that males generally found both companies less attractive than did females. Additionally, males tended to report lower scores on the communal orientation (CO; $r=-.23$) and moral identity[9] (MI; $r=-.19$) scales.

Study variable correlations. As expected, participants' perceptions of CSR importance was positively correlated with attractiveness ratings for BG ($r=.53$), and less so with those for OL ($r=.13$). In addition, attractiveness ratings for BG and OL were positively correlated ($r=.46$). This indicates that respondents who were attracted to one organization were also more likely to be attracted to the other. This is readily explained by the similarities of both organizations (e.g., both are Canadian SMEs that design and manufacture clothing).

The question directly comparing the attractiveness of BG and OL as potential employers correlated with organizational attractiveness ratings in the expected direction ($r_{BG}=-.41$; $r_{OL}=.34$). Additionally, the dichotomous question asking participants to choose between an identical job offer from both organizations had significant point-biserial correlations with

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[9] This refers to the internalization component of moral identity only. Recall that moral symbolization was not measured in this study.

attractiveness ratings BG and OL in the expected direction (r_{BG}=-.37; r_{OL}=.26). This can be interpreted such that individuals who provided higher attractiveness ratings for a given organization were more likely to choose a job offer from that same organization over an identical offer from the other.

Individual differences. CO and MI had a strong positive correlation (r=.58). Additionally, CO was positively correlated with CSR importance (r=.24) and ratings of attractiveness for BG (r=.29) and OL (r=.21). Similarly, MI was positively correlated with CSR importance (r=.19) and ratings of attractiveness for BG (r=.19), but not OL (r=.09). MI was also significantly related to choosing a job offer with BG instead of OL (r=-.12).

Table 16. *Descriptive Statistics and Correlations*[a]

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. CSRImp	3.70	0.92										
2. OA$_{BG}$	3.69	0.51	.53**	(.91)								
3. OA$_{OL}$	3.58	0.49	.13*	.46**	(.90)							
4. ACompare[b]	2.56	1.16	-.36**	-.41**	.34**							
5. JCompare[c]	1.32	0.47	-.35**	-.37**	.26**	.82**						
6. CO	3.81	0.42	.24**	.29**	.21**	-.04	-.04	(.78)				
7. MI	4.48	0.53	.19**	.19**	.09	-.09	-.12*	.58**	(.84)			
8. Age	18.57	1.40	.02	.06	-.02	-.06	-.04	.03	-.03			
9. Gender[d]	1.36	0.48	-.11*	-.16**	-.22**	-.04	-.04	-.23**	-.19**	.17**		
10. Employed[e]	1.81	0.39	-.04	-.03	.02	.03	.06	-.02	-.02	-.16**	-.04	
11. Experience	2.38	1.95	-.03	.04	.05	.01	.00	.04	.06	.50**	.00	-.17**

Note. [a] n=353 to 397 due to missing data; [b] ACompare coded as Much More (BG)=1, Equal=3, Much More (OL)=5; [c] JCompare coded as Blue Grove=1, OpenLoft=2; [d] Gender coded as Female=1, Male=2; [e] Employed coded as Yes=1, No=2. CSRImp=CSR importance; OA=Organizational Attractiveness; BG=Blue Grove; OL=OpenLoft; manipulation; ACompare=Attractiveness comparison; JCompare=Job choice comparison; CO=Communal Orientation; MI=Moral Internalization. *p<.05 **p<.01;* Cronbach's alpha values in diagonal where applicable.

Evaluation of Manipulation Checks, Participant Engagement, and Realism

The effects of the experimental manipulations on their corresponding manipulation check items were evaluated using a three-way between-subjects MANOVA[10]. Effects of each manipulation for all manipulation check items were tested to ensure the manipulations did not

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[10] The MANOVA was run using main effects only because interactions between experimental manipulations was not expected to affect the manipulation check items. To confirm this, a full factorial MANOVA was run first and it was found that there were no significant interactions.

inadvertently affect individuals' perceptions of other CSR features (Perdue & Summers, 1986). Results revealed that there was no significant main effect of the alignment manipulation on any of the manipulation check items [$F(4, 342)=0.33$, $p=.855$], but significant main effects were found for the employee involvement [$F(4, 342)=10.77$, $p<.001$] and commitment manipulations [$F(4, 342)=5.08$, $p<.001$]. Given that the overall tests were significant for the employee involvement and commitment manipulations, the corresponding univariate main effects were examined. As expected, there was a significant effect of the employee involvement manipulation only on the corresponding manipulation check item [$F(1, 345)=38.13$, $p<.001$]. Additionally, the commitment manipulation had significant main effects on the two corresponding manipulation check items [Consistency: $F(1, 345)=6.38$, $p=.012$; Resources: $F(1, 345)=15.60$, $p<.001$], but not on the alignment or employee involvement items. A summary of the manipulation check item means across each experimental manipulation are presented in Table 17. Overall, these results suggest that the employee involvement manipulation was most effective, followed by the commitment manipulation. In contrast, it appears that the alignment manipulation was not effective. In light of this, analyses related to the alignment manipulation were not conducted.

Overall, the means of the three items used to evaluate engagement and realism suggested that participants were quite engaged in the study and thought the websites were real. The means on a 5-point Likert scale were: *"The information on the companies' web pages looked like it was from real web pages"* ($M=4.00$, $SD=0.88$), *"I really tried to imagine I was looking for a job"* ($M=4.05$, $SD=0.73$), and *"If I were actually looking for a job, I'd like to read information from company websites like I did in this study"* ($M=4.10$, $SD=0.77$).

Table 17. *Summary of Manipulation Check Means, Standard Errors, and Significance Tests across Experimental Manipulations*

Experimental Condition		N	Alignment		Manipulation Check Items					
					Employee Involvement		Commitment			
							Consistency		Resources	
			M	SE	M	SE	M	SE	M	SE
Alignment	High	173	**4.03**	0.05	3.88	0.06	3.46	0.07	3.71	0.06
	Low	176	**3.96**	0.05	3.87	0.06	3.46	0.07	3.71	0.06
Employee Involvement	High	174	4.03	0.05	**4.13****	0.06	3.48	0.07	3.74	0.06
	Low	175	3.97	0.05	**3.62****	0.06	3.44	0.07	3.68	0.06
Commitment	High	176	4.03	0.05	3.86	0.06	**3.59***	0.07	**3.89****	0.06
	Low	173	3.97	0.05	3.88	0.06	**3.34***	0.07	**3.53****	0.06

Note. Mean comparisons that differed significantly using Sidak's adjustment for multiple comparisons are marked accordingly: *p<.05, **p<.01.
For ease of interpretation, pairs of means that were expected to be different are **bolded**.

Hypothesis Testing

CSR and organizational attractiveness. The first hypothesis predicted that job-seekers would perceive an organization engaging in CSR (i.e., BG) as more attractive than a referent organization that does not (i.e., OL). To test this, a paired-samples t-test comparing BG and OL in terms of mean attractiveness levels was conducted using all participants except those in the control condition (no CSR). Results revealed that BG (*M*=3.71, *SD*=0.52) was rated significantly higher than OL (*M*=3.56, *SD*=0.47): *t*(352)=5.75, *p*<.001. Although the mean difference was relatively small (*M*=0.16), the results support H1. To provide additional support, the same analysis was run using only the control condition as a point of comparison. Despite the smaller sample size, results revealed that OL (*M*=3.74, *SD*=0.60) was rated as significantly more attractive than BG (*M*=3.55, *SD*=0.46): *t*(43)=-2.27, *p*=.028, with a mean difference of *M*=-0.19. This provided further support for H1.

The second hypothesis predicted that job-seekers would perceive the same organization as more attractive when it engages in CSR than when does not. To test this hypothesis, an

independent-samples t-test was conducted. A comparison of conditions 1-8 to condition 9

resulted highly unequal sample sizes (n=353 vs. n=44), which makes the t-test very sensitive to

violations of homogeneity of variance. Accordingly, the results of an unequal variance t-test

(with the Welch-Satterthwaite correction to df) is reported (Welch, 1947). The results indicated

that participants rated BG as significantly more attractive when it had a CSR page (M=3.71,

SD=0.52) than when it did not (M=3.55, SD=0.46): t(57.76)=2.19, p=.033. Thus, H2 was

supported.

Table 18. *Summary of Organizational Attractiveness Means, Standard Deviations, and Significance Tests across Experimental Conditions for Blue Grove*

Experimental Condition			Overall Attractiveness (Blue Grove)	
Employee Involvement	Commitment	N	M	SD
High	High	86	3.78	0.50
High	Low	90	3.72	0.49
Low	High	90	3.70	0.58
Low	Low	87	3.65	0.51

Note. None of the reported means differ significantly at p<.05.

CSR features and organizational attractiveness. The third hypothesis predicted that the

condition with high levels of all three CSR features would be perceived as the most attractive

whereas the condition with low levels of all three CSR features would be perceived as the least

attractive. Given that the alignment manipulation did not work, only the employee involvement

and commitment manipulations were included in the analysis. This hypothesis was tested using a

two-way between-subjects ANOVA. The results revealed that there was no significant

interaction between employee involvement and commitment [F(3, 349)=0.05, p=.829]. In terms

of main effects, results revealed that there was no effect of employee involvement [F(3,

349)=1.81, p=.180], or commitment [F(3, 349)=0.94, p=.333], on attractiveness ratings for BG.

Thus, H3 was not supported[11]. A summary of the attractiveness means and standard deviations across the four experimental conditions are presented in Table 18.

Table 19. *Summary of the Interactive Effects of CSR Manipulations, Moral Identity, and Communal Orientation on Ratings of Organizational Attractiveness (Blue Grove)*

Model	Variables	Coeff	SE	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1	(Constant)	2.27	0.30	6.53	.12	
	Gender[a]	-0.09	0.06			
	EIM	0.08	0.05			
	CM	0.09	0.05			
	MI	0.03	0.06			
	CO	0.35**	0.06			
Step 2 - EIM	(Constant)	3.79	*0.08*			
Interactions	Gender[a]	-0.09	0.06			
	EIM	0.08	0.05			
	CM	0.09	0.05			
	MI	0.03	0.06			
	CO	0.35**	0.06			
	EIM × MI	-0.01	0.12			.00
	EIM × CO	0.05	0.16			.00
Step 2 – CM	(Constant)	3.79	0.09	6.95	.12	
Interactions	Gender[a]	-0.09	0.06			
	EIM	0.08	0.05			
	CM	0.09	0.05			
	MI	0.03	0.06			
	CO	0.36**	0.08			
	CM × MI	-0.08	0.12			.00
	CM × CO	-0.14	0.15			.00

Note: [a] Gender coded as Female=1, Male=2; EIM=Employee Involvement Manipulation; CM=Commitment Manipulation; MI=Moral Identity; CO=Communal Orientation.
*p<.05 **p<.01.

Individual differences. The fourth hypothesis predicted that (a) MI and (b) CO will moderate the effects of the CSR feature manipulations on job-seekers' ratings of organizational attractiveness such that the relationship between CSR and organizational attractiveness will be stronger among job-seekers who have high (versus low) MI and CO. To test this hypothesis, organizational attractiveness (for BG) was regressed on the employee involvement and

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[11] A supplementary analysis was also conducted examining the effects of the two experimental manipulations on the relative difference in attractiveness between BG and OL. This analysis also resulted in nonsignificant results.

commitment manipulations, with MI and CO included as moderators. Gender was included as a covariate because of its significant correlations with some of the study variables.

Consistent with the analysis conducted to test H3, the employee involvement and commitment manipulations did not significantly predict organizational attraction (b=.08 and b=.09, respectively). Furthermore, CO significantly predicted organizational attraction (b=.35), whereas MI did not (b=.03). Adding the interaction terms for each manipulation and individual difference variable did not significantly improve the variance explained in the model (ΔR^2=.00), indicating that there were no significant interactions. Accordingly, H4 was not supported. A summary of the results can be found in Table 19.

Discussion

This study sought to investigate the role of CSR-identity alignment, CSR commitment, and employee involvement in CSR in predicting job-seekers' ratings of organizational attractiveness. To do so, I adopted an experimental methodology and designed a series of vignettes to manipulate these three CSR features, resulting in a total of nine conditions (i.e., $2 \times 2 \times 2$, plus a no-CSR control condition). I also designed two fictitious organizational websites: one where the vignettes were displayed to participants and another serving as a referent organization. This fully-crossed experimental design allowed me to test the effects of combining high and low levels of CSR features on organizational attraction. In this section, I briefly summarize the results of this study, and discuss its limitations and implications for future research. A more general discussion of the findings, implications, and limitations is presented in the General Discussion in Chapter 6.

Summary and Interpretation of Findings

The results of the study indicated that participants viewed the organization that engaged in CSR (i.e., BG) as more favourable than the referent organization that did not (i.e., OL). Additionally, it was found that participants viewed BG as more attractive when it engaged in CSR than when it did not. This indicates that even when information about CSR is presented to job-seekers on a website along with a significant amount of contextual information about the organization (and additional information about a comparator organization), individuals still attend to this CSR information, which subsequently affects their perceptions of the organization's attractiveness as an employer. These results are consistent with what has been found in other micro-level CSR lab studies of organizational attractiveness (Evans & Davis, 2011; Gully et al., 2013; D. A. Jones et al., 2014; Rupp, Shao, Thornton, et al., 2013), and lends additional support to previous findings indicating that CSR can serve as a competitive advantage in attracting talent (Bhattacharya et al., 2008; Greening & Turban, 2000).

Two of the three CSR feature manipulations (employee involvement and commitment) received support for their effectiveness based on the evaluation of the manipulation check items. However, the CSR features did not have an effect on participants' ratings of organizational attractiveness. This runs counter to the first study that found a relationship between CSR features and organizational commitment, as well as some field studies that have measured aspects of CSR comparable to those included in the present study such as CSR-culture fit (Lee et al., 2013), and perceived CSR effort (Parguel et al., 2011). Given that information about the three CSR features was clearly provided to participants, the results cannot be explained by participants' lack of awareness about the organization' CSR. Instead, it is more likely that participants' ratings were based on limited cognitive processing of the organization's description of CSR. In support of

this, image theory (Beach, 1993) suggests that when individuals are in the early stages of evaluating organizations as potential employers, they go through a screening process in order to develop a set of choices to evaluate more closely. During the screening process, the goal is not to make a final decision, but to narrow down the available options to make deciding easier later on. This is done by seeking out negative information about each option that violates the individual's standards and would make it an easy choice to eliminate. Provided that most participants evaluated the experimental materials rather quickly in order to provide answers for the questions (i.e., in one sitting within the span of about 5-10 minutes per website), it is reasonable to assume most participants processed the information on the webpages in a similar manner to how one would in this screening stage. When participants were asked to make a choice between employers after viewing both websites, they likely drew on their general impression of each organization, rather than systematically processing the details of each to make a final decision. Given that there was no explicitly negative information about either organization on the websites, this may have made making a final decision somewhat more difficult. It is likely that if the CSR information in the "low" conditions was clearly negative (e.g., stating that employees are forbidden from participating in the organization's CSR due to the requirements of their work), participants would have paid closer attention to the details of the page (Lange & Washburn, 2012), and attractiveness ratings would have likely been more clearly divided across conditions.

Additionally, it is possible that the CSR manipulations did not affect organizational attraction because individuals may have interpreted the manipulations differently. Rupp and colleagues (2013) argue that when studying employees' reactions to CSR, it is their perception of these CSR activities that matter more than objective indicators of CSR, which employees may, or

may not, be aware of. Applying this argument to the current study, it is possible that job-seekers had different subjective interpretations of the CSR manipulations that affected ratings of organizational attractiveness, despite attempts to minimize the natural noise in the study. This could have been particularly true for the CSR-identity alignment manipulation, which did not pass the manipulation check analysis[12].

Finally, results revealed that individuals' moral identity and communal orientation did not moderate the effect of CSR features on organizational attractiveness. Again, this contradicts previous research findings that these individual difference variables play a significant role in affecting the relationship between CSR perceptions and organizational attraction (D. A. Jones et al., 2014; Rupp, Shao, Thornton, et al., 2013). This difference in results likely lies in the fact that interactions were tested using CSR perceptions in these studies and CSR feature manipulations in the current research.

Implications for Theory and Research

Although the findings of this study were mixed, there are some notable implications for theory and future research. First, the results build on extant research showing that CSR influences job-seekers' perceptions of organizational attractiveness. This study uniquely contributes to the body of experimental research by demonstrating that CSR improves job-seekers' ratings of organizational attractiveness, even when evaluated in a context with a high amount of natural noise (e.g., images, company descriptions, job postings), and when participants are not primed to think about or evaluate CSR. While studies that present participants only with CSR vignettes provide excellent internal validity, the current study

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[12] Indeed, exploratory analysis conducted with the manipulation check items supports this. When organizational attractiveness (for BG) was regressed on the CSR feature manipulation check items, there were significant path coefficients for all manipulation check items but one (consistent commitment over time). However, a portion of the variance explained is likely due to common method bias.

demonstrated that participants naturally attend to CSR information on organizations' websites and use it to inform their perceptions of organizations. Indeed, when participants were asked why they chose BG as their preferred employer, over 50% cited reasons related to CSR. The mechanism by which CSR affects organizational attraction is readily explained by social identity theory (Tajfel, 1982) and the person-organization fit literature (Kristof, 1996). Given that individuals derive a portion of their social identity from the groups they associate with, job-seekers are likely to gravitate towards organizations that fit closely with their values (Schneider, 1987). CSR represents a clear way of expressing prosocial values that the organization can easily communicate to potential applicants.

That being said, the current study controlled a wide variety of factors (e.g., industry, organization size, pay, location) and explicitly gave participants a choice between organizations. It is much less likely that individuals would weigh an organization's CSR activities in situations where they have few job choices or are deciding between highly distinct job offers from organizations. Future research should seek to better understand the conditions in which CSR does and does not matter in applicants' employment decisions. While an optimistic picture is painted by surveys suggesting that most business students would sacrifice a portion of their salary to be employed at a responsible organization (Barbian, 2001), it is possible that the value of CSR relative to other factors in a recruiting context may be somewhat overstated. For example, by experimentally manipulating job offers based on 15 different contract features (e.g., salary, stability, pension, promotion opportunities), Augur, Devinney, Dowling, Eckert, and Lin (2013) found that participants were only willing to sacrifice about 3% of the value of their contract to work for an organization with a positive social reputation (operationalized as a favourable rating by the Global Reporting Initiative – a company that provides CSR rankings).

Although the results of the current research revealed that the objective manipulations of CSR features used in this study do not appear to influence job-seekers' attractiveness ratings, there are also implications that can be gleaned from this finding. Acknowledging the rationale provided for the results described in the interpretation section, it is possible that the finer details of organizations' CSR initiatives do not actually affect job-seekers' perceptions of organizational attractiveness. This suggests that, from a recruiting perspective, organizations should ensure their CSR activities are described to attract applicants with similar values, but need not be quite as concerned about the specific details of those CSR activities. For example, management may not need to be concerned about the specific percentage of annual profits donated to CSR when it comes to attracting new talent. This is further supported by Augur et al. (2013) who argue that more emphasis should be placed on key job features such as salary and remuneration than on the finer aspects of social reputation to attract talent.

Study Limitations

Although significant effort was made to maximize both the internal and external validity of my study, there are some limitations that should be mentioned. The first limitation pertains to the level of realism of the study. Given that lab studies notoriously suffer from low external validity (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014), substantial effort was made to develop an experiment that would faithfully reproduce an internet recruiting context that is frequently used by Canadian organizations (Hausdorf & Duncan, 2004), and would have practical applications for organizations seeking to attract talented individuals. Several design aspects of the study were intended to increase realism.

First, the study employed deception in order to increase participant engagement by leading them to believe they were evaluating real organizations with entry-level positions they

may actually qualify for. The true purpose of the study (i.e., evaluate the effects of CSR on attractiveness) was also hidden from participants in order to avoid unnaturally drawing individuals' attention to the CSR page. While the results of the study showed that most participants were highly engaged and believed the organizations were real, it is possible that giving participants free reign to evaluate the companies (without drawing attention to the manipulations), could have reduced the internal validity of the study. Second, an additional organizational website was developed to serve as a referent for participants because job-seekers typically consider multiple organizations in concert when making a choice about where to work (D. A. Jones et al., 2014). This referent organization, along with the additional content developed for each website, may also have reduced the salience of the feature manipulations on the CSR page, subsequently attenuating their effects. Third, the salience the high/low CSR feature manipulations had boundaries representative of what would actually be found on real organizational websites. While this provided a realistic test of how organizations' CSR features may affect organizational attraction, it is possible that the manipulations were not strong enough to elicit an effect. For example, donating 1% or 10% of profits to a cause both fall within the range of what is realistic, but may not be enough of a difference to matter to job-seekers. To overcome these realism-related limitations, future research may seek to artificially manipulate these (or other) CSR features in a more controlled context. Additionally, priming participants with an educational CSR video may encourage them to spend more time evaluating the finer details of organizations' CSR activities (Evans & Davis, 2011).

Relatedly, an additional limitation pertains to the CSR-identity alignment manipulation. Most research on CSR-identity alignment focuses on differences between organizations engaging in CSR that is highly identity-consistent versus contradictory (e.g., a beer company promoting

awareness of the dangers of impaired driving). The alignment manipulation in my study ranged from highly consistent to a more peripheral or unrelated form of inconsistency (i.e., a clothing company feeding the hungry), rather than CSR that was clearly contradictory to the organization's identity. Future research could provide a stronger manipulation of CSR-identity alignment by providing a more contradictory example of CSR.

Finally, given that the current study used an undergraduate student sample, it is possible that the results may not generalize to other populations. Nonetheless, a student sample is arguably a suitable proxy for the population of young job-seekers. Nor does such a sample reduce the generalizability of these results to the broader population of university-age individuals seeking entry-level positions at organizations. Given that the sample used in this study was quite homogenous in terms of age and education level, future research should seek to determine the effects of CSR and CSR features on other populations.

Conclusion

The current study sought to determine the effects of CSR and CSR features on job-seekers' ratings of organizational attractiveness. The results provided support for the role of CSR in influencing organizational attractiveness, but no support was found for the effects of CSR features on attraction. The following chapter discusses CSR features in general, and outlines some of the limitations and implications of this approach.

CHAPTER 6: GENERAL DISCUSSION

As corporate social responsibility continues to grow in importance in society, research on this topic continues to grow in parallel, spanning numerous academic domains. Micro-level CSR research focusing on employees and job-seekers remains comparatively rare (Morgeson et al., 2013), but represents an important research frontier that holds substantial theoretical value and practical significance for both individuals and organizations. Past research has found positive relationships between CSR and micro-level outcomes (e.g., OCBs, organizational commitment, trust, and attraction), but has progressed significantly less in terms of understanding when or why CSR is effective. In seeking to understand the psychological underpinnings and contextual factors affecting stakeholders' perceptions of CSR, researchers stand to gain significant knowledge about the role that CSR plays in fulfilling individuals' needs and improving organizational performance (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013). There is also progress to be made in terms of consolidating the numerous available definitions of CSR (Dahlsrud, 2008; Rupp & Mallory, 2015), and determining the most appropriate way(s) of measuring CSR (Morgeson et al.). My research sought to address these gaps and contribute to micro-level CSR research by developing and testing a theoretical model explaining how CSR features and attributions can influence organizational commitment and attraction. Aspects of this model were tested in two studies utilizing samples of employees and potential job-seekers.

The remainder of this chapter is organized as follows: first, the findings of the two studies are briefly summarized and discussed in the context of the theoretical framework proposed. Second, I discuss the limitations of the studies and feature-based approach to studying CSR, and provide suggestions for future research. Third, I identify some practical implications that can be drawn from my research.

Summary and Interpretation of Findings

Study 1 Findings

The first study examined the relations among CSR features, CSR attributions, and organizational commitment using a sample of employees. While the person-centered analysis did not yield the expected results, a variable-centered analysis revealed that CSR features significantly predicted employees' CSR attributions and organizational commitment in the expected direction. Specifically, when employees perceived that CSR aligned with their organization's identity, when the organization involved employees in CSR, and when the organization was proactive about their CSR initiatives, employees reported greater emotion- and obligation-based commitment toward their organization. As expected, these CSR features were either directly related to commitment, or indirectly related through values-driven and external-stakeholder driven attributions, indicating that attributions play an important role in the CSR perception process. Contrary to what was expected, CSR commitment was not related to any form of employees' organizational commitment, but did predict values-driven attributions in the expected direction. Lastly, it was found that moral identity did not moderate any of the relationships between CSR features and organizational commitment, which is inconsistent with what was hypothesized.

Study 2 Findings

The second study experimentally manipulated three CSR features (CSR-identity alignment, CSR commitment, and employee involvement in CSR) to determine their effects on organizational attractiveness using an undergraduate student sample representative of potential job-seekers. As expected, the results of the study clearly demonstrated that individuals perceive an organization more favourably when it reports engaging in CSR than when it does not, and as

more favourable in comparison to a referent organization that does not engage in CSR. On the other hand, results pertaining to the CSR feature manipulations were not as expected. Specifically, the results indicated that none of the CSR features significantly influenced job-seekers' ratings of organizational attractiveness. Also contrary to expectations, results revealed that individual differences (specifically moral identity and communal orientation) did not moderate the relationship between CSR features and organizational attractiveness in this study.

Interpretation of Results and their Implications for the Proposed Theoretical Model

The two studies summarized above were conducted to test the integrated theoretical model of CSR features and attributions proposed in Chapter 3 of my dissertation. Briefly, this model proposed that an organization's CSR activities can be characterized by any number of attributes or features that can help observers form causal attributions of the organization's CSR. The model drew on theory and research from a variety of literatures to propose four CSR features that would likely be of relevance to employees and job-seekers, and argued that, instead of operating in isolation, the combination or profile of features would be most informative to observers' CSR attributions. Subsequently, it was argued that the nature of these CSR attributions would affect stakeholders' (e.g., employees, job-seekers, consumers) attitudes and behaviours directed toward the organization, and that several individual difference variables (e.g., values, moral identity) would moderate the impact CSR attributions have on these outcomes. The results of Study 1 and 2 offer some support for the model, but also yielded implications for how the model may be advanced to more accurately characterize the proposed relationships.

Study 1 Interpretation and Implications

The results of Study 1 yielded very limited support for the proposition that CSR features would combine into distinct profiles. While the LPA solution yielded a 5-profile solution of CSR features, only one of the five profiles had means that were qualitatively distinct from each other, and (when interpreted through the lens of the theoretical framework proposed) appeared to resemble a form of strategic CSR. As noted in the Discussion of Chapter 4, there are several possible reasons for this result. For example, it is possible that the CSR features chosen for the study were not as conceptually distinct as originally anticipated and may be part of a higher-order factor like embedded CSR (Aguinis & Glavas, 2013). Relatedly, it is possible that employees may not possess the knowledge, motivation, or insight into their organization's CSR to make fine-grained distinctions between its features (Bhattacharya et al., 2008).

The implication of this is that employees' knowledge of their organization's CSR, and of CSR in general (Evans & Davis, 2011), should be carefully considered when identifying other CSR features that may have an impact on outcomes relevant to employees and the organization. As evidenced by scholarly research (e.g., Bhattacharya et al., 2008) and feedback from the CSR professionals contacted as part of my research, many employees have a general lack of knowledge about their organization's CSR and are not in a position to evaluate certain CSR features (e.g., how well is the organization doing in terms of CSR relative to its competitors?). This suggests that modern applications of Kelley's (1967) covariation model (e.g., Vlachos, Epitropaki, et al., 2013) may not be entirely applicable to evaluations of organizations' CSR because many employees may be unable to evaluate: 1) whether or not other companies are performing as well as their organization in terms of CSR (consensus), 2) if their organization is

equally responsible across multiple domains (distinctiveness), and 3) if the company performs responsibly across time (consistency).

Relatedly, it is possible that certain CSR features could be more or less relevant to different stakeholder groups, and that when these features are salient and easy to evaluate, they likely have a greater impact on outcomes relevant to that particular group. For example, the results of Study 1 indicated that employee involvement in CSR was the most distinct CSR feature in the eyes of employees, likely because of how easy it is for employees to evaluate (as compared to the commitment or proactivity of their organization's CSR). Employee involvement in CSR was related to two of the three components of organizational commitment, and three of the five CSR attributions (more than the other three CSR features). On the other hand, consumers may view CSR branding as a more personally-relevant feature that could affect their intentions to buy products from the organization. Future research could examine the differential relationships of CSR features, operationalized consistently, with outcomes related to various stakeholder groups. Care should be taken to select features that employees (or other stakeholders) are clearly aware of and motivated to evaluate.

The results of the variable-centered analysis in Study 1 were somewhat mixed, but generally supported the theoretical model. Consistent with what was expected, results revealed that employees' perceptions of their organization's CSR features were significantly related to a variety of characteristically positive (e.g., values-driven) and negative (e.g., egoistic) attributions, and subsequently their commitment toward the organization. The majority of these relationships were in the expected direction. Overall, these results support the proposition that attributions (at least partially) mediate the relationship between CSR features and employees' organizational commitment. This supplements previous research examining CSR authenticity

and stakeholders' skepticism (McShane & Cunningham, 2012; Skarmeas & Leonidou, 2013) by providing evidence for some of the characteristics of organizations' CSR that are likely to influence these perceptions.

In terms of the predictive potential of specific CSR features: CSR-identity alignment and employee involvement in CSR predicted attributions and commitment as would be expected, but CSR commitment and CSR proactivity had some unexpected relationships with other variables. While CSR commitment positively predicted values-driven attributions, it was not related to any of the three components of organizational commitment. However, as mentioned previously, its zero-order correlations with attributions and organizational commitment were in the expected direction, which suggests that its high correlation with other CSR features (particularly CSR-identity alignment and CSR proactivity) were responsible for these nonsignificant results. This is readily explained for the same reasons cited above to explain the results of the person-centered analysis.

Regarding CSR proactivity, it was observed that this CSR feature was unexpectedly positively related to both internal and external stakeholder-driven attributions of CSR (albeit positively related to AC and NC, as expected). This result was interpreted in Chapter 4 as a consequence of operationalizing proactivity in terms of CSR innovation and growth (which could be attributed to competitive pressures). However, given that proactive CSR was positively related to both external stakeholder-driven attributions and AC, but external stakeholder-driven attributions were *negatively* related to AC, it is possible that CSR proactivity may not always be perceived the same way. Statistically, it is likely that a portion of the variance in CSR proactivity was associated with positive outcomes and another portion was associated with negative outcomes. Given that the zero-order correlations between CSR proactivity and the study

variables were in line with expectations, and similar to the other CSR features, the positive portion of variance was likely shared among the other CSR features in the regression analysis. The consequence of this is that any variance explained in the positive outcomes by proactivity (e.g., values-driven attributions) would be suppressed by the inclusion of the other CSR features (L. Friedman & Wall, 2005). When the positive portion of variance is explained by the other CSR features, the leaves the unique negative portion of variance associated with proactivity left over. Given that proactivity was theorized to be viewed as positive or negative depending on context, this potential suppressor effect is unlikely to be spurious. In order to confirm this, the magnitude of this remaining variance could be tested in terms of its relative significance using a technique such as relative importance analysis (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011), or by testing for potential interactions among features. While far from confirmed, this is consistent with the theoretical model in the sense that CSR features may be perceived differently depending on context.

An additional finding was that values-driven attributions were the only form of attributions that positively related to AC. Although this runs counter to the prediction that stakeholders would react positively to strategic attributions, there is evidence suggesting that these attributions predict employees' loyalty intentions and positive word-of-mouth (Vlachos et al., 2010). Although this was not explicitly considered in the theoretical model, the implication of this is that CSR attributions likely have different relationships with different outcomes, and that researchers should choose their outcome variables carefully. For example, individuals' CSR attributions in general are predictive of their attitudes and behaviours directed toward the organization and their job (Vlachos, Panagopoulos, et al., 2013), but may be less relevant as a predictor of team-relevant outcomes or objective measures of performance.

Finally, contrary to expectations, Study 1 did not find that moral identity moderated the relationship between CSR features and organizational commitment. This contradicts the findings of previous research indicating that moral identity moderates the relationship between CSR perceptions on one hand, and employees' OCBs and job-seekers' pursuit intentions on the other (Rupp, Shao, Thornton, et al., 2013). This difference could have occurred because Rupp and colleagues examined the moderating effect of moral identity on the relationship between CSR perceptions and OCBs, whereas Study 1 examined its moderating effect on the relationship between CSR attributions and organizational commitment. It is possible that moral identity plays a role earlier in the CSR perception process such that it affects the relationship between CSR perceptions and attributions.

Study 2 Interpretation and Implications

The findings of Study 2 lent a limited amount of support for the theoretical model, but yielded several important implications. Although not explicitly proposed by the theoretical model, it was found that job-seekers perceived an organization as more attractive (in relative and absolute terms) when it engaged in CSR. While this finding is helpful and consistent with previous research, the finding that job-seekers perceived an organization as equally attractive, regardless of the features of its CSR webpage, is more directly applicable to the theoretical model proposed in my dissertation. As discussed in the limitations section, it is possible that the CSR feature manipulations were not salient or distinct enough to significantly affect participants' ratings of organizational attractiveness. Alternatively, while this information was provided directly to participants, they may not have been given enough personally-relevant information that they could use in their capacity as job-seekers to truly understand the character of the organization's CSR (Basu & Palazzo, 2008) and inform their attitude about the organization.

Indeed, when individuals are asked to respond based on limited information, it is likely that their responses would be subject to the CSR halo effect mentioned earlier. N. C. Smith et al. (2010) found support for two types of CSR halo effects in two experimental studies. The first is described as a within-domain CSR halo effect, where awareness of a given set of actions (e.g., a recycling program) influences perceptions of related, but unobserved, actions in the same domain (e.g., energy conservation). The second is described as a between-domain halo effect, where awareness of a company's CSR in one domain (e.g., environmental sustainability) affects perceptions of CSR performance in distinct domains where no information is provided (e.g., community involvement). If individuals draw on limited information about a company's CSR activities in one domain and generalize both within- and between-domains of CSR, it is reasonable to expect that individuals might also make generalizations about the attributes or features of a CSR activity, particularly when they do not possess sufficient information.

Interestingly, there was a very small portion of the sample (~2%) that provided written responses indicating that they were skeptical about the organization's CSR. These responses were almost evenly spread across the eight conditions, suggesting that some individuals may be suspicious of an organization's motives regardless of the information they are provided. This supports the assertion by Rupp, Shao, Thornton, et al. (2013) that individuals' subjective interpretations of CSR activities will explain the most variance in outcomes because there is likely variation in how the same CSR activities are perceived. The implication here is that for CSR features to have a consistent impact on individuals' perceptions, they must be highly salient and leave little room for interpretation. It also highlights the importance of considering the role that individual differences play in the CSR perception process.

Lastly, Study 2 did not find that moral identity or communal orientation were significant moderators of the relationship between CSR features and job-seekers' ratings of organizational attractiveness. Given that these results are consistent with those of Study 2, it may be more accurate to restate that these individual differences are likely to come into play when evaluating an organization that engages in CSR in comparison to an organization that does not. Although further investigation is warranted, positioning individual differences as a moderator of the direct relationship between general CSR performance and outcomes may be a viable addition to the model.

Limitations and Future Directions

In addition to the study-specific limitations discussed in Chapters 4 and 5, there are some general limitations of the approach taken in my dissertation that should be considered in an effort to further CSR theory and future research. One of the primary contributions of my research was the examination of CSR from a feature-based perspective. The literature review (Chapter 2) and theoretical model (Chapter 3), set the stage for the two empirical studies (Chapters 4 and 5) by distinguishing between CSR content and features, and using attribution theory to explain how different combinations of CSR features would influence commitment and attraction. While there are advantages to studying CSR using a feature-based approach (e.g., can characterize different CSR activities and organizations consistently), there are also some potential drawbacks.

As mentioned previously, there are a wide array of potential features that could characterize an organization's CSR activities, but a lack of theory and research to provide guidance about which features to study, and what relationships to expect. This lack of theory was a major impetus for the development of the theoretical model, but nonetheless posed a challenge for identifying CSR features that employees and job-seekers would be aware of and view as

relevant. For instance, while Basu and Palazzo's (2008) model of the CSR sensemaking process presents numerous potential determinants of an organization's CSR character, some of the determinants are likely impossible to evaluate for some stakeholders. For example, most stakeholders would likely have difficulty evaluating the cognitive determinants of CSR character (or "What firms think") such as its strategy to achieve social legitimacy. While there is some qualitative research on this topic (e.g., McShane & Cunningham, 2012), future research should seek to determine the specific factors that employees, job-seekers, and other stakeholders use to evaluate the character of their organization's CSR activities.

Another limitation of the feature-based approach to CSR is closely related to one of its strengths. Given that features can characterize any CSR activity, it is likely difficult for individuals to provide responses about the features of an organization's CSR activities when they are engaging in multiple activities at once. An aforementioned limitation of Study 1 was the general (global, company-wide) reference point that participants were asked to use when providing responses to the CSR feature questions. When organizations enact multiple CSR initiatives, evaluating the characteristics of each would be challenging, if not impossible, for most stakeholders. Given that Study 1 did not assess the number of CSR activities conducted by each participant's organization, it is difficult to assess how accurately they were able to evaluate their company's CSR. Future research could focus on asking participants about the specific features of a single CSR activity. Choosing an activity that is personally-relevant and conducted in close proximity to the respondent is likely essential to ensure the CSR is characterized accurately.

Additionally, although the main focus of my research was not to evaluate existing scales, it is evident that there are some issues with the moral identity measure (Aquino & Reed, 2002).

Perhaps the most significant limitation is the socially desirable nature of the items. This is clearly reflected in the item wording in the sense that participants are presented with nine positive moral traits (e.g., caring, compassionate, honest, hardworking) and asked to indicate the degree to which they would feel good having those traits (i.e., internalization), and the degree to which they embody those traits (i.e., symbolization). This is also evident from the negatively skewed data for moral internalization in both studies: in both studies, over 84% of the sample had a mean score of at least 4 out of 5. These factors arguably limit the utility of this scale, at least in the context of organizational research.

Lastly, the samples chosen for Studies 1 and 2 were accessed primarily out of convenience. For Study 1, a large percentage of individuals came from a relatively small number of organizations (e.g., a university and a hospital), which could have potentially biased the results. The remainder of the sample was drawn from MTurk. Although there is evidence that MTurk data is of high quality (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011) and potentially superior to student samples (Casler, Bickel, & Hackett, 2013), it is difficult to determine what population MTurk samples are actually representative of. Future research using a larger and more diverse sample may yield different results and would be potentially more generalizable to the North American working population as a whole. For Study 2, the potential limitation of using a student sample was already addressed in Chapter 5, but another limitation that should be mentioned was the large number of careless responders found in the sample. Collecting data from students remotely resulted in a high number of careless responders than collecting data in person and may have unduly biased the results. It is likely that conducting a study with the same methodology as Study 2 using a sample of individuals actually seeking employment would result in fewer careless responses and potentially different findings given that these individuals would likely be

more motivated to evaluate potential employers and more skilled at quickly evaluating relevant content on employers' websites.

Practical Implications

There are a number of practical implications that can be drawn from my theoretical model and the results of the two studies in my dissertation. Most obviously, the significant amount of literature on topic of CSR and the results of my research indicate that CSR plays an important role in stakeholders' perceptions of organizations. As stakeholders' expectations of organizations' obligation to behave responsibly continue to rise (Bertels & Peloza, 2008), organizations will have little choice but to adapt and incorporate socially responsible initiatives in order to maintain legitimacy. That being said, the results of my research are consistent with previous findings (e.g., Mueller et al., 2012; Rupp, Shao, Thornton, et al., 2013) suggesting that CSR also benefits organizations by fostering employee commitment and greater perceptions of attractiveness from job-seekers. This suggests that there are significant strategic benefits of engaging in CSR, which supports the idea that the success of business and the well-being of society is not a zero-sum game (Porter & Kramer, 2004).

Additionally, my research suggests that organizations should be cautious about the manner in which they engage in CSR. The results of my first study indicate that when organizations engage in CSR that is consistent with their identity (in terms of values, strategy, and so on), employees are more likely to express an affective attachment toward their organization. However, the results of my second study reveal that CSR-identity alignment may constitute more than just the kind of cause endorsed by the organization (e.g., clothing versus feeding those in need), and that perceptions of alignment may be highly subjective. The implication that can be drawn from this is that organizations should seek to cultivate a positive

reputation in society in multiple domains so that CSR activities will not be judged as inauthentic or out of character. Alternatively, when this is not possible, explicitly communicating the link between the organization's characteristics and the cause endorsed may also reduce perceptions of inauthenticity (Van Rekom et al., 2014).

Another relevant finding of my research pertains to the benefits of fostering employee involvement in CSR. My first study found that employee involvement in CSR predicted all three components of organizational commitment. Additionally, a comparison between employees who did and did not participate in their organization's CSR activities revealed that those who participated had significantly higher levels of affective and normative organizational commitment. While having committed employees benefits the organizations, the corporate volunteering literature also cites numerous benefits to employees who participate in volunteering initiatives such as the fulfillment of individual needs, career and skill development, as well as enhancing self-perception (Caligiuri et al., 2013; Henning & Jones, 2013). Additionally, emphasizing employee involvement in CSR initiatives also appears to improve the optics of such activities in the eyes of investors (Mueller et al., 2012).

Based on the results of my research, the implications for CSR commitment and proactivity are not as clear cut. In practice, commitment to CSR is likely a basic requirement for a given initiative to succeed. Thus to some extent, all CSR initiatives are characterized by some degree of commitment. However, establishing a consistent track-record of commitment to CSR over time is likely to foster an organization's positive reputation in society, which can help build moral credits, making it easier to engage in CSR without justification (Van Rekom et al., 2014) and weather the consequences of future irresponsible actions (Ormiston & Wong, 2013). Regarding CSR proactivity, my theoretical model argues that proactivity can be perceived as

either positive or negative depending on the circumstances. For example, establishing an innovative and evolving CSR program that is integrated with the core values of the organization and involves employees would likely be of benefit to the organization and society, and consequently met with favourable perceptions from stakeholders. On the other hand, CSR characterized by innovation with the sole purpose of getting ahead of competitors may be perceived less favourably by certain stakeholders – particularly those with the most information about the organization's CSR activities.

Conclusion

The primary research question I sought to address through my research was: how do CSR features influence employees' organizational commitment and job-seekers' attraction to organizations? To answer this question, I reviewed the literature and developed a theoretical model (Chapter 3) that distinguished between CSR content and features and proposed attributions as the primary psychological mechanism explaining how CSR features, in combination, influence commitment and attraction.

Next, I tested portions of this model through two studies. The first and second objectives of my research were to determine if CSR features combined to form meaningful profiles, and to explore how these profiles related to employees' CSR attributions and organizational commitment. These objectives were addressed in the first study (Chapter 4). The third objective was to determine if job-seekers' perceptions of organizational attractiveness were affected by CSR features. This objective was addressed in the second study (Chapter 5).

The results of both studies suggest that CSR in general affects employees' organizational commitment and job-seekers' ratings of organizational attractiveness, but evidence relating to CSR features was mixed. Specifically, results revealed that employees' CSR attributions and

organizational commitment were significantly predicted by CSR features, but that job-seekers' attractiveness ratings were not affected by CSR features when displayed on a website.

These findings have implications for future research and theory in that they provide evidence for the usefulness of adopting a feature-based approach to CSR and illustrate the value of attributions in explaining why CSR activities relate positively (or negatively) to relevant outcomes. These findings also have implications for practice in that they add to the burgeoning, albeit nascent, micro-level CSR literature by demonstrating that CSR significantly predicts positive attitudes among employees and job-seekers.

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Appendices

APPENDIX A

Acronyms used frequently throughout the document (in alphabetical order)

AC	Affective Commitment
BG	Blue Grove Clothing Co.
CC	Continuance Commitment
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
ESEM	Exploratory Structural Equation Modeling
FIML	Full Information Maximum Likelihood
LPA	Latent Profile Analysis
MI	Moral Identity/Internalization
MS	Moral Symbolization
NC	Normative Commitment
OL	OpenLoft Apparel
SME	Subject Matter Expert
TCM	Three component model

APPENDIX B

Study 1: Materials and measures

Letter of Information

Project Title: An Investigation of the Role of Corporate Social Responsibility in Organizations

Principal Investigator: John P. Meyer, Department of Psychology, Western University
Co-Investigator/Student Researcher: Nicholas L. Bremner, Department of Psychology, Western University

You are invited to participate in a research study about the socially responsible actions of organizations. You are being invited to participate because you are currently employed at one of the organizations targeted for this research project. The purpose of this letter is to provide you with information required for you to make an informed decision regarding participation in this research.

Purpose: The purpose of this study is to better understand the relationship between employees' attitudes about their organization, and the responsible social and environmental actions taken by their organization. In recent years, social responsibility has come to the forefront as an important issue for organizations. This research seeks to gain greater insight into this phenomenon for the betterment of organizations and their employees.

Participation: To be eligible to participate in this study, you must 1) possess a working proficiency of the English language, 2) currently hold employment at an organization, and 3) be at least 17 years of age. Individuals must currently hold employment with an organization to be eligible to participate in this study. If you agree to participate, you will be asked to complete an electronic survey. Please answer each question honestly and as accurately as possible. There are no right or wrong answers. It is anticipated that the entire survey will take approximately 25-30 minutes of your time to complete.

This research project is being conducted independently from your organization by researchers at Western University and your participation in this study is completely voluntary. Please note that completing the electronic survey and submitting it for completion is understood as your consent to participate. If you choose to participate, you may refuse to answer any question that you do not wish to answer. There will be no negative consequences from your organization if you choose not to participate, skip any question, or answer any of the questions in a particular way.

Confidentiality: If you choose to fill out the survey, your responses will be completely anonymous and kept confidential. At no point will you be asked to provide any information that

could potentially personally identify you. There are no known or anticipated risks or discomforts associated with participating in this study.

Conservation of data: Your responses will be accessible only to the principal investigator and graduate student conducting this research. Individual results will not be shared with any other party for any reason. If the results are published, neither your name nor the name of your organization will be used. Completed online surveys will be kept for a period of 5 years following any academic publication, after which they will be deleted. Specifically, the researchers will keep all results on an encrypted and password-protected external hard drive. Only the principal investigator and student researcher will have access to the data. This electronic data will contain no identifiers, and will be kept securely in a locked office following the conservation period.

Benefits/Compensation: Your compensation for this research project will be commensurate with the rate stipulated on MTurk (**Displayed for MTurk participants only**). You will not be compensated for your participation in this research (**Displayed for other participants**). Although you may not directly benefit from participating in this study, you may request to be provided with a summary of the study findings. Furthermore, information gathered may provide benefits to society as a whole. For example, through the dissemination of these research results (e.g., through conference presentations, publication), this study could raise researchers' and managers' awareness and understanding of how corporate social responsibility can improve the employee experience at work.

If you have any questions or concerns about the study, or would like to be informed of its results, please contact Nicholas Bremner [telephone], email: [email] (co-investigator/student researcher), or Dr. John Meyer [telephone], email: [email] (principal investigator).

If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant or the conduct of this study, you may contact The Office of Research Ethics [telephone], email: [email].

Debriefing Form

Project Title: An Investigation of the Role of Corporate Social Responsibility Features in Attracting and Retaining Employees

Principal Investigator: John P. Meyer, Department of Psychology, Western University
Co-Investigator/Student Researcher: Nicholas L. Bremner, Department of Psychology, Western University

The purpose of the current study was to gain a better understanding of how the socially responsible actions of organizations affect employees. We sought to understand what factors are most important for employees when inferring the motives behind their organization's socially responsible initiatives, and to determine if employees' perceptions have any bearing on their commitment to the organization. Specifically, we sought to determine the relationship these factors have with the characteristics of organizations' socially responsible initiatives (e.g., proactivity, whether or not employees are involved). Given that organizations are increasingly engaging in corporate social responsibility initiatives for a wide variety of reasons, it is important to gain an understanding of how beneficial such practices can be when they are viewed as significant and authentic in the eyes of employees.

Your responses and participation are much appreciated. Without your involvement, it would not be possible to conduct this research. Thank you!

To protect the confidentiality and anonymity of your responses, no information that could personally identify you was collected, and your individual responses will never be shared with any third party for any reason. If you have any further questions about this research, or wish to receive a summary of the results, please contact Nicholas Bremner [telephone], email: [email] (co-investigator/student researcher) or Dr. John Meyer [telephone]. Thank you for helping us with this project - your time is greatly appreciated. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant or the conduct of this study, you may contact The Office of Research Ethics [telephone], email:[email].

If you are interested in learning more about the topic of corporate social responsibility and how it impacts employees and other stakeholders, please refer to the readings below:

References:
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Full List of Measures

* = Reverse-coded item

CSR Performance

1. Does our company do enough towards protecting the environment?
2. Do you believe that our company is a fair market participant?
3. Do you believe that our company is maintaining a good/positive image in public?
4. Does our company do enough to support cultural and charitable initiatives and campaigns?
5. How satisfied are you with our company's effort to secure the physical/psychological health of its employees?
6. Overall, how satisfied are you with the way your company is taking responsibility for its employees?
7. Overall, how satisfied are you with the way our company manages social responsibility?

CSR Features

See Table 6 in Chapter 3 for the full list of items.

CSR Importance

1. My organization's CSR activities are focused on causes that really matter to me.
2. My organization's CSR doesn't really make much of a difference.*
3. My organization's CSR addresses issues that are truly worthwhile.
4. My organization is not focusing on the right issues when it comes to CSR.*
5. The CSR activities in my organization seem misguided.*

CSR Attributions

1. They feel morally obligated to help.
2. They have a long-term interest in the community.
3. Top management believes in the cause(s) underlying the CSR activities.
4. They want to make it easier for consumers who care about the underlying cause(s) to support them. *(Included only in pilot study)*
5. They are genuinely concerned about being socially responsible. *(Included only in main study)*
6. They are trying to give something back to the community.

7. They feel their customers expect them to.
8. They feel society in general (e.g., consumers) expect them to.
9. They feel their shareholders expect them to.
10. They feel their employees expect them to.
11. They feel their employees want them to. *(Added to existing scale)*
12. They are taking advantage of other groups (e.g., nonprofit organizations) to help their own business.
13. They are taking advantage of the underlying cause(s) to help their own business.
14. They want a tax write-off.
15. They want to get publicity.
16. They will get more customers by doing so.
17. They will keep more of their customers by doing so.
18. They hope to increase profits by doing so.

Organizational Commitment

1. I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.*
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.*
5. I do not feel like "party of the family" at my organization.*
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
7. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
8. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
9. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.
10. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
11. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.
12. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
13. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.*
14. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.
15. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.
16. This organization deserves my loyalty.
17. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.
18. I owe a great deal to my organization.

Moral Identity

Question Stem:

Listed below are some characteristics that may describe a person:

Caring, Compassionate, Fair, Friendly, Generous, Hardworking, Helpful, Honest, Kind,

The person with these characteristics could be you or it could be someone else. For a moment, visualize in your mind the kind of person who has these characteristics. Imagine how that person would think, feel, and act. When you have a clear image of what this person would be like, answer the following questions:

1. It would make me feel good to be a person who has these characteristics.
2. Being someone who has these characteristics is an important part of who I am.
3. I would be ashamed to be a person who has these characteristics.*
4. Having these characteristics is not really important to me.*
5. I strongly desire to have these characteristics.
6. I often wear clothes that identify me as having these characteristics.
7. The types of things I do in my spare time (e.g., hobbies) clearly identify me as having these characteristics.
8. The kinds of books and magazines that I read identify me as having these characteristics.
9. The fact that I have these characteristics is communicated to others by my membership in certain organizations.
10. I am actively involved in activities that communicate to others that I have these characteristics.

Ethics Approval

Western Research

Western University Health Science Research Ethics Board
NMREB Delegated Initial Approval Notice

Principal Investigator: Prof. John Meyer
Department & Institution: Social Science\Psychology,Western University

NMREB File Number: 106628
Study Title: An Investigation of the Role of Corporate Social Responsibility Features in Attracting and Retaining Employees (Study 1)
Sponsor:

NMREB Initial Approval Date: June 12, 2015
NMREB Expiry Date: June 12, 2016

Documents Approved and/or Received for Information:

Document Name	Comments	Version Date
Western University Protocol		2015/05/04
Revised Letter of Information & Consent		2015/05/04
Other	Revised invitation emai	2015/05/01
Other	Original debriefing form	2015/04/08
Instruments	Original list of questions for study	2015/04/08
Other	Email justifying survey timing	2015/06/08

The Western University Non-Medical Research Ethics Board (NMREB) has reviewed and approved the above named study, as of the NMREB Initial Approval Date noted above.

NMREB approval for this study remains valid until the NMREB Expiry Date noted above, conditional to timely submission and acceptance of NMREB Continuing Ethics Review.

The Western University NMREB operates in compliance with the Tri-Council Policy Statement Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans (TCPS2), the Ontario Personal Health Information Protection Act (PHIPA, 2004), and the applicable laws and regulations of Ontario.

Members of the NMREB who are named as Investigators in research studies do not participate in discussions related to, nor vote on such studies when they are presented to the REB.

The NMREB is registered with the U.S. Department of Health & Human Services under the IRB registration number IRB 00000941.

Ethics Officer, on behalf of Riley Hinson, NMREB Chair or delegated board member

Ethics Officer to Contact for Further Information

___ Erika Basile	✓ Grace Kelly	___Mina Mekhail	___Vikki Tran
ebasile@uwo.ca	grace.kelly@uwo.ca	mmekhail@uwo.ca	vikki.tran@uwo.ca

This is an official document. Please retain the original in your files.

APPENDIX C

Study 1: Latent profile analysis

Analysis. To test the hypothesis that the CSR features will combine into distinct profiles, analyses were conducted to prepare the CSR features subscales for latent profile analysis (LPA). Using exploratory structural equation modeling (ESEM), factor scores for the CSR features measure were produced in an effort to partially control for measurement error by giving more weight to indicators with higher factor loadings (Morin, Boudrias, Marsh, Madore, & Desrumaux, in press, 2015; Morin, Meyer, Creusier, & Biétry, 2015). ESEM was used to produce these factor scores instead of CFA because recent research suggests that CFA models are often too restrictive for many multidimensional constructs (for a review, see Morin, Marsh, & Nagengast, 2013). This is particularly the case when the researcher expects items to relate to aspects of more than one latent factor (i.e., possess legitimate cross-loadings; as is the case with many multidimensional constructs). CFA relies on the "independent cluster model" (sometimes abbreviated as ICM-CFA), allowing indicators to load on only one factor and restricting cross-loadings to zero; an assumption that is not always realistic in practice (Morin et al., 2016). Within a CFA framework, the presence of cross-loadings among indicators can produce dramatically decreased fit statistics, even among measures that have a wealth of evidence to support their factor structure (Morin et al., 2013). Furthermore, because these cross-loadings cannot be estimated in the model, the only way to represent them is through the inflation of latent factor correlations (Guay, Morin, Litalien, Valois, & Vallerand, 2015; Morin et al., 2016). Given that: 1) it is reasonable to expect that certain items from the CSR features measure may possess cross-loadings due to the conceptual similarity of the dimensions, and 2) very high correlations were found among the latent factors using CFA, ESEM was deemed as the most appropriate technique for producing accurate factor scores to use in subsequent analyses.

Once the factor scores were obtained, LPA was conducted in Mplus 7 (L. K. Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2012) using MLR estimation to determine the appropriate number of CSR feature profiles in the sample. The optimal number of profiles was determined by testing a series of models, each specifying one more profile than the last. The first model run specified two profiles and additional models specifying additional profiles were run until the fit statistics became unfavorable. Models were evaluated based on a variety of criteria, including: 1) several overall fit statistics such as information criteria, entropy, and the bootstrap likelihood ratio test (BLRT), 2) the posterior probabilities of each profile, 3) profile separation, and 4) profile size.

A variety of overall fit statistics categorized as statistical information criteria were reported, including the Akaïke Information Criterion (AIC; Akaïke, 1987), the consistent AIC (CAIC; Bozdogman, 1987), the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC; Schwartz, 1978), and the sample-size adjusted BIC (SABIC; Sclove, 1987). For each of these fit statistics, lower values represent a better fit to the data. Entropy provides an indication of the precision with which cases were classified into each of the profiles in a given model. Although entropy should not be used as the sole indicator of the appropriate number of profiles, it does provide a helpful overall

indication of classification accuracy (Lubke & Muthén, 2007). It can take on a value between 0 and 1, with higher values indicating greater classification accuracy. The BLRT creates a bootstrapped distribution based on the sample data and compares the fit of a model with k profiles to a model with $k\text{-}1$ profiles; a significant BLRT value indicates that the k profile solution is a superior fit (McLachlan & Peel, 2000). Lastly, posterior probabilities were examined to determine the accuracy with which cases were assigned to each profile. The posterior probabilities can be likened to more granular indicators of entropy and provide an average percentage of classification accuracy for each of the profiles. Of the fit statistics described so far, there is some evidence that the BIC and BLRT outperform the other criteria at determining the true number of latent classes in models using continuous indicators (Nylund, Asparouhov, & Muthén, 2007). That being said, all of these statistics are reported in this research because there is still no universal agreement on the best fit statistic to report for LPA.

As recommended by Nylund et al. (2007), profile separation (or distinctiveness) and size were also used to evaluate the most optimal profile solution. This is because solutions with greater numbers of profiles tend to produce slightly superior fit statistics but also tend to produce profiles that are not substantively different from one another and quite small in size. As a rule of thumb, it has been recommended that when solutions begin to produce profiles consisting of less than 5% of the total number of cases, the $k\text{-}1$ profile solution is more appropriate (Nylund et al., 2007).

ESEM. As mentioned in Chapter 4, given that the latent factor correlations for the CSR features scale were quite high when CFA was used, ESEM was conducted separately on this scale to produce factor scores for use in LPA. The hypothesized 4-factor ESEM model fit the data very well: $\chi^2(87)=147.659$, $\chi^2/df=1.70$, *RMSEA*=.04, *CFI*=.98, *TLI*=.96, *SRMR*=.02. However, there were some statistically significant cross-loadings for some of the items that were likely responsible for inflating the latent factor correlations in the CFA. Cross-loadings were observed for two of the items intended to measure commitment to CSR. One item loaded on the alignment dimension, whereas the other loaded on the proactivity dimension. It is conceivable that a significant commitment of resources could be perceived in a way that is consistent with alignment and proactivity. These items had lower factor scores on commitment (representing the relevant variance explained), but would also receive less weight as indicators if retained in the model. Accordingly, this model was retained for the LPA.

LPA. Hypothesis 1 predicted that organizations' CSR features, as reported by employees, would combine to form distinct profiles. To test this, LPA models were run by specifying an initial 2-profile solution and adding successive profiles up to an 8-profile solution. The fit indices of these models are reported in Table 20 and displayed in Figure 5. An examination of the information criteria revealed that the 5-profile solution represents the best fit to the data since the values begin to level out or climb once additional profiles are added. The BLRT value remained significant up to the 8-profile solution, which suggests that adding additional profiles would yield a better fit. However, Marsh, Lüdtke, Trautwein, and Morin (2009) noted that the BLRT often overestimates the 'true' number of profiles in a sample; a tendency that becomes even

more severe as sample size increases. Lastly, the entropy did not differ substantially across each of the profile solutions (0.83 to 0.88), limiting its usefulness as an indication of overall classification errors.

Table 20. *LPA Model Fit Statistics*

	LL	AIC	CAIC	BIC	SABIC	Entropy	BLRT
2-Profile	-1789.48	3604.96	3625.36	3655.87	3614.63	0.85	414.86*
3-Profile	-1703.52	3443.04	3471.28	3513.53	3456.42	0.88	171.93*
4-Profile	-1640.05	3326.10	3362.20	3416.18	3343.20	0.83	126.93*
5-Profile	-1602.09	3260.18	3304.12	3369.83	3281.00	0.84	75.93*
6-Profile	-1591.18	3248.36	3300.15	3377.59	3272.89	0.85	82.81*
7-Profile	-1580.41	3236.83	3296.46	3385.64	3265.08	0.85	23.74*
8-Profile	-1568.71	3223.42	3290.91	3391.82	3255.39	0.85	23.61*

Note. AIC = Akaïke Information Criterion; BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion; BLRT = Bootstrapped Likelihood Ratio Test; CAIC = Consistent AIC; LL = Log Likelihood; SABIC = Sample-adjusted Bayesian Information Criterion.
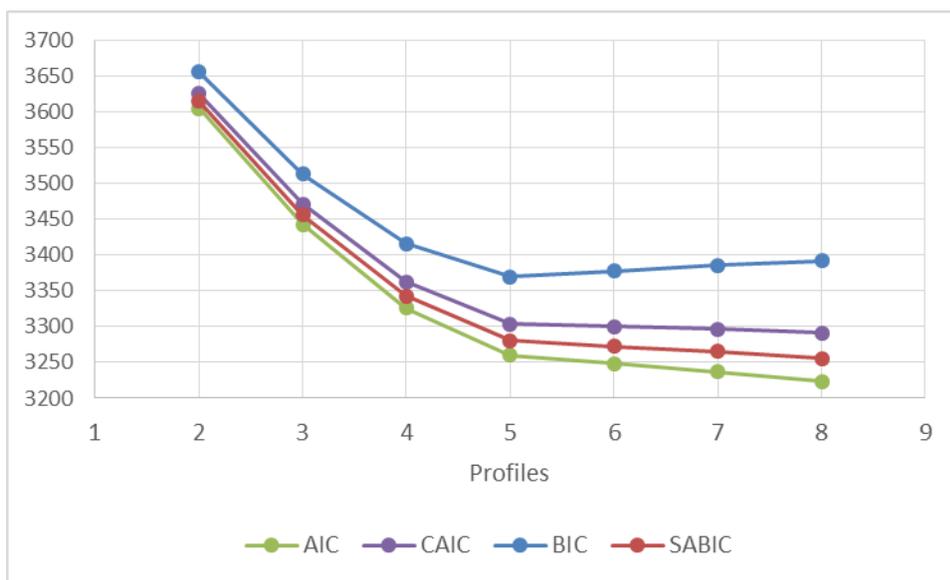*p <.01.*

Figure 5. Elbow plot of the fit indices of the CSR features LPA.

Further evidence of the suitability of the 5-profile solution can be found by examining Table 21, where it can be seen that the profile with the smallest membership proportion (i.e., 7%) is above the recommended cutoff of 5% of the sample (Nylund et al., 2007). The smallest profiles in the 6- to 8-profile solutions represent much smaller proportions of the sample (i.e., 1.6% to 4.0%). The mean structure of the 4- and 5-profile solutions were examined to determine how distinctive each profile was. The 6-profile solution was also examined in case the additional profile was

distinguishable and relevant despite containing less than 5% of the sample. The 4-profile solution contained distinctive profiles and the additional profile in the 5-profile solution was also distinguishable. The additional profile in the 6-profile solution was not highly distinctive and quite small. The posterior probabilities for the 5-profile solution range from 88% to 94% (see *Table 22*), indicating that the probability of individuals being assigned to the correct profile was quite high. In light of this, it was determined that the 5-profile solution was optimal (the profile means can be found in Figure 6).

Table 21. *Proportion of Sample Assigned to Latent Profiles*

Model	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
2-Profile	66.04%	33.96%						
3-Profile	56.33%	36.93%	6.74%					
4-Profile	43.67%	27.76%	21.83%	6.74%				
5-Profile	36.93%	24.80%	22.10%	9.16%	7.01%			
6-Profile	35.58%	25.07%	21.83%	9.43%	6.47%	1.62%		
7-Profile	35.31%	21.83%	21.02%	8.90%	6.20%	5.12%	1.62%	
8-Profile	33.42%	21.02%	16.98%	9.43%	5.39%	5.12%	4.58%	4.04%

Table 22. *Classification Posterior Probabilities for the 5-Profile Model*

Profile	Profile 1	Profile 2	Profile 3	Profile 4	Profile 5
1	**0.90**	0.05	0.05	0.00	0.01
2	0.07	**0.88**	0.00	0.05	0.00
3	0.09	0.00	**0.89**	0.00	0.02
4	0.00	0.09	0.00	**0.91**	0.00
5	0.04	0.00	0.03	0.00	**0.94**

Note. Values in bold are the average posterior probabilities associated with the profiles to which individuals were assigned.

An inspection of Figure 6 revealed that the profile means of the CSR features tended to cluster closely together for four of the five profiles and differ only quantitatively from one another. Only Profile 5 had means that differed qualitatively from one another (i.e., contained both high and low means, as opposed to similar mean levels for all four features). Thus, although LPA indicated that a 5 profile solution was optimal, the profile means tended to covary within each profile, providing very little support for Hypothesis 1.

Hypotheses 2-6 made specific predictions about the primary attribution associated with five different CSR feature profiles. However, the LPA solution contained only two of the hypothesized CSR feature profiles. Specifically, the profile with high levels of all four CSR features was expected to be primarily associated with values-driven attributions, whereas the profile with low levels of all four features was expected to be primarily associated with external stakeholder-driven attributions.
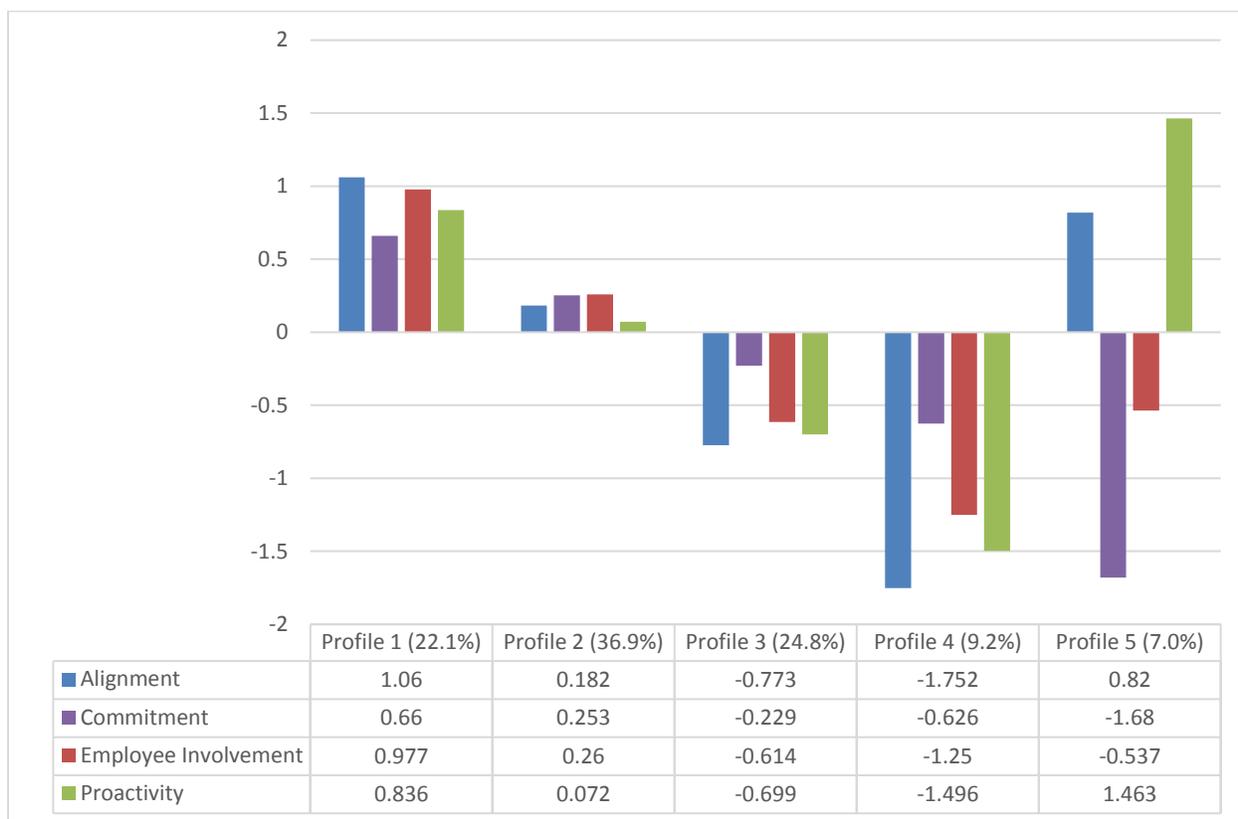
	Profile 1 (22.1%)	Profile 2 (36.9%)	Profile 3 (24.8%)	Profile 4 (9.2%)	Profile 5 (7.0%)
■ Alignment	1.06	0.182	-0.773	-1.752	0.82
■ Commitment	0.66	0.253	-0.229	-0.626	-1.68
■ Employee Involvement	0.977	0.26	-0.614	-1.25	-0.537
■ Proactivity	0.836	0.072	-0.699	-1.496	1.463

Figure 6. Means (Based on ESEM Factor Scores) of 5-Profile Solution for CSR Features Measure Reordered by Profile Favorability.

None of the hypothesized CSR features profiles with divergent mean levels (e.g., high employee involvement, all remaining features low) emerged, which prevented testing most of the a priori hypotheses about the relationship between specific CSR features profiles, attributions, and organizational commitment. Given that the only profile with means that diverged (Profile 5) represented only 7% of the sample, it would appear that this combination of CSR features is relatively rare, and that profiles containing divergent mean levels of CSR features in general are not frequently reported by employees. Another alternative is that few participants put forth the effort or had enough knowledge to clearly differentiate the features of their organization's CSR.

Thus, because the CSR features tend to follow a similar pattern in the majority of cases (which is consistent with the moderate to high correlations found among CSR features earlier), subsequent person-centered analyses (e.g., comparing mean levels of attributions across CSR feature profiles) would not be particularly meaningful. Adopting a variable-centered approach would likely be more suitable because categorizing individuals into CSR profiles would fail to incorporate a portion of within-profile variance of CSR features.

APPENDIX D

Study 2: Materials and measures

Letter of Information

Project Title: Study of Employer Attractiveness based on Website Characteristics

Principal Investigator: John P. Meyer, Department of Psychology, Western University
Co-Investigator/Student Researcher: Nicholas L. Bremner, Department of Psychology, Western University

You are invited to participate in a research study seeking to understand how website characteristics affect organizations' attractiveness as an employer. You are being invited to participate because you are considered to be representative of the population of potential job-seekers. The purpose of this letter is to provide you with information required for you to make an informed decision regarding participation in this research.

Purpose: The purpose of this study is to better understand the relationship between employer attractiveness and website characteristics.

Participation: To be eligible to participate in this study, you must be at least 18 years of age. If you agree to participate, you will be asked to complete an electronic survey. Please answer each question honestly and as accurately as possible. There are no right or wrong answers. It is anticipated that the entire survey will take approximately 30 minutes of your time to complete.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. Please note that completing the electronic survey and submitting it for completion is understood as your consent to participate. If you choose to participate, you may refuse to answer any question that you do not wish to answer. There will be no negative consequences if you choose not to participate, skip any question, or answer any of the questions in a particular way.

Confidentiality: If you choose to fill out the survey, your responses will be completely anonymous and kept confidential. At no point will you be asked to provide any information that could potentially personally identify you. There are no known or anticipated risks or discomforts associated with participating in this study.

Conservation of data: Your responses will be accessible only to the principal investigator and graduate student conducting this research. Individual results will not be shared with any other party for any reason. If the results are published, neither your name nor the name of your organization will be used. Completed online surveys will be kept for a period of 5 years following any academic publication, after which they will be deleted. Specifically, the researchers will keep all results on an encrypted and password-protected external hard drive. Only the principal investigator and student researcher will have access to the data. This electronic data will contain no identifiers, and will be kept securely in a locked office following the conservation period.

Compensation: For participating in this research you will receive one research credit, as specified on the SONA study description.

If you have any questions or concerns about the study, or would like to be informed of its results, please contact Nicholas Bremner [telephone], email: [email] (co-investigator/student researcher), or Dr. John Meyer [telephone], email: [email] (principal investigator).

If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant or the conduct of this study, you may contact The Office of Research Ethics [telephone], email:[email].

Debriefing Form

Project Title: An Investigation of the Role of Corporate Social Responsibility Features in Attracting and Retaining Employees

Principal Investigator: John P. Meyer, Department of Psychology, Western University
Co-Investigator/Student Researcher: Nicholas L. Bremner, Department of Psychology, Western University

Thank you for filling out the survey!

<u>The real purpose of the current study was to gain a better understanding of how corporate social responsibility affects job-seekers attraction to organizations as potential employers. The organizations depicted in the webpages you viewed were not actual employers, and were created for the purpose of this study.</u> We sought to understand what factors are most important for job-seekers when inferring the motives behind their organization's socially responsible initiatives, and to determine if these perceptions have any bearing on their attraction to the organization. Specifically, we sought to determine the relationship these factors have with the characteristics of organizations' socially responsible initiatives (e.g., commitment to social responsibility, whether or not employees are involved). Given that organizations are increasingly engaging in corporate social responsibility initiatives for a wide variety of reasons, it is important to gain an understanding of how beneficial such practices can be when they are viewed as significant and authentic in the eyes of job-seekers.

Your responses and participation are much appreciated. Without your involvement, it would not be possible to conduct this research. Thank you!

To protect the confidentiality and anonymity of your responses, no information that could personally identify you was collected, and your individual responses will never be shared with any third party for any reason. If you have any further questions about this research, or wish to receive a summary of the results, please contact Nicholas Bremner [telephone], email: [email](co-investigator/student researcher) or Dr. John Meyer [telephone], email: [email]. Thank you for helping us with this project - your time is greatly appreciated. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant or the conduct of this study, you may contact The Office of Research Ethics [telephone], email: [email].

If you are interested in learning more about the topic of corporate social responsibility and how it impacts job-seekers and other stakeholders, please refer to the readings below:

References:
Aguinis, H., & Glavas, A. (2012). What we know and don't know about corporate social responsibility: A review and research agenda. *Journal of Management, 38*(4), 932-968.
Morgeson, F. P., Aguinis, H., Waldman, D. A., & Siegel, D. S. (2013). Extending corporate social responsibility research to the human resource management and organizational behavior domains: a look to the future. *Personnel Psychology, 66*, 805-824.
Skarmeas, D., & Leonidou, C. N. (2013). When consumers doubt, watch out! The role of CSR skepticism. *Journal of Business Research, 66*, 1831-1838.

Full List of Measures

* = Reverse-coded item

Organizational Attractiveness

Asked separately for Blue Grove and OpenLoft:

1. For me, this company would be a good place to work.
2. I would not be interested in this company except as a last resort.*
3. This company is attractive to me as a place for employment.
4. I am interested in learning more about this company.
5. A job at this company is very appealing to me.
6. I would accept a job offer from this company.
7. I would make this company one of my first choices as an employer.
8. If this company invited me for a job interview, I would go.
9. I would exert a great deal of effort to work for this company.
10. I would recommend this company to a friend looking for a job.
11. Employees are probably proud to say they work at this company.
12. This is a reputable company to work for.
13. This company probably has a reputation as being an excellent employer.
14. I would find this company a prestigious place to work.
15. There are probably many who would like to work at this company.

Asked only once:

1. Now that you have had a chance to look at both websites, which company is more attractive as a potential employer?
2. If you received the same job offer from both companies (i.e., same salary, job title, responsibilities, geographic location, etc.), which company would you prefer to work for?

CSR Manipulation Check Items (and equivalents for OpenLoft)

1. Blue Grove's socially responsible activities are consistent with who they are as a company.
2. Blue Grove closely involves its employees in its social responsibility initiatives.
3. Blue Grove has been consistently committed to social responsibility for a long time.
4. Blue Grove dedicates a substantial amount of resources to their socially responsible activities.
5. OpenLoft's company philosophy appeals to me.
6. I would be proud to work for a company with a philosophy like OpenLoft's.
7. OpenLoft probably spends a great deal of effort upholding their company philosophy.

Distractor Items

1. [Blue Grove/OpenLoft] appears to be a successful organization.
2. [Blue Grove/OpenLoft] has been in existence for a long time.

Moral Identity

See item list in Appendix B.

Communal Orientation

1. It bothers me when other people neglect my needs.
2. When making a decision, I take other people's needs and feelings into account.
3. I'm not especially sensitive to other people's feelings.*
4. I don't consider myself to be a particularly helpful person.*
5. I believe people should go out of their way to be helpful.
6. I don't especially enjoy giving others aid.*
7. I expect people I know to be responsive to my needs and feelings.
8. I often go out of my way to help another person.
9. I believe it's best not to get involved in taking care of other people's personal needs.*
10. I'm not the sort of person who often comes to the aid of others.*
11. When I have a need, I turn to others I know for help.
12. When people get emotionally upset, I tend to avoid them.*
13. People should keep their troubles to themselves.*
14. When I have a need that others ignore, I'm hurt.
15. I really care about the environment.
16. I have been known to take steps to help to preserve the environment.
17. The environment is important to me.
18. I am very passionate about environmental issues.
19. I take steps to reduce my impact on the environment, even when it inconveniences me.
20. The health of the planet matters more to me than almost any other cause.

Participant Engagement/Realism

1. I really tried to imagine I was looking for a job.
2. The information on the companies' web pages looked like it was from real web pages.
3. If I were actually looking for a job, I'd like to read information from company websites like I did in this study.

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Experimental Materials

Blue Grove CSR Vignettes

Text corresponding to each manipulation follows the formatting indicated below:
CSR-Identity Alignment – Bold
Employee CSR Involvement – Italics
<u>CSR Commitment – Underlined</u>

Condition 1 (HHH) – (227 words)

<u>Since Blue Grove was founded in 2005, we have always valued hard work, integrity, and helping others in need. We are proud to say that we have deeply-rooted commitment to give back to our communities</u> *by providing a platform for our employees to help others.* <u>For almost a decade,</u> *employees from across our entire organization have come together to sew and distribute* **clothing to individuals who cannot afford to clothe themselves. We believe that access to warm and comfortable clothing should not be an issue for anyone.**
Our local communities are vital. <u>That is why we have a longstanding</u> *partnership with our employees to develop volunteering programs intended to help communities as best we can.* <u>Shortly after Blue Grove was founded,</u> *several members of our team were inspired to create* **the Blue Grove Clothe the Community program.** *We came together to support this vision* <u>by consistently dedicating 10% of our profits each year to this important initiative.</u> *The goal of this program is* **to provide clothing for thousands of people in need** <u>every year</u>*. All of our employees have the opportunity to participate in our volunteering programs, or volunteer for the community in the way they believe is most personally meaningful to them. We also encourage our employees to share their own ideas about how we can better serve the communities in which we live and work.*

Condition 8 (LLL) – (229 words)

<u>Since Blue Grove was founded in 2005, we have always valued hard work and integrity. More recently, we have recognized the role we can play in helping others in need. We are proud to say that this year we have chosen to give back to our communities</u> *by supporting initiatives intended to help others.* <u>This year</u>*, we were approached by local representatives of Community Rescue Canada (CRC) with an invitation to participate* <u>in a new initiative intended</u> **to provide food to individuals who cannot afford to feed themselves. We believe that access to healthy food should not be an issue for anyone.**
Our local communities are vital. <u>That is why we recently</u> *partnered with CRC to support volunteering programs intended to help communities as best we can.* <u>Earlier this year,</u> *our management team agreed to endorse* <u>the launch of</u> **the Blue Grove *Feed the Community* program***. We have shown our support by* <u>setting aside almost 1% of our profits this year to trial this initiative.</u> *The goal of this program is* **to provide food for thousands of people in need***. CRC offers opportunities for individuals to volunteer in the community to make a difference in the way they believe is most personally meaningful to them. We are pleased to be partnered with an organization that seeks new ways to better serve the communities in which we live and work.*

Ethics Approval

Western Research

Western University Non-Medical Research Ethics Board
NMREB Delegated Initial Approval Notice

Principal Investigator: Prof. John Meyer
Department & Institution: Social Science\Psychology,Western University

NMREB File Number: 107150
Study Title: An Investigation of the Role of Corporate Social Responsibility Features in Attracting and Retaining Employees (Study 2)
Sponsor:

NMREB Initial Approval Date: October 09, 2015
NMREB Expiry Date: October 09, 2016

Documents Approved and/or Received for Information:

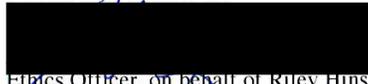| Document Name	Comments	Version Date
Instruments	Content of website used for experimental conditions	2015/08/31
Instruments	Survey items	2015/08/28
Recruitment Items		2015/08/28
Other	Debriefing form	2015/08/28
Revised Western University Protocol		2015/09/16
Revised Letter of Information & Consent		2015/09/16

The Western University Non-Medical Research Ethics Board (NMREB) has reviewed and approved the above named study, as of the NMREB Initial Approval Date noted above.

NMREB approval for this study remains valid until the NMREB Expiry Date noted above, conditional to timely submission and acceptance of NMREB Continuing Ethics Review.

The Western University NMREB operates in compliance with the Tri-Council Policy Statement Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans (TCPS2), the Ontario Personal Health Information Protection Act (PHIPA, 2004), and the applicable laws and regulations of Ontario.

Members of the NMREB who are named as Investigators in research studies do not participate in discussions related to, nor vote on such studies when they are presented to the REB.

The NMREB is registered with the U.S. Department of Health & Human Services under the IRB registration number IRB 00000941.

Ethics Officer, on behalf of Riley Hinson, NMREB Chair or delegated board member

Ethics Officer to Contact for Further Information

___ Erika Basile ebasile@uwo.ca	___ Grace Kelly grace.kelly@uwo.ca	___Mina Mekhail mmekhail@uwo.ca	___Vikki Tran vikki.tran@uwo.ca

This is an official document. Please retain the original in your files.

Curriculum Vitae

Nicholas Lane Bremner

EDUCATION

2011 – 2016   **Ph.D.**, Industrial-Organizational Psychology, The University of Western Ontario
- Thesis title: *An investigation of the role of corporate social responsibility features in attracting and retaining employees*
- Supervisor: Dr. John P. Meyer

2009 – 2011   **M.Sc.**, Management, University of Ottawa
- Thesis title: *The influence of follower behaviour on leaders' trust in followers*
- Supervisor: Dr. Laurent Lapierre

2005 – 2009   **B.A. (Honours)**, Psychology, University of Ottawa

HONOURS AND AWARDS

2015   Best Poster Award: First Place, Canadian Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology ($250)

2013 – 2015   SSHRC Doctoral Fellowship ($40,000)

2011 – 2012   Western Graduate Research Scholarship (WGRS), University of Western Ontario ($10,900 per year)

2011   Dean's Scholarship, University of Ottawa ($1,500)

2011   School of Management Research Fund (SMRF) Graduate Student Grant, University of Ottawa ($2,000)

2009   Telfer School of Management Research Scholarship, University of Ottawa ($5,000)

RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

2011 – 2016   **Research Assistant,** University of Western Ontario
- *Supervisor: Dr. John P. Meyer*
- Utilized latent profile analysis (LPA) to explore organizational commitment profiles in international and military samples
- Analyzed relationships between commitment profiles, work characteristics, and turnover intentions with a focus on theoretical contribution and practical value for client organization(s)

- Work resulted in several publications and conference presentations

2009 – 2011 **Research Assistant**, University of Ottawa
- *Principal Investigator: Dr. Jules Carrière*
- Spearheaded the construction and deployment of employee well-being survey in healthcare industry; resulted in well-received academic paper and conference presentation

2009 – 2010 **Research Assistant**, University of Ottawa
- *Lead author: Dr. Laurent Lapierre*
- Coauthored two theoretical papers examining the influence of follower behaviors on leadership style, which served as basis for Master's thesis; both papers accepted to and presented at the 2010 and 2011 Academy of Management conferences

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Fall 2014 & Winter 2015	**Lab Coordinator**, Research Methods in Psychology
Summer 2014	**Grader,** Research Methods and Statistical Analysis in Psychology
Fall 2013 & Winter 2014	**Lab Instructor**, Research Methods in Psychology
Fall 2012 & Winter 2013	**Lab Instructor,** Research Methods and Statistical Analysis in Psychology
Summer 2012	**Grader,** Psychology of People, Work, and Organizations
Fall 2011 & Winter 2012	**Lab Instructor**, Research Methods and Statistical Analysis in Psychology
Summer 2010 & 2011	**Grader**, Organizational Behaviour (Undergraduate)
Fall 2010	**Grader,** Organizational Behaviour (MBA)

CONSULTING EXPERIENCE

2012 – 2016 **Talent Management Consultant,** Carswell Partners Inc.
- Lead consultant for assessment practice
- Helped develop business to generate a significant portion of yearly revenue
- Developed and implemented rigorous and practical solutions tailored to needs of client

- Provided leadership coaching to mid- and senior-level executives in finance, entertainment, and healthcare industry
- Managed and trained three junior consultants on assessment solutions and client facing activities

2013 – 2014   **Research Analyst,** Human Resource Systems Group Ltd.
- Fulfilled contracts for clients such as the Canadian Armed Forces (CAF)
- Employed advanced statistical techniques such as latent profile analysis to gain a better understanding of organizational commitment in the military
- Analyzed qualitative data to identify predominant themes pertaining to organizational culture and working relationships among diverse groups
- Authored detailed technical reports outlining the conceptual background of the study, the analyses and results, the interpretation of the results, and supplementary documents when necessary.

2012 – 2013   **Organizational Culture and Change Project,** University of Western Ontario
- Hired by Learning and Development Services to engage in search for psychometrically sound measures of organizational culture, climate, engagement, and readiness for change
- Led a team of 10 graduate students and ensured that a timely and exhaustive literature review was conducted
- Communicated findings to Learning and Development Services staff and provided recommendations
- Providing support and expertise during vendor selection and survey development process

2009   **Organizational Engagement Consulting Project,** Foraco Canada Ltd.
- Partnered with team of students to identify client employee engagement issues through structured interviews
- Thoroughly investigated relevant literature to determine best practices suited to target industry
- Synthesized findings into technical document containing identification of strengths, potential areas for improvement, and actionable suggestions

VOLUNTEER EXPERIENCE
2011 – 2013   **Mass Testing Coordinator,** The University of Western Ontario
- Responsible for maintaining university database of internally conducted studies, updating subject pre-screening

specifications, and distributing data to faculty and graduate students

2008 – 2009   **My Neighbourhood My Voice,** University of Ottawa
- *Project leader: Dr. Elizabeth Kristjansson*
- Volunteered as an assistant in a qualitative research project
- Project goal was to provide evidence about which characteristics of Ottawa neighbourhoods are important for community health and well-being
- Provided suggestions about research methodology and worked with young children to teach them basic photography skills as a means of self-expression

PUBLICATIONS

Dhir, V. L.*, Bremner, N. L.*, Datta, S. (in press) An examination of the social-institutional, cultural, and organizational antecedents of commitment in India. In Meyer J. P. (Ed.) *Handbook of Employee Commitment*, Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar. **these authors contributed equally to this work.*

Bremner, N. L. & Goldenberg, I. (2015) Leadership, perceived organizational support, and organizational commitment in the Canadian Armed Forces: The mediating role of person-organization fit. *Turkish Journal of Sociology* 3*(31)*, 145-168.

Meyer, J. P., Kam, C., Goldenberg, I., & Bremner, N. L. (2014) Organizational Commitment in the Military: Application of a Profile Approach. *Military Psychology*, 25*(4)*, 381-401*.*

Lapierre, L. M., Bremner, N. L., & McMullan, A. (2012). Strength in Numbers: How Can a Group of Followers Influence a Leader's Charismatic Behavior? *Journal of Psychology*, 220*(4),* 251-261.

PRESENTATIONS

Bremner, N. L. (2015, August) Applying a Feature-Based Approach to Micro-level Corporate Social Responsibility Research. *Annual meeting of the Academy of Management*, Vancouver, BC.

Bremner, N. L., Daljeet, K. N., Giammarco, E. A. (2015, June) A Latent Profile Analysis of the HEXACO Model of Personality and its Implications for Counterproductive Work Behaviour and Motivation. *Annual meeting of the Canadian Psychological Association,* Ottawa, ON. ***CSIOP Best Poster Award: First Place.***

Vaters, C., Espinoza, J., Anderson, B., Eastwood, C., Bremner, N., Choi, J., & Meyer, J. (2015, June) The Personal Growth and Development Scale: Evidence of Reliability and Validity. *Annual meeting of the Canadian Psychological Association*, Ottawa, ON.

Bremner, N. L., McLarnon, M. J. W., Meyer, & J. P., Goldenberg, I. (2015, April) Commitment Profiles in the Canadian Forces: Test of Invariance and Implications for Well-being. *Annual meeting of the Society for Industrial & Organizational Psychology,* Philadelphia, PA.

Bremner, N. L., Lee, H., Rocchi, M., & Teatero, M. (2013, June) Applying to Graduate School in Psychology: A Survival Guide for Students. *Annual meeting of the Canadian Psychological Association,* Quebec City, QC.

Bremner, N. L., & Woodley, H. (2013, June) An Examination of the Big Five Personality Traits as Predictors of Attitudes Towards Teamwork. *Annual meeting of the Canadian Psychological Association*, Quebec City, QC.

Bremner, N. L., & Goldenberg, I. (2013, June) Leadership, Perceived Organizational Support, and Organizational Commitment in the Canadian Forces: The Mediating Role of Person-Organization Fit. *Annual meeting of the Administrative Sciences Association of Canada,* Calgary, AB.

Meyer, J. P., Goldenberg, I., Kam, C., & Bremner, N. L. (2013, June) A New Approach to Conceptualizing Commitment: An Analysis of Commitment "Profiles" in Canadian Forces Personnel and Implications for Retention. *Biennial meeting of the European Research Group on Military and Society*, Madrid, Spain.

Bremner, N. L., Kam, C., Meyer, J. P., & Goldenberg, I. (2013, April) An Investigation of the Generalizabiliy and Correlates of Commitment Profiles among Canadian Forces Personnel. *Annual meeting of the Society for Industrial & Organizational Psychology,* Houston, TX.

Bremner, N. L., Meyer, J. P., & Goldenberg, I. (2012, November) Toward an Understanding of the Development of "Commitment Profiles" among Canadian Forces Personnel. *Canadian Inter-University Seminar on Armed Forces and Society,* Kingston, ON.

Goldenberg, I., Meyer, J. P., & Bremner, N. L. (2012, November) The role of commitment in Canadian Forces retention research. *Canadian Inter-University Seminar on Armed Forces and Society,* Kingston, ON.

Meyer, J. P., Bremner, N. L., & Goldenberg, I. (2012, November) Commitment "profiles" in Canadian Forces personnel: Implications for retention and well-being. *Canadian Inter-University Seminar on Armed Forces and Society,* Kingston, ON.

Carsten, M. K., Lapierre, L. M., Bremner, N. L., & Uhl-Bien, M. (2012, November) Beliefs about the follower role: Implications for followers' efforts to coproduce leadership. *Annual meeting of the Southern Management Association,* Fort Lauderdale, FL.

Carrière, J., & Bremner, N. L. (2011, October) Les effets des caractéristiques du travail sur l'épuisement professionnel dans un contexte hospitalier et l'effet médiateur du sens du travail. *Annual meeting of the Association francophone de Gestion des Ressources Humaines*, Marrakech, Morocco. (Original manuscript written in English and translated by first author)

Bremner, N. L., Lapierre, L. M., & McMullan, A. (2011, August) Strength in Numbers: How Can a Group of Followers Influence a Leader's Charismatic Behavior? *Annual meeting of the Academy of Management*, San Antonio, TX.

Lapierre, L. M. and Bremner, N. L. (2010, August) Reversing the Lens: How Can Followers Influence Their Leader's Behavior? *Annual meeting of the Academy of Management*, Montreal, QC.

PROFESSIONAL SERVICE
Ad Hoc Reviewer, Military Psychology

Reviewer, Academy of Management Conference

PROFESSIONAL AFFILIATIONS
2013 – Present   **Student member**, Administrative Sciences Association of Canada (ASAC)

2013 – 2014   **Student Representative,** Canadian Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (CSIOP)

2012 – 2014   **Communications Officer**, Canadian Psychological Association (CPA)

2011 – Present   **Member,** Beta Gamma Sigma

                        Student member, Canadian Psychological Association (CPA)

                        Student member, CSIOP

2009 – Present   **Student member**, Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Inc. (SIOP)

                        Student member, Academy of Management (AoM)

GRADUATE COURSEWORK
Methodological   Multilevel Modeling (Paul Tremblay)
                        Multivariate Methods (Tony Quon)
                        Research Design Methodologies (Daniel Lane)
                        Structural Equation Modeling (Paul Tremblay)

Content Employee Engagement Strategies (Laurent Lapierre)
Foundations of Management (Swee Goh)
Innovation and the Evolution of New Markets (Mark Freel)
Motivation and Leadership (John Meyer)
Performance Appraisal and Related Issues (Rick Goffin)
Recruitment and Selection of High Potential Talent (Silvia Bonaccio)
Seminar in Evidence-Based Management (John Meyer)
Seminar in Scientist-Practitioner Gap and Related Issues (Rick Goffin)